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The Relationship between responsible leadership and presenteeism and the mediating role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions: an employee perspective

Md. Amlan Jahid Haque

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The School of Management, Operations and Marketing

**The Relationship between Responsible Leadership and Presenteeism
and the Mediating Role of Organisational Commitment and
Employee Turnover Intentions: An Employee Perspective**

Md. Amlan Jahid Haque

**This thesis is presented as part of the requirements for the
Award of the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

from

The University of Wollongong

April 2016

THESIS CERTIFICATION

I, Md. Amlan Jahid Haque, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy, in the School of Management, Operations and Marketing (SMOM), University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Md. Amlan Jahid Haque

11 April, 2016

ABSTRACT

Despite the promotion of various leadership styles based on leader-follower relationship, individual competencies, competition and goals, calls have been made for a leadership approach that is embedded in the often implicit notion of responsibility. Responsible Leadership (RL) highlights two fields of study: social responsibility and stakeholder leadership to achieve mutually beneficial business goals. RL presents an attractive and important integration of research on leadership and corporate social responsibility and offers the opportunity to provide significant advances in organisational studies. While much has been studied about social responsibility, less is known about the influence of RL on employee outcomes, such as presenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

Presenteeism is defined as attending work while being ill and unable to work, at least not at full capacity. Presenteeism costed the Australian economy \$A34.1 billion (2.7% of the Gross Domestic Product) for 2009-2010 (Medibank, 2011). It is well recognised in both psychological and occupational-hazard studies but needs further exploration in the context of organisational leadership. Presenteeism indicates a substantial impact on employees' productivity and imposes a significant economic burden both on businesses and national economies. This thesis proposes a structural model and examines the direct influence of RL on employee outcomes, including presenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. It also examines the mediating roles of both organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism.

The proposed model was tested using a heterogeneous sample of employees from various Australian industry sectors. A web-based survey was mailed to 3500 employees and 323 responses were collected to confirm 200 complete responses. A total of 123 responses were incomplete and were therefore excluded from the findings, resulting in an overall response rate of 9.2%. Participants responded to scales measuring responsible leadership, presenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

Eight hypotheses were developed to examine the thesis aims. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the proposed hypotheses. The results of SEM provided support for eight hypotheses. The significant findings of the study were threefold. First, RL behaviours were negatively and significantly related to both presenteeism and employee turnover intentions in workplaces among Australian employees. The results suggest that when employees perceive their leaders to be responsible, there is greater likelihood that employees will exhibit lower presenteeism and turnover intentions at work. Second, RL was also positively and significantly related to organisational commitment. This result suggest that RL has a significant and positive influence on employees' emotional attachments to their organisations (affective commitment) and the individual personal values (normative commitment) than their costs of resigning, such as losing attractive benefits or seniority (continuance commitment). Third, the results support the hypotheses that organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions partially mediate the relationship between RL and presenteeism. The results suggest that both organisational commitment and employees' turnover intentions reduce the total influence of RL on presenteeism.

The findings of this thesis provide valuable insights by corroborating and extending theory and research in several ways. First, the study is one of the first reported studies to test the direct and indirect relationship between RL and presenteeism with an Australian sample. Second, it empirically tests an underexplored assumption of RL theory by examining the influence of RL on employee outcomes including organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Third, the proposed model in this thesis is one of the first to examine how and why RL influences presenteeism by integrating two mediators, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Fourth, several implications for practice can be highlighted including designing employee training programs to promote RL skills among managers, recognising presenteeism, incorporating organisational strategies to recover losses from presenteeism, and encouraging managers to enhance organisational commitment and reduce employee turnover intentions in organisations. In conclusion, limitations of the study are presented along with recommendations for future research.

PUBLICATIONS FROM THIS RESEARCH

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1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the overall purpose and the significance of the Ph.D. thesis and introduces responsible leadership (RL), organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. This study has two specific aims: to examine the influence of perceived RL on presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions with a structural model; and to explore the mediation of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism. The notion of organisational leadership has been used in numerous contexts within organisational studies and expressed at individual, group and managerial levels. Section 1.2 of this chapter outlines the importance of RL in the current organisational leadership context. This chapter then explains the significance of presenteeism followed by the statement of the problem. Thereafter, this chapter presents the research questions and hypotheses, and outlines the significance and contributions of the thesis. Finally, the last section provides a general overview of the remaining chapters.

1.2 Theoretical significance of responsible leadership (RL)

As an interdisciplinary concept, RL attracts attention from scholars and researchers from diverse fields such as organisational behaviour, human resource management (HRM), psychology, philosophy, corporate governance, strategy, law, sociology, political science, marketing, business ethics and sustainability (Siegel, 2014). Although the notion of RL is relatively new in the literature, it shows an important theoretical significance for organisational leadership.

First, several researchers acknowledge that RL inherently intersects the individual, group and organisational levels for its leadership outcomes. The concept of RL integrates two specific fields of study: social responsibility and leadership. Much has been written about social responsibility in the literature and its relationship with organisational financial outcomes (Orlitzky et al., 2003), but more investigation is required into both employee and organisational outcomes. Moreover, RL helps an organisation attain group, organisational,

and societal goals to continually function ethically and socially responsibly within its business community (Phillips & Freeman, 2003; Doh et al., 2011; Voegtlin et al., 2012). Hence, RL integrates both the micro and macro-based literature on social responsibility and considers leadership as a process or method of inclusion to achieve individual, group, organisational and societal goals.

Second, Waldman and Galvin (2008) identified that the notion of responsibility is missing from current leadership practices, which include transformational, charismatic, authentic, participative, servant, ethical, shared, and spiritual leadership. RL encourages leaders to lead in a way that is responsible towards the environment, society, business organisations and stakeholders (Maritz et al., 2011). Hence, RL delimits contemporary leadership practices and establishes explicitly what ‘responsibility’ implies in leadership. It also suggests that leaders lead in business environments where they may have decreasing legitimacy and trust because of unethical acts in various forms (Maak & Pless, 2006a). RL is defined as a social and relational phenomenon (Pless & Maak, 2011), and the literature of RL signifies the leadership role in several ways. First, RL extends the relationship between leader and followers toward a broader scope for its social and global business outcomes (Maak & Pless, 2006b). Second, RL recognises the normative dimensions as in ethical or moral obligations underlying the relationship between leaders and their stakeholders (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman et al., 2007). It suggests that leaders be responsible so that they can be effective leaders (Waldman & Galvin, 2008). Third, RL offers a more balanced approach towards the stakeholder relationship by shaping leaders as facilitators for relational processes that result in stronger leader-stakeholder relationships (Maak & Pless, 2006). Hence, the theoretical development of RL creates a culture of inclusion between organisations and societies by building a solid moral ground for responsible businesses (Pless & Maak, 2004; Avery & Baker, 1990).

Third, the stakeholder theory influences RL (Pless & Maak, 2011). It is a theory of organisational management and business ethics that addresses morals and values in both managing and leading organisations (Freeman, 1984). Stakeholder theory is significant, as it suggests the needs to balance multiple stakeholder entities and guide leaders to achieve an ideal level of harmonisation to meet stakeholder expectations (Waldman & Balven, 2015; Stahl & Luque, 2014). Doh and Quigley (2014) considered the individual, group and

organisational levels of RL as supporting stakeholder theory at four discrete levels. First, at the micro or individual level, responsible leaders consider followers as significant stakeholders and attempt to influence the stakeholders' motivation and creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Second, at the group or team level, responsible leaders influence and encourage teams to value diverse perspectives toward other stakeholders. Here, leaders provide both team-level psychological support and learning for team performance; these also influence improved decision-making within organisations (Stasser & Titus, 1985; Edmondson, 1999). Third, at the organisational level, responsible leaders help to build an open, inclusive and diverse internal culture by sharing and disseminating knowledge. They also foster strong ties with external stakeholders that lead organisations toward growth, innovation and superior employee performance (Thomas, 2004). Lastly, at the societal level where responsible leaders lead across cultural boundaries to harmonise both the internal and external stakeholders. Here, they anticipate and recognise both the socio-economic challenges and opportunities to act more responsibly (Miska et al., 2013; Stahl et al., 2013). Hence, RL shows its theoretical significance in the furthering of stakeholder theory to meet stakeholder expectations for organisations' internal as well as external customers.

Fourth, Mirvis et al. (2010) focused on the holistic view of leadership and considered RL to be a function of the individual leader (the 'Me'), of responsible organisations (the 'We'), and of responsible business in the larger ecosystem of investors, consumers, competitors, regulators and other interests (the 'Us') that provide a context to act responsibly for legitimate and sustainable business leadership. While the notion of RL does not claim that most leaders are irresponsible, it does assert that because of various corporate scandals (such as Enron, HHH and WorldCom), managers are increasingly held accountable for their leadership roles to their organisations' multiple stakeholders and society as a whole. Hence, the literature of RL comprises supporting trustful relationships with all stakeholders and incorporates responsible actions to achieve a meaningful and common business vision (Maak & Pless, 2006a, 2006b; Pless, 2007). Hence, the literature of RL is significant for these relationships to establish a sense of justice, recognition, care and responsibility for a broader range of organisational and social outcomes.

Finally, the current literature of organisational leadership integrates the perspectives of both ethical and stakeholder theories to compare the RL literature with other leadership practices

(Doh & Stumpf, 2005; Pless et al., 2012; Voegtlin et al., 2012; Miska et al., 2013; Doh & Quigley, 2014). The stakeholder reflection for RL emerged because of current world issues, such as the global financial crisis, environmental catastrophes, corporate scandals, and globalisation. The stakeholder theory is described as:

...the assumption that values are necessarily and explicitly a part of doing business. It asks managers to articulate the shared sense of the value they create, and what brings its core stakeholders together. It also pushes managers to be clear about how they want to do business, specifically what kinds of relationships they want and need to create with their stakeholders to deliver on their purpose (Freeman et al., 2004, p. 364).

Hence, RL is theoretically grounded on stakeholder theory and promotes organisational leadership with moral awareness and accountability for societal and global concerns. In contrast, Lynham and Chermack (2006) suggested an integrative framework of leadership, which they termed Responsible Leadership for Performance (RLP), and acknowledged the influence of RL on organisational performance. The consequences of RL for employee productivity and organisational performance have been well acknowledged, but studies exploring its predictors and outcomes are not enough. Researchers have recommended that despite the potential to shed light on some aspects of leadership at work, research on RL is still in a developing stage (Waldman & Balven, 2015). Therefore, the notion of RL has the potential to expand the current leadership literature by developing and extending the influence of RL on employee outcomes. This study will examine the interactions between selected employee outcomes and RL that either have not been addressed or require further attention. Therefore, this thesis will contribute to the literature by offering evidence that leaders should be more attentive to and sincere in their practice of RL for desirable organisational leadership outcomes.

1.3 Practical significance of RL

RL is rare in leadership practices where the idea of responsibility is more generally considered to mean 'being able to respond' by using capability and exercising accountability (Brown, 1986; Salancik & Meindl, 1984). This view of responsibility specifies individuals'

inclination to respond in an acceptable manner to a particular situation. The role of appropriateness is significant to leaders, as it associates responsible actions with what is correct, ethical or favourable, and suggest that acting responsibly means aiming for the greater good (Walsh et al., 2003). RL not only includes the notion of responsibility, it also shows the potential to generate practical leadership outcomes (Burns, 1978; Yukl et al., 2002). Several researchers have suggested applying RL for maximising employee performance and achieving both organisational and societal goals (Doh et al., 2011; Waldman & Siegel, 2008; Pless et al., 2012; Miska et al., 2013; Stahl et al., 2013; Voegtlin et al., 2012). In addition to its theoretical contribution, the notion of RL has significant practical outcomes. Pless and Maak (2011) noted, “Responsible leadership responds to both existing gaps in leadership theory and the practical challenges facing leadership” (p. 4). In the current study, the practical significance of RL is as follows.

First, severe ethical lapses and failures of several well-known corporations have raised questions about current organisational leadership practices (Manz et al., 2008; Stahl & de Luque, 2014). For example, corporate collapses (such as Enron, HIH and WorldCom), product recalls (such as those from Volkswagen and Toyota), and corporate excesses (such as Exxon-Valdez) have emphasised demands for organisational leadership to display accountability and morality. As a result, organisations are increasingly challenged to execute leadership skills with a better sense of responsibility towards all stakeholders and to demonstrate RL in practice.

Second, in addition to various corporate scandals and collapses, there is a growing public demand to solve some of the social and global issues to which leaders are expected to respond (Pless et al., 2011; Maak & Pless, 2006a). Various stakeholders, particularly those who are socially neglected and excluded, have become more critical and want to be involved in dialogue for corporate responsibility (Mària & Lozano, 2010). In this situation, leaders need to cope with the new pressure to compel stakeholders to support their organisations (Schneider, 2002). Hence, scholars proposed to explore the characteristics, competencies, and other properties that promote RL, and that thus may prevent leadership scandals and ethical misconducts. For example, responsible leaders may act as “agents of world benefit” (Maak & Pless, 2009, p. 540) and may help to not repeat scandals; rather, they may aim to solve future global and ecological issues. Researchers have suggested that RL contributes to improve life

in the community by proactively including different stakeholders in beneficial engagements and by adhering to a socially responsible code of conduct (Mària & Lozano, 2010; Voegtlin, 2011; Yunus et al., 2010).

Third, the concept of RL links corporate social responsibility (CSR) with stakeholder theory (Stahl & De Luque, 2014). Hence, RL encourages organisations to go beyond economic interests and promote CSR by extending the stakeholder perspective to include their organisational missions, expectations about corporate responsibility to society and leaders' own moral values (Morgeson et al., 2013; Waldman & Siegel, 2008; Phillips et al., 2003).

Finally, RL is generating a considerable amount of interest among practitioners because of its influence on organisational phenomena such as, employee commitment, employee performance, turnover intentions and organisational effectiveness (Doh et al., 2011; Pless et al., 2012; Doh & Quigley, 2014). Although the concept of RL has been shown to have potential for increasing organisational performance (Waldman & Siegel, 2008; Pless et al., 2012; Miska et al., 2013; Stahl et al., 2013; Voegtlin et al., 2012), there is limited practical evidence showing the influence of RL on both employee and organisational performance outcomes (Morgeson et al., 2013; Christensen et al., 2014; Doh & Quigley, 2014). Hence, further studies to establish the links between RL and organisational outcomes can be significant. These findings will present arguments for organisations to invest in RL-development platforms and to ensure that their businesses become responsible within their communities.

