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The Effect of Organizational Climate on Presenteeism as Moderated by Employee Personality

Iva Johan Pavlovic
Walden University

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Walden University

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Iva Johan Pavlovic

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Walden University
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Abstract

The Effect of Organizational Climate on Presenteeism as Moderated by Employee

Personality

by

Iva Johan Pavlovic

MBA, University of Liverpool, 2011

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

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Abstract

This research study was an investigation of the relationship between the five dimensions of personality, organizational climate, and presenteeism - coming to work when ill. Presenteeism has significant, negative impact on employee's long-term health, the overall organizational performance, and more broadly on national health systems. Researchers have found that in addition to financial impacts of not working while ill, antecedents of presenteeism include both personal, situational (e.g., the severity of the illness), and organizational circumstances. A systematic exploration into all five dimensions of personality and organizational climate has not been conducted to date. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between personality, as measured by the Big Five Inventory, organizational climate, as measured by the Organizational Climate Measure, and presenteeism. A survey was used to gather primary data from employees working in the UK and the Netherlands ($N = 88$). Logistic regression determined that none of expected dimensions of personality (neuroticism, conscientiousness, and extroversion) were correlated with presenteeism and, of the eight organizational climate measures, only innovation and flexibility was positively correlated with presenteeism, and integration was negatively related. Although the overall regression models failed to demonstrate any predictive relationships between personality, organizational climate, and presenteeism that were anticipated, the study provides new insights for organizational leaders on how certain aspects of organizational climate impacts employee behaviors when ill, facilitating positive social change by ensuring organizational interventions are designed with employee wellbeing in mind.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The work environment is continuously changing, and as organizations are looking for better organizational performance and optimization of their processes and policies, they are also focusing more on increasing employee wellbeing. This means that they are focused more than ever on finding the right balance, policies that work but that do not put undue pressure on the employees while positively impacting performance (Baker-McCleary et al., 2010). With the changing economic environment over the last 10 years, likely recessions with signals of economic slow-down, policies of austerity, rising inflation, and more pressure on personal finances than ever, employees are feeling pressure in the workplace. In some cases, that pressure has resulted in changes in their attitudes to being absent from work (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005). In the early 2000s coming to work when ill, a behavior known as presenteeism, became more prevalent among employees, and researchers turned to understanding the underlying causes and organizational and health impacts of this behavior. Until then, both organizational and academic research focused heavily on the construct opposite to presenteeism – absenteeism, defined as employee absence from work for either legitimate or illegitimate reasons. Although by no means a new occurrence, with stricter regulations on sickness pay, an aging workforce, and organizational policies aimed at disincentivizing work absence (Gosselin et al., 2013), employees coming to work when ill has become a more recurring behavior (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005). With this increase in occurrence came an increase in the research on the topic (Johns, 2010).

Much of the research on presenteeism to date has been conducted across two streams. One research stream focuses on defining the impact that factors such as the work environment and individual affinities have on the occurrence and frequency of presenteeism (see Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Aronsson et al., 2000, Bierla et al., 2013; Johns, 2010, 2011). The other research stream is focused mostly on understanding the impact of presenteeism on personal health, without necessarily looking at what causes it (see Kivimäki et al., 2005; Kivimäki et al., 2006). The former stream of presenteeism research, mostly out of the United Kingdom and Europe, serves as the underpinning for the literature review in this study. Several theoretical frameworks evolved out of this research stream that were reviewed in more detail in the upcoming chapters of this dissertation. One thing that these frameworks have in common is the fact that they all treat presenteeism and absenteeism as a resulting behavior after a health-related event. A person who is ill will either decide to stay home or come to work. They will make that decision based on a combination of factors, some of which are their personal circumstances and some of which are more related to their organizational context (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Bierla et al., 2013; Johns 2010, 2011). This dissertation builds on this body of research by specifically looking at the five dimensions of personality as the subset of the individual factors, and organizational climate as a more structured and holistic approach to looking at the organizational factors.

This chapter provides an overview of the literature and the ensuing problem statement. Following the background information, this chapter then presents the research questions and underlying hypothesis, the underpinning theoretical frameworks and a

definition of terms. It also briefly summarizes the nature of the study, which will be further discussed in Chapter 3. Significance as well as the assumptions and limitations of the study are also covered.

Background of the Study

Managing employee absenteeism has been a focus of both research and practice for many years. In their research review, Bierla et al. (2013) found 310 journal articles in 98 journals that have been published on the topic since 1970. Because absenteeism is an employee behavior that is highly visible and easily measurable (Aronsson & Gustafsson 2005; Johns, 2010, 2011), and is considered a precursor to employee turnover, it has for years been a focus of attention for crafting organizational policies, performance indicators, absenteeism management projects et cetera (Baker-McClearn et al., 2010; Johns, 2010, 2011). Additionally, absenteeism has more far-reaching consequences affecting not only organizations, but public and healthcare services as well. In the United Kingdom for example, it is estimated that absenteeism negatively impacts the health services with anything between 5 and 11 billion pounds a year and the United Kingdom government with an estimated 29 billion pounds a year (Baker-McClearn et al. 2010). Because absenteeism has such far reaching and visible impact on organizations and society in general, it is understandable why so much research has historically focused on understanding the antecedents, impact on organizational performance, and employee wellbeing.

Presenteeism has received less attention from researchers, possibly because its impacts on organizational performance or health services are not as overt as those of

absenteeism (Johns 2010). However, the actual impact on organizations may be higher than expected. For example, the estimated loss of productivity due to presenteeism can be 7.5 times greater than that due to absenteeism (Dixon, 2005). The impact of presenteeism on health services is likely as high as that of absenteeism; in a U.S. study Goetzel et al. (2004) found that presenteeism represents between 16-60% of the total care cost associated with just 10 of the most frequent illnesses. Presenteeism has also been found to be linked with negative health impacts on individuals. For example, Kivimäki et al. (2005) found that for employees with known health issues who took no absence days from work, the risk of serious coronary issues was twice as high as for those that took some leave.

Understanding why and when employees are likely to exhibit presenteeism or absenteeism is important for organizations, health services, and researchers alike. In the multitude of existing research, antecedents of absenteeism have received more research attention than the antecedents of presenteeism. This is particularly true when it comes to looking at how specific individual and organizational factors, such as personality or organizational climate impact, employee behavior when ill. In absenteeism research for example, Judge et al. (1997) used the five-factor personality model to explore the personality predictors of employee absenteeism and found that extraversion correlated positively with absenteeism, conscientiousness negatively correlated to it, and that neuroticism was not significantly correlated. In a study examining how organizational climate impacts work-related stress in nurses and how work-related stress subsequently impacts different withdrawal behaviors including absenteeism, Hemingway and Smith

(1999) found that certain aspects of climate such as supervisory support, work pressures, autonomy, and peer cohesion had a negative relationship with turnover intentions, although they did not directly correlate with short-term absences. In a related study of Finnish employees, Piirainen et al. (2003) found that tense and prejudiced climates were associated with a higher risk of work. Similarly, Holmgren et al. (2010) found that poor organizational climate was linked with a higher number of absence days from work. A similar body of research has not been conducted on presenteeism.

Because the two variables are so closely related, it follows that some of the antecedents of absenteeism might be similarly, although in some cases negatively, correlated to presenteeism and that frequently one behavior may be substituting the other depending on the specific organizational circumstances. Caverley et al. (2007) conducted a study on the relationship between organizational change, uncertainty, and employee behavior when ill. They found that job security, career opportunities, trust, supervisor support, and job satisfaction negatively correlated to presenteeism, and that career opportunities and job satisfaction positively correlated to absenteeism. Similarly, Johns (2011) found that task interdependence was negatively correlated to absenteeism but positively correlated to presenteeism.

Johns (2010) proposed a model in which he grouped antecedents of presenteeism into two broad categories: work related factors (e.g., job demands, job security, rewards systems, ease of replacement, teamwork, etc.) and personal factors (e.g., attitudes and traits). Johns (2011), based on this framework, found that neuroticism, absence legitimacy, and perceived level of job security were negatively correlated to

presenteeism, whereas work autonomy and conscientiousness were positively correlated to presenteeism. Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005) found that people who have issues with saying no (a trait they called boundarylessness) are more likely to exhibit presenteeism, but those with internal health and work locus of control tended to not exhibit it (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Johns, 2011). Similarly, they found that organizational pressure on employees to be present at work correlated positively with presenteeism, particularly in situations of organizational change and high uncertainty (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Johns, 2011). Furthermore, Luo et al. (2013) found that the negative effects of presenteeism on wellbeing are exacerbated by a lack of supervisory support. Biron et al. (2006) found that the quality and nature of the relationships with a supervisor were not correlated with presenteeism, but that the quality of the social relationships with colleagues was an important predictor of presenteeism.

One limitation of the research on presenteeism has been the fact that no studies reported to date have examined the relationships between all big five personality dimensions (neuroticism, extroversion, openness, conscientiousness, and agreeableness) and presenteeism as had been conducted on absenteeism. Similarly, studies on organizational climate and presenteeism were limited to only a small number of the work context factors, such as supervisory support, social relationships, and organizational pressure and did not cover innovation and flexibility, formalization, clarity of organizational goals, efficiency, et cetera.

Patterson et al. (2005) presented a model of organizational climate that is based on the competing values model, in which the dimensions of organizational climate are

measured along four quadrants: organizational flexibility versus control and internal orientation versus external. Based on the model and the existing research on presenteeism, the dimensions that need further examination include pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, effort, clarity of organizational goals, and efficiency. No studies reported to date have examined how organizational climate dimensions correlated to presenteeism or what is the moderating effect of personality on the organizational climate – presenteeism relationship.

Problem Statement

In organizations, presenteeism is sometimes difficult to quantify because it is not as overtly visible as absenteeism. If an employee is at work when they are ill, is that a good thing or is it a bad thing? Ten years ago, researchers and organizations alike were not much preoccupied with presenteeism, focusing rather on absenteeism (Johns, 2011). In organizations absenteeism is a behavior that is more clearly visible to managers and HR policymakers and is therefore easier to link to performance; if an employee is not at work, then their productivity is zero, if they are there, even if they might be sick, they are still there, so the assumption is they are doing their work. However, the growing understanding that presenteeism contributes to productivity loss at least as much, if not more, than absenteeism (Dixon, 2005), has meant that research efforts on presenteeism have increased. A growing body of evidence now exists that suggests that presenteeism not only relates to organizational performance (Johns, 2011), but also to employee

wellbeing and that it can have a lasting effect on people's long-term health (Kivimäki et al. 2005).

Existing research to date has largely focused on developing an understanding of what the overall correlates of presenteeism are and according to the frameworks that have been developed to date, all indicate that both individual and organizational factors influence presenteeism (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Gosselin et al. 2013; Johns, 2010). Although several frameworks exploring presenteeism now exists, and even though evidence from absenteeism research suggests correlations between personality, climate and absenteeism (for personality and absenteeism see Judge et al. 1997), none of the studies to date have looked at presenteeism, personality, and organizational climate in detail. More specifically, none have looked at how, and if, personality moderates the climate – presenteeism relationship.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the big five personality dimensions, including neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness with presenteeism. It also examined the relationships between eight organizational climate dimensions that make up the competing values model quadrants, including pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, integration, and efficiency with presenteeism. Finally, it explored whether personality serves to moderate the organizational climate – presenteeism relationship.

Framework

A theoretical framework for the study of presenteeism has not been constructed, although several theoretical models exist. The first theoretical model for the research on presenteeism was provided by Johns (2010) in his multidimensional dynamic model of presenteeism and absenteeism. The model outlines several different factors that correlate with presenteeism and absenteeism when a health event has occurred. These include work context, personal variables, and health factors as antecedents. The model has served as the theoretical underpinning for several research studies that built on it, most notably Johns' 2011 study and the extension of the model by Gosselin et al. (2013). Building on Johns' model, Gosselin et al. suggested that both absenteeism and presenteeism are behaviors that are the outcome of several factors including organizational, individual, sociodemographic factors triggered by a specific health problem. Whether an employee chose to exhibit absenteeism or presenteeism is dependent on a combination of factors.

A theoretical concept that will guide this study on personality is the five-factor model of personality as it is most relevant for measuring salient personality characteristics (Judge et al., 1997). According to Digman (1990) the big five model provides a sound structure that enables us to characterize, in a very broad manner, differences between individuals. The five-factor model of personality represents a model that helps organize the "language of personality" (Digman, 1990, p. 418) into a more systematic taxonomy of constructs (Millon et al., 2003). The five-factor model has been a point of research for many years, and although not all researchers to date agree on some of the definitions, there is general agreement that there are five personality dimensions

that can help organize personality traits and concepts (Dingman, 1990). The factors of the big five are neuroticism, extraversion, openness (to experience), agreeableness and conscientiousness (McCrae & Costa, 1989). The five-factor model is seen as a model that brings a level of consistency in a research area that has, for years, been full of debate (Millon et al., 2003), and it gives practitioners the opportunity to use a widely accepted model in circumstances when they need to explain and understand personality as a factor influencing certain behaviors (Dingman, 1990).

The final theoretical framework is that of organizational climate, which has been conceptualized as a set of characteristics, distinct to an organization, which are expressed through the employees' perceptions of the organization and the work environment (Patterson et al., 2005). The competing values theory was developed on the proposition that all forms of organizational effectiveness, leadership, and performance can be organized along four basic, yet competing, dimensions: flexibility versus control and internal versus external orientation (Patterson et al., 2005). Using the competing values model to define the dimensions of organizational climate, that are anchored in organizational rather than psychological variables, Patterson et al. (2005) proposed using the conceptual four quadrant map as a basic structure for a multidimensional climate measure. The four quadrants are: human relations (internal focus, flexible orientation), internal process (internal focus, control orientation), open systems (external focus, flexible orientation), and rational goal (external focus, control orientation). Climate research suggests a link between organizational climate and organizational outcomes. For example, in organizational climates that are perceived to be involving, because

employees participate in decision making processes, supervisors are more likely to report higher levels of organizational performance (Brown & Leigh, 1996). There is even a study that found that in organizations where supervisory support is high, the negative effects of presenteeism on employees' wellbeing and stress levels are likely to be lower (Luo et al., 2013).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: What is the predictive relationship of the five dimensions of personality: neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness to presenteeism among employees?

H₀1: Neuroticism is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a1: Neuroticism is a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀2: Agreeableness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a2: Agreeableness is a predictor presenteeism.

H₀3: Conscientiousness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a3: Conscientiousness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀4: Extraversion is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a4: Extraversion is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀5: Openness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a5: Openness in not a predictor of presenteeism.

Research Question 2: What is the predictive relationship of the climate dimensions of welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support,

pressure to produce, integration, formalization, and efficiency to presenteeism among employees?

H₀6: High levels of welfare are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a6: High levels of welfare are a not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀7: High levels of autonomy are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a7: High levels of autonomy are a not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀9: High levels of supervisory support are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a9: High levels of supervisory support are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀10: High levels of pressure to produce are not a predictor presenteeism.