1.4 The significance of presenteeism

Presenteeism – defined as attending work while being ill and unable to work, at least not at full capacity (Aronsson et al., 2000; Johns, 2010; Brooks et al., 2010; Lack, 2011) – is well recognised in both psychological and occupational-hazard studies. However, it needs further exploration in the context of organisational leadership. Researchers have shown that presenteeism is more costly to organisations than sickness absence, and reducing employee productivity (Hemp, 2004; Schultz & Edington, 2007; Johns, 2010; Scuffham et al., 2014). Researchers have suggested several effects of presenteeism to demonstrate its importance in organisational studies. First, employees with health conditions may include those who would

like to take time off, but are unable to because of a variety of reasons, such as job security, poor sick pay, peer pressure, increased workloads or fear of disciplinary action (Aronsson et al., 2000; Lowe, 2002; Biron et al., 2006). Second, presenteeism affects employees' productivity when they are enforced to continue work because of demands from their employers (Dew et al., 2005; Johns, 2007; Aronsson et al., 2000; Hemp, 2004; Quazi, 2013). Third, presenteeism not only affects employees' productivity but also causes lack of engagement and commitment, boredom, poor workplace relationships and work-life conflict (Johns, 2010; Pilette, 2005; Grinyer & Singleton, 2000; Duxbury & Higgins, 2001; Caverley et al., 2007). As a consequence, presenteeism worsen employees' health, make accidents more likely, reduce their productivity and reduce their motivation to work effectively (Aronsson et al., 2000; Hemp, 2004; Johns, 2010; Pilette, 2005). Hence, from an HRM perspective, presenteeism can adversely affect both employees' productivity and organisational performance (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Hemp, 2004; Scuffham et al., 2014).

1.5 Statement of the problem

Employee productivity has become a critical success factor for organisations' sustainable competitive performance. Managers are aware of the impact of absenteeism, but recently, presenteeism has also drawn attention for its significant impact on employee productivity and the significant economic burden it imposes on businesses and overall economies. The cost of presenteeism remains invisible as organisations focus only on the direct health-care costs of absenteeism (Wright et al., 2002).

Several published studies have examined the role of organisational leadership on employee well-being. How leaders are perceived by employees to inhabit their role influences the employees' psychological and physical well-being. Research suggests that the role of leadership is significant for understanding employees' psychological and physical health, and, consequently, its effects on their sickness absence (absence because of health conditions). To date, however, presenteeism has not been extensively examined (Nyberg et al., 2008; Nyberg et al., 2009; Kelloway & Barling, 2010; Scuffham et al., 2014). Moreover, there is abundant evidence for an association between employees' perceptions of how their leaders are and behave and the soundness of the employees' psychological and physical health (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Offerman & Hellman, 1996; Seltzer & Numerof, 1988). Similarly, researchers

indicate that different styles of leadership practices have different levels of relationships between presenteeism and employees' perception about leadership influences (Nyberg et al., 2008; Stordeur et al., 2001; Sosik & Godshalk, 2001; Tepper, 2000). The majority of research has been conducted within the literature of organisational leadership which suggests that leadership is important to the extent that it is not only associated with employees' attitudes, performance and motivation, but also essential for their personal and social well-being (Nyberg et al., 2008; Stordeur et al., 2001; Sosik & Godshalk, 2001; Tepper, 2000). Aronsson et al. (2000) argued that employees have significantly enhanced the risk of being at work when ill if explicitly or implicitly pressured by managers; this suggests a relationship between leadership and presenteeism. Similarly, Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005) studied the antecedents of presenteeism and found several work-related and personal factors, such as staff replacement, time pressure, insufficient resources or financial stresses, influence presenteeism. Nyberg et al. (2008) argued that leadership influences the pattern of presenteeism outcomes. Although several studies have examined various leadership influences on presenteeism (Arnold et al., 2007; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Nyberg et al., 2008; Ensley et al., 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007; Nielsen et al., 2008), none have yet investigated presenteeism's links to perceived RL.

Organisations often strive to understand how employees can be managed for sustainable competitive advantage. Researchers have emphasised the role of HRM as a means of managing human and social capital for greater competitive advantages. According to Youndt et al. (2004), both HR investment and development have a significant role in creating human capital for competitive performance. Human capital is defined as the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) residing with and used by individuals (Wright et al., 1994). Improved human capital can potentially provide a competitive advantage, as employees are integral to a firm's success (Wright & Kehoe, 2008). Consequently, the management of human capital increasingly focuses on leadership practices for the optimal use of organisational resources and capabilities. The promotion and improvement of human capital can improve organisational commitment in employees, and they are positively associated with each other (Puhakainen & Siponen, 2010; Hollins, 2012). On the other hand, as a threat to employees' turnover rate, turnover intentions have attracted much attention by researchers and practitioners, as employee retention significantly develops and maintains human capital for organisations (Boles et al., 2004). Research has shown that identifying and dealing with

antecedents of employee turnover intentions is an effective way to reduce actual turnover (Dess & Shaw, 2001). Moreover, the indirect costs of employee turnover include reduced productivity, loss of human capital and decrease in morale among remaining employees (Griffeth et al., 2000; Allen et al., 2003; Jacobs & Roodt, 2007). Hence, this study includes employees' organisational commitment and turnover intentions, as the inclusion of these variables in previous organisational studies has shown links to both employee and organisational performance. Therefore, this study considers two mediators: organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The study aims to examine the impact on the relationship of perceived RL and presenteeism.

The use of mediating variables is common in organisational studies. According to MacKinnon et al. (2007), a mediating variable transmits the effect of an independent variable to a dependent variable, but the challenging task of research remains to infer the true state of mediation from observations. In this study, organisational commitment is the first mediating variable in the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism. It is justified as a mediator because of the relative characteristics of an individual's identity, involvement and attachment to the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982; Aldag & Reschke, 1997). Moreover, the significance of organisational commitment is prioritised as it differentiates between stayers and leavers more than job satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974). Hence, a significant number of studies already consider organisational commitment as a mediating variable for various organisational studies (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Hwang & Hopkins, 2012; Jing & Zhang, 2014). On the other hand, according to Porter and Steers (1973), greater emphasis should be placed on understanding the turnover decision process, as an employee's 'intention to leave' is a likely mediator to the attitude-behaviour relationship. However, the notion of employee turnover intentions is more prevalent in organisational studies, as it represents the last stage prior to quitting. In this study, both mediators are likely to influence the relationship of perceived RL and presenteeism. This thesis includes a further discussion of both mediators in the following chapters.

Previous studies have identified several inadequacies in the understanding of the relationship between leadership practices and presenteeism, which is a compelling reason to conduct this study. First, the direct link between leadership and employee performance (through presenteeism) is implied rather than explicit. In other words, studies that examined leadership

did not link leadership performance to objective outcomes of the leadership system (Holton & Lynham, 2000; Bass, 1990). However, workplaces are dynamic and perceived RL may represent a substantial opportunity for business leaders to reduce presenteeism and improve organisational performance, as leading responsibly is predominantly linked to organisational effectiveness (Bennis, 1994). Second, the impact of leadership on performance has not been examined from various levels (individual, group, process and organisational) for organisational performance (Holton & Lynham, 2000; Bass, 1990; Lynham, 1998, 2000a, 2000b; Yukl & Van, 1992). Hence, it is imperative to study the relationship of perceived RL on an individual level for employee outcomes focusing on presenteeism. Third, the notion of 'responsibility' within perceived RL compared to other forms of leadership practices is absent in current leadership literature in relation to employee outcomes such as organisational commitment or employee turnover intentions (Gardner, 1990; Collins & Porras, 1994; Takala, 1999; Mostovicz et al., 2011). There seems to be a paucity of literature on the link between perceived RL and presenteeism. Therefore, this study will also contribute to organisational studies for leadership development and employee outcomes by investigating the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism in the Australian context.

1.6 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism. It also scrutinises the mediating role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism. The independent variable RL "can be defined as the art and ability involved in building, cultivating and sustaining trustful relationships to different stakeholders, both inside and outside the organisation, and in co-ordinating responsible action to achieve a meaningful, commonly shared business vision" (Maak 2007, p.334). The dependent variable, presenteeism is defined as attending work while being ill and unable to work at full capacity (Lack, 2011). As the mediators, organisational commitment (including normative, affective and continuance) (Meyer et al., 1993) and employee turnover intentions (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975) will be measured to examine the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism among the Australian employees. Therefore, this thesis limits its focus to specific key constructs: RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.

The selection of each construct is justified by a literature review (Chapter 2). Figure 1.1 shows the relationships of the studied variables. Overall, this study aims to:

1. empirically examine the nature of the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism in a sample of Australian employees;
2. evaluate and test the role of employees' perceptions of perceived RL in the relationships between perceived RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism; and
3. develop and test the mediational roles of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism; and

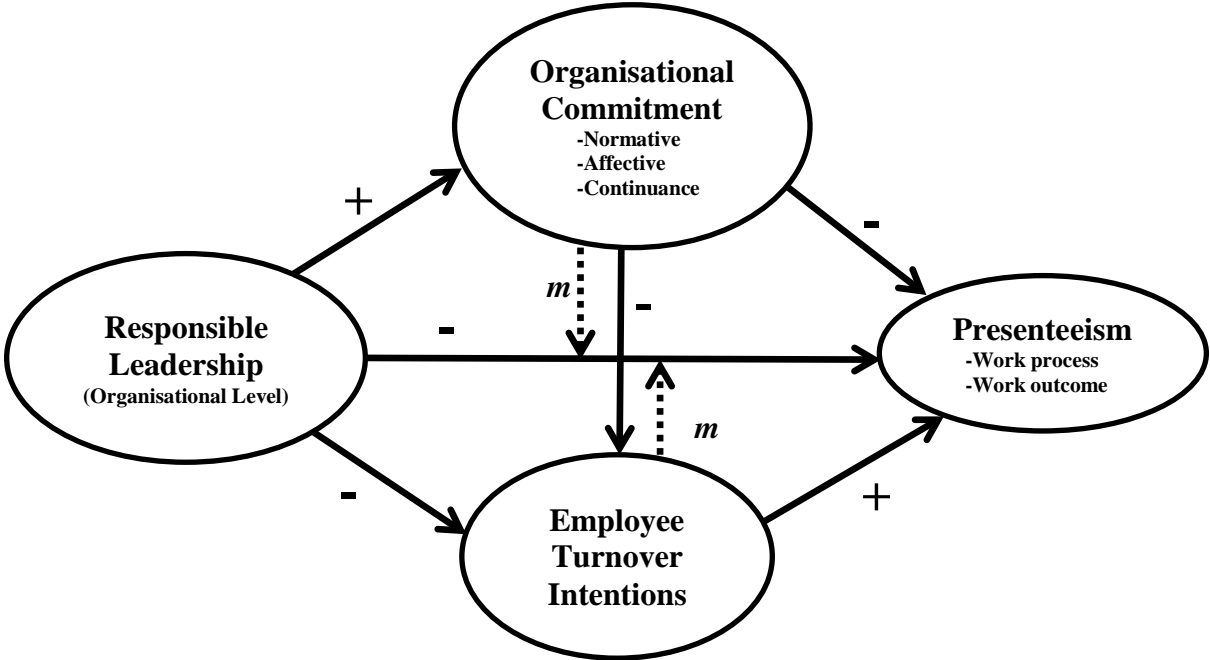


Figure 1.1: The relational model between perceived RL and presenteeism with the mediating role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions . The plus (+) and minus (-) signs indicate positive and negative relationships among the variables.

1.7 Research questions and hypotheses

This study will investigate the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism in the Australian context and examine the mediating role of organisational commitment (normative,

affective and continuance) and employee turnover intentions. Hence, the following research questions will guide this study:

Research Question 1: *Is there a significant relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism?*

Research Question 2: *Is there a significant relationship between perceived RL and organisational commitment?*

Research Question 3: *Is there a significant relationship between perceived RL and employee turnover intentions?*

Research Question 4: *Is there a significant relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions?*

Research Question 5: *Is there a significant relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism?*

Research Question 6: *Is there a significant relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism?*

Research Question 7: *Is there a significant mediating relationship between organisational commitment and the association of perceived RL and presenteeism?*

Research Question 8: *Is there a significant mediating relationship between employee turnover intentions and the association of perceived RL and presenteeism?*

To answer the above research questions, this study proposes the following hypotheses (H₁ to H₈):

Hypothesis 1 (H₁): *There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis 2 (H₂): *There is a positive relationship between perceived RL and organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis 3 (H₃): *There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and employee turnover intentions.*

Hypothesis 4 (H₄): *There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.*

Hypothesis 5 (H₅): *There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis 6 (H₆): *There is a positive relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis 7 (H₇): *Organisational commitment mediates the association between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis 8 (H₈): *Employee turnover intentions mediate the association between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

1.8 Significance of the study

The influence of national culture on leadership practices has been well documented. Many scholars have suggested that cultural values and elements (e.g., norms and beliefs) affect what leaders do (House et al., 1997; Ag Budin & Wafa, 2015). The behaviour of leaders reflects their culture (Bass, 1985; Kopelman et al., 1990; Yukl, 1994; Pater, 2015). Hence, scholars have claimed that culture acts as a contingency factor in exercising leadership (Bass, 1990; House et al., 1997, 2004).

Many researchers examining the influence of culture on value-based leadership approaches have noted that norms, values and traditions can influence leaders' behaviour, inclinations and attitudes in several ways (Lord & Maher, 1991; House et al., 1997; Adler, 2008; Yukl, 2010). For example, Mittal and Dorfman (2012) investigated servant leadership across 62 societies and suggested a five-factor (egalitarianism, moral integrity, empowering, empathy, and humility) resolution. These five factors were found to be significant for successful leadership across cultures. Walumbwa et al. (2010) explored the relationship between authentic leadership and power distance, employees' identification with their direct supervisors and empowerment. These associations were intermediated by the employees' level of identification with the superiors and their feelings of empowerment. Kirkman et al. (2009) examined the associations among transformational leadership, power distance orientation, organisational citizenship behaviour and perceptions of procedural justice from the US and China. Their findings suggested that transformational leadership positively influenced all the elements, including employee's procedural justice; however, divergences among nations did not significantly influence these associations. This study examines the influence of RL on presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions from the employee perspective with an Australian sample.