H_a10: High levels of pressure to produce are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀11: High levels of integration are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a11: High levels of integration are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀12: High levels of formalization are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a12: High levels of formalization are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀13: High levels of efficiency are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a13: High levels of efficiency are a predictor of presenteeism.

Research Question 3: What is the moderating effect of personality dimensions on the relationship between the different dimensions of organizational climate and presenteeism among employees?

H₀14: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a14: Neuroticism does moderate on the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀15: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a15: Neuroticism does moderate the relationship between the welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H₀16: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a16: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀17: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a17: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study is quantitative correlational, nonexperimental, and cross-sectional survey design. The quantitative correlational nature is appropriate to the purpose of the study because I was exploring the relationship between the independent variables employee personality and organizational culture on presenteeism, the dependent variable, without inferring causation.

The instruments that were used in this study have been defined based on previous research. Personality was measured using the Big Five Inventory (John et al., 1991). The Big Five Inventory (BFI) and the NEO Personality Inventory – Revised (NEO-FFI-3) (Costa & McCrae, 1992) are the two most widely used personality measures in reviewed research, the BFI was chosen because it is shorter than the NEO-FFI-3 but has equally good psychometric properties. The BFI was developed in the 1990s by John and colleagues specifically because they were looking for a reliable yet short measure of personality (Rammstedt & John, 2007).

Organizational climate was measured using Patterson et al.'s (2005) Organizational Climate Measure (OCM) which focuses on the organizational context of climate and enables researchers to test relationships between climate and contexts of organizational effectiveness. The OCM consists of 17 individual dimensions of organizational climate, eight of which I used in this study, including pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, integration, formalization, and efficiency. Internal consistency ranges from .67 to .91. The researchers also tested the generalizability of the results by testing the instrument across different types of jobs, and found indices had an identical fit across all four tested job groups.

An instrument specifically designed for only measuring occurrence of presenteeism measuring presenteeism does not exist. In most cases, presenteeism is measured by using one or two questions in which employees are asked whether they have gone to work when ill over a time period, usually three or four months. In some cases, this also includes a question on how frequently they did that. After a review of multiple

presenteeism measures outlined in the 2015 review conducted by Dennett and Thompson, this was the approach that was used in this study. The question was adapted from the Aronsson et al.'s 2000 study, and participants were asked how many times in the last six months they went to work when ill.

Definitions

Absenteeism: Being absent from work, particularly when there is no legitimate reason to do so.

Autonomy (organizational climate): the measure of how much agency employees have in making and enacting decisions

Efficiency (organizational climate): the measure of how well work is organized and how effective processes are.

Five-Factor-Model: Refers to a personality model in which personality traits are grouped in five categories, also referred to as the big five. The five factors of personality are: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.

Innovation and flexibility (organizational climate): measure of how open to change and new ideas an organization is.

Formalization (organizational climate): the measure of the organizational concern with rules, regulations and processes.

Integration (organizational climate): the measure of trust and collaboration between departments.

Organizational climate: A view of the employees' perceptions of the properties of the organization they work for. Organizational climate is largely defined as a set of perceptions and feelings that individual members attach to specific dimensions of their organizations and workplace.

Organizational culture: Based on Needle's (2004) definition, organizational culture is a set of values, beliefs and principles shared by members of an organization.

Organizational performance: refers to the outputs of an organization and is usually measured against a set of goals and performance indicators.

Personality: Refers to individual differences in the patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. In this study personality was measured through a person's personality traits

Personality traits: Refers to a person's characteristic pattern of attitudes, behaviors, feelings, and thoughts that can be measured consistently over time.

Presenteeism: Although there are multiple definitions of presenteeism, for the purpose of this study the definition refers simply to the act of being present at work when ill or when other, legitimate, reasons exist for one to be absent from work (e.g., illness of a child).

Pressure to produce (organizational climate): the measure of how much pressure employees are put under to produce and meet targets.

Productivity: Refers to an individual employee's work output.

Supervisory support (organizational climate): the measure of the employee support from their supervisor.

Welfare (organizational climate): measure of how much the organization values its employees.

Withdrawal behavior: Actions that an employee may exhibit when they are disengaged from work. Withdrawal behaviors include absenteeism, being frequently late to work and ultimately turnover. Employees may also become passive or do the minimum required for their work.

Significance

By examining whether employee personality and organizational climate correlate to presenteeism, this dissertation contributes to the existing body of research by focusing on two under-researched areas. Although individual personality factors have been parts of several studies, no one study has focused on examining all the five personality traits. For practitioners and researchers alike, the results of the study might provide guidance on how to design effective policies and define practices that recognize and mitigate the negative effects of presenteeism. Encouraging and training managers to pay more attention to presenteeism and to encourage people to take time off when they are ill could be a simple way of changing attitudes in employees, particularly as conscientiousness is likely to promote presenteeism behavior. The study also provides insights into which elements of organizational climate help contribute to presenteeism that might then allow for the development of strategies that drive specific behaviors to embed climate dimensions that may be associated with lower levels of presenteeism. Focusing on specific elements of climate, such as flexibility and clarity of goals, may help alleviate some of the pressure on employees who feel that they are not easily replaceable or who

are under pressure to produce. This can be achieved both through policies and through the development of managerial and supervisor training with a focus on how to provide support to employees.

In 1994 World Health Organization (WHO) published a recommendation in which they stated that employee health and safety are considered a basic human right (WHO, 1994). Employee wellbeing is an important aspect of that occupational health and this study, and its findings can help drive positive social change. Positive social change is marked by an improvement in quality of life of an individual, community, family, and organizations. Because presenteeism has been shown to have a negative impact on long-term health issues at the individual level, awareness and organizational policies that do not focus on rewarding the wrong behaviors but focus instead on developing practices that support employees can have a profound effect on individuals, their families, and the communities in which they work.

Assumptions and Limitations

The first assumption in this study is that the participants reported their days when working when ill and answered all the survey questions truthfully. It is also assumed that the instruments and measures chosen in this study were appropriate for measuring personality and organizational climate. This also means that any limitations that apply to the BFI and the OCM also apply to this study.

The scope of this study was the correlation of personality and organizational climate on presenteeism in full time employees, working in mid-size organizations in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, whose sick leave is paid either due to government

regulations (Netherlands) or a combination of government regulation and company policy (United Kingdom). One of the limitations of the study pertains to the generalizability of data; generalizability is limited to the population with the same characteristics as the study sample.

Lastly, some of the limitations of the study are a direct result of the chosen design – correlational nonexperimental, and cross-sectional. For correlations studies, the purpose is to explore the correlations between variables, and I was therefore not able to infer causation from this study. The nonexperimental design, the convenience sampling in particular, also means that the sample may not be representative of the total working population. Additionally, because occurrences of presenteeism are self-reported over a period of 6 months, I was relying on the memory of the participants to correctly remember if and when they came to work when ill, their recall may have been biased or inaccurate.

Summary

Coming to work when ill can be impacted by many factors. Organizations attempting to deal with high instances of absenteeism may put in place policies that then drive presenteeism. However, there is a growing awareness that employees who are at work when they are ill may not be working at peak capacity, impacting productivity even when they are present (Admasachew & Dawson, 2011). Researchers have suggested that irrespective of their performance, people are likely to be compelled to come to work because of the way work is organized. For example, if there is no one to do the work while they are away (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005) or if they lack supervisory support

(Luo et al. 2013). Other researchers have suggested that employees' personal circumstances are likely to be even more highly correlated, and that some dimensions of personality, like neuroticism, are positively correlated with presenteeism (Luo et al., 2013).

Chapter 1 provided an introductory overview of the topic, the purpose of the study and the research questions and underlying hypothesis. Chapter 2 will now turn to an exhaustive literature review. It begins with a review of studies on antecedents of absenteeism, a related but opposite form of employee behavior, and then moves on to a review of the existing studies on presenteeism that served as the theoretical underpinning for this study. Lastly, Chapter 2 also includes a discussion on personality and organizational climate, the independent variables in this study, in context of employee behaviors when ill.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology and discusses the appropriateness of the chosen research design for answering the research questions in this study. It includes a section on the sample and the sampling method, as well as an overview of how data were collected and analyzed, as well as the ethical considerations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This study focuses on examining personal and organizational drivers of presenteeism. Specifically, I first examined the correlation between the big five personality dimensions (neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness) and presenteeism. Second, I assessed the potential relationships between eight organizational climate dimensions (pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, integration, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, and efficiency) with presenteeism (see Patterson et al., 2005). Finally, I explored whether personality serves to moderate the relationship between organizational climate and presenteeism.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the relevant literature on presenteeism and the related behavior, absenteeism, in order to provide theoretical grounding for the study. Of particular interest in this context are factors that contribute to absenteeism and/or presenteeism. The chapter begins with an overview of antecedents of absenteeism and then provides a review of existing models of presenteeism that serve as the conceptual framework for the study. The five-factor model of personality and the construct and theoretical underpinnings of organizational climate will be examined in relation to employee behaviors when ill.

Bierla et al. (2012) and Johns (2011) have argued that presenteeism and absenteeism are essentially interrelated. For example, following a health-related event, an employee will either choose to come to work when ill or will choose not to; in more extreme instances of absenteeism, employees will stay away from work even when no

objective, health-related reason exists. The extensive research on absenteeism shows clear links between organizational climate factors as well as personality and individual factors and their correlation with absenteeism behavior. As the two are related, it is reasonable to postulate that presenteeism may also be related to organizational climate and dimensions of personality. Early frameworks for the study of presenteeism, proposed by Johns (2011) and by Aronsson and Gustafson (2005), posited that both personal and organizational factors are likely to influence employee decisions to work when they are ill, although none of the frameworks focus on climate and personality specifically, but rather only elements of personality (for example only one or two dimensions) or work-related factors, without looking at climate as a construct.

The review in this chapter will show that little research exists on the correlation of personality and organizational climate on presenteeism, and that there is a significant gap regarding whether the correlation of organizational climate on presenteeism is moderated by personality. Thus, further research is warranted. In this chapter, I reviewed the existing research on presenteeism and the related construct of absenteeism, as well as personality and organizational climate. I also covered an in-depth review of the theoretical concepts and frameworks underpinning this study.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature search for this study consisted of a comprehensive review of recent scholarly articles published mostly between 2005 and 2018, as well as a review of seminal articles published in previous years, reaching as far back as 1977. The main search engines used for the research were the Walden University Library and Google

Scholar to identify articles. Databases that were reviewed include: PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, PsycTESTS, PsycBOOKS, Sage Premier, ProQuest Central, Business Source Complete, Emerald Management, Academic Search Complete, Mental Measurements Yearbook with Tests in Print, SocINDEX with full text, Sage Full-text Collections.

The initial search was conducted using five key words: *presenteeism*, *personality*, *organizational culture*, *organizational climate*, and antecedents of with and without various Boolean operators. The search was subsequently expanded based on resources identified in the references sections of the initially identified articles, as well as based on the key words identified by the authors of research articles. This process led to a wider list of keywords that include the theoretical contexts, *absenteeism* and *presenteeism*, related employee behaviors (like *withdrawal*) and the proposed analytical methodology: *presenteeism*, *absenteeism*, *antecedents of absenteeism*, *antecedents of presenteeism*, *job performance*, *personality*, *five dimensions of personality*, *five-factor model of personality*, *Big Five Inventory*, *trait theory*, *organizational climate*, *organizational culture*, *competing values model*, *work context*, *withdrawal behavior*, *organizational climate measure*, *organizational policy*, *absence policy*, *sick-leave*, *withdrawal from work*, *turnover*, *work context*, *employee wellbeing*, *employee absence*, *work absence*, *multiple regression*, and *moderation*. The scope of the literature review included research studies from 1975 to 2018 to ensure that both seminal and recent work were included.

Presenteeism

Presenteeism can simply be defined as coming to work when ill (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Aronsson et al., 2000; Johns, 2010) although the term has also been

used to define at least nine different occurrences and behaviors that are all mostly related to being present at work in various circumstances (Johns, 2010). The definition of *presenteeism* in this study was: attending work while ill. I chose this definition because it was used by both Johns (2010; 2011) and Aronsson et al. (2000) who presented the early conceptual frameworks and models for presenteeism.

As has been noted before, presenteeism has received less attention than the related construct of absenteeism from researchers and practitioners alike, possibly because its effects on organizational performance are not as overt as those of absenteeism. However, the actual impact of presenteeism may be far reaching. In addition to financial impacts to health and welfare systems (Baker-McCleary et al., 2010), as well as a negative impact on organizational performance due to the loss of productivity (Dixon, 2005), presenteeism has been found to be linked with negative health impacts on individuals. For example, Kivimäki et al. (2005) found that for employees with known health issues who took no absence days from work, the risk of serious coronary issues was twice as high as for those that took some leave.

Presenteeism - Theoretical Frameworks

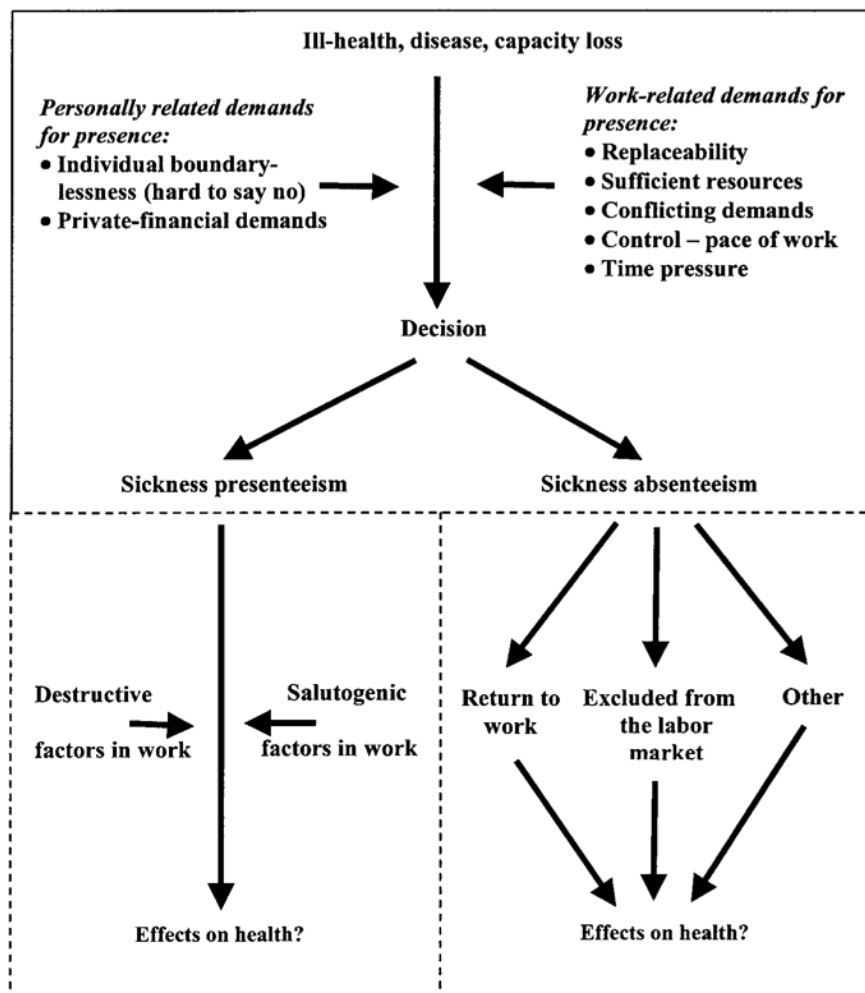
In literature, the theoretical framework for studying presenteeism is a developing work. The first model, relevant to this study, was presented by Aronsson and Gustafsson in their 2005 study in which they set out to outline a model for future research. In more recent years both Johns (2011) and Gosselin et al. (2013) have developed the model further. The main differences in the three models that I have reviewed in this section is that Johns alone includes consequences of presenteeism (for example productivity loss,

downstream health etc.) in his model. All three models however include form of personal and organizational factors that have presenteeism (or absenteeism) as the resulting behavior.