Several researchers have examined the extent to which different perspectives on leadership might be seen as being affected by Australian culture. Egalitarianism and individualism are two key traits identified by Ashkanasy and Falkus (1997) in Australian cultural history that shapes leadership effectiveness. The belief that Australians are equal, egalitarianism, in particular, can influence how leaders approach particular situations in Australia. The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) study generated important research findings about the nature of effective leadership in the Australian cultural context (House et al., 2002). This study suggested that leader effectiveness is contextual and embedded in the Australian societal and organisational norms, values and beliefs of the people being led (Ashkanasy et al., 2000; House et al., 2002). Moreover, for the purposes of examining leadership effectiveness, Australian culture was classified as lying within the “Anglo” (English-speaking) cluster of countries. Karpin’s (1995) report discussed the perceived weaknesses of Australian leadership practices, such as lack of vision, a short-term view and lack of strategic perspective, poor teamwork, inflexibility, poor people skills and inadequate cross-cultural skills (O’Neill, 1996; Barker, 2002). The report emphasised the inadequacy of Australian leadership from various cultural perspectives and described how Australia needed to develop leadership practices to compete in the global marketplace.

More recently, organisational leaders in Australia have been exposed for dishonesty, greed and irresponsible performance. The history of Australian corporate collapses and failures includes many prominent company names including Qintex, HIH Insurance, One Tel and Bankwest. This thesis responds to the call for leadership driven by responsibility, and examines the influence of RL on employee outcomes with an Australian sample.

Researchers have suggested that employees’ health conditions for presenteeism have significant impact on organisational performance. According to Stewart et al. (2003), the cost of presenteeism in the USA is three times higher than absenteeism. Similarly, presenteeism cost the Australian economy \$A 34.1 billion for the year 2009-2010, or 2.7% of the gross domestic product (Medibank, 2011). This loss is even higher in the USA. For 2010, presenteeism cost the USA economy \$US 180 billion, or 1.7% of its gross domestic product (Weaver, 2010). In the UK, presenteeism costs £13 million in lost working days annually (Hardy et al., 2003). According to the Harvard Business Review, US companies may lose \$150 billion annually because of presenteeism (Hemp, 2004). The total cost of presenteeism

is enormous, and alarming for both organisational and national economic growth. While there is adequate discussion in the literature about the relationship between various leadership styles and employee performance, there is limited evidence for the influence of RL on presenteeism, or for the mediational effect of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Hence, this study contributes to the organisational leadership literature both theoretically and practically by investigating the relational (structural) model presented in Figure 1.1. The following discussion outlines the theoretical contributions of this thesis by addressing specific calls from various scholars:

i. Pless et al. (2011) suggested that several challenges to establishing the notion of RL persist because of its lack of theoretical advancement. However, the need for RL is not limited to corporate scandals and ensuing calls for responsible and ethical conduct (Brown & Trevino, 2006). It also includes the need to address organisational changes and new demands resulting from changing business contexts (Maak & Pless, 2006; Waldman & Galvin, 2008). Hence, this research will contribute to advancing the RL literature to help scholars to establish RL with additional theoretical and empirical evidence.

ii. Researchers have shown a significant amount of interest in values-based leadership approaches, and prefer RL for its multilevel (individual, organisational, social and global) outcomes (Doh & Stumpf, 2005; Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Siegel, 2014; Waldman & Balven, 2014). This study examines perceived RL as a value-based leadership approach and extends Brown and Trevino's (2006) findings of 'value' and Spreitzer's (2007) notion of 'responsibility' for organisational leadership practices. Therefore, this thesis examines *how* perceived RL contributes to the literature on values-based leadership practices for organisational studies.

iii. Lynham and Chermack (2006) proposed the concept of responsible leadership for performance (RLP) as a model for organisational leadership. They suggested that a leader's responsible (effective, moral and persistent) leadership can be connected to organisational performance. This research will contribute to develop the theory of RLP and explore the eight strategic propositions indicated in the theoretical outline

(see Lynham & Chermack, 2006, pp. 81-82). Therefore, this study will be an extension of RLP.

iv. The concept of RL promises a significant influence for organisation's 'macro', 'meso', and 'micro' levels (see Voegtlin et al., 2012, p.5). This study examines the influence of perceived RL at the micro (organisational) level about leaders' roles from employees' perception. Hence, this thesis will theoretically contribute to extending Voegtlin et al. (2012)'s perceived RL outcomes at the micro level of manager-employee relationships.

v. The role of HR managers in promoting RL has been ignored in the organisational-studies literature (Bhattacharya et al., 2008, 2009; Maak & Pless, 2006; Wittenberg et al., 2007). HRM can facilitate RL, but research into the role of HRM practices has overlooked this potential (Gond et al., 2011). This research will contribute to the HRM literature by increasing the understanding of employees' perceptions of RL and its relationship with organisation commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.

vi. Lastly, this research study marks perhaps the first attempt to operationalise RL with Cooper's (1994) conceptualisation of presenteeism. The association between employees' perceptions of organisational leadership and the level of presenteeism is well analysed (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Tepper, 2000; Nyberg et al., 2009; Leineweber et al., 2011), but lacks sufficient academic rigor, particularly in relation to RL. In addition, the mediational roles studied in this project link psychological and organisational behaviour literature.

Furthermore, by addressing the objectives using the relational model (Figure 1.1), this research will have the following practical implications:

i. Literature on RL crosses the levels of analysis for individuals, groups and organisations as a whole, but lacks adequate use and practice in organisational leadership (Morgeson et al., 2013; Christensen et al., 2014). While much has been written about RL from the stakeholder and global perspectives, less is known about its

application from the employee's perspective. However, researchers acknowledge that leaders significantly influence employees' morale and work outcomes (Kinnunen & Perko, 2012; Steultjens et al., 2012; Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012). Hence, compared to ethical and moral leadership, RL may prove uniquely applicable to organisational leadership. Therefore, exploring the relationship between situational antecedents (RL, organisational commitment or employee turnover intentions) and outcome (presenteeism) from the employee's perspective will help organisations apply RL to improve organisational performance.

ii. Presenteeism causes productivity loss due to employees' health conditions at work and adversely affects organisational performance (Reilly et al., 1993; Koopman et al., 2002). Researchers have found that organisational leadership influences employees' behaviour for the outcomes of both their absenteeism and presenteeism (Hetland et al., 2007; Nyberg et al., 2009; Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012). Hence, focus on leaders' further training and development to enhance leadership skills and ability may reduce productivity loss significantly. Previous studies have suggested assessments such as multi-source or '360-Degree-Leadership' to improve leadership skills and behaviour for managerial roles (Barling et al., 1996; Avolio & Gibbons, 1988). This study will help organisations practice RL in their strategic HRM to plan managers' training and development initiatives. Hence, this thesis will contribute to organisations' efforts to revise their current leadership evaluation and development practices to facilitate the application and execution of RL within organisations.

iii. Presenteeism is a continuous challenge for organisations and has an adverse result for both micro and macro economies. By 2050, the total cost of presenteeism in Australia is estimated to rise to \$35.8 billion (Medibank, 2011). This study considers the associated costs of productivity loss from presenteeism, including the levels of employees' psychological and physical health. Therefore, from an economic perspective, this thesis will contribute towards measuring and identifying immediate solutions for presenteeism to minimise both micro and macro-economic losses in the Australian context.

iv. Organisations projecting a higher level of RL are likely to achieve higher levels of employee retention (Doh et al., 2011). This study finding will suggest ways to increase cross-functional management among top management and HR departments for an effective deployment of RL to attain a lower rate of turnover and higher employee commitment. In addition, this study will also develop necessary interventions and approaches to facilitate RL within organisations and generate a deeper understanding and discussion of RL and presenteeism for Australian employees. Therefore, this thesis will create an opportunity to advance leadership roles for better management of presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee retentions.

In summary, this study will be principally concerned with perceived RL and related employee outcomes in the Australian context. Four key industry findings supported the motivation for developing and testing the proposed model (Figure 1.1, page 24) of RL and presenteeism in the Australian context. First, several corporate scandals and collapses in Australia (such as James Hardie, HIH Insurance, One Tel and Qintex) raised the demand for responsible leadership. Leaders are increasingly held accountable for their leadership roles. Second, the cost of presenteeism for the Australian economy is reported to be \$A34.1 billion (2.7% of the Gross Domestic Product) for 2009-2010 (Medibank, 2011). Third, Roche et al. (2015) suggested that employee turnover costs varied across the countries in 2014 (US \$20,561; Canada \$26,652, New Zealand \$23,711, Australia \$48,790) and Australian costs were substantially higher due to high turnover and replacement costs. Finally, high organisational commitment associated with low turnover intentions and the cost of employee replacement has been estimated to be twice their annual salary in Australia (Brunetto et al., 2013). Therefore, this thesis will contribute to the organisational-leadership literature both theoretically and practically by investigating the relationships between the perceived RL, presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions of Australian employees.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. The current chapter outlined the introduction of the thesis, giving the background of RL, the importance of recognising presenteeism, the problem

statement and purpose of this study, its research questions with their associated hypotheses, and significance of this thesis.

Chapter 2 contains a literature review for the relational model (Figure 1.1), focusing on the relevance of perceived RL with other leadership theories, presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. It describes the evolution of leadership theories, including the various perspectives of RL, linking RL's individual, social and global perspectives. The notion of RL is further clarified with related value-centered leadership approaches for organisational performance.

Chapter 3 presents the discussion for the development of the hypothesised model. It also incorporates the justifications for each of the eight hypotheses and how each addresses the aims of the thesis.

Chapter 4 illustrates the hypothesised model (Figure 1.1) and formulates the testable hypotheses (H_1 to H_8), including the direct and mediating relationships. It describes the research methods used to meet the purposes of this thesis. It also explains the research design, the population and sample size and the measurement instruments with their psychometric properties. Lastly, the chapter outlines the ethical considerations for data collection and the analysis procedures for this study.

Chapter 5 gives a comprehensive explanation of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and a discussion of the steps and stages for its application. It also includes both the tests of the proposed hypotheses and their results, and a summary of the overall data analysis.

Finally, *Chapter 6* provides a discussion and interpretation of the results found in Chapter 5. It also presents the theoretical and practical contributions of the thesis, including its limitations, and provides suggestions for future researchers.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the theoretical background to the proposed study model that is based on RL and the employee outcomes of presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The key aim of this literature review is to determine the relevance of existing theoretical contributions to the relationship between RL and presenteeism including the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on their direct association. This chapter is presented in 10 sections. Section 2.2 explains the evolution of leadership theory and its relevance to RL. Sections 2.3 to 2.5 examine RL and its related major issues, such as different perspectives of RL, a comparison of RL with other value-based leadership theories and RL for organisational performance. Sections 2.6 and 2.7 outline the relevant features of presenteeism for the current study. Sections 2.8 and 2.9 describe organisational commitment and the issue of employees' overcommitment. Finally, Section 2.10 provides insights into employee turnover intentions and its link to factors affecting employee turnover intentions.

2.2 Evolution of leadership theories

There is a large amount of literature on leadership, and the term 'leadership' is commonly used in many contexts. Leadership has been firmly linked to organisational performance and effectiveness since the beginning of civilization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). There are numerous definitions and theories of leadership with adequate similarities to conclude that leadership is an effort to influence others and the power to induce compliance (Wren, 1995). Moreover, the concept of leadership simultaneously implies both ambiguity and complexity (Carroll et al., 2008; Denis et al., 2010). There is a vast amount of literature on both the evolution of leadership and history of leadership research (Cacioppe, 1997). Therefore, a brief evolution of leadership approaches is offered here. Although the practice of leadership has changed considerably over time, the need for leaders and leadership has not (Bass, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The review in this chapter briefly traces the historical evolution of leadership theories from their initial focus on Great Man and trait theories to the contemporary study of RL. Although the theoretical foundations of leadership theory have changed over time, in many ways the fundamental functions of leadership— direction,

decision-making, goal setting, communicating and resolving conflict– have not changed in their essence (Clark & Clark, 1990).

In the 19th century, the notion of the ‘great man’ dominated leadership theory. This theory claimed that only some individuals (leaders) have the needed attributes (such as persuasiveness, personality, intuition, judgment, courage, intelligence, aggressiveness or action orientation) that set them apart from others and allow them to occupy leadership options, exercising power and authority within the group or society (Northouse, 2006; Kippenberger & NetLibrary, 2002; Borgatta et al., 1954). However, though this idea may serve sufficiently for case studies, it is effectively unusable and, therefore, not applicable as a scientific theory (van Wart, 2003). Hence, the great man theory subsequently gave rise in the 1920s and 1930s to the trait theory which attempted to identify traits that made leaders different from other individuals.

The trait theory of leadership has the underlying assumption that leaders clearly need to possess some universal characteristics that would make them leaders. The trait approach asserted that distinct physical, social and individual characteristics are inherent in leaders (Allen, 1998). Traits were viewed as something fixed that was present at birth and applicable in any circumstance. Thus, this theory is also based on the assumption that leaders are born, not made, and the key to success is simply in distinguishing those personalities who were born to be great leaders (Horner, 1997). However, it is uncertain as to what traits consistently link to trait leadership. One of the flaws with this line of thought is that it overlooks the situational and environmental elements that play a role in leaders’ effectiveness (Horner, 1997). Moreover, trait theory proposes significant attributes for successful leadership (drive, passion to lead, truthfulness, confidence, intellect and job-related knowledge), but does not provide a conclusion as to whether these traits are inherent to individuals, or whether they can be developed through training and education. Allen (1998) suggested that no two leaders are similar, and no single leader owns all of the traits. Therefore, researchers refocused their efforts away from ‘who is a leader’ to ‘what leaders do’. This interest in identifying observable leader behaviours moved the leadership discourse towards behavioural theories (Sashkin & Burke, 1990).