The first model for the study of presenteeism was presented by Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005). In their study they identified two groups of determinants of presenteeism and absenteeism. According to Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005), the first was a group of factors the called “personally-related demands for presence” and the second a group of factors called “work-related demands for presence” (p. 964). The authors identified several factors that are likely to have a higher effect on the possibility of exhibiting presenteeism, such as conflicting demands at work, high work pressures or not having someone at work who can complete the tasks while the employee is away (see Figure 1). Both are work related, organizational factors. Although their model does cover the effect of the decision to come to work when ill on future health, the authors note that additional research is needed to further examine the implications.

Figure 1

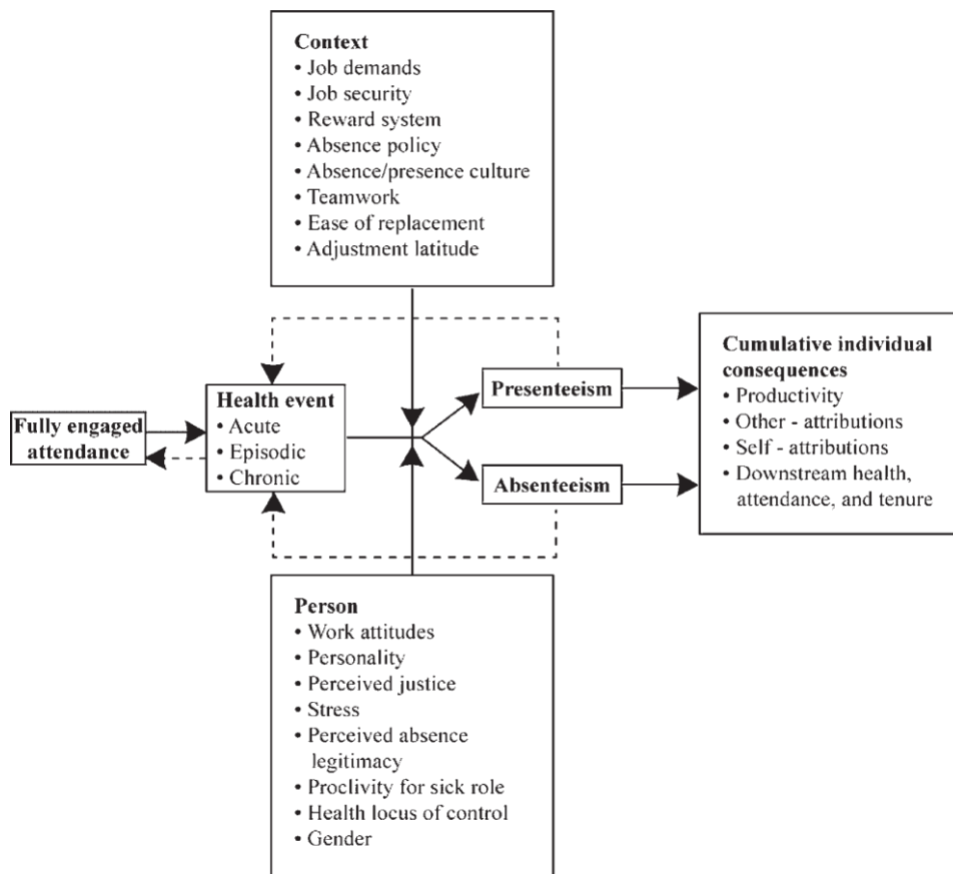
Aronsson and Gustafsson's Model for Research of Presenteeism



Note. From “Prevalence, attendance-pressure factors, and an outline of a model for research” by G. Aronsson and K. Gustafsson, 2010, *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 47(9), p. 964. Copyright 2010 by American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine. Reprinted with permission.

Building on the work by Aronsson and Gustafsson, Johns (2010) proposed a framework model for presenteeism and absenteeism that will form the basis for this

study. In his model, he grouped antecedents of presenteeism into two broad categories: work related factors (e.g., job demands, job security, rewards systems, ease of replacement, teamwork, etc.) and personal factors (e.g., attitudes, personality and traits). According to Johns, when a health event occurs the employee will either exhibit absenteeism or presenteeism. However, extending beyond the previous framework, Johns posited that the type of the health event itself may be a determining factor (See Figure 2). For example, if an employee presents with an acute or severe illness that is debilitating, they may not have much choice about not coming to work. However, when the health event is not as severe or debilitating, context and personal factors will play a key role in determining whether an employee will go to work (Hansen and Andersen, 2005; Johns, 2011).

Figure 2*Johns' Model of Presenteeism and Absenteeism*

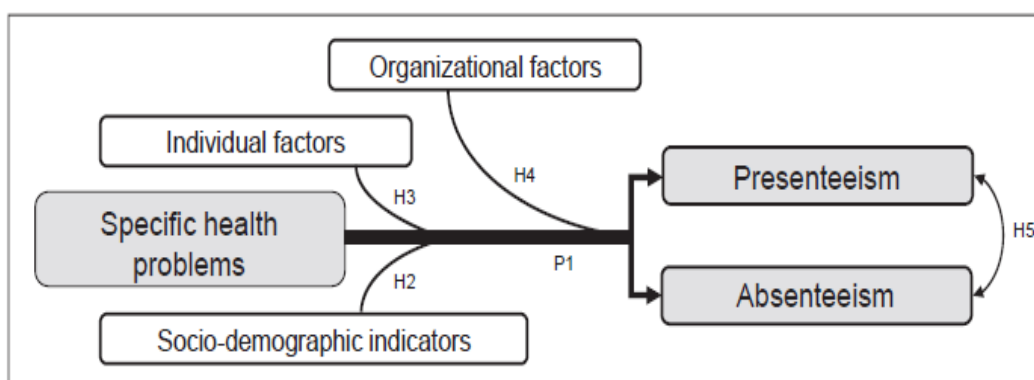
Note. From “Presenteeism in the workplace: A review and research agenda” By G. Johns, 2010, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(4), p 519. Copyright 2009 by Wiley & Sons Ltd. Reprinted with permission.

Gosselin et al. (2013) also proposed a conceptual model for presenteeism and absenteeism. Like Johns' model, Gosselin et al. suggest that both organizational factors and individual factors correlate to both presenteeism and absenteeism behaviors. They note however that the nature of the health problem is likely to be a very strong determining factor of that behavior. If health problems are the key triggers for

absenteeism and presenteeism and subsequent productivity loss, the researchers focused on identifying the nature of the illnesses that are more likely to result with one or the other. Gosselin et al.'s model also expands the study of presenteeism and absenteeism antecedents to include sociodemographic indicators.

Figure 3

Gosselin, Lemyre and Corneil Model of Presenteeism and Absenteeism Behaviors



Note. “Presenteeism and absenteeism: Differentiated understanding of related phenomena” By E. Gosselin, L. Lemyre, and W. Corneil, 2013, *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(1), p 77. Copyright 2013 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

In all three of these three models, personality was not researched extensively as a possible antecedent of presenteeism. All three of the frameworks mentioned individual factors and do touch on elements of personality as one of the contributing factors, but personality as such has not been researched extensively as a possible antecedent. Similarly, although the frameworks name work related factors as antecedents of presenteeism, organizational climate has not been used as a theoretical framework for the study of presenteeism.

Presenteeism and Absenteeism – A Related Behavior

Johns (2010) noted that presenteeism could be standing somewhere between full work engagement and absenteeism. He also noted that there is evidence that absenteeism and presenteeism might be an opposite reaction to a shared common cause (Johns, 2010). Similarly, Caverley et al. (2007) and Halbesleben et al. (2014) have argued that whether an employee chooses to exhibit presenteeism over absenteeism, they are doing so because of the context surrounding the event, for example Halbesleben et al. argued that choosing absenteeism over presenteeism and vice versa may be a strategy that employees use to navigate their relationships with their supervisors. Dew et al. (2005) have also suggested that it is possible that some factors that constrain absenteeism might lead to presenteeism, and that the context in which one or the other is exhibited is the key contributing factor. This could therefore partially be used to explain why, in certain instances, measures that organizations put in place to deal with absenteeism, usually aimed at driving absenteeism down, could in fact drive the instances of presenteeism up (Johns, 2010). When it comes to the understanding of the possible antecedents of presenteeism, and in particular because of the higher prevalence of research on absenteeism, in this literature review I focused first on the known antecedents of absenteeism.

Absenteeism Antecedents

In general, employees will stay from work due to voluntary and/or involuntary factors (Martimo, 2006). Involuntary absenteeism is the term used to describe absence from work when ill, or when issues such as family illness and other uncontrollable events prevent employees from coming to work. These reasons are usually perceived as

legitimate by both employers and employees (Martimo, 2006). Voluntary absenteeism refers to absence due to reasons that an employee has control over, but they still chose to stay away from work (Martimo, 2006). These also usually refer to absences in which employees chose to stay away from work for reasons that the employer might view as illegitimate (Bierla et al., 2013), for example, calling in sick when there is no legitimate illness, or in more severe cases, just not showing up for work.

There are many factors that contribute to absenteeism, and they range from personal, socio-demographic to organizational factors. Gosselin et al. (2013) note that, to this day, absenteeism has remained to be a significant issue for organizations, irrespective of the large volume of research on the topic or the large number of policies in place to control it. They identify five key determinants of absenteeism behavior: socio-demographic indicators, personality, workplace behavior, social context, and the decision process leading to absenteeism being exhibited. Irrespective of the amount of research on the topic and the various models developed to explain absenteeism, however, significant limitations when it comes to the predictive ability of these models remain (Gosselin et al., 2013; Harrison & Martocchio, 1998).

Steers and Rhodes (1978) categorized factors that influence absenteeism into two distinct areas: motivational factors (voluntary absenteeism) and simple ability to come to work (involuntary absenteeism). Furthermore, research has shown that employees' attitudes, their beliefs, and characteristics are more likely to impact their voluntary absence (Sagie, 1998; Wegge et al., 2007). This is in line with Johns' study in which he found that personal factors are likely to trigger absenteeism (Johns 2010; 2011).

When it comes to work context factors, the research on what contributes to absenteeism is quite extensive. Tenure can play an important role in decreasing absenteeism (Keller, 1983; Spencer & Steers, 1980), as can role seniority (Bierla et al., 2013). Job insecurity, on the other hand, was found to be positively correlated with absenteeism (Aronsson et al., 2005; Johns, 2011). This was supported in previous work by Beale and Nethercott (1988) who found evidence that in cases of high job uncertainty, employees are likely to exhibit higher levels of absenteeism and that this is linked to higher than normal levels of stress (Kivimäki et al., 2000). Financial impact to the employee also plays an important determining role on absenteeism; when the perceived cost of absenteeism is high, the incidence of absenteeism goes down (Bierla et al., 2013).

Organizational Contexts and Absenteeism

Hemingway and Smith (1999) examined how organizational climate correlates to work-related stress in nurses and, consequently, how work-related stress correlates to different types of withdrawal behaviors, including absenteeism. They found that although certain aspects of climate, such as supervisory support, work pressures, autonomy, and peer cohesion were not directly correlated with short-term work absence, they did have a negative relationship with turnover intentions. In a related study of Finnish employees, Piirainen et al. (2003) found that organizational climates that were perceived by employees as being tense and prejudiced were associated with a higher risk of work absence than those deemed by participants to be relaxed and supportive. Similarly, Holmgren et al. (2010) measured whether employees who deemed the organizational

climate was 'poor' were on in a cohort of sick-listed employees and found that poor organizational climate was linked with a higher number of absence days from work.

Absenteeism and personality. Specific research studies on the relationship between personality and work absence are not numerous, although evidence suggests that absenteeism is likely driven by individual factors (Ones et al., 2003) and that people who have exhibited absenteeism in the past are more likely to do it again (Keller, 1983). Ones et al. (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 studies intended to identify whether integrity tests, both overt and personality-based ones, could be used to predict absenteeism behavior in employees. The researchers found that the validity of personality tests in predicting absenteeism is both sizeable and generalizable. (Ones et al., 2003).

The one major study that was focused on exploring the links between the five dimensions of personality and absenteeism was conducted by Judge et al. (1997). The authors used the five-factor personality model to explore the personality predictors of employee absenteeism. They found positive correlations between extroversion and absenteeism, and negative correlations between conscientiousness and absenteeism. Contrary to their original hypothesis however, they found no correlation between neuroticism and absenteeism.

Hypothesizing that agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability will predict counterproductive work behaviors, of which absenteeism was one, Salgado (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of U.S. and European studies on personality counter productivity. They found however that none of the five dimensions of personality

correlated with absenteeism. It is important to note that the analysis mentioned did not include the Judge et al. 1997 study.

In reviewing literature, individual factors influencing absenteeism behaviors cover multiple variables and are not limited only to personality. For example, job satisfaction, commitment and psychological stress (Gosselin et al., 2013) or internal health locus of control, family to work conflict, or the perceived legitimacy of absence (Johns, 2011) were all related to exhibiting absenteeism. Punnet et al. (2007) also found that individuals with lower organizational commitment and low job satisfaction are more likely to exhibit absenteeism, highlighting the fact that individual drivers are likely to have a large impact on prevalence of absenteeism.

Presenteeism antecedents

Based on current research, the antecedents of presenteeism can be broadly categorized into several groups of factors. These categories include organizational factors (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Hansen & Andersen, 2008; Johns, 2010, 2011), individual factors such as personality (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005, Hansen & Anderson, 2008; Johns, 2010, 2011), socio-demographic factors (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005, Gosselin et al., 2013) and lastly health-related issues (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Gosselin et al., 2013). These categories are considered in detail below.

Presenteeism and organizational factors. Irrespective of the categorizations, many predictors of presenteeism have been identified. These include perceived level of security of employment (Caverley et al., 2007; Johns, 2011; Hansen & Andersen, 2008), supervisory support (Hansen & Andersen, 2008; Luo et al., 2013), cohesion (Dew et al.,

2005), work control, intragroup conflict (Gosselin et al., 2013) age and gender (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Gosselin et al., 2013) job satisfaction (Caverley et al., 2007), task interdependence and absence legitimacy (Johns, 2011).

Several organizational factors can have an impact on whether employees come to work when they are ill. The most obvious factor perhaps is the organizational or national policies regarding how sick days are paid. There is evidence in U.S. based studies, where sick days are frequently unpaid or limited, that the main driver for presenteeism could indeed be financial (Prater & Smith, 2011). However, even in the US, as in other countries where sick leave is paid, such as the Netherlands, UK, and Scandinavia, job security may play an important role in the prevalence of presenteeism (Caverley et al., 2007; Johns, 2011). This is particularly impactful when the individual's financial situation is poor (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005). Not only is job security in the current organization an important factor in predicting presenteeism, but Caverley et al. (2007) found that good career opportunities and progression are negatively correlated with presenteeism.

The perception of the legitimacy of absence, whether personal or organizational, has also been found to negatively correlate to presenteeism to Johns (2011). To cope with high levels of absenteeism many organizations have put in place incentives that may reward employees that do not take many absence days. These types of policies, combined with organizational pressure on employees to be present at work, correlated positively with presenteeism, particularly in situations of organizational change and high levels of uncertainty (Caverley et al., 2007; Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Johns, 2011).

Organizational and supervisory support, as well as the support of colleagues, correlate with presenteeism behavior. Luo et al. (2013) found that the negative effects of presenteeism on wellbeing are exacerbated by a lack of supervisory support. Biron et al. (2006) found that the quality and nature of the relationships with a supervisor were not correlated with presenteeism, but that the quality of the social relationships with colleagues was an important predictor of presenteeism. Similar findings on the pressure from colleagues as a factor driving presenteeism behavior was found by Grinyer and Singleton (2000). Caverley et al. (2007) have a slightly opposed view however as they found that supervisor support was correlated, negatively, to presenteeism. Similarly, in their study of 1065 white collar workers in Italy, Mazzetti et al. (2019) found that employees that exhibit high levels of workaholism are less likely to exhibit presenteeism if they have a supportive and protective manager. Task interdependence Johns (2011) can be positively correlated to presenteeism and in situations where work is likely to accumulate if an employee is away, it is more likely that people will exhibit presenteeism (Aronsson et al., 2000).

Presenteeism and personality. Regarding the five major dimensions of personality, no study to date has focus on examining the links between all five factors and presenteeism. In truth, personality research on presenteeism is very limited. Johns (2011) found that neuroticism is negatively correlated to presenteeism, whereas conscientiousness was positively related to presenteeism. Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005) found that people who have issues with saying no (boundarylessness) are more likely to exhibit presenteeism.

In 2016 Cooper and Lu extended the existing research on presenteeism and psychosocial contexts. In their proposed model they note that personality is one of the person variables that makes up the sociocognitive determinants of presenteeism. They also note in their study that research to date has not truly addressed the psychosocial process leading to the act of presenteeism.

Presenteeism and health-related factors. Health-related factors feature in both Johns' (2010) and Gosselin et al.'s (2013) model and to an extent are mentioned as an influencing factor by Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005). The nature of the health event, for example whether it is acute, chronic or episodic (Johns, 2010) can be a contributing factor to presenteeism or absenteeism. Johns (2011) suggests that an acute presentation of an illness, such as a stomach flu, will more likely result in absenteeism, whereas early diagnosis of a chronic disease such as diabetes might result in presenteeism as it is not seen as a legitimate reason to stay away from work (Johns, 2011).

Gosselin et al. (2013) discuss the 'predictability' of presenteeism and absenteeism and suggest that presenteeism is likely to be more easily predictable. They note that the nature of the health issue plays a particularly important role in this. Their research shows that of the 12 health variables they researched, seven were linked to presenteeism: feeling faint or dizzy, chest pains, sleep issues, hospitalization, use of employee assistance programs, seeking professional help for psychological issues, and asthma and breathing difficulties, and only one was linked to absenteeism, use of prescriptions medication.

The Five Factor Model of Personality

Personality has been identified as a determinant in both absenteeism and presenteeism studies (Aronsson et al., 2010, Gosselin et al., 2013, Johns, 2010). In the development of a structured approach to the study of personality the five-factor model, although not without issues, has been accepted as a model that is widely used and whose generalizability has been demonstrated (Goldberg 1990). The five-factor model describes and classifies personality traits (McCrae & Costa, 1989) into five dimensions:

Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness.

Judge et al. (1997) note that although the five-factor model is widely used in personality psychology, the use in research in organizational psychology is relatively low even though there is evidence that some of the dimensions of personality can be used as predictors of job performance. For example, in a study conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991) the researchers found that conscientiousness was a strong predictor for all the job performance measures used across a variety of occupations, while for the remaining four dimensions the correlations were dependent on the occupations and on the different job performance factors. These studies show evidence that warrants the inclusion of the five-factor model in the study of the antecedents of presenteeism.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate and organizational culture are two constructs that are used to describe the environment and characteristics of the organizations people work in (Schneider et al., 2013). Organizational culture represents the shared values and beliefs of

an organization, that have formed over time and that are manifested in all aspects of organizational life (Ehrhart & Schneider, 2016). Schein (2010) notes that these characteristics usually have been proven over time and are persistent and are therefore passed on to new organizational members as a set of values and ways of thinking about external and internal dealings. Organizational climate is defined by Ehrhart et al. (2013, p. 2) as “the shared meaning that organizational members attach to the events, policies, practices, and procedures they experience and the behaviors they see being rewarded, supported, and expected.” By this definition organizational climate is as much about the meaning that employees attach to different organizational contexts as it is about what they think the organization ‘expects’ of them in terms of their behaviors. Forehand and Von Haller (1964) suggested that organizational climate has an influencing factor over people’s behavior in an organization. It is therefore likely that these perceptions will determine how people behave when faced with a health-event; will they stay at home or will they decide to come to work when ill. The distinction between organizational climate and organizational culture is important in the context of this study. Although both climate and culture are likely to influence presenteeism behaviors, climate is more immediate, more situational and can be more easily influenced by individuals in organizations that have power and influence (Denison, 1996), such as leaders, managers and even organizational policies.

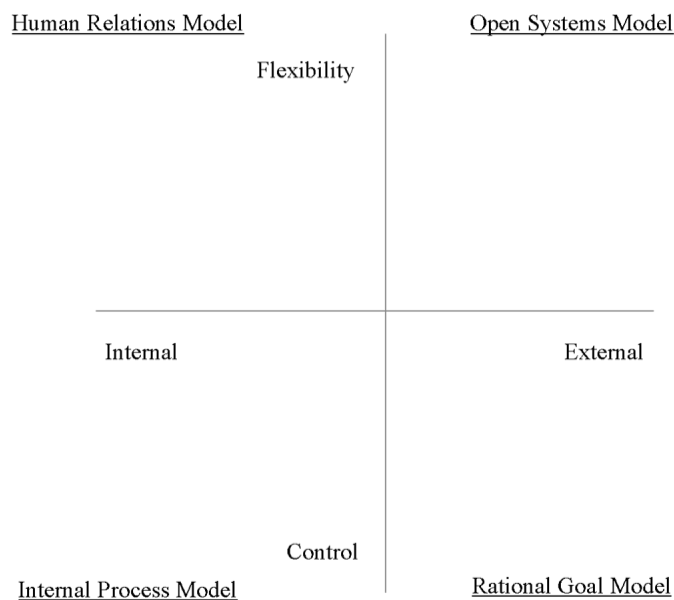
Organizational climate is largely measured through perceptions and feelings that individual members attach to a specific dimension of work. One of the key debates in early climate research however is whether climate is a set of perceptions that are shared

among a group of employees, or whether it is a shared set of conditions (Denison, 1996). Denison states that this ‘debate’ highlights the extent to which climate needs to refer to both the conditions in an organization, as well as the individual perceptions. James and Jones (1974) also note that by just focusing on the individual meaning assigned to work situations we are effectively only measuring psychological climate, defined as an individual’s perception of the environment in which they work and their own experiences at work (Bantes et al., 2009). When measuring organizational climate, James and Jones (1974) suggest, care should be taken to differentiate it from psychological climate, and to focus on measures that measure organizational rather than individual attributes.

The need for climate researchers to focus on aggregated, group level data and a multi-dimensional measurement approach is also noted by Schneider and Reichers (1983). They state that this is necessary for researchers being able to find meaningful relationships between organizational outcomes and perceptions. Therefore, I have chosen, as the foundation for examining the relationship between organizational climate and presenteeism, the model of organizational climate formulated by Patterson et al. (2005). The model examines organizational climate at the aggregated level, rather than at the individual level. The model also takes a multidimensional approach to measuring organizational climate. It is grounded in the competing values model that organizes dimensions of organizational effectiveness along four dimensions, or quadrants: flexibility versus control, to describe structure, and internal versus external orientation, to describe focus (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

Figure 4

Quinn and Rohrbaugh's Competing Values Model



Note. “A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. “R.E. Quinn and J. Rohrbaugh, 1983, *Management Science*, 29(3), p. 367. Copyright 1983 by Informs. Adapted with permission.

The competing values model allows organizations to understand that values that exist in organizations can frequently be opposing, and that the strength of the organization may not be in its values being all concentrated in one quadrant (Patterson et al., 2005) but rather that balance is almost a prerequisite to organizational strength (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; see Figure 4). The Patterson et al. model groups 16 organizational climate dimensions into the four domains, each corresponding to the competing values quadrants (Patterson et al., 2005). The Human Relations Model domain (internal focus, flexible orientations) comprises of the autonomy, supervisory support,

integration, welfare, training, and effort climate dimensions. The Internal Process Model domain (internal focus, control orientation) comprises of the formalization and tradition climate dimensions. The Open Systems Model domain (external focus and flexible orientation) comprises of the innovation & flexibility, outward focus, and reflexivity climate dimensions, and the Rational Goal Model domain (external focus and control orientation) is made up of the clarity of organizational goals, efficiency, quality, pressure to produce, and performance feedback climate dimensions.

Based on the review of literature on antecedent of absenteeism and presenteeism and the evidence presented in this literature review, some but not all the defined climate measures were included in this study. I proposed to include the following eight in the study: pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, integration, and efficiency.

The Personality - Organizational Climate - Presenteeism relationship

The third research question of this study will focus on exploring the moderating effect of personality on the climate-presenteeism relationship. To date few studies have looked at the specific interactions between personality and presenteeism, no studies have explored climate and presenteeism specifically, and none have looked at the moderating effect of personality on the organizational climate presenteeism relationship. One reason for that may be that there is evidence in research that “measures of personality seldom account for much variance in specific behaviors in tightly controlled situations” (Organ, 1994). Some researchers have argued that the context of organizations features mostly strong situations and that personality and other dispositional explanations to how

individuals behave in organizations are flawed. However, Organ (1994) argues that this may not always be true, in particular that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is the type of behavior that occurs in weak situations, and therefore personality plays a part. The research on the overall relationship between personality and organizational contexts has mostly been researched from the perspective of overall job performance (Barrick & Mount 1991; Beaty et al., 2001) or from the perspective of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1994) as well as absenteeism.

A small study conducted in Malaysia did look specifically at the moderating effect of personality on organizational climate and the employee's intent to leave the organization. The researchers found that organizational climate was related to the employee's intention to leave, and more importantly they found that certain dimensions of personality (dominance and sociability, the researchers did not use the big five framework) did have a moderating effect on the relationship (Chai & Garib Singh, 2008). Exploring the moderating effect of personality on the climate-presenteeism relationship in this study was exploratory in nature and was done on a limited number of interactions. Specifically, the moderating effect of neuroticism and conscientiousness was explored because at least one of the two dimensions, conscientiousness, has been negatively correlated to absenteeism behavior in the past and it is hypothesized that they will predict presenteeism. Similarly, based on existing presenteeism and absenteeism research, welfare and supervisory support are known to predict either behavior.

Empirical Research on Personality, Organizational Factors and Presenteeism

Most empirical work on sickness presenteeism has focused on understanding the prevalence, the impacts on organizations, (Dixon, 2005; Johns 2011), and national health systems (Cooper & Dewe, 2008; Goetzel et al.2004), the negative effect on health (Kivimäki et al., 2005), and on personal and organizational factors that contribute to employees exhibiting presenteeism. When reviewing literature, I identified six research studies that focused specifically on personal and /or organizational factors as antecedents to presenteeism, although none focus specifically on the concept of organizational climate, and only one study includes personality, although only two dimensions (Johns, 2011). Three studies include factors that are usually considered by researchers to be elements of climate, pressure to perform, irreplaceability control over work-related tasks, work-group related conflicts, supervisory support, support from colleagues (Aronsson et al., 2010; Gosselin et al., 2013; Johns, 2011). There were however no studies that specifically looked at all five factors of personality and organizational climate as a construct that helps define how employees perceive the ‘mood’ of the organization. It is therefore the purpose of this dissertation to contribute to closing the gap in existing literature by exploring the relationship between personality, climate and presenteeism.

Table 1 presents a summary of relevant research studies that explored the relationship between individual factors, including but not limited to personality, organizational contexts and their correlation to presenteeism behavior. The table is organized in alphabetical order of author names and highlights the country and organizational contexts in which the studies were conducted.

Table 1*Previous Studies on the Relationships Between Presenteeism, the Five Dimensions of Personality and Organizational Climate*

Author (Date)	Sample	Variables	5 Dimensions of Personality	Organizational Climate
Aronsson, Gustafsson & Dallner (2010)	Working Adults, Sweden N=3801	DV= Presenteeism IV= occupation, irreplaceability, ill health, sickness absenteeism, personal income, and slimmed down organization	No	No, elements only
Bierla, Huver, & Richard, (2013)	Bank employees, France, N=2601	DV = Presenteeism, absenteeism IV = cost of absence, team responsibility, contract type, job security, hierarchy, job mobility, having children, gender, age	No	No, elements only
Gosselin, Lemyre, Corneil (2013)	Senior Executives, Public company, Canada N=1730	DV= Presenteeism, absenteeism IV= health problems, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological stress, control over work-related tasks, work-group related conflicts, supervisory support, support from colleagues, number of hours worked	No	No, elements only
Hansen & Andersen (2005)	Danish workforce, random sample N= 12,935	DV = presenteeism IV = personal circumstances, attitudes and work-related factors	No	No, elements only
Johns (2011)	Business school Graduates, working N=444	DV= presenteeism/ absenteeism, IV = work context, personal characteristics, and work experiences	Two of the five	No

Of the six studies, none were conducted in countries where sick leave is paid to all employees and coming to work when ill is unlikely to be influenced primarily by financial reasons (Johns, 2010). Two studies were conducted in Scandinavia (Aronsson et al., 2010, Hansen & Andersen, 2005) where much of the body of research on presenteeism has been conducted to date. Two of the studies were conducted in the United States and United Kingdom where sick pay is largely regulated at company level and however compensation can also be minimal.