Many behavioural theorists have suggested that leadership behaviours can be learned, and that training and development programs can be useful in this learning process (Allen, 1998). The behavioural approach made an effort to identify what effective leaders do in their jobs and to describe the relationships between those specific behaviours and leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2013). This approach has contended that in terms of effectiveness, the output of the leaders' behaviour focuses on their job accomplishment and goal achievement. Hence, behavioural theorists have assumed that the best styles of leadership could be taught, and developed several training programs to develop managers' leadership behaviours (Allen, 1998). For example, the renowned and well-documented University of Michigan and Ohio State leadership studies followed this approach (Horner, 1997). Similarly, Blake et al. (1964) developed a two-factor model of leadership behaviour, using what they termed 'concern for people' and 'concern for output' to observe and examine leadership outcomes; in time, they added a third variable, flexibility. The result of this research was essentially descriptive, and helped categorise leaders' performance based on their own emphasis either people or production (Horner, 1997). Thereafter, the investigation into leadership behaviours evolved to the next major thrust, the situational contexts of leadership, to find meaningful patterns for further theory-building and useful advice.

Primarily, the idea of situational leadership was similar to Westburg's (1931) suggestion that a leaders' achievement is tied with the ability to understand both the followers and the situation at a given time and respond accordingly to both as circumstances change. The contributions of Stogdill (1948; 1974) and Mann (1959) appeared to further support and advance the notion of situational leadership. Thereafter, Yukl (2013) noted that the effectiveness of leaders' behaviour could be linked to a number of situational factors, such as the extent of leaders' authority and discretion, the quality of the organisation's work subordinates' attributes and the nature of the external environment. Therefore, situational leadership is characterised as a trait or behavioural reflection consisting of either innate skills (traits) or responses to the demands of a distinct situation. This change of direction for leadership paved the way to consider other propositions for understanding the leader-follower relationship (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). Hence, leadership theories have evolved to explore the leader-follower relationship more than leaders' personal characteristics.

Fiedler (1961) focused on the outcome of leadership effectiveness rather than individuals' specific traits. He argued that situational elements as well as the characteristics of both the leader and followers affected the leadership process far more than predetermined leadership traits. Thus, Fiedler's theories continued the evolution of leadership theories away from traits to determining the how aspects of a situation interacted with attributes of leaders that tended to make their followers optimistic. As a result, in the mid-1960s, two new approaches to leadership theory emerged from the situational approach: the contingency and transactional leadership models. Both models contributed to the knowledge of leadership complexity by shifting away from trait-based or situational approaches to a new dimension of leadership (Hollander & Offermann, 1990).

The contingency models (Fiedler, 1964; House, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) contended that leadership effectiveness was a combined result of both the qualities of the leader and the demands of a particular situation, and that these requirements interacted to ensure that leaders' potential was consistent with the tasks they faced. Similarly, Fiedler's (1961) Contingency Leadership Model (CLM) supported the suggestion that effective leadership is situation-dependent. He suggested that leaders needed to be prepared to address effectively a host of situational variables to make intelligent decisions regarding their actions. In addition, House's (1971) path-goal model predicated that employees' performance and satisfaction were influenced by the behaviour of their leaders. Here, the leader's task was to ensure employees' understanding of their goals, reduce or eliminate any impediments for their goal accomplishment and to increase their satisfaction, while employees' task was to achieve their goals. Moreover, the Decision Making Model (DMM) developed by Vroom and Yetton (1973) suggested that it was important for leaders to determine how much participation employees would have in the organisation's decision-making process. This model was established on the idea that there was a direct link between employees' acceptance of decisions and their productivity. However, all the contingency models emphasised leaders' behaviours toward their followers, rather than their traits, focusing on the idea of leaders' concern for followers' situational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and employee productivity. Thereafter, corresponding leadership practices to ensure employees' ability and performance outcomes convincingly introduced further dimensions in leadership development for organisational studies (Anderson, 1992). As a result, a new dimension of organisational leadership was emerged to explain both leaders' and followers' behavioural perspectives. For example, the Reinforcement Theory (Skinner, 1972) stemmed from a behaviourist viewpoint,

arguing that behaviour was controlled by its consequences for leadership outcomes in organisations. According to Horner (1997), leaders were in a position to provide either positive or negative consequences to followers; this reinforcement theory significantly affected the development of an effective leadership style in organisations for superior leader-employee outcomes.

A review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of theories from 'great man' and 'value-based' theories to 'responsible' leadership (see Table 2.1, page 40). While early theories tend to focus on the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, more recent theories appear to focus on the role of followers, the contextual nature of leadership and leaders' value components, such as ethics, integrity, trust, respect or sense of responsibility (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2011).

The notion of situational leadership was developed by Kenneth Blanchard and Paul Hersey. Some prominent situational leadership approaches include Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership model (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958); Reddin's tri-dimensional theory of leadership (Reddin, 1964); path-goal theory (House, 1971) and Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982). Situational theory suggests that effective leaders need to be flexible, and must adapt themselves to their situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982). According to McCleskey (2014, p. 118), "Situational leadership theory proposes that effective leadership requires a rational understanding of the situation and an appropriate response, rather than a charismatic leader with a large group of dedicated followers". It recommends that leaders must adjust their style to fit the development level of the followers they try to influence (Wofford & Liska, 1993; McKee et al., 2013). It focuses on followers' readiness to do their jobs and leaders' responsibility to observe and adapt their leadership style accordingly. Here, readiness refers to followers' capability and willingness to follow their leaders (Hersey et al., 2001).

Contingency approaches to leadership include the basic assumption that when it comes to leadership style, one size does not fit all. Some examples of contingency approaches include Fiedler's contingency theory (Fiedler, 1964), cognitive resource theory (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) and strategic contingencies theory (Hickson et al., 1971). According to Fiedler (1971, p.128), "The contingency model postulates that the performance of interacting groups is

contingent upon the interaction of leadership style and situational favorableness”. Several scholars have suggested that leaders’ behaviour within organisations should be contingent on the situation at a specific time, and that there is no one leadership style that is appropriate for every situation (Yukl, 1971; Denison et al., 1995; Malos, 2012; Kriger & Seng, 2005). Hence, contingency approaches to leadership stress using different styles of leadership appropriate to the needs presented by different organisational situations.

On the other hand, behavioural approaches to leadership assume that leaders’ success is based solely on how they behave. Examples of behavioural approaches to leadership include autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles (Lewin et al. 1939), Michigan leadership studies (Yukl, 2011), managerial or leadership grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964), Ohio State leadership studies (Bass & Bass, 2008) and role theory (Graen, 1976). These approaches consider leadership effectiveness beyond leaders’ personal characteristics or traits (McKee et al., 2013). In response to the criticisms of the trait theory of leadership (Allen, 1998), scholars examined leadership as a set of behaviours and identified what successful leaders did, developed classifications of actions, indicated broader perspectives and prescribed different leadership styles. According to Kriger and Seng (2005, p. 772), “leadership behaviour is theorised to depend upon: 1) on-going observation by the leader of subtle changes in his or her surrounding environment; 2) on-going real-time self-observation of the often subtle changes in the inner world of the leader (i.e., complex interactions among thoughts, feelings, intuitions, inspirations, and creative imagination); 3) an on-going aspiration to transcend the duality of ‘self’ and ‘other’ (to ‘self-actualize’ in the terminology of Maslow); and 4) a deep wish to serve others to eliminate or decrease human suffering”. Researchers at Ohio State University in the United States surveyed leaders and found two major dimensions of behaviours associated with leadership styles (Bass, 1990). First, leadership ‘consideration’ refers people oriented behaviour such as respect and concern for employees’ wellbeing; second, initiating leadership ‘structure’ refers to leaders’ behaviours related to task and goal orientation. Similarly, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton presented the managerial grid model (Blake et al., 1964) and identified five different leadership styles based on leaders’ concern for people and for production.

The situational, contingency and behavioural theories of leadership have some noticeable overlaps (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2002; Dansereau et al., 2013). First, both the contingency and

situational approaches focus on the importance of situations. The contingency approach bases the effectiveness of a leader on the individual's leadership style and group task situation (Fiedler, 1978). Situational leadership refers to the use of a leader's individual skills and ability to lead in a particular situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). In contrast, the behavioural approaches of leadership suggest that leadership behaviour can be learned by focusing on what leaders do, or how they behave, and ignoring their personal traits (Yukl, 1971). Second, both the situational and contingency leadership approaches are extensions of behavioural leadership theories (McKee et al., 2013). Third, all three approaches claim that there is no single style of effective leadership, because of followers' behavioural and situational demands (Northouse, 2013; Dinh et al., 2014). Hence, a leadership style that is effective in one situation may be ineffective or a failure in another. Fourth, scholars assume that the effectiveness of leadership styles should be determined by both the internal and external factors of the organisations, including the considerations of the skills and abilities of both the leaders and followers (Morrison, 2010; Northouse, 2013; Dinh et al., 2014). Any of these three approaches may fail to correctly predict outcomes for the same leadership position and the same organisation, because factors such as leaders' and/or followers' behaviour or situations may not be correctly identified and applied (Yukl, 2011; Hoyt, 2013).

Despite these overlaps, there are some differences between situational and contingency theories. First, the notion of situational leadership shows flexibility in accommodating appropriate leadership skills to resolve situations (Bass, 1985), while leaders in the contingency approach lack flexibility, as their effectiveness depends on the appropriate match between a leader's inherent style, including personal traits and group task situation (Kabanoff, 1981; Northouse, 2013). Second, leaders with contingency practices predict that followers will function according to the leader's style, while the situational approach suggests that the followers will alter their behaviour based on a leader's personality and ability (Ayman, 2004; Barbour, 2013). Finally, the level of rigidity in the leader's behaviour differs between situational and contingency theories of leadership, with several scholars suggesting that situational leaders can move flexibly along a continuum to enable their effectiveness in different situations (Avolio et al., 2009; Northouse, 2013; Dinh et al., 2014). Hence, situational leadership theories appear to be more democratic and employee-oriented because they can reflect the changing nature of organisational situations. On the other hand,

contingency leadership theories focus on the premise that leadership styles are fairly rigid and relatively inflexible.

Leadership effectiveness remains critical to many leadership theories, including contingency, situational and behavioural (Nebeker, 1975; Morrison, 2010; Northouse, 2013; Dinh et al., 2014). However, after recent major corporate scandals, there have been calls to balance the demand for leadership effectiveness with leadership responsibility. As a response to this call, a new leadership theory, responsible leadership (RL), has been proposed by scholars such as Lynham and Chermack (2006) and Maak and Pless (2006a; 2006b).

Until 1978, the focus of the conventional literature had been leadership at lower (operational) levels, which was effective for small groups, but less so at the upper or executive levels (van Wart, 2003). Burns (1978) radically changed that focus and advanced the concept of transactional leadership, which focused on the distribution of rewards and punishments and asserted that leaders were primarily concerned with maintaining order in day-to-day activities (Lord et al., 1999; Avolio et al., 1991). Leaders using transactional behaviour relied on authority instead of personal charisma and tended to disregard the emotions of their employees (Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership was derived initially from a social-exchange perspective that focused on the implicit social contract between leaders and followers and its relationship to effectiveness (Bass et al., 2003). However, transactional models focused on exchange theory and the perceptions and expectations that followers had regarding the actions and motives of their leaders. The exchange theory recommended that both leaders and subordinates develop a separate exchange relationship as they mutually defined the role of leadership in the context of the leader-follower relationship. Avolio et al. (1991) suggested that transactional leaders managed the status quo and maintained the day-to-day operations of a business, but did not focus on recognising the organisation's directional application for employees' work toward organisational goals or employee productivity as aligned with organisational goals and profitability. However, the followers' perception regarding fairness and equity of the exchange with the leader is paramount and should not be overlooked (Yukl, 2013; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). Hence, the transactional approach to leadership gave way to the transformational leadership approach.

The concept of transformational leadership evolved as a discernible leadership trend in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Hickman, 1990). Transformational leadership involved change, as contrasted with leadership that retained the status quo (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Yukl et al., 2002). Burns (2003) established much of the framework for the constructs of the transactional and transformational leadership paradigm. He also noted a certain difference between leaders whose exchanges with followers were transactional and those for whom these exchanges were transformational (Burns, 1978; Kellerman, 1999). Burns (1978) viewed transformational-type leadership as potentially the more powerful of the two approaches, since it “occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 4). The notion of transformational leadership did not replace transactional leadership; the theories are neither inconsistent nor incompatible. Leaders typically were seen to use both approaches, although transformational leadership was often more effective in its results (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985). Hence, it is evident that after the early work of Burns, Bass contributed significantly to bridge the gap between transactional and transformational leadership (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1998).

Burns’s (1978) primary work was significant for establishing transformational leadership (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1998). Both Bass and Burns contributed the concept of transformational leadership and developed it into a convincing measurable concept for the development of leadership theories (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1998). However, the job of transformational leaders was not to make every decision and ensure collaborative decision-making within organisations (Book, 1998; Wheatley, 1994). Instead, this approach to leadership inspired employees to work together for change in their organisations to manage competitive productivity (Dixon, 1998). However, different views of leadership from about this time can also be found in the literature. One example is charismatic leadership, where leaders exerted obtrusive influence and power on their followers as a consequence of their emotional appeal, especially in crisis-type situations where traditional wisdom demanded a strong leadership (House, 1977).

More recently, leadership theories have developed more toward value-based leadership approaches such as ethical, authentic, servant and spiritual leadership. Several authors have suggested value-based leadership for organisational outcomes that focus on the value components, such as integrity, honesty, courage, patience, trust and respect (Covey, 1989;

Depree, 1989; Greenleaf, 1977). These values have been considered to shape the manner of acting, decision-making, relations with people and behavioural expectations within organisations (Simmerly, 1987). For example, Peters and Waterman (1982) asserted that the true role of leadership was to manage the values of organisations, and that leadership approaches should be value-laden for sustainable organisational competition.