Johns (2011) conducted a key study that focused on organizational factors and two out of the five major personality dimensions. Johns found that presenteeism is positively correlated to task significance, task interdependence, ease of replacement, and work to family conflict and negatively associated with neuroticism, equity, job security, internal health locus of control, and the perceived legitimacy of absence. In the context of the proposed study, one limitation of Johns' work is the sample, which consisted of 444 working business school graduates in Canada all of whom were employed, and who's with the average age was 31. Because of the relatively young demographic and a very homogenous sample, the study results may not generalize to other populations. There is evidence from earlier presenteeism research that age may be a determining factor of presenteeism, and several studies have indicated seniority may impact the frequency with which employees exhibit both absenteeism and presenteeism (Bierla et al. 2013). The proposed study will therefore include a sample of a more diverse age range, as well as focusing on all five dimensions of personality.

Aronsson et. al (2010) on the other hand conducted a study on a random sample of 3801 working adults in Sweden, a much wider and more representative sample of the working force. The results of the study showed that the type and level of occupation as well as the perceived level of irreplaceability (having no one that can do the work for you while you are away) are both positively correlated with presenteeism. The researchers also found support for their hypothesis that a positive, linear relationship exists between conflicting levels of demands on employees and presenteeism. They also found that being able to impact one's own pace and level of work is negatively correlated with presenteeism. Their study however did not include any personality dimensions, focusing rather only on individual demands for presence as factors of interest.

In 2013 Bierla et al. conducted a study in France that included 2601 bank employees. They found that presenteeism was positively correlated to the perceived cost of absence as well as the belief that work will stop or pile up if the employee is away. They also found that presenteeism is negatively correlated and absenteeism is positively correlated to having children, and that women are less likely to exhibit presenteeism but are more likely to take longer absences, highlighting that gender may be a factor in determining behavior when ill. This study did not cover any personality elements, and organizational climate factors were limited, although the factors explored showed correlation with both presenteeism and absenteeism, a factor that will have to be accounted for in the proposed study. One limitation of the Bierla et al. study is that all the data used in the analysis was extracted from a social audit database, so the variables included were limited by what was available in the database.

Of the two studies that examined organizational factors in a most significant way, Hansen and Andersen (2005) conducted the largest study of its kind in Denmark with a random sample of 12,935 participants. They found that work-related factors seem to be more important than personal circumstances or attitudes when it came to exhibiting presenteeism. They found that time pressure and the relationship with colleagues both increase the likelihood of presenteeism. They also found that personal circumstances and attitudes lead to presenteeism. For example, employees that treat work as home and those that scored high being overcommitted to work, were more likely to exhibit presenteeism. Most importantly perhaps, they found that although correlated, personal factors such as those outlined above, are less significant determinants of presenteeism. They also found that employees that have a conservative view on absence were also more likely to be present at work when ill. This study is different from the proposed study because it includes a limited number of individual factors and no measures of personality.

Gosselin et al. (2013) also found that when professional responsibility, a factor of personality, is high and peer support, a factor of organizational climate, is low presenteeism is more prevalent. Also, the higher the levels of work-related stress, the higher the occurrence of presenteeism. Their study, conducted in Canada on a sample of 1730 public company executives, and is different to the proposed study because not all dimensions of organizational climate were included.

Of the six studies presented, three explored presenteeism and absenteeism, two were solely focused on exploring absenteeism and one on presenteeism alone. Although all presenteeism studies listed in Table 1 were focused on identifying various antecedents

of presenteeism and some of them explored personal factors, none of the studies focused on exploring all five factors of personality, although evidence exists that personality dimensions are correlated to absenteeism (Judge et al., 1997).

None of the studies on presenteeism summarized in Table 1 included organizational climate as a variable. Although researchers in three studies explored elements of organizational factors like control over one's work, supervisory or peer support (Gosselin et al., 2013), work mobility (Bierla et al., 2013) and ease of replacement (Aronsson et al., 2010; Johns, 2011), none of the studies looked at how organizational climate overall correlates with presenteeism and, likewise, none of the studies look at the moderating effect of personality on the relationship between organizational climate and presenteeism.

Summary

In this chapter I presented a review of the current literature on the antecedents of presenteeism. The review of the three models of presenteeism illustrated how thinking about presenteeism research and its antecedents have evolved over time. The review has also shown how although presenteeism is related to absenteeism, and it is opposite to absenteeism in certain respects, even though it may be a response to a similar health event. In this chapter, I have summarized these models and highlighted the differences between them. I have also reviewed and presented a summary of the existing research on antecedents of both presenteeism and absenteeism.

Overall, the review of these studies has revealed that both presenteeism and absenteeism are a resulting behavior, a conscious decision that an employee makes, after

a health-related event has occurred. Most researchers agree that factors contributing to the decision to come to work or to be absent can be categorized into individual, personal reasons, and work-related contexts (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Aronsson et al., 2010; Johns, 2010; 2011; Gosselin et al., 2013). The studies reviewed confirmed that organizational factors such as task interdependence, ease of replacement, control over the work environment, work-group related conflicts, supervisory support, job security, work context and job mobility all are to some extent factors contributing to presenteeism behavior. Similarly, personal factors such as boundarylessness (e.g., not being able to say no) and some personality dimensions such as neuroticism and conscientiousness are also predictors of presenteeism.

One significant gap identified in the literature on the antecedents of presenteeism is that there has been no study that has systematically assessed personality, all five dimensions, as a contributing factor to presenteeism. Similarly, although many work contexts factors have been assessed as antecedents of presenteeism, the current literature shows no evidence of using a structured, organizational climate perspective on presenteeism. This study therefore attempts to add to the current body of work by taking a structured measure of the relationship of personality on presenteeism, by examining all dimensions using a model that has generally been accepted as valid in determining the dimensions of personality, the Five-Factor Model, (Goldberg, 1990). Because evidence from absenteeism research shows that organizational climate can play an important role (Väänänen et al., 2004) in the employees' decision to be absent from work, but no such study exists on presenteeism, in this study I also examines the predictive relationship

between organizational climate and presenteeism by using the Patterson et al. (2005) Organizational Climate Measure. I also extended the focus of this study to examine the moderating effect of dimensions personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship.

In Chapter 3 I will focus on the design and the methods for the study. The purpose of the chapter will be to review and explain the decisions for the design and chosen methodology, to describe the population and the sampling methods chosen and to provide an in-depth overview of the instrumentation. Lastly, in the chapter I will discuss the data collection and analysis procedures.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between personality, organizational climate, and presenteeism. In addition, the study aimed to examine whether personality moderates the organizational climate and presenteeism relationship. The main questions that guided this study are as follows: (a) Does personality predict presenteeism among employees?; (b) Does organizational climate predict presenteeism among employees?; and (c) Is there a moderating effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship? Chapter 3 is aimed at providing an in-depth description of the study design, looking at methodology, sampling, instrumentation data assumptions, and analysis.

Research Design and Approach

For this study, I used a correlational research approach. The nonexperimental design was chosen as appropriate because the variables were not manipulated and there were no groups that were to be compared (see Frankfort-Nachmias & Frankfort, 2008). The study was designed to examine a relationship between variables, specifically it was a study that examines the property-disposition relationship. The variables that were studied are personality and organizational climate as the independent variables, and the inclination to be present at work when ill, presenteeism, the dependent variable. I further explored the moderation effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship.

In this study, I used surveys to collect data. Specifically, data on personality were collected using the BFI, designed to measure the five dimensions of personality. The BFI was appropriate to use in this study because the instrument is widely used and has been

validated across various cultures and demographics of workers (McCrae & Costa, 2004). It is one of the most widely used personality assessments, designed specifically to evaluate the five dimensions of personality. I collected primary data on climate using the OCM, which measures organizational climate using 17 scales divided into four quadrants. Each scale can be used individually because all have been tested for reliability and internal validity; of the 17 scales of the organizational climate measure 16 have a Cronbach's alpha value above 0.73 (Patterson et al., 2005). Lastly, to measure presenteeism occurrence, I will use an adjusted version of the questions used in a study by Aronsson et al. (2000).

Setting and Sample

Participants

The focus of this study was to examine the correlation of personality and organizational climate on presenteeism. Several studies in the United States and the United Kingdom have shown that employees are likely to continue to come to work when ill for financial reasons (Bierla et al., 2013; Collins & Cartwright, 2012). This is because employees cannot afford to stay home if sick days are not paid, particularly if they perceive that the illness is not serious, for example, a cold (Collins & Cartwright, 2012). To control for this factor, I recruited participants for this study from countries where sickness pay is regulated by law (i.e., the Netherlands) or by company policy (i.e., the United Kingdom). The selection was based on these criteria: (a) they were full time employees, (b) they were working in a job that is not paid on a commission basis (again to avoid financial issues to be the main reason for coming to work when ill, and (c) they

have worked in their current organization for at least 6 months. Even though the sampling method for this study was convenience sampling, prescreening in the general demographic portion of the survey ensured that participants not meeting those three requirements are not included in the study.

Sampling Method

Given the nature of the study, the method used for sampling was convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is a form of nonprobability sampling and, even though it presents challenges, is appropriate for the study for several reasons. Nonprobability sampling methods, particularly convenience sampling, are viable in situations where the population studied is very large. In this study, there was no practical way for me to include all sampling units in the sampling frame that is required in probability sampling. I used a combined approach to my sampling method. Initially, I defined the characteristics of representative countries from which I then drew the participants. This is akin to a purposive sampling strategy, typically used in qualitative research, where the researcher uses their judgment for including particular sampling units in their studies (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). I used this approach because there were certain criteria about sick leave compensation that are important to the outcome of the study. Since financial reasons drive presenteeism, it was important to include only employees from organizations/countries where sick pay is paid.

I then reached out to employees in identified organizations/countries based on my existing contacts and selected a sample from units that are available and known to me. I also examined probability sampling methodologies such as cluster or stratified sampling,

but because I did not have access to all the organizations in a particular country, or even all the employees in the organizations I included in my study, these sampling methods were not deemed feasible.

Sample Size

I used logistic regression analysis to measure the relationship of the various dimensions of personality and organizational climate to presenteeism, controlling for other variables such as gender, and seniority that Johns (2011) and Bierla et al. (2013) noted correlate to presenteeism. The sample size was determined using three factors, desired power, significance level, and effect size. The first of the three parameters: power, measures the probability that a false null hypothesis will be rejected. The power in this study was set at level of .80, which is considered standard and was also confirmed by examining the most closely related studies. The second parameter, the significance level (alpha), was set at 0.05. Significance level measures the probability with which a true null hypothesis might be rejected in a study (Moore & McCabe, 2006). Lastly, the third parameter that was used to determine sample size is effect size. Effect size measures the magnitude of the phenomenon being studied (Cohen, 1980). There are three types of effect size—small, medium, and large—and in regression analysis effect size is expressed through the regression coefficient. To determine the appropriate effect size, I examined similar or relevant studies. In a study on the links between personality and absenteeism, a construct closely related to presenteeism, Judge et al. (1997) reported that two dimensions of personality, conscientiousness and neuroticism accounted for 10% ($R^2 = 0.096$ for conscientiousness and $R^2 = 0.102$ for neuroticism) of variability in absenteeism

respectively. Similarly, examining how work organization factors correlate to presenteeism, Aronsson et al. (2000) reported odds ratios of 2.89 for the relationship between having no one to take over work while ill and presenteeism. Both represent a medium effect size.

Based on these three parameters, a significance level of .80, medium effect size, and an α of .05, the sample size was calculated using *Power G*3 (Version 3) software*. Assuming 13 predictor variables (five dimensions of personality and eight dimensions of climate), the sample size was estimated to be 131 participants.

Instrumentation

In addition to general demographic questions, including questions about contract and employment type and, tenure, participants were asked to complete a survey that included a personality, organizational climate, and presenteeism scales. I obtained permission from the publishers for the use of these instruments prior to conducting my research.

The Big Five Inventory

In this study the first independent variable is personality. According to the APA definition of personality, it can be measured in the individual differences in how people think, feel and behave. These individual differences are expressed as patterns of behavior. In this study personality was measured through a person's personality traits. Personality traits refer to a person's characteristic pattern of attitudes, behaviors, feelings, and thoughts that can be measured consistently over time. To measure personality traits, I used the BFI. The BFI (John et al., 1991) is a personality assessment that measures the

five dimensions of personality, consistent with the big five theory of personality. The full survey (including the scoring instructions) can be reviewed in Appendix C. The BFI is freely available for researchers to use for non-commercial research purposes (The Big Five Inventory, FAQ, Berkeley Personality Lab, <https://www.ocf.berkeley.edu/~johnlab/bfi.htm>). It consists of 44 items in total across the five dimensions: extraversion (8 items), agreeableness (9 items), conscientiousness (9 items), neuroticism (8 items), and openness (10 items). Each item is scored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = Disagree Strongly, and 5 = Agree Strongly. Sixteen items are reverse scored.

The items in the instrument are made up of short phrases that are based on trait-descriptive adjectives relevant to each of the five dimensions (e.g., *I am someone who is talkative*). To accomplish this short phrase design, a panel of experts reviewed and identified terms that were relevant to each of the big five dimensions from the Adjective Check List (ACL; Gough & Heilbrun, 1983 as cited in Soto & John, 2017). Through further testing these were then refined and provide the basis from which the short phrases in the BFI were developed. The Big Five Inventory was developed with efficiency in mind, the instrument is long enough that it covers each of the big five factors completely, yet it is short enough that it can be completed in 5 – 10 minutes and does not cause participant fatigue (Soto & John, 2017).

The BFI inventory was quite a move away from longer personality instruments that had upward of 60 items. John and Srivastava (1999) argued however, that although each scale includes only between eight and ten items, nothing is lost when it comes to

reliability. The alpha reliabilities for the 5 subscales range from .75 to .90, with an average of above .80 (John & Srivastava, 1999). They also report 3-month test-retest reliability from 0.80 to .90, with a mean value of .85.

John and Srivastava (1999) compared the BFI to two widely used instruments, trait descriptive adjectives (TDA) and NEO-FFI, with NEO being accepted as the instrument that has been most robustly validated due to its wide usage. They found some striking similarities, for example in all three instruments the reliabilities for the extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism were the highest, and were somewhat lower for openness and agreeableness. Overall, when it comes to convergent validity, the BFI had the strongest convergence with the TDA ($r = .81$) and a somewhat lower convergence with NEO-FFI ($r = .73$). Discriminant correlations for the BFI are low, averaging at .20, with Considering that the BFI was developed for use when participant time is likely to be low, and the reported psychometric properties are sound, it was the right choice to use in this study.