Within the field of organisational studies, ethics is considered as an important emerging issue affecting leadership outcomes (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Ethical leadership and leaders' level of moral development have become essential elements for organisational leadership (Turner et al., 2002). Day et al. (2009) suggested that leadership models should consider the ethical concern that leaders develop their morals in workplaces. Hence, a key distinction of ethical leadership is its focus on the internalised moral perspective, moral person, moral manager and idealised influence (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2008). In contrast to other value-based leadership styles, authentic leadership is more concerned with self-awareness, transparency, internalised moral perspective and sensible processing (Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, servant leadership is a logical extension of transformational leadership (Stone et al., 2004). Servant leadership draws on leaders' self-awareness, authentic behaviour, positive modelling, conceptual skills, empowerment of followers, ethical behaviour, drive to create value for the community, subordinates' growth and success, ability to put subordinates' needs first and emotional healing (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Liden et al., 2007). Lastly, spiritual leadership is built on concern for others, as shown by integrity, role modelling, altruism and hope or faith (see Fry, 2003). However, these value-driven theories share several common features and concentrate more on RL. Therefore, because the interest in value-centered leadership is great, it merits further exploration, and the following section of this chapter describes RL, with its multi-perspective approach, in more detail. Table 2.1 summarises the above discussion on the evolution of leadership theories.

Table 2.1: Evolution of leadership theories

Classification	Authors	Idea/concept/comments
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Classification	Authors	Idea/concept/comments
Great man theory	Borgatta et al. (1954)	Leaders have the needed attributes (such as persuasiveness, personality, intuition, judgment, courage, intelligence, aggressiveness or action orientation) that set them apart from others and allow them to occupy leadership options, exercising power and authority within the group or society.
Trait theory	Allen (1998); Horner (1997)	Distinct physical, social and individual characteristics are inherent in leaders.
Two-factor model of leadership behaviour	Blake et al. (1964); Horner (1997)	The output of the leaders' behaviour focuses on their job accomplishment and goal achievement. It assumed that the best styles of leadership could be taught.
Situational leadership	Stogdill (1948, 1974); Mann (1959)	Leadership is characterised as a trait or behavioural reflection consisting of either innate skills (traits) or responses to the demands of a distinct situation.
Contingency models of leadership (CLM, Path-goal leadership, DMM)	Fiedler (1964); House (1971); Vroom and Yetton (1973)	Emphasises leaders' behaviours toward their followers, rather than their traits. Focuses on the idea of leaders' concern for followers' situational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and employee productivity.

Classification	Authors	Idea/concept/comments
Transactional leadership	Burns (1978); Avolio et al. (1991); Bass et al. (2003)	Focus is on the distribution of rewards and punishments. It relies on authority instead of personal charisma and tends to disregard the emotions of their employees.
Transformational leadership	Burns (1978) ; Kellerman (1999)	Leaders not only ensure collaborative decision-making within organisations, they also inspire employees to work together for change in their organisations to manage competitive productivity.
Value-based leadership (ethical, authentic, servant and spiritual leadership)	Day et al. (2009); Stone et al. (2004); Avolio and Gardner, (2005); Liden et al. (2007); Fry (2003)	Leadership focuses on integrity, honesty, courage, patience, trust and respect for organisational outcomes.
Responsible leadership	Maak and Pless (2006a, 2006b, 2009); Pless and Maak (2011)	Leadership is a values-based and principle-driven relationship between leaders and stakeholders.

2.3 Responsible leadership (RL)

The notion of leadership has been considered as an important and dominant part of the organisational behaviour literature for several decades. Schwandt & Marquardt (2000) suggested that no other role in organisations has gathered more interest than the leadership role. Generating 2,460,000 results (7 April, 2016) on Google Scholar, the term ‘Responsible Leadership’ is fast gaining recognition as an effective leadership approach to study and practice in the education, healthcare, psychology and management disciplines. The growing interest in RL among management scholars is also demonstrated by the rising number of journal articles (e.g., Waldman & Balven, 2015; Siegel, 2014; Pless et al., 2012; Voegtlin et al., 2012) and books (e.g., Maak & Pless, 2006a; Lawrence & Beamish, 2013; Moody-Stuart,

2014; Fernando, 2016), as well as dedicated research centres spread across the globe (e.g., Centre for Responsible Leadership, Canada; Globally Responsible Leadership Initiative, Belgium; Albert Luthuli Centre for Responsible Leadership, South Africa). RL has moved into the mainstream of business thinking as a multilevel phenomenon. It is also studied at the individual, group and organisation levels and is used to emphasise leadership effectiveness within the economic, social and global contexts. For example, leaders' ethical conduct and respect for stakeholders' interests are prime concerns of responsible leaders. Maak and Pless (2006a) claim that the RL literature has developed to understand leadership as an influencing process embedded in stakeholder values and ethical principles. Therefore, RL centres on the relationships between leaders and followers, and focuses on sustainable results that benefit organisations, related group of people, and the broader social and natural environment.

The concept of RL is constantly developing but needs to be addressed more fully and clarified in theory and research (Maak & Pless, 2009; Waldman & Balven, 2015). Several scholars, thought leaders, and consortia of academics and practitioners have sought to define RL from their perspectives in contemporary organisations (D'Amato et al., 2009). As a value-based leadership concept, RL acknowledges the existing gaps in leadership literature and also seeks to define what 'responsible' means in the context of organisational leadership (Pless & Maak, 2011). For the notion of value-based leadership, Maak and Pless noted:

...we define responsible leadership as a values-based and principle-driven relationship between leaders and stakeholders who are connected through a shared sense of meaning and purpose through which they raise to higher levels of motivation and commitment for achieving sustainable value creation and responsible change (Maak & Pless, 2009, p. 539).

Douglas (1996) claimed that there can be no leadership without corresponding responsibility for an outcome like RL. Similarly, Waldman and Galvin (2008) argued that the notion of responsibility is missing from other value-based leadership theories, in particular from transformational, charismatic, authentic, participative, servant, shared, spiritual and ethical leadership.

The notion of RL considers social and relational phenomena that focus on the leader–follower relationship (Pless & Maak, 2011). According to Waldman and Balven (2014), RL signifies a

concept that exists at the intersection of two fields of study, social responsibility and leadership. While much has been written about social responsibility, such as its relationship to organisations' financial performance (Maak & Pless, 2006b; Orlitzky et al., 2003), less is known about how actions and decisions on the part of individuals affect social responsibility. Hence, the concept of RL inherently crosses levels of analysis by considering individuals, groups, and organisations as a whole (Pless & Maak, 2011; Christensen et al., 2014; Morgeson et al., 2013; Voegtlin et al., 2012) from organisational, social and global perspectives. These multilevel also consider various theoretical frameworks to RL, such as agency (Aguilera et al., 2008), stakeholder (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Clarkson, 1995), institutional (Campbell, 2007); stewardship (Davis, 2005) and ethics-based (Brown & Treviño, 2006) theories. The variety of theoretical bases suggests different potential definitions of what constitutes responsibility and may explain how leaders might fit within the RL approach.

2.3.1 RL from organisational and individual perspectives

Examining RL from an organisational perspective necessarily also includes the consideration of individuals' behaviour and decisions and their associations with leadership influences (Waldman & Balven, 2015). Similarly, Voegtlin et al. (2012) noted that responsible leaders play an important part within organisations as role models and in involving employees in decision-making. As a result, when employees follow responsible leaders, they may have higher levels of job satisfaction, motivation, commitment or organisational citizenship. Several scholars have suggested that responsible leaders consider their followers as important stakeholders to make use of their unique perspectives in maintaining their motivation and creativity (Pless, 2007; Doh & Quigley, 2014; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). They have also noted that at the team level, responsible leaders consider and encourage their stakeholders' diverse perspectives, which may lead to team-level psychological safety and learning for team performance and improve decision-making (Edmondson, 1999; Stasser & Titus, 1985).

There is overwhelming evidence that the perceptions, decisions, and actions of individual managers, particularly those at senior levels, have an impact on their organisations' social performance and long-term viability (Maak & Pless, 2009; Kakabadse et al., 2005; Waldman & Galvin, 2008). For organisations, a leader is "someone who occupies a position in a group, influences others in accordance with the role expectation of the position, and co-ordinates and

directs the group in maintaining itself and reaching its goal” (Raven & Rubin, 1976, p. 37). Moreover, a responsible leader is recognised as one who creates a culture of inclusion that is built on a steady moral ground (Pless & Maak, 2004). Hence, RL at an organisational level is a process of inclusion to attain group, organisational, and societal goals (Avery & Baker, 1990; Pless & Maak, 2004). According to Phillips and Freeman (2003), the thought of RL comprises the social-relational process of individual leaders and collectivises organisational actions determined by the upper levels that actively include various stakeholders in producing ethical and socially responsible organisations. Hence, RL focuses on the individual effort toward a societal goal to move the organisation closer to becoming an ethical and responsible system as a whole.

Several academics and researchers have explored some of the characteristics of leaders and organisations under the umbrella concept of RL (Doh & Stumpf, 2005; Maak & Pless, 2006a; Waldman & Galvin, 2008). They have argued that leaders need to integrate ethics, CSR and conscientious stakeholder relationships in their leadership approaches. However, considering employees as critical stakeholders has captured the attention of both academics and practitioners (Doh et al., 2011). For example, among the ‘primary’ stakeholder groups (shareholders, employees, customers, societies and suppliers), employees are considered to be the most significant element, as they are vital for business operations and their collective actions assist the leaders in achieving organisational goals. Hence, an important domain of RL literature focuses on the antecedents and organisational outcomes for ethical decision-making from employees’ perspectives (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Pless et al., 2012; Tenbrunsel & Smith-Crowe, 2008; Voegtlin et al., 2012; Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Waldman & Siegel, 2008).

2.3.2 RL in social and stakeholder perspectives

From the societal perspective of RL, Doh and Quigley (2014) suggest that the leaders who can consistently apply a stakeholder approach may be better able to manage across cultural boundaries (Miska et al., 2013). Leaders’ stakeholder perspectives may also identify and anticipate critical socioeconomic challenges within business trends so that they can respond more appropriately (Stahl et al., 2013; Maak & Pless, 2006b). Moreover, studies of corporate governance emphasise that organisational leaders make decisions, which include CSR

strategies, within the framework of organisational-level governance mechanisms (Filatotchev, 2012). This may shape the foundations of leadership responsibility and accountability not only to shareholders but also to a wider body of stakeholders (Scherer et al., 2013). Hence, from organisational to social level integration, Doh and Quigley (2014) claim that the responsible leaders with a stakeholder approach may help build an open, inclusive and diverse internal culture by sharing and disseminating knowledge while fostering strong ties with external stakeholders, all of which could lead to organisation growth, innovation and performance (Thomas, 2004). Hence, a significant amount of literature attempts to integrate studies in ethics, leadership and CSR to triangulate the evolving concept of RL (Maak & Pless, 2006a; Waldman & Siegel, 2008; Pless & Maak, 2011; Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Pless et al., 2012; Voegtlin et al., 2012; Fernando, 2016).

Maak and Pless (2006a) present RL as a relational and ethical phenomenon. They suggest that the practice of RL results in social interactions with those who are affected by leadership and have an interest in the leadership relationship. This expands the view of a traditional leader-subordinate relationship to a leader-stakeholder relationship. They also advise shifting attention to the responsibilities that leaders have in relation to different stakeholders, and contend that relationships “are the centre of leadership” (Maak & Pless 2006b, p. 39), such that “building and cultivating...ethically sound relations toward different stakeholders is an important responsibility of leaders in an interconnected stakeholder society” (Maak & Pless 2006a, p. 101). Here, ‘others’ are all those with a stake in the leadership project. Thus, Maak and Pless (2011) refer to a responsible leader as an individual who adapts “the idea of effectiveness with the idea of corporate responsibility by being an active citizen and promoting active citizenship inside and outside the organisation” (Pless 2007, p. 450). Hence, from the societal perspective, RL helps to develop and promote sustainable relations among the stakeholders within the society for a greater good and does not limit it to shareholders and managers (Maak 2007). Therefore, Doh and Quigley (2014) observe a progressively visible trend in the literature to incorporate ‘stakeholder’ consideration in the conceptualisation of RL, perhaps in response to recent major world events (e.g., the global financial crisis, environmental catastrophes, ethical scandals and globalisation).

2.3.3 RL in a global perspective

In the global context of RL, Voegtlin et al. (2012) questioned, “Who is responsible for what and toward whom in an interconnected business world?” (p. 2). The quest for RL is not confined to corporate scandals and collapses for responsible and ethical conduct (Brown & Treviño, 2006); RL also originates from the differences in and new requirements of global business contexts (Miska et al., 2013; Voegtlin et al., 2012). Stakeholders expect that organisations and their leaders demand active roles in stimulating responsible behaviour, within and outside organisations, such as by creating a reliable organisational culture, pursuing a triple bottom line (social, environmental and economic value) approach and performing as respectable citizens (Maak, 2007; Pless, 2007). According to Miska et al. (2013), responsible leaders’ interaction with stakeholders provides a more clearer understanding of what constitutes leadership responsibility, given the rising complexity of conducting business in globalised conditions (Scherer et al., 2009; Scherer & Palazzo, 2008).

Maak and Pless (2006b) argued for applying RL to the integration of global stakeholder society and leadership, for three reasons. First, it transcends the dyadic leader-follower model to an understanding of leadership as leader-stakeholder collaboration. Second, it provides normative orientation to deal with multi-cultural backgrounds or complex moral dilemmas. Third, it enables leaders to produce moral or ethical decisions, thereby bringing different interests to satisfying and, if possible, mutually beneficial solutions. Moreover, both Maak and Pless (Maak, 2007; Maak & Pless, 2006b; Pless, 2007) characterised the concept of RL as a “value-based and through ethical principles driven relationship between leaders and stakeholders” (Pless 2007, p. 438). They also developed a role model of RL in which “the responsible leader acts as a weaver of stakeholder relationships” (Maak 2007, p. 340), thereby leveraging social capital for organisations. Thus, Voegtlin (2011) defined RL as recognition and reflection of the outcomes of one’s behaviour for all stakeholders, as well as the attempt to wield influence by facilitating the engagement of the concerned stakeholders to engage in an effective stakeholder exchange. Therefore, responsible leaders attempt to weigh and consider the interests of all stakeholders’ claims. This understanding of RL as an ideal based on high moral standards encounters constraints in the day-to-day activities of organisations (Stansbury, 2009).

From the above discussion it is understandable that RL is introduced as a multilevel concept over the existing leadership practises and theories in the literature. The notion of RL is absent in high-profile scandals on the individual, organisational, and systemic levels, despite its potential usefulness in dealing with the social, ethical, and environmental challenges in the global context for better leadership performance (Pless & Maak, 2011). Table 2.2 presents a summary of the prominent scholars and their contribution to RL.

Table 2.2: Scholarly contributions to RL literature

Authors	RL and related concept	Idea/conception/comments
Maak and Pless (2006a, 2006b); Maak (2007); Pless (2007); Pless and Maak (2009); Voegtlin et al. (2012); Doh and Quigley (2014); Waldman and Balven (2015); Voegtlin (2011); Waldman (2011)	Definition and concept development of RL	Compared the emergent understanding of RL with related leadership theories and directed pathways for future research.
Lynham and Chermack (2006)	Responsible leadership for performance (RLP)	Leader's responsible (effective, moral and persistent) leadership can be connected to organisational performance.
Voegtlin et al. (2012)	Role of RL on organisational outcomes across three levels (macro, meso and micro) of analysis.	RL does not conceptualise leader success in the sense of financial performance as the primary driver of leadership behaviour. Instead, RL operates by establishing consensual solutions that all affected parties accept as legitimate.

Authors	RL and related concept	Idea/conception/comments
Doh and Stumpf (2005); Waldman and Galvin (2008); Siegel (2014); Waldma and Balven (2014)	RL as values-based leadership	Researchers have shown a significant amount of interest in values-based leadership approaches, and prefer RL for its multilevel (individual, organisational, social and global) outcomes.
Voegtlin et al. (2012)	RL in global business	RL as a multi-level outcome showed that how such an understanding of leadership can address the challenges of globalization and offered research opportunities for responsible leadership in global business.
Waldman and Siegel (2008); Siegel (2014)	Socially responsible leadership	Leaders play a significant role in framing and executing CSR initiatives, but debate the appropriate drivers of socially RL undertaken by these leaders. They suggest that an approach which takes into account both instrumental behaviour and leader motives or values holds potential in integrating some of their differences.
Gond et al. (2011)	RL and HRM with an exploration of the CSR-HR Interface	Organisation of the HR-CSR interface can enable or undermine the HR

Authors	RL and related concept	Idea/conception/comments
		contributions to RL and point to underlying cognitive factors that shape the HR-CSR interface.

2.4 Framing RL with other value-centered leadership theories

At present, organisations emphasising more responsible leadership as a part of their existing leadership practices because of expectations from various quarters. Mirvis et al. (2010) outlined the differences of modern approaches to leadership and point out that conventional views emphasis profit, shareholder return and legal compliance to reduce impairments, whereas current attitudes tend to emphasise value creation, stakeholder requirements and broader social and environmental responsibilities. Hence, values are considered as central to RL, and the thoughts related to business ethics connect in a variety of ways to the notion of values (Maak & Pless, 2006a; Freeman & Auster, 2011). Simmerly (1987) suggests that values within organisations shape how employees and leaders choose to act, the decision-making process, relationships with people and behavioural expectations from each other.

From the value-driven perspective, RL shows a broader concern for multilevel (individual, group and society) motivations and commitment for sustainable internal and external stakeholder achievements. Pless (2007) established RL as “...a values-based and through ethical principles driven relationship between leaders and stakeholders who are connected through a shared sense of meaning and purpose through which they raised one another to higher levels of motivation and commitment to achieving sustainable values creation and social change” (p.438). Hence, value-based leadership guides leaders to undertake a conscious obligation to manage their values and create a corporate culture that optimises economic performance, ethical actions and social participation and reduces environmental impact. In addition, Pless and Maak (2011) highlighted the importance of turning practitioners’ attention to those leadership approaches and styles that are value-centred (ethical, authentic, servant and transformational leadership). Therefore, RL is viewed as a broader, more comprehensive leadership approach, far superior to any single value-based leadership theory. These value-

driven leadership theories and their similarities and differences with RL are reviewed in the next section.

2.4.1 Transformational leadership and RL

Transformational leaders inspire their followers by promoting and demonstrating a mutual vision and inspiring them to look beyond egotisms for the benefit of their teams and organisations (Groves & LaRocca 2011). Transformational leaders are the executives who promote and motivate their followers by projecting and communicating attractive visions, common goals and shared values, as well as set examples for the requested behaviour (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006). A simplified model of transformational leadership includes five leadership dimensions: idealised attributes, idealised behaviour (such as the 'charisma' dimension), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The notion of RL has similarities to transformational leadership, particularly in leaders' common notion of vision, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Pless & Maak, 2011). However, in many ways, RL differs from the transformational approach. First, RL considers a broader range of followers in leadership than transformational leadership. Pless and Maak (2011) suggested that responsible leaders view their followers more broadly and consider the need of stakeholders from both within and outside the organisation. Second, transformational leaders focus more on employee performance and organisational achievements in consideration of stockholder satisfaction. In contrast, RL focuses on broader achievements in terms of stakeholder satisfaction and related higher social purposes from both the organisational and societal perspectives. Hence, a significant advancement of the leadership concept is visible from transformational leadership to RL: the change from a shareholder mindset to a broader stakeholder orientation (Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Maak & Pless, 2006a). Third, RL considers a wider view of organisational success than merely a focus on leaders' individual achievements. Thus, the concept of RL is less individualistic (e.g., unlike the great man and charismatic leader models), and is inclined more towards relational aspects of leadership in terms of inclusion, collaboration and assistance with various stakeholder groups (Pless & Maak, 2011; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Maak and Pless (2006a) recommend the application of RL in the broader leadership context of stakeholder collaboration, new responsibilities and roles; these new roles can include, for example, coordinators and cultivators who act as ‘weavers’ in and among a network of relationships. Fourth, transformational leadership supports leaders’ ethical or unethical behaviour depending on the leaders’ motivation to qualify as a moral leader with ethical values and social motives that decline to use intimidation and manipulative influence (Bass, 1985; Brown & Treviño, 2006). On the other hand, Pless and Maak (2011) considered a responsible leader as a virtuous individual with ethical knowledge (e.g., moral reasoning and moral imagination) who makes ethical and moral decisions by maintaining influence with stakeholders, while also using influence and power to attempt moral and legitimate conclusions through justifiable means. In other words, to succeed as responsible, leaders must be considered more accountable, trustworthy and ethical than in other leadership approaches including transformational leadership. Fifth, rapid change in organisational contexts adds further challenges for leaders. As a result, both transformational leadership and RL consider the importance of change and transformation. However, responsible leaders exercise change as a means to attain a higher social purpose, while transformational leaders do not necessarily follow that path (Pless & Maak, 2011). Therefore, transformational leadership may have success in terms of organisational profit and employee satisfaction but does not extend to ensuring social achievements as RL would demand.

2.4.2 Ethical leadership and RL

Ethical leaders may achieve a higher level of results within organisations by exhibiting qualities that will influence employees to work harder and more ethically. Brown et al. (2005) define ethical leadership as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement and decision-making” (p.120). This broader notion of ethical leadership empowers managers as leaders to incorporate and be explicit about their values and ethics. Compared to RL, ethical leadership is concerned with individualistic effectiveness rather than communal or social responsiveness. For example, during organisational decision-making, an action may be considered ethical at the organisational level, but it may not be ethical for societal interests. Pless and Maak (2011) explain that the central conceptual discrepancies between ethical and RL stem from their

diverse paradigmatic viewpoints. Ethical leadership is involved with the direction leaders take in organisations and how leaders may use such direction to improve their leadership outcome. In contrast, RL identifies effectiveness; as a result but primarily seeks to achieve the relational view of the leader-stakeholder design and its links to elements of responsibility.

Moreover, RL confirms its pre-eminence over ethical leadership. First, it goes beyond ethical standpoints from the relational perspectives. For example, the former emphasises the significance of a full-range view of the leader-stakeholder relationship, while ethical leadership limits its view to a classical leadership dyad of leader-subordinate (Pless & Maak, 2011). Moreover, Pless and Maak (2011) also point out that ethical leadership endeavours to predict consequences, such as leader effectiveness, employee job satisfaction or dedication; whereas RL embraces this micro-level perspective to concentrate on multilevel results (such as those for the individual, group and society). Second, RL adopts a broader view in the definition of ethical culture than ethical leadership. Ethical leadership theory reflects intra-organisational contextual elements, such as an ethical culture (Trevino, 1990), but RL allows more and addresses determinants from the cultural background, such as power distance and human coordination (Pless & Maak, 2008). Third, RL can provide better justifications for leaders' ethical decisions and outcomes than ethical leadership. Voegtlin et al. (2012) argued that ethical leadership remains commonly descriptive in its approach to assess leadership ethics. In addition, by only describing the prevailing moral norms, ethical leadership does not allow for a critical justification for what is ethically correct. Hence, Voegtlin et al. (2012) suggested that ethical leadership neither provides ethical orientation for leaders nor offers normative advice; therefore, there is still a prerequisite for a philosophical foundation, such as RL that provides an orientation on how to manage the inconsistent norms of a heterogeneous stakeholder society. Therefore, Voegtlin et al. (2012) suggested that RL is a process model of leadership that is not only obviously linked to ethical features of the leaders but also conceptualise ethical leadership as the antecedent of RL.

2.4.3 Servant leadership and RL

The notion of servant leadership was introduced by Robert Greenleaf in 1970 (van Dierendonck, 2011). Later, Greenleaf (1977) distinguished servant leaders who place others' demands, desires and concerns above their own interests. Thus servant leaders' deliberately

choose to help others, and their primary motive is first to assist, as opposed to lead. Hence, servant-leadership is to ask: “...do those served grow as persons; do they while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 13). However, Bass (2000) suggested that the theory of servant leadership required substantial empirical research, with great promise for future leadership prospects. Compared to RL, servant leadership shared leaders’ constituencies, which include followers and stakeholders, and asserted that leaders’ task is to assist the essentials and legitimate interests of others (Greenleaf, 2002). Despite this commonality, responsible leaders do not attempt ‘self-sacrificial servanthood’ (Sendjaya et al., 2008, p. 405), just for the interest of serving followers and promoting their good. Thus, Pless and Maak (2011, p. 7) noted that:

...the concern of the responsible leader is to mobilize others to serve, engage in, and support objectives tied to a mutually desirable social purpose. That purpose is not limited to helping others grow or become leaders in their own right; it also entails organisational and societal levels (including positive outcomes such as sustainable value creation and social change). The central motivation, therefore, is not serving others but rather responding to others’ interests and needs, including those of outside stakeholders and society at large.

The concept of RL also interprets followers as stakeholders in terms of being internal and external followers of the organisation, not just as followers within workplaces. Hence, the key priority for servant leadership is exercised with the issue of motivation and contextual factors, an idea that has been neglected in servant leadership literature. Moreover, servant leadership is contradictory in that it assumes a traditional top-down, individualised, self-centred leadership approach (Pless & Maak, 2011). Therefore, RL shows more advancement in terms of organisational demand for both internal and societal level of responsiveness and multilevel leadership outcomes.

2.4.4 Authentic leadership and RL

Authentic leadership is a relative concept that satisfies followers’ need for accountability, integrity, courage and transparency because of its focus on leaders’ own transparency, internal

principles and moral compass in the face of nefarious, shifting and possibly ethically ambiguous business practices (Diddams & Chang, 2012). Authentic leaders are those who know and serve based on their real values, beliefs, integrity and strengths (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio et al., 2010). Hence, authentic leaders emphasise building the leader's legitimacy through honest relationships with followers through which leaders value their input and promote openness.

Both RL and authentic leadership have common positive organisational initiatives, such as providing meaning at work and contributing to continued performance and progress with long-term value creation for stockholders (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Avolio et al., 2004;). However, RL not only aims for positive organisational outcomes but extends beyond traditional financial output variables (Maak, 2007; Pless, 2007). For example, RL encompasses stakeholders' participation in adding value and social capital to the business and community, and thus eventually contributing to positive social change. RL advances and appears to overlap authentic leadership with respect to its self-awareness and self-regulation factors (Pless & Maak, 2005). RL challenges leaders to take additional steps to increase a sense of others' emotions, values and norms, reflect on the sufficiency of their own emotions and values and evaluate them with respect to general principles and local needs (Pless & Maak, 2005). Hartman (1988) suggested that the challenge of 'authenticity' for authentic leadership becomes either how values are known or whether values are realisable through action. However, ethical components are well established as a primary component in RL which allows this approach to be considered more worthy than authentic leadership. Hence, Werhane (1999) suggested the RL approach for moral deliberation and decision-making skills for organisations.

In summary, RL integrates both ethical and democratic views of leader-follower-stockholder integrations and the broader view of social responses to a higher extent than other value-based leadership theories. Against the general backdrop of contemporary value-based leadership theories, RL engages not only the internal concerns of organisations but also the concern of external stakeholders. Above all, RL considers a broader, society-oriented view to redefine the concept of organisational leadership. Thus, the primacy of RL over other value-based leadership theories warrants empirical research. This study focuses on the individuals in leadership positions within Australian organisations: both senior leaders and employees

serving in managerial or supervising positions. The suggested model applies equally to top, middle and lower-level managers. Therefore, this study defines a 'leader' broadly to reflect the notion of RL occurring throughout the organisation as well as in interactions with shareholders. Here, the response of RL should be considered from employees' perspective, incorporating their assessment of their organisations' inclusiveness of different stakeholders, the fairness of its HR practices, and the managerial support they receive to perform their jobs. Therefore, in this study the context of employees' perceptions about RL comprises three considerations: whether the organisations' stakeholder culture encourages its managers to act responsibly for its societies; whether organisation's HR practices are fair and inclusive for all employees; and whether there is managerial support that develops employees' capability to perform within the organisation.