Organizational Climate Measure

The second dependent variable in this study is organizational climate. For the purpose of this study, organizational climate is defined as a set of perceptions and feelings that individual members attach to specific dimensions of their organization and workplace. Organizational climate was measured using Patterson et al.'s (2005) OCM, which focuses on the organizational context of climate and enables researchers to test relationships between climate and contexts of organizational effectiveness. The OCM is a commercially available instrument that I have obtained permission for from the publisher

for the use in my Dissertation (see Appendix A). It consists of 17 individual dimensions of organizational climate grouped into four discrete quadrants, based on the competing values model (Patterson et al., 2005). The OCM is designed so that researchers can use it to measure the four broad categories (quadrants) or any of the corresponding individual dimensions, and validity and reliability measures have been established for the individual dimensions and the four corresponding quadrants (Patterson et al., 2005). Based on the literature review conducted in this study, I only included the following eight dimensions: pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, integration, and efficiency. The self-reported questionnaire therefore consisted of 40 questions scored on a 4-point response scale: 1 (*definitely false*), 2 (*mostly false*), 3 (*mostly true*), and 4 (*definitely true*). The eight dimensions and corresponding questions of the OCM that were included in this study is available in Appendix B.

Internal consistency for the scales I used in this study range from .67 for the Autonomy scale to .91 for the Welfare scale. Patterson et al. (2004) also tested the generalizability of the results by testing the instrument across different types of jobs and found indices had an identical fit across all four tested job groups. Predictive validity of the instrument was also measured by Patterson et al. in several instances. Most significant to this study, in 2004, a year after the OCM was published, Patterson et al. collected productivity data for 42 companies that participated in the original study. They found that subsequent productivity was significantly correlated with eight dimensions of climate (training, welfare, supervisory support, effort, innovation and flexibility, quality,

performance feedback, and formalization), most importantly welfare ($r = 0.49, p < .01$) and innovation and flexibility ($r = 0.40, p < .01$).

Presenteeism Measure

Presenteeism is simply defined as coming to work when sick. In 2015, Dennett and Thompson conducted a review of presenteeism measures. Although extensive, they reviewed 23 instruments and screened over 1700 articles, their review was very much focused on presenteeism defined as lowered productivity at work, not on presenteeism as defined for the purpose of this study – being present at work when ill. This focus on presenteeism and productivity is also very much reflected in the instruments used to measure presenteeism. Their focus is very much on how being at work when ill impacted the employee's individual productivity, or the perception of productivity, which is not the focus of the proposed study. For example, in the most widely used presenteeism measure, the Stanford Presenteeism Scale (Koopman et al., 2002), example questions included: (a) *Because of my (health problem), the stresses of my job are more difficult to handle*, or (b) *Despite having my (health problem) I was able to finish the hard tasks in my work*.

In several of the instruments, researchers have asked participants about absence from work due to health reasons, for example in the Work Productivity and Activity Impairment – General Health (Reilly et al., 1993), but they ask about absence from work: *During the past seven days, how many hours did you miss from work because of your health problems?* Or again ask questions about productivity:

During the past seven days, how much did health problems affect your productivity while you were working?

Because of this reason, both Johns (2011) and Aronsson et al. (2000) did not use any of the existing measures of presenteeism and instead wrote their own questions aimed at measuring occurrence of presenteeism. Like this study, Johns and Aronsson et al. were interested more in measuring the occurrence of presenteeism than in measuring productivity loss per se and I therefore followed the same approach, using the question from the Aronsson et al. 2000 study, “Has it happened over the previous 12 months that you have gone to work despite feeling that you really should have taken sick leave due to your state of health” (Aronsson et al., 2000, p. 504). In view of the recent COVID-19 pandemic and the recent shift to working at home and a recommendation from my dissertation chair that recall for a period of 12 months is likely too long, this question was adapted to read, “In the last 6 months, has it happened that you have worked despite feeling that you really should have taken sick leave due to your state of health” Responses were be measured on a four-point scale: 1 (*No, never*), 2 (*Yes, once*), 3 (*Yes, 2–5 times*), 4 (*Yes, more than 5 times*). Like in the Aronsson et al. study, the scale was dichotomized for the logistic regression 0 (*No, never/Yes, once*), 1 (*Yes, 2–5 times/Yes, more than 5 times*).

Demographics

A demographic questionnaire was used to assess the basic information about the participants: age, gender, employment length and type (full-time, part-time), salary type (commission-based salary or not) and whether sick leave is paid (by the employer or regulated though legislature). Commission-based participants were not included in the final analysis, and I also excluded employees for whom sick leave is not paid (0-hour

contracts for example) because it is likely that the main reason for them coming to work when they are ill will be predominantly financial as some U.S. studies have shown (Bierla et al., 2013; Collins & Cartwright, 2012).

Data Collection

I collected the data for this study via an online survey. After obtaining the necessary University approvals I contacted my contacts in organizations that have met the key screening criteria: companies in Netherlands and the United Kingdom in which employees are compensated for sick leave (either by law or because of organizational practices). I also posted an invitation to participate in social media. The online survey was encrypted and only participants with the link were able to access the survey. At the start of the survey the participants were first be presented with a letter of consent that informed them of all the parameters of the study, as well as their rights and how their data will be protected. A sample of the letter is available for review in see Appendix D. I provided an email address and contact details for those participants who wanted to reach out to the researcher.

Participants who agreed to the conditions for participations were then able to access the online survey. The survey was separated into sections and the first section will consist of a brief demographic form that was used to screen out participants that did not meet the screening criteria. All the subsequent sections of the survey had clear instructions for completion. The second section was the presenteeism frequency assessment followed by the personality assessment section and then by the organizational climate assessment section. Once completed, the survey was automatically stored on a

secure, encrypted server. As the participants had the option to opt out of the survey at any point, only fully completed surveys were included in the analysis of results.

To ensure that the data is kept securely, and privacy is assured, no personal, identifying data was collected about the participants, all participants were assigned and identified by a number. After the data was analyzed, to comply with the Walden University guidelines for data storage, the data was transferred to an electronic storage device that is locked and kept securely by the researcher. All data collection and storage are also compliant with the European GDPR standards because the study was conducted in two European countries.

Research Question 1: What is the predictive relationship of the five dimensions of personality: neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness to presenteeism among employees?

H₀1: Neuroticism is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a1: Neuroticism is a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀2: Agreeableness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a2: Agreeableness is a predictor presenteeism.

H₀3: Conscientiousness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a3: Conscientiousness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀4: Extraversion is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a4: Extraversion is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀5: Openness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a5: Openness in not a predictor of presenteeism.

Research Question 2: What is the predictive relationship of the climate dimensions of welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, pressure to produce, integration, formalization, and efficiency to presenteeism among employees?

H₀6: High levels of welfare are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a6: High levels of welfare are a not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀7: High levels of autonomy are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a7: High levels of autonomy are a not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀9: High levels supervisory support are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a9: High levels supervisory support are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀10: High levels of pressure to produce are not a predictor presenteeism.

H_a10: High levels of pressure to produce are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀11: High levels of integration are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a11: High levels of integration are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀12: High levels of formalization are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a12: High levels of formalization are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀13: High levels of efficiency are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a13: High levels of efficiency are a predictor of presenteeism.

Research Question 3: What is the moderating effect of personality dimensions on the relationship between the different dimensions of organizational climate and presenteeism among employees?

H₀14: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a14: Neuroticism does moderate on the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀15: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a15: Neuroticism does moderate the relationship between the welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H₀16: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a16: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀17: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a17: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

Data Assumptions

There are certain assumptions that must be made about data being analyzed in all quantitative methods. These concern linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality

(Creswell, 2009). Different types of statistical analyses have different types of data assumptions. For example, logistic regression has fewer data assumptions than other types of analysis. Logistic regression does not require a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Linearity implies that the independent and dependent variables both follow a straight line. Unlike logistic regression however, multiple regression requires linearity. Homoscedasticity is also not required for logistic regression but is for multiple regression. Homoscedasticity, or homogeneity of variance refers to the assumption that, for a population, the variance of one variance of Y for each value of X is constant (Salkind, 2010). Lastly normality refers to the normal distribution of data. In samples that are very large, it is highly likely that the data will be normally distributed, this is posited by the Central Limit Theorem which states that “if a random variable X is the sum of a large number of small and independent random variables, then almost no matter how the small variables are distributed, X will be approximately normally distributed” (Lyon, 2014). In smaller samples however, it is important that data are normally distributed. Because I used logistics regression as my statistical analysis the data must meet all appropriate of these assumptions and tests for multicollinearity were conducted during the initial data analysis.

Data Analysis

For my data analysis I performed logistic regression using SPSS. The hypotheses related to the first research question stated that neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are not predictors of presenteeism, whereas extraversion and openness are. The hypotheses related to the second research question stated that autonomy,

innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, welfare, and integration are predictors of presenteeism, whereas pressure to produce, formalization, and efficiency are not.

For the demographic data collected in the study, descriptive statistics were used to present the characteristics of the sample. This included summary statistics for all the categorical variables. For the continuous variables means and standard deviations were reported. Then, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for all the variables to assess the internal consistency.

To test the hypotheses relating to the first and second research question, a logistic regression analysis was conducted. The use of logistic regression is warranted because the outcome variable, presenteeism is categorical (Field, 2013) as participants reported whether they have or have not exhibited presenteeism, whereas the predictor variables, the five dimensions of personality and the eight dimensions of organizational climate are continuous variables. Variables were entered into the model simultaneously.

Assumptions of linearity were tested assuming that there is linear relationship between predictor variables and, because the outcome variable is categorical, the logit of the outcome. Testing for multicollinearity was performed by assessing the tolerance values and VIF values by running collinearity diagnostics using multiple regression in SPSS. This is accepted as the appropriate method for testing multicollinearity when performing logistic regression. Lastly homoscedasticity was assessed by examining the scatter plots.

The hypotheses related to the third research question stated that there will be no moderation effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship. To test these hypotheses logistic regression analysis was used. Regression analysis allows us to

examine the relationship between several predictor variables (personality and climate) and the criterion variable (presenteeism). The interaction terms were created by multiplying several of the selected the personality traits, conscientiousness and neuroticism, with by two climate dimensions, supervisory support and welfare. First, all the predictor variables were entered into the model, followed by all the interaction terms in step two. To determine the statistical significance of step two, ΔR^2 were examined, followed by examining whether any of the interaction terms are statistically significant.

Ethical Considerations

The researcher bears the burden of responsibility in ensuring that the participants and their data are protected. Careful consideration needed to be made when drafting consent letters to ensure that the participants aware of the purpose, the implications and the voluntary nature of the participation. Because all participants were required to read and give consent it was important that all issues were clearly addressed and that the participants were given the information on how to contact the researcher if they have further questions. Even though there are no physical risks to participating in the study, or any benefits, participants were informed that declining to participate in the study will in no way affect their employment status. Participants were also informed that all data will be collected anonymously, and no individually identifiable data will be collected.

I collected participant consent prior to starting the study survey, which was distributed electronically. After the study was completed, the research results can be shared with those participants that have indicated that they are interested in receiving the results. Because data was be collected from participants in the European Union, I had to

comply with the GDPR (Global Data Protection Regulation) regulations in addition to University policies. IRB approval was obtained prior to data collection under the approval number 02-12-21-0385270.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented the methodology and research design proposed for this study. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between personality, organizational climate and presenteeism. The second purpose was to explore whether personality moderates the organizational climate – presenteeism relationship. The basis for this study was the conceptual framework presented by Johns (2010; 2011) which identified that both individual and organizational factors impacted presenteeism and absenteeism, as well as the resulting performance levels in employees.

The independent variables in this study included five dimensions of personality: neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness and 8 dimensions of organizational climate: pressure to produce, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, integration, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, and efficiency (Patterson et al., 2005). The dependent variable was presenteeism. The instruments that were used to measure the variables are the BFI, and the Organizational Climate Measure. The data was analyzed using logistic regressions. The participants in this study were employees working in medium to large sized organizations in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, where sick leave is paid (either government or organizational policy). The sample size was estimated to be 131 participants, and they participated in the study electronically.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of Chapter 4 is to present the results of the survey as well as documenting the data collection and research process. Additionally, the chapter also presents the results of the data analysis in relation to each of the three research questions and underlying hypothesis. The goal of this research project was to examine the predictive relationship between personality, organizational climate, the independent variables, and presenteeism, the dependent variable. The population included in the study included employees in the UK and the Netherlands, countries chosen because they have statutory right to sick pay that is often further supplemented by company schemes meaning that the likelihood of coming to work when ill is less likely to be for purely financial reasons.

The research questions in the study were the following:

Research Question 1: What is the predictive relationship of the five dimensions of personality - neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness to presenteeism among employees?

Research Question 2: What is the predictive relationship of the climate dimensions of welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, pressure to produce, integration, formalization, and efficiency to presenteeism among employees?

Research Question 3: What is the moderating effect of personality dimensions on the relationship between the different dimensions of organizational climate and presenteeism among employees?

Data Collection

Data were collected through an online, self-administered survey. Participants were asked to complete an online survey via Survey Monkey. The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The initial demographic set of questions were used as a screener. For example, since I used social posts on LinkedIn and Facebook, which have global reach, as my recruitment platform, I needed to be able to screen out respondents that were not living in the UK or the Netherlands. The second section in the survey was one question that measured if participants exhibited presenteeism in the last 6 months prior to taking the survey. The third section was designed to measure personality dimensions and consisted of 44 questions from the Big Five Inventory (John et al., 1991). Lastly, section four was designed to measure organizational climate and consisted of 37 questions from the Organizational Climate Measure (Patterson et al., 2005).

The participants were invited to participate in the study through several posts on social media, on LinkedIn and Facebook. Additionally, I reached out to my own network with an email that contained the link to the survey. Lastly, I also posted the invitation on several sites, Reddit and Next-Door UK. Participants were also asked to forward the invitation to the survey to anyone they felt would be interested in taking the survey.

Participants

Participant Qualification

To qualify for the study the participants had to have substantial sick pay. In the study, substantial was defined to be at least 70% of their monthly salary. In the Netherlands this is regulated by statutory rights and in the UK, it is a combination of statutory and company sick pay schemes. These usually apply to full or part time employees who are on permanent contracts and whose salary is not linked to performance or time-based compensation. After electronically accepting the Consent Form, in which the participation screening was made clear, all participants were taken to a set of screener question, and if they were eligible for participation, they were then taken to the next three sections.

Participant Data

A total of 181 participants responded to the survey. However, 47 participants were disqualified based on their contract type, and 14 based on the type of remuneration, a further 16 did not reside in the UK or Netherlands. The remaining 24 respondents were not included in the analysis because they had many incomplete questions, almost 80% only finished the demographic part of the survey, but despite qualifying they did not complete any of the personality questions. This means that only 80 participant responses were included in the analysis. This is below the calculated sample size of 131 mentioned in Chapter 3.