2.5 RL and organisational performance

In recent times, organisational leadership has become more challenging, as it needs to establish and show its concern for societal welfare, the natural environment and employee wellbeing. With that call, the concept of responsible business moved into business philosophy to determine precisely to what extent any business or leader's behaviour could be considered responsible. Moreover, the increasing numbers of corporate collapses, including those of Enron, HIH and WorldCom, have made the question critical for business researchers. Hence, the notion of RL is developing in connection with examinations of the responsibility of different multinational companies towards their environment and community in the wake of multiple scandals (Pless, 2007). RL focuses on a sustainable relationship among organisation leaders and stakeholders that is intended to lead to beneficial outcomes for both the community and the environment (Cameron, 2011).

According to Mirvis et al. (2010), only 20% of people surveyed in 25 countries agreed that most corporations are socially responsible. Corporations are promoting RL values, but have yet to adopt and establish them in practice to make the business world more responsible. Hence, Grojean et al. (2004) has recommended various approaches that organisations can use develop an ethical climate, including setting clear expectations for ethical conduct, setting an example from the top and giving feedback and supporting responsible behaviour to recognise and reward behaviour that promotes organisational values. Maritz et al. (2011) explained the

interface among strategy and RL. For example, for 'top down' strategic approaches, the responsible leader must take the role of an architect, outlining a detailed plan and determining what is needed to secure the alignment of all its components. Conversely, 'bottom up' or emergent tactics require the responsible leader to serve as a change agent, supporting and empowering lower-level employees to come up with novel ideas and consider independent decisions.

In the literature, several researchers have demonstrated a significant relationship between leadership styles, employees' performance and organisational outcomes. Campbell (1977) suggested that when managers use their various leadership styles to show concern, care and respect for employees, employees achieve higher performance outcome for their organisations. Many scholars have also found support for a significant association between leadership style and organisational performance (Howell & Frost, 1989; Bryman, 1992). For example, Sun (2002) found that leadership style has a substantial positive correlation with organisational performance in both schools and enterprises. Similarly, Huang (2006) established a positive association between transformational leadership and organisational performance. Moreover, studies with leadership approaches in some organisational settings have demonstrated the superiority of transformational and charismatic leadership, over other leadership styles when predicting organisational performance. However, there is not much attention given in the literature to the link between RL and organisational performance in the Australian context.

Can RL contribute to a superior organisational performance? Lynham and Chermack (2006) recommended a theoretical framework Responsible Leadership for Performance (RLP) to demonstrate the influence of RL on organisational performance. RLP has an integrative framework of leadership that specifies the nature and challenges of organisational leadership, focusing on organisational performance. Lynham and Chermack (2006) indicated eight strategic propositions to put their RLP theory into practice. (1) RLP has a theoretical frame for leadership as a system-in-focus, in which leadership is conceptualised as a deliberate, focused practice, not personal or a process controlled by an individual. (2) All systems have an aim. The aim of RLP is to assist the needs and desired results of the constituency of a performance system by positively influencing various domains of performance in a responsible manner by an efficient, ethical and sustainable practice. (3) The content of RLP is

received from all three units of the theoretical framework-considerations of constituency, a structure of 'responsibleness' and domains of performance. If all three groups are not existing and associating, there is no system of RLP in action. (4) Leaders to be responsible, they must manifest, and be judged to demonstrate effectiveness, ethics and persistence. If one of these three characteristic properties is failing from leadership, that leadership cannot be viewed as responsible. (5) A structure of responsibleness and domains of performance are interdependent in the notion of RL. A shift in one unit can be expected to produce a difference in the other two groups. (6) As responsibleness with effectiveness, ethics, and persistence increases, the outcome of the overall performance system can be supposed to rise. (7) Constituency is a prerequisite for RL for performance. Without a constituency, RLP will be meaningless; and, (8) without managing inputs from constituency and outputs in the form of multi-level results, the theory of RLP fails.

In addition to RLP, Voegtlin et al. (2012) proposed a new model of RL to address challenges at different organisational levels. They advised that RL does not conceptualise leader success in the sense of financial performance as the primary driver of leadership behaviour. Instead, RL operates by establishing consensual solutions that all affected parties accept as legitimate. This model highlights the role of RL on organisational outcomes across three levels of analysis. First, the macro-level as a point of evidence involves the interaction of organisations with the wider society. Second, the meso-level is observed as the level of analysis of internal organisational structures and practices. Third, the micro-level is considered as the degree of personal interaction of individual agents. In considering meso-level outcomes, Voegtlin et al. (2012) suggested that the effects of RL may change the mutual practices and natures of organisations. Moreover, for the micro level, responsible leaders may also have a direct and considerable influence on their followers. Apart from the direct link between RL and effectiveness, Voegtlin et al. (2012) assumed the additional indirect or mediational impact of RL on organisational performance. For example, mediating variables such as external stakeholders and personal level interactions may influence the direct relationship between RL and organisations' social and financial performance. The concept of RL offers new and exciting possibilities compared to other existing leadership theories, but also shows challenges for both academics and researchers because of its novelty (Fernando, 2016). Hence, this study attempts to examine the influence of RL on employee outcomes and explore

the impact of RL on presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions, based on Voegtlin et al.'s (2012) micro-levels.

Form the above discussion of RL, Table 2.3 summarises the major empirical findings relevant to this study.

Table 2.3: Summary of key empirical findings relevant to this study

Researcher(s)	Aim of the Study	Study Design	Study Result(s)
Nyberg et al. (2008)	The aim of this study was to examine the association among managerial leadership and self-reported sickness absence and sickness presenteeism among Swedish individuals.	Multiple logistic regression analyses	Managerial leadership was found to be relevant for the understanding of sickness absence and sickness presenteeism in the Swedish working population.
Arnold et al. (2007)	To explore the relation between transformational leadership and psychological wellbeing with the mediational influence of meaningful work.	Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-stage modeling approach	A positive relationship was found among transformational leadership and psychological wellbeing mediated or partially mediated by the meaning found in work.
Blegen and Severinsson (2011)	To provide a synthesis of the studies conducted and to discuss the relationship between nursing leadership and nursing management in the context of mental health nursing.	A literature search using EBSCO-host, Academic Search Premier, Science Direct, CINAHL and PubMed for the period January 1995–July 2010	Leadership and management in the context of mental health nursing are human activities that imply entering into mutual relationships.
Doh et al. (2011)	To investigate the relationships between perceived responsible leadership, HR practices, employees' satisfaction, intention to leave and turnover among Indian	Correlation analysis	Strong associations were found amongst variables suggesting that employee' views of the support they receive from managers, the HR practices, and corporate socially responsible

Researcher(s)	Aim of the Study	Study Design	Study Result(s)
	employees.		activities may be an overarching construct that attaches them to the organisation.
Nyberg et al. (2008a)	To investigate the association between managerial leadership and ischaemic heart disease (IHD) between employees.	Cox proportional hazard analyses	An association between perceived leadership behaviours and IHD was also evident in subsidiary analyses with only acute myocardial infarction and cardiac death as the outcome.
Westerlund et al. (2009)	To investigate the associations between Attentive Managerial Leadership, and perceived stress, age relative self-rated health and sickness absence due to overstrain/fatigue, adjusting for the dimensions of the Demand Control Support model.	Correlational study	The study indicates that managerial leadership is associated with employee stress, health, and sickness absence independently of the Demand Control Support model and should be considered in future studies of health concerns for employees, and in work environment interventions.
McKee et al. (2011)	To explore linkages among transformational leadership, workplace spirituality and wellbeing in health care workers.	Multilevel modelling	Leaders' influence on individual wellbeing through their ability to enhance employees' sense of community in the workplace.
Nyberg et al. (2009)	To investigate destructive managerial leadership in the hotel industry in Sweden, Poland, and Italy in relation to psychological wellbeing among employees.	Cross-sectional exploratory study	Autocratic and malevolent leadership were more strongly related to iso-strain than was self-centred leadership. Variations in leadership practice between countries were seen for autocratic and malevolent leadership.

Researcher(s)	Aim of the Study	Study Design	Study Result(s)
Nielsen et al. (2008)	To investigate the effects of transformational leadership on followers' perceived work characteristics and psychological wellbeing.	A theory-driven model of the relationships using Structural Equation Modelling	The results indicated that followers' perceptions of their work characteristics did mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and psychological wellbeing.
Nielsen et al. (2009)	To examine two possible psychological mechanisms that link transformational leadership behaviours to employee job satisfaction and wellbeing.	Structural equation modelling	Self-efficacy was established to fully mediate the relationship among transformational leadership and wellbeing, and team efficacy was found to partially mediate the relationship among transformational leadership and job satisfaction and fully mediate the association among transformational leadership and wellbeing.
Sosik and Godshalk (2000)	To inspect relationships among mentor leadership behaviours (laissez-faire, transactional contingent reward and transformational), perception of mentoring functions received (career development and psychosocial support) and job-related stress.	Partial least squares (a structural equation modelling technique)	The association among mentor transformational behaviour and job-related stress was moderated by the level of mentoring functions received. Results are discussed as they relate to scholars who are becoming concerned in searching solutions to develop organisational members and allay job-related stress.

Researcher(s)	Aim of the Study	Study Design	Study Result(s)
Gilbreath and Karimi (2012)	To investigate the extent to which supervisor behaviour is associated with employee presenteeism. It also investigated the efficacy of a measure of job-stress-related presenteeism among Australian employees.	Correlation analysis	Results suggest that presenteeism is subject to supervisor influence. This study also suggests that there are positive supervisor behaviors that may affect the degree to which employees experience presenteeism. Supervisor behaviours that help employees keep their work in perspective may be especially helpful.
Munir et al. (2012)	To explore the mediating effects of work-life conflict among transformational leadership and job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing.	A longitudinal design with regression analyses	Transformational leadership style was directly associated with perceptions of work-life conflict, job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing.

2.6 Presenteeism

The term ‘presenteeism’ was coined by Sir Cary Cooper, American-born British psychologist and professor at Lancaster University Management School in the UK. He defined presenteeism as attending work whilst having medical conditions (Cooper, 2011). Presenteeism in the literature is noted as an opposite of absenteeism (Wright et al., 2002; Goetzel et al., 2004). It has been described as attending work while being ill, and at work but unable to work with full capacity (Aronsson et al., 2000; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Lack, 2011; Brooks et al., 2010). This concept has been employed by several organisational practitioners and researchers, both implicitly and explicitly, as one leading to productivity loss (Goetzel et al. 2004; Johns, 2010; Scuffham et al., 2014). Thus, presenteeism results when employees come to work despite physical or psychological illness that should keep them away from work, and as a result reduces productivity (Aronsson et al., 2000; Gosselin et al., 2013). This cost and productivity loss connected with presenteeism is found to be greater than that of absenteeism (Goetzel et al., 2003; Hemp, 2004; Schultz & Edington, 2007).

There is no distinct, unified definition of presenteeism in the literature. Chapman (2005) noted that, “[a]s with all new endeavors, no single authoritative definition of presenteeism is in common use” (p. 1). Moreover, the definition of presenteeism has been defined from employees’ behavioural as well as economic perspectives. For example, some researchers focus on the issue of sick employees being at work and not being productive, and others consider their behavioural responses. Hence, the definition of presenteeism can be stated from both economic or financial and behavioural perspectives. This study examines presenteeism from the productivity perspective, where employees are becoming less productive in their performance outcomes.

From an economic point of view, presenteeism is defined as reduced productivity at work due to employees’ health conditions or other events, such as office politics or work conditions that distract them from desired productivity (Hummer et al., 2002; Whitehouse, 2005; Turpin et al., 2004). Several studies identify presenteeism in terms of productivity loss due to illness and attempt to quantify the impact of health conditions and symptoms on employees’ overall productivity (Reilly et al., 1993; Koopman et al., 2002). Hence, the economic or financial focus consider presenteeism for employees with health conditions who come to work but struggle to reach their normal level of productivity.

From the behavioural perspective, presenteeism encompasses a number of possibilities, such as physical or psychological ill-health, disillusionment with the workplace, a protest element at perceived unfairness and poor work-life balance arrangements. Therefore, behavioural perspectives define presenteeism in several ways. For example, Evans (2004) defined presenteeism as going to work in spite of feeling unhealthy and suffering other events that might generally compel an absence (e.g., child care facilities). Similarly, presenteeism is also defined as working longer hours, thus putting in ‘face time’ while being unwell (Worrall et al., 2000; Simpson, 1998).

In the literature, presenteeism has been criticised for being diffused and lacking nuance because of the above-mentioned perspectives. Johns (2010) gathered a list of 10 different definitions, including his own; the definitions have in common the concern of being present at the workplace while in ill health either physically or psychologically, this concern but expressed in various ways. For example, researchers have used other terms with similar

meaning, such as sickness attendance (Dellve et al., 2011; Hansson et al., 2006; Johansson & Lundberg, 2004) working through illness (Dew et al., 2005), and inappropriate non-use of sick leave (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000). This study consequently uses the term ‘presenteeism’ as ‘sickness presenteeism’, referring to the definition of Aronsson et al. (2000) as going to work while being ill (physically, psychologically or both), and at work, but unable to work at full capacity. This definition is preferred for this thesis because of its simple wording and easy comprehension, increasing the usefulness of this thesis to people from a broad range of backgrounds.

2.6.1 Absenteeism vs. presenteeism

A discussion of presenteeism should begin with some focus on absenteeism, as it is considered the opposite of presenteeism in the literature (Goetzel et al, 2004; Aronsson et al., 2000; Lowe, 2002; Gosselin et al., 2013). The notion of absenteeism is described as the failure to report for scheduled work (Johns, 2002). In the 1950s, Canfield and Soash (1955) shifted their focus from absenteeism to presenteeism. They projected presenteeism as a positive attribute, as employees indicate an attitude that values ‘showing up’ as opposed to the negative behaviour of being absent (absenteeism). According to Covner (1950), absenteeism is a viable and reasonable area for research as it is apt to happen with ‘consistency of pattern’, indicating trends toward healthy attendance behaviours. Moreover, Smith (1970) distinguished between illness-absenteeism and non-occupational illness-absence and found that most of instances for being unable to come to work (absenteeism) were due to sickness or injury. He also suggested that interviewing and counselling for employees may provide effective focus on presenteeism and should be included in organisations’ formal policies. Thereafter, in the 1980s and 1990s, corporate mergers and downsizings influenced management to continue to work beyond regular hours, and attracted practitioners’ increased focus on presenteeism. This is because, as Aronsson et al. (2000) suggested, long working hours for many white-collar employees caused sickness presenteeism, reduced benefit levels and increased sickness compensation for organisations.