The survey was long, it consisted of 92 questions. And even though the questions were short, this probably contributed to the low completion rate. The survey was active

for a period of just over 2 months, From April 12, 2021, to June 14, 2021, in an attempt to gather more data. I explored other options for data collection but concluded that because of how long the survey was active, and the potential barrier to completion being due to the survey length, and the overall completion rate (72%) it was unlikely that I would be able to get significantly more respondents in a feasible amount of time. After a methodological consultation I made the determination to move forward with the lower number of respondents than described in the survey design, with the caveat that this is addressed in Chapter 4 and in the discussion of results. It is worthy to note here that extending the length of time the survey was open had only a marginal gain effect on the number of complete responses. In the initial two weeks of the survey, the majority of the completed surveys were submitted and in the subsequent weeks, because I had to extend my network reach although the response number went up, the completion rate went down significantly.

Demographic descriptors consisted of respondent age, gender, tenure in current organization, contract type, compensation and sick pay. The demographic results are shown in Table 2. The participants worked between 2 months and 40 years with their current employer, the median tenure was 8.6. Participants skewed more highly to women, 69% respondents ($n = 55$), than the overall population of interest, while the age split was representative of the population.

Table 2*Sample Characteristics of Participants (n = 80)*

Characteristic	<i>N</i>	Percentage
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	55	68.8%
Male	24	30.0%
Prefer not to say	1	1.3%
<u>Age</u>		
25-34	15	18.8%
35-44	23	28.7%
45-56	22	27.5%
55-64	17	21.3%
65+	3	3.8%
<u>Sick Pay</u>		
Statutory	50	62.5%
Company Scheme	30	37.5%
<u>Compensation</u>		
Fixed Salary	69	86.2%
Combination fixed and compensation based	11	13.8%
<u>Contract type</u>		
Permanent	74	92.5%
Fixed Term	5	6.3%
Company Owner	1	1.3%
<u>Country of residence</u>		
UK	69	86.3%
Netherlands	11	13.7%

The majority of the participances, 92.5% were on a permanent contract ($n = 74$) with a fixed salary (86.3%, $n = 69$). In addition to a fixed salary, all participants, because of the exclusion criteria had the right to a substantial sick pay compensation, 62.5% ($n = 50$) based on their statutory right, and 37.5% ($n = 30$) based on a company sick pay scheme (on top of any statutory right).

Presenteeism

Presenteeism was measured with one question in the survey, asking participants if they exhibited presenteeism in the last 6 months. The definition of presenteeism in the

question was going to work, even if working meant working from home, when ill.

Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Presenteeism responses of study participants (n = 80)

Characteristic	N	Percentage
<u>Presenteeism</u>		
No, never	25	31.3%
Yes, once	24	30.0%
Yes, 2 – 5 times	25	31.3%
Yes, more than 5 times	6	7.5%

Most participants exhibited presenteeism at least once in the last 6 months, a total of 68.8% ($n = 55$), and one third never exhibited presenteeism ($n = 25$). Participant demographics were then broken out by whether they exhibited presenteeism or not to see if significant differences could be observed for different demographic indicators, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Participant characteristics organized by presenteeism frequency (n = 80)

	Presenteeism				P-value
	No, never (n = 25)	Yes, once (n = 24)	Yes, 2 – 5 times (n = 25)	Yes, > 5 times (n = 6)	
<u>Gender</u>					0.45
Female	56% (14)	71% (17)	76% (19)	83% (5)	
Male	44% (11)	25% (6)	24% (6)	17% (1)	
Prefer not to say	0% (0)	4% (1)	05 (0)	0% (0)	
<u>Age</u>					0.29
25-34	12% (3)	25% (6)	24% (6)	0% (0)	
35-44	32% (8)	13% (3)	32% (8)	67% (4)	
45-54	20% (5)	33% (8)	32% (8)	17% (1)	
55-64	32% (8)	21% (5)	12% (3)	17% (1)	
65+	4% (1)	8% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	
<u>Sick Pay</u>					0.49
Statutory	60% (15)	75% (18)	52% (13)	67% (4)	
Company Scheme	40% (10)	25% (6)	48% (12)	33% (2)	

					76
<u>Compensation</u>					0.72
Fixed Salary	88% (22)	83% (20)	84% (21)	100% (6)	
Combination fixed and compensation based	12% (3)	17% (4)	16% (4)	0% (0)	
<u>Contract type</u>					0.37
Permanent	96% (24)	95.8% (23)	88% (22)	83% (5)	
Fixed Term	0% (0)	4% (1)	12% (3)	17% (1)	
Company Owner	4% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)		
<u>Country of residence</u>					0.42
UK	92% (23)	79% (19)	84% (21)	100% (6)	
Netherlands	8% (2)	21% (5)	16% (4)	0% (0)	

There was a slight difference in genders exhibiting presenteeism, for people who never exhibited presenteeism, 56% female ($n = 14$) and 44% male ($n = 11$) never came to work when they are sick, however, looking at the differences within gender, only 25% (14) of women never came to work when ill, 75% ($n = 41$) were likely to work when ill at least once. At the same time, 45% ($n = 11$) of men stated that they never exhibited presenteeism, meaning that a much smaller proportion of men came to work when ill.

The population in the survey was more heavily skewed to the UK, 86% ($n = 69$) of the participants were from the UK. Although in both countries employees had either statutory or employee scheme based sick pay, employees in the UK were less likely to come to work when ill, 33% ($n = 23$) stated that they have never come to work when ill compared to 18% ($n = 2$) of the Dutch employees. Even though the Dutch employees exhibited more presenteeism than UK employees in the sample, the Dutch employees reported they never did it more than 5 times, while 9% ($n = 6$) of UK employees did report exhibiting presenteeism more than 5 times. When looking at presenteeism by age older participants, aged 55 and over, were less likely to exhibit presenteeism more than once when compared to younger age groups, 24% ($n = 6$) of 25 – 35-year-old's and 32%

($n = 8$) of 35 – 44-year-olds were likely to be present at work when they are ill, compared to 12% ($n = 3$) of 55 – 64-year-olds.

Personality

The first research question in this study was about the predictive relationship of the five dimensions of personality - neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness to presenteeism among employees. Based on the literature reviewed, as described in Chapter 2, the following hypothesis were made:

H_01 : Neuroticism is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a1 : Neuroticism is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_02 : Agreeableness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a2 : Agreeableness is a predictor presenteeism.

H_03 : Conscientiousness is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a3 : Conscientiousness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_04 : Extraversion is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a4 : Extraversion is not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_05 : Openness is a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a5 : Openness in not a predictor of presenteeism.

The demographic data suggests that most participants, 69%, came to work when they were ill at least once (see Table 2). Logistic regression was used to explore whether personality could be used to predict the probability that an employee might exhibit presenteeism. The predictor variables were the five dimensions of personality. First, scale scores were created by averaging the corresponding items for each one of the five

domains (after reverse scoring the appropriate items). A test for multicollinearity was performed and to ensure that the data met the assumption of collinearity. Based on the results of the test (VIF range from 1.23 – 1.39) multicollinearity was not a concern. Logistic regression was then used to simultaneously evaluate the effects of the 5 predictor variables on the dummy coded dichotomous outcome variable, where 0 = No presenteeism, and 1 = Yes presenteeism. The logistic regression analysis showed that the model with all the variables was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(5) = 4.150, p = .528$ while it was able to correctly classify 68.8% of those who exhibited presenteeism this was not an improvement over the model with the intercept only. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit was not significant $p = .972$ indicating that the model is correctly specified.

The results of the logistic regression are presented in Table 5. None of the predictor variables were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism (all p-values were $>.05$). This means that none of the null hypotheses can be rejected. H₀₁: Neuroticism is not a predictor of presenteeism, H₀₂: Agreeableness is not a predictor of presenteeism, H₀₃: Conscientiousness is not a predictor of presenteeism Hypotheses, H₀₄: Extraversion is a predictor of presenteeism, and H₀₅: Openness is a predictor of presenteeism, cannot be rejected because the analysis showed that these variables were not statistically significant in predicting presenteeism.

Table 5

Logistic Regression – Personality Dimensions

Independent Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2	df	p	OR	95% CI for OR
							Lower -- Upper

Intercept	-3.95	3.72	1.13	1	.288	.019	
Extroversion	-.308	.338	.021	1	.362	.735	.379 -- 1.425
Agreeableness	.404	.446	.862	1	.365	1.497	.625 -- 3.586
Conscientiousness	.411	.455	2.62	1	.367	1.508	.618 -- 3.678
Neuroticism	.344	.392	2.38	1	.380	1.410	.655 -- 3.040
Openness	.414	.584	.481	1	.288	1.514	.482 -- 4.754

Note: OR= odds ratio; CI=confidence interval

Organizational Climate

The second research question in this study explored the predictive ability of organizational climate on employees exhibiting presenteeism. Eight dimensions of organizational climate were selected for the study based on the literature reviews (see Chapter 2). The hypothesis underpinning the second research question were as follows:

H₀6: High levels of welfare are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a6: High levels of welfare are a not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀7: High levels of autonomy are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a7: High levels of autonomy are a not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a8: High levels of innovation and flexibility are not predictor of presenteeism.

H₀9: High levels supervisory support are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a9: High levels supervisory support are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀10: High levels of pressure to produce are not a predictor presenteeism.

H_a10: High levels of pressure to produce are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀11: High levels of integration are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a11: High levels of integration are a predictor of presenteeism.

H₀12: High levels of formalization are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_a12: High levels of formalization are a predictor of presenteeism.

H_{013} : High levels of efficiency are not a predictor of presenteeism.

H_{a13} : High levels of efficiency are a predictor of presenteeism.

Logistic regression analysis was then performed to predict the probability that dimensions of organizational climate can predict presenteeism. The predictor variables were welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, pressure to produce, integration, efficiency and formalization. Each scale score was calculated by averaging the corresponding items for each one of the eight scales (after reverse scoring the appropriate items). I then tested for multicollinearity to ensure that the data meets the assumption of collinearity. Based on the results of the test, multicollinearity was not a concern for the regression as it was only moderate (VIF value range 1.34 – 2.28). I then performed the logistic regression analysis. All the variables were entered into the model simultaneously. The logistic regression analysis showed that the model with all the variables was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(8) = 11.570$, $p = .171$ while it was able to correctly classify 75% of those who exhibited presenteeism showing an improvement over the model with the intercept only which predicted only 68.8% of the cases. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit was not significant ($p = .390$) indicating that the model is correctly specified.

Table 6

Logistic Regression – Organizational Climate

Independent Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2	df	p	OR	95% CI for OR	
							Lower	Upper
Intercept	5.62	3.17	3.140	1	.076	.		
Autonomy	.014	.551	.001	1	.979	1.015	.345	2.988
Integration	-1.345	.580	5.383	1	.020*	.261	.084	.812
Supervisory Support	0.345	.506	.184	1	.668	1.413	.291	6.853

Welfare	-1.137	.628	3.278	1	.070	.321	.204 -- 1.098
Formalization	-.557	.528	1.113	1	.291	.573	1.043 -- 1.612
Innovation & Flexibility	1.299	.641	4.104	1	.043*	3.664	.473 -- 12.869
Efficiency	.132	.449	.086	1	.769	1.141	.326 -- 2.752
Pressure to produce	-.188	.476	.156	1	.692	.828	.482 -- 2.105

* $p < .05$

Note: OR= odds ratio; CI=confidence interval

The results of the logistic regression are shown in Table 6. The independent variables autonomy, supervisory support, welfare, formalization, efficiency and pressure to produce were not statistically significant predictors of presenteeism. Integration ($p = .020$) and innovation ($p = .043$) were statistically significant predictors. Employees who scored their organizations high on innovation and flexibility were 3.6 times more likely to exhibit presenteeism (Odds ratio = 3.664). At the same time employees who scored their organization climate to be high in integration were approximately four times less likely to exhibit presenteeism (Odds ratio = .261).

Since only two of the predictor variables were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism, 6 of the hypotheses cannot be rejected based on the logistic regression ($p > .05$). H_{011} stated that high levels of integration are not a predictor of presenteeism; the hypothesis was rejected because the statistical analysis showed that integration is a predictor of presenteeism ($p = .043$). H_{08} stated that innovation and flexibility are a predictor of presenteeism, as was shown in the regression analysis ($p = .20$) and therefore the hypothesis is not rejected.

Moderating effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship

The third research question in the study explored the moderating effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship. Specifically, and based on insights derived from the literature review, out of the eight dimensions of organizational climate,

supervisory support and welfare were chosen to be explored further, as were the two personality dimensions, neuroticism and conscientiousness (see Chapter 2). The hypothesis underpinning the third research question were as follows:

H₀14: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a14: Neuroticism does moderate on the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀15: Neuroticism does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a15: Neuroticism does moderate the relationship between the welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H₀16: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H_a16: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism among employees.

H₀17: Conscientiousness does not moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

H_a17: Conscientiousness does moderate the relationship between welfare and presenteeism among employees.

Logistic regression analysis was used to explore all the moderating effects of the selected personality variables on the climate-presenteeism relationships. The climate predictor variables were welfare and supervisory support. I first tested the data for

multicollinearity to ensure that the data meets the assumption of collinearity. The initial test showed severe multicollinearity between all the variables. This was not altogether unexpected because the new variables in this analysis were interaction terms between existing variables. This is called structural multicollinearity and one option to deal with this type of multicollinearity is to standardize the variables. To do this I centered the variables by subtracting the means. The new, centered, variables were then tested for multicollinearity and the results showed moderate multicollinearity (VIF range from 1.17- 2.62).

Next, I performed a logistic regression analysis in which all the variables were entered into the model simultaneously in the first step, then followed by all the interaction terms in step two. To determine the statistical significance of step two, ΔR^2 were examined, followed by examining whether any of the interaction terms were statistically significant. The logistic regression analysis showed that the first model entered in step 1, with the predictor variables, was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(4) = 3.068, p = .547$. Although it was able to correctly classify 71.3% and it showed only a small improvement over the intercept only model which predicted only 68.8% of the cases. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit was not significant $p = .906$ indicating that the model is correctly specified. The second model was also not statistically significant $\chi^2(8) = 9.500, p = .302$. The model with the interaction terms was able to correctly classify only 70% of cases, a decrease from the model without the interaction terms. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit was not significant $p = .554$ indicating that the model is correctly specified.

Table 7

Logistic Regression – Moderating effect of neuroticism and conscientiousness on the supervisory support and welfare – presenteeism relationship

Independent Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2	df	p	OR	95% CI for OR	
							Lower	Upper
Intercept	.881	.279	10.000	1	.002*			
Welfare	.172	.571	.098	1	.754	1.196	.390	.667
Supervisory Support	-.349	.749	.220	1	.639	.706	.164	3.030
Neuroticism	.203	.390	.272	1	.602	1.225	.571	2.629
Conscientiousness	.846	.536	2.494	1	.114	2.330	.815	6.656
Neuroticism x Welfare	.347	.744	.217	1	.641	1.415	.329	6.085
Neuroticism x Supervisory Support	.286	.992	.083	1	.773	1.331	.191	9.297
Conscientiousness x Welfare	-.925	.914	1.023	1	.312	.397	.066	2.381
Conscientiousness x Supervisory Support	-1.082	1.095	.977	1	.323	.339	.040	2.897

* $p < .05$

Note: OR= odds ratio; CI=confidence interval

The results of the logistic regression are shown in Table 7. The independent variables supervisory support, welfare, neuroticism, and conscientiousness and all the corresponding interaction terms were not statistically significant predictors of presenteeism. Comparing the chi-square for the two models indicates that the chi-square has doubled but adding the interaction term to the model has had little effect on the fit, $\chi^2(4) = 6.432, p = .169$. Similarly, when I compared the ΔR^2 using the Nagelkerke R^2 between the model without and with the interaction terms there was an increase in variance accounted by the model of 10% percent points, going up from 5% to 15% variance accounted.

Summary

This research study was designed to explore the relationships between employee personality and their perception of their organization's climate and working when ill. In the primary analysis statistically significant differences in exhibiting presenteeism were noted based on gender - women were reported coming to work when ill more frequently than men, country of residence – employees in the UK were reported exhibiting less presenteeism than employees in the Netherlands, and age – older populations reported slightly less instances of presenteeism than younger workers.

When examining the relationship between the five dimensions of personality and presenteeism, no statistically significant results were found. None of the dimensions of personality were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism. When it came to organizational climate, organizational climate was not a statistically significant predictor of presenteeism except for two dimensions, innovation and flexibility, and integration. The analysis found that employees who scored their organizations high on innovation were between 3.6 and 4.2 times more likely to exhibit presenteeism, depending on the model. Lastly, the research looked at the moderating effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship. There was no moderating effect of neuroticism and conscientiousness on welfare and supervisory support respectively, and none of the predictor variables in the model were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism. In Chapter 5 I will discuss the implications of the results and make recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the five dimensions of personality and organizational climate and presenteeism, working when ill. The five dimensions of personality (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism) were measured using the Big Five Inventory (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991) and the Patterson et al. (2005) OCM was used to measure organizational climate. Specifically, eight dimensions of organizational climate (welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, pressure to produce, integration, efficiency, and formalization) were chosen for this study from the OCM. The data analyzed in the study came from responses from 80 participants, recruited from the UK and the Netherlands. In this chapter I will provide a summary of findings presented in Chapter 4 and a discussion of the results, as well as recommendations for future research.

Summary of Key Findings

The target sample size for this study was 131 participants. However, after several weeks of data collection (with a high response rate but a low completion rate) and a methodological consultation, only 80 participant responses were included in the final study. Among the respondents, 69% were female and 30% were male, with the remaining 1% preferring not to say; 93% were on a permanent contract and over 86% were on fixed salaries. All participants either had a statutory right to sick pay (63%) or a company scheme that provided them with compensation when they were ill (37%). 86% were from the UK and 14% were from the Netherlands. Two thirds reported working when ill at least once in a period of 6 months ($n = 55$), and only one in three never

exhibited presenteeism ($n = 25$). Women were more likely to come to work when ill, 75% compared to only 54% of men. Women were also more likely to exhibit a high frequency of presenteeism, 83% of women went to work when ill more than three times.

There were three research questions in this study and logistic regression was used as the statistical analysis to test the hypothesis in all of them. For Research Question 1 which explored the predictive relationship of the five dimensions of personality: neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness to presenteeism among employees. The results of the logistic regression were not statistically significant although and the results also indicated that none of the five personality dimensions were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism.

For Research Question 2 which explored the predictive relationship of the climate dimensions of welfare, autonomy, innovation and flexibility, supervisory support, pressure to produce, integration, formalization, and efficiency to presenteeism. The logistic regression model accounted for 19% of the variance, however the model was not statistically significant ($p > .50$). Of the eight organizational climate measures only two variables were statistically significant as predictors; employees who perceived their organizations to be high in innovation and flexibility were almost four times more likely to come to work when they are ill, while employees who scored their organizational climate high in integration were approximately four times less likely to do so.

Finally, for Research Question 3 which explored moderating effect of personality dimensions on the organizational climate – presenteeism relationship, the results of the logistic regression indicated that none of the dependent variables, conscientiousness,

neuroticism, welfare, and supervisory support were statistically significant predictors of presenteeism. This was expected based on the previous two analysis. Similarly, the moderating effect of personality on the climate – presenteeism relationship was not statistically significant, indicating that there is no moderation effect.

Interpretation of Findings

The results of the study indicated that there is no significant relationship between personality, organizational climate and presenteeism, and that personality does not moderate the climate – presenteeism relationship. The only exception to this are two dimensions of organizational climate, as measured by the OCM (Patterson et. al, 2005), innovation and flexibility and integration. This finding may indicate the probability that in organizations where a lot of emphasis is placed on innovation, new ideas, and where there is a general focus on change employees are more likely to come to work when ill. Similarly, in organizations where there is a lot of trust between teams and high levels of collaboration, employees are four times less likely to exhibit presenteeism. However, it is important to note that several limitations exist in this study that limit the generalizability of the results. As far as the results are concerned, the regression model accounted for only 17% of the variance and was not statistically significant. In addition, the study only examined the relationship of personality, organizational climate and presenteeism in the UK and the Netherlands, and issues with participant recruitment meant that the sample size was not large enough to achieve the desired effect size. The study also confirmed, even in this limited sample that the prevalence of presenteeism is high among participants, in both countries. This is in line with findings of several previous research

(Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Aronsson et al., 2000; Handes & Andersen, 2008; Johns, 2011).

Some of the findings in this study are different to those of Johns (2011) who found that neuroticism was negatively related to presenteeism, both self-reported presenteeism as well as to a more formal measure, Sandford Presenteeism Scale. The Johns study looked at several organizational factors in addition to employee personality but was focused on both absenteeism and presenteeism. Like the results of this study, the Johns study also found no relationship between conscientiousness and presenteeism. It is important to note that the Johns study was conducted in Canada, and that it was limited to recent graduates of business schools.

Only two other studies reviewed as a part of the literature review included a personality measure. The Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005) study on the prevalence and attendance-pressure factors of presenteeism. However, the researchers did not use one of the big five personality dimensions, but rather measured the extent of a person's 'boundarylessness' the ability to say no to others and found that people who find it hard to day no are at higher risk of exhibiting presenteeism. Similarly, Hansen and Andersen (2008) also included the variable boundarylessness in their study of presenteeism and related personal and work-related circumstances and attitudes. They too found a positive relationship between not being able to say no and presenteeism.

The original literature review encompassed research published until 2015, so I reviewed some more recent studies exploring the relationship between personality and presenteeism. The findings of this research study are like the 2021 study of Australian

nurses by Banks and Pearson. The researchers also found that personality traits do not predict presenteeism, or for that matter, absenteeism, in nurses. Miraglia and Johns (2016) conducted a meta-analysis of the correlates of presenteeism using Johns (2010) original model of presenteeism (see Chapter 2) that includes personality as one of the dimensions. They confirmed Johns' previous findings that conscientiousness was not related to presenteeism.

When it comes to organizational climate, the present study was able to support the findings from the Gosselin et al. (2013) study which found that supervisory support was not a significant predictor of presenteeism, although it was negatively related to absenteeism, which research has shown to be connected to presenteeism. The Gosselin et al. study was however conducted in Canada, specifically among senior executives working in public services. The researchers also found that peer support was positively correlated to presenteeism, and that intragroup conflict was negatively related. Although the current study did not examine these two variables specifically, integration, one of the dependent variables examined is defined by Patterson et al. (2005) as the measure of trust and cooperation between departments and teams. The results of this study are therefore consistent with findings of Gosselin et al. (2013) regarding the impact of cooperation and lack of intragroup conflict, in organizations where integration is high, employees are less likely to come to work when they are ill.

Autonomy, one of the dimensions of organizational climate was also explored as a predictor of presenteeism by Johns (2011). Johns found, using regression analysis, that autonomy was not associated with presenteeism, supporting the findings of this current

study. It is important to note that in addition to a difference in the characteristics of the sample, the Johns study also used a different measure of autonomy, the Work Design Questionnaire, which defines autonomy as ‘scheduling autonomy’ while the definition of autonomy in the Patterson et al. (2005) is broader and extends to autonomy in decision making.

This study looked to address a gap in existing research pertaining to studies focusing on five dimensions of personality and organizational climate as a theoretical as underpinning theoretical frameworks and determined that only integration and innovation and flexibility had a significant impact on presenteeism. In addition, the study also supported previous research, finding no predictive relationship between neuroticism and conscientiousness, and no relationship between supervisory support and presenteeism. The study however did not provide evidence that any of the other climate or personality dimensions were associated with presenteeism, even though evidence from similar studies on absenteeism, a related employee behavior showed that both extroversion and conscientiousness were associated with absenteeism (Judge et al., 1997).

This study was based on the Johns (2010) conceptual framework of presenteeism. In relation to the framework, and in line with Johns’ later research, the results of the study confirmed that organizational factors have an impact on employees exhibiting presenteeism. Later developments of the framework, for example Gosselin et al. (2013), were likewise somewhat supported by this study, although it appears that more research needs to be done to determine exactly which elements of personality are correlated with presenteeism. To date, other than boundarylessness, and individual attitudes to work,

there is no evidence that any of the five dimensions of personality, based on the trait theory of personality and the five-factor model (Digman,1990) are related to presenteeism.

One novel contribution to existing body of research was that organizations where innovation and flexibility are perceived as being high, employees are more likely to exhibit presenteeism. Reflecting on the definition of innovation and flexibility in the OCM instrument, it refers to an organizational ability to quickly adapt to change and how open they are to accepting new ideas (Patterson et al., 2005) there are several reasons why this might be so. One could be that in highly innovative organizations more pressure is put on employees to finish tasks and complete work on time, so employees are more likely to feel the need to come to work when they are ill. Or it could be that the finding is more related to the type of organization, organizations high on innovation might, in the countries where the research was conducted, skew highly to small startups where the number of employees might be small, and so there might be more pressure on employees to come to work when they are ill because when they are not there is no one who can take over their work and so then work just accumulates. Since no other references were found in presenteeism research on innovation and flexibility and, keeping in mind the limitations of the current study, it might be interesting to gain a deeper understanding of these variables as any organizational factors that contribute to presenteeism should be explored. This is because there is overwhelming evidence from previous research that presenteeism has negative impact on employee health (Cooper & Dewe, 2008; Kivimäki

et al., 2005) and overall organizational productivity (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Dixon, 2005; Johns, 2011; Prater & Smith, 2011).

This study was designed to be correlational, nonexperimental, and cross-sectional, appropriate to the intent of exploring the relationship between the predictor variables - employee personality and organizational culture on presenteeism, the outcome variable. It is therefore important to note that any conclusions regarding any causal relationships should not be inferred. To infer causation a truly experimental study would be more appropriate. However, because it would require employees being randomly assigned to groups and then exposed to controlled ‘treatment’ conditions of different organizational climates, this would be highly impractical, and possibly unethical. Additionally, the time period of the study would have to be excessively long. The second limitation of the study is in the sample; due to the before mentioned data collection challenges, the sample size was lower than in the original study design and on one demographic dimension, gender split, it was not fully representative of the overall population, further limiting the generalizability of the study results.

Implications for Positive Social Change

Presenteeism is continuing to be a growing problem for organizations and, with its negative impacts on employee health, on employees themselves, as well as on national health systems. Its presence has been identified in research in many countries across the globe (see Lohaus, & Habermann, 2019). The pressure on organizations and employees in recent times have been exacerbated by COVID work from home mandates, financial insecurity and general job insecurity (Kinman & Grant, 2021). In 1994 World Health

Organization published a recommendation which states that employee health and safety are considered a basic human right (WHO, 1994). Organizations play an important role in ensuring that their employees feel supported during periods of illnesses and not all countries globally have regulated sickness absence and sickness pay. Research studies like one this can help both organizational leaders and regulatory bodies better understand the impact of policies and regulations on employee wellbeing. For example, by designing organizational policies that do not focus on rewarding the wrong behaviors but focus instead on developing practices that support employees, organizational leaders can have a profound effect on individuals, their families, and the communities in which they work.

Recommendations for Further Research

Presenteeism has a few generally accepted conceptual frameworks, but no uniting underlying theoretical model. Without underlying theory, there is prevailing misalignment in even the definition and measure of presenteeism (Lohaus, & Habermann, 2019). Even though some of the original research and interest in presenteeism dates to the late 1990s, the first conceptual framework developed by Aronsson and Gustafsson in 2005 and then extended by Johns in 2010. In 2016 Cooper and Lu addressed some of the gaps in Johns' model and noted that most existing organizational studies overlook the decision-making process employees are going through when they are deciding to go to work when they are ill. Lohaus and Habermann conducted a review of all research to date in 2019 and concluded that this is largely still the case. It is evident that further research is therefore needed to continue to build on the psychological process as suggested by Cooper and Lu. This current study only considered

personality as one aspect of psychological decision making and found no relationship with presenteeism, supporting prior research. However, this study, like most previous research studies, used the big five personality model to test the relationship. Future research could therefore extend to explore other measurements of personality, perhaps those that focus more on categorical personality types, over personality traits. Although the five-factor model is generally accepted by researchers as the most robust model, some trait theories posit that a person generally sits somewhere on the spectrum between two ends of a trait. Other personality type measures are more discreet and offer a more straightforward classification, albeit with more dimensions. For example, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) classifies personality types into 16 distinct groups, and the test is widely used in organizational contexts (Welsh et al., 2011). However, in the future it is also important the emphasis is given to finding the elements of the decision-making process of going to work when ill as these are still unclear

One of the main limitations of the study, it being conducted on a small sample of employees in two countries, should also be addressed in future research, perhaps by focusing on only one country to ensure cultural differences and attitudes toward work are better controlled for. By also focusing the population of interest to a specific type of organization (e.g., medium sized organizations) or a specific work context (e.g., office workers, or corporate environments in a specific industry) better and more specific results might be obtained. Lastly, future studies should also continue to investigate the impact of organizational climate on presenteeism as this current study uncovered at least one if not two new variables that impact employee presenteeism, albeit on a small sample.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore the influence that personality and organizational climate have on the decision to come to work when ill. The study was based on existing conceptual frameworks, most significantly on the framework provided by Johns (2010) who identified that both individual factors like personality, and work factors influence an employee's decision to work when ill. The results of this quantitative correlational study provided some evidence that only two dimensions of organizational climate had an impact on presenteeism; integration was negatively related with presenteeism, and innovation and flexibility positively. The main limitation of the study was the relatively small sample of participants. It was recommended that further research is needed to better understand the psychological aspects of the decision-making process, as this study confirmed prior findings that personality is not one of those psychological aspects.

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Appendix A: Permission Agreement for Organizational Climate Measure Instrument



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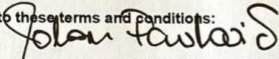
11/05/2020

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