Both absenteeism and presenteeism are the outcomes of a particular decision point: the choice between going to work and not going to work. This decision point is the common thread in the constructs, but developed from different literature and explained using different theories

(Halbesleben et al., 2014). In contrast to absenteeism, presenteeism considers “mutual alternatives” (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005, p. 964), because a simultaneous consideration of both absenteeism and presenteeism explains the process by which an employee chooses between absence and presence when they are sick. However, Aronsson & Gustafsson (2005) proposed a conceptual model where presenteeism may result in either destructive or salutogenic (i.e. factors that support human health and wellbeing) outcomes. They explained that presenting to work when ill may either make the illness worse and lead to sickness absenteeism, or serve as therapy if the workplace denotes a healthy social environment. On the other hand, being absent from work due to sickness may have unexpected negative consequences on employees’ health due to being excluded from the labour market or a host of issues related to returning to work.

Comparisons of the cost between absenteeism and presenteeism are well discussed in the literature. Goetzel et al. (2003) separated productivity loss from absenteeism and the amount of unproductive time spent at work when affected by a condition, or presenteeism. They emphasised presenteeism by indicating employees’ physical presence at work. On the other hand, Kumar et al. (2003) suggested that absenteeism and presenteeism exhibit exactly opposing rates of increase and decrease relative to each other. In their study, they found that while longer hours spent performing work indicated reduced absenteeism, presenteeism rose significantly. Moreover, Stewart et al. (2003) found that the cost of presenteeism is three times higher than that of absenteeism in the US. Similarly, it was claimed that presenteeism is far more costly than its sickness-related absenteeism and disability (Hemp, 2004). Therefore, from a managerial point of view, organisations have an interest in taking balanced decisions so that on one hand, employees do not shirk (reducing absenteeism), and that, on the other, they take some days off when needed, to avoid presenteeism (Brown & Sessions, 2004). The current study also considers the significance of presenteeism over absenteeism in the Australian context because of the observations found in the literature and examines the influence of RL in Australian organisations.

2.6.2 Types of presenteeism

Cooper identified four types of presenteeism (Cooper, 2011). In fully functioning presenteeism, employees are healthy and rarely take sick days. They are involved and

motivated, and participate in their jobs. In sickness presenteeism, employees turn up to work but their health is suffering to greater or lesser degree. Although they are not well, their job insecurity is such that they come to work even when they are feeling unwell, but they are mostly unproductive. In job dissatisfied presenteeism, employees are usually physically and psychologically healthy, but have more absences from work than the average employee. Their work may not have damaged them instantly, but they are less involved or committed to their job. This is because there may have a mismatch between their character or capabilities and their position or role requirements, or because they are poorly managed. Lastly, presenteeism in the stressed or chronic unhealthy is a combination of those who have severe chronic health conditions and those whom the job itself has damaged.

In contrast, Quazi (2013) classified presenteeism in terms of two different types of employee behaviours. In sickness presenteeism, employees come to work with health or other physical or psychological conditions that reduce their on-the-job productivity. In non-sickness presenteeism, employees come to work while experiencing life conditions that are not related to sickness (e.g., personal financial difficulties, stress, perceived workplace pressure, legal or family problems) and perform below capacity (Milano, 2005). However, non-sickness presenteeism can also be perceived when employees spend time at work on personal matters. For example, Casale (2008) reported that employees spend about 2.5 to 5 hours per week at work undertaking personal concerns. However, the current study is concerned with 'sickness presenteeism' and refers here as 'presenteeism'.

2.6.3 Causes of presenteeism

When employees report (or are forced to report) to work while they are ill or have medical conditions, this can result in productivity losses. Several factors may influence the occurrence of presenteeism in organisations, and various studies have identified several causes. For example, Johns (2010) indicated that the primary factors that influence presenteeism are employees' personal financial challenges, work related stress and perceived pressure from managers or colleagues to attend work. Quazi (2013) found that employees were more likely to go to work ill during economic downturns for job security, financial reasons, work environment, time pressure, and other reasons.

One of the frequently mentioned reasons for presenteeism is employees' job security. Johns (2007) suggested that one of the reasons for presenteeism is feeling of job insecurity caused from organisational downsizing or restructuring. Hence, job (in)security is deemed to be the most probable explanation for sudden drops in sickness absenteeism rates during periods of layoffs (Luz & Green, 1997). Patton (2012) reported that half of those who were willing to go to work sick indicated that the most important reason for their decision was job security. Similarly, Worrall and Cooper (2007) suggested that employees work extended hours to appear diligent when they feel insecure in their positions, which makes presenteeism more likely.

Some employees may attend work while unwell because of financial difficulty and lack of personal or sick leave. According to Johns (2007), presenteeism might occur when employees think that the option of absenteeism is not available or is perceived to be more costly. A survey in the U. S. by CIGNA Corporation found that 25% of respondents came to work sick because they needed money, and 38% cited a sense of duty towards their company (Casale, 2008). Other studies have suggested that presenteeism may have more to do with a sense of duty than financial difficulty or lack of personal or sick leave (Quazi, 2013). For example, some employees attend work because they may not want to disappoint their team members. Gurchiek (2009) suggests that two-fifths of employees base their work ethic and dedication on the belief that their organisations or co-workers need them to be at work despite their being ill or having other issues, while about one-fourth of them come to work when ill or having other issues of financial need. Thus, rewards for good attendance regardless of productivity, or sick leave resulting in a negative point on a performance appraisal may be considerations for those worried about job security (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000; Lowe, 2002).

Work environment plays a significant role in presenteeism outcomes. Dew et al. (2005) described the work environment as either a 'battleground' or a 'sanctuary' depending on factors such as pressures faced by employees and the way employees cope, control and make choices. Barnes et al. (2008) found that the perceptions of work in terms of clarity of roles, job demand, and control and the quality of one's relationship with management and colleagues were related to sub-optimal job performance. Caverley et al. (2007) suggested that work-related factors, such as job security and relationships with supervisors and colleagues were significantly associated with presenteeism. Moreover, the influence of teamwork and

pressure from colleagues also act as a driver to be present at work despite being ill (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000).

Work overload and time pressure are also recognised in the literature as factors promoting presenteeism. Both situations involve employees experiencing a high volume of work on a daily basis (Aronsson et al., 2000; Biron et al., 2006; Lewis & Cooper, 1999; Lowe, 2002). Preziotti and Pickett (2006) identified that 60% of respondents felt pressured to go to work out of concern that their work might not be completed, making it one of the prevalent causes of presenteeism. Caverley et al. (2007) argued that a lack of replacements and the need to meet deadlines causes presenteeism to flourish. Hence, presenteeism is high when there is difficulty in finding replacements, and work left undone must be done by the employee on return to work (Dew et al., 2005).

Employees' psychological reasons may also be symptoms of a larger issue of presenteeism prevalent in almost every workplace (Quazi, 2013). For example, some employees may feel guilty for missing work, which may be attributed to their strong commitment to their jobs, which in turn raises the likelihood of sickness presenteeism (Hansen & Andersen, 2008). A survey by the National Foundation for Infectious Diseases indicated that 48% of the respondents felt guilty for missing work (Preziotti & Pickett, 2006). The inspiration of teamwork or pressure from colleagues also acts as a driver to be present at work despite having health conditions (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000). According to Hansen and Andersen (2008), when higher levels of co-operation in performing work tasks are required, higher levels of presenteeism are also displayed, as employees depend more on each other for the completion of duties in workplaces. Similarly, Luz and Green (1997) found that group cohesiveness might restrain employees from being absent from work. For example, Quazi (2013) suggests that employees tend to be more concerned about having fellow colleagues carry additional workload for them during their absence, so they turn up for work despite feeling ill. Therefore, they are tempted to report to work when they are sick out of loyalty to their colleagues (Dew et al., 2005).

Ramsey (2006) considered six reasons employees come to work despite being sick. First is fear of falling behind; for example, employees feel that missing work due to sickness might put them behind schedule. Second is the iron man mentality; for example, some employees

believe that missing work for sickness is a sign of weakness, and they consider it. To them, it is more important to show that they are invincible. Third is reluctance to use sick leave; for example, employees would like to accumulate their sick leave especially when they have the opportunity to cash it in. Fourth is the ‘indispensable man theory’; for example, some employees think that their organisation cannot run without their presence. Fifth is wishful thinking; for example, some people keep hoping that they will get better without missing work. Sixth is a misunderstood sense of duty; for example, some employees may be highly conscientious and worried about letting down their fellow workers, bosses and the whole organisation if they miss work due to illness.

Apart from these factors associated with presenteeism, a number of articles have also suggested significant relationships with other personal and work determinants such as high work-life conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 2001), professionalism and guilt, perceived seriousness of the ailment (Biron et al., 2006), rewards for low absence rates (Kristensen, 1991) and control over the labor market (Kivimaki et al., 2005), as reasons to engage in presenteeism. This study focuses on the leadership and manager-employee relationship to examine RL and presenteeism, and includes the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions among Australian employees. Table 2.4 summarises the above discussion with the various causes of presenteeism as described in the literature.

Table 2.4: Summary of the causes of presenteeism

Author(s) & Year	Causes of Presenteeism
Johns (2010)	Personal financial difficulties, work stress and perceived work load from managers or co-workers to join work.
Quazi (2013)	Economic downturns and job security, financial reasons, work environment and time pressure.
Johns (2007); Patton (2012)	Job insecurity caused from organisational downsizing or restructuring.
Gurchiek (2009)	Organisation’s or co-workers’ need them to be at work despite being ill or having other issues.
Dew et al. (2005)	Work environment; loyalty to their colleagues.

Author(s) & Year	Causes of Presenteeism
Caverley et al. (2007)	Job security, relationships with supervisors and colleagues; lack of replacement and the need to meet deadlines.
Grinyer and Singleton (2000)	The influence of teamwork and pressure from colleagues.
Biron et al. (2006); Preziotti and Pickett (2006); Aronsson et al. (2000); Lewis and Cooper (1999); Lowe (2002)	Work overload and time pressure.
Hansen and Andersen (2008)	Employees may feel guilty for missing work, which may be attributed to their strong commitment to their jobs.
Ramsey (2006)	Fear of falling behind; iron man mentality; reluctance to use sick leave; indispensable man theory; wishful thinking; misunderstood sense of duty.
Duxbury and Higgins (2001); Biron et al., 2006; Kristensen (1991); Kivimaki et al. (2005)	Work-life conflict; professionalism and guilt, perceived seriousness of the ailment; rewards for low absence rates; control over labor market.

2.6.4 Cost of presenteeism

In the 1950s, scholars and practitioners attempted to quantify losses in productivity caused presenteeism, the situation of being ‘here but not all there’ (Canfield & Soash, 1955). The concept of presenteeism became more familiar to describe employees who performed at less than fully functional levels. In the last decade, a great deal of work was done to estimate real costs of productivity loss linked to presenteeism (Lynch & Reidel, 2001; Burton et al., 1999; Goetzel et al., 2003; Collins et al., 2005; Koopman et al., 2002).

In the literature of presenteeism, researchers have argued that coming to work when unwell may be expensive and more damaging to productivity and performance than deciding just to stay home for the day (Hemp, 2004; Berger et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2003). For example, Bank One in the US found that presenteeism costs \$311.8 million annually, while the annual total cost for medical treatments and prescriptions, absenteeism, and disability is \$176.2 million (Hemp, 2004). Hence, this cost recommends that a less than fully performing

employee on the job can have a dramatic impact on workforce productivity and organisations' profitability.

Presenteeism generates an economic burden on both the micro (organisational) and macro (national) economies. For organisations, Goetzel et al. (2004) suggested that the costs of presenteeism exceed direct medical expenses and that depression, and other psychological illnesses were among the highest contributors to presenteeism. Goetzel et al. (2003) also identified that productivity-related losses are higher for psychological conditions than for physical. Ozminkowski et al. (2004) indicated that the cost of presenteeism reaches between \$2,000 and \$2,800 per employee every year; and Burton et al. (2006) obtained comparable outcomes as well as a new estimate for 2004 of between \$1,392 and \$2,592. A study reported in the Harvard Business Review advises that US companies may lose \$150 billion annually because of presenteeism (Hemp, 2004). Research by PriceWaterhouseCoopers (PwC, 2009) exposed that presenteeism may cost employers up to seven times more than absenteeism per employee per year. Using the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) figures as a base, they calculated the cost of presenteeism at just below £5,000 (approximately AUD\$7,960) per concerned employee per annum. At the national level, presenteeism cost the Australian economy \$A 34.1 billion for the year 2009-2010, or 2.7% of the GDP (Medibank, 2011). This is even higher in the USA. For 2010, presenteeism costs the US economy \$US 180 billion or 1.7% of its GDP (Weaver, 2010). Similarly, in the UK, presenteeism costs 13 million lost working days annually (Hardy et al., 2003). Therefore, presenteeism indicates a substantial impact on employees' productivity and imposes a significant economic burden both on businesses and national economies.

2.7 Presenteeism and workforce productivity

Presenteeism refers to workforce productivity and considers the employees who are present at work but may not be working to full capacity due to their psychological or physical ailments (Burton et al., 1999). According to CCH Incorporated (2003), "presenteeism is a new term used by human resource professionals to describe circumstances in which employees come to work even though they are ill, posing potential problems of contagion and lower productivity"(p. 163). Similarly, Levin-Epstein (2005) defines presenteeism as lost

productivity that happens when employees come to work but work below par due to any illness.

In recent years, the discussion on workforce productivity has shifted its focus away from employee absence to presenteeism (Halbesleben et al., 2014), measured as the extent of various diseases, conditions and symptoms that negatively affect the work productivity of employees who choose to work through the illness (Chapman, 2005). For example, poor or no health care benefits (Athey, 2009), perceptions about work environment (Pilette, 2005), perceived pressures from supervisors or co-workers (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000), fear of disciplinary action and the risk to promotion opportunities (McKevitt et al., 1997), meeting job demands (Halbesleben et al., 2014), job insecurity (MacGregor et al., 2008) and employees' belief that their illness or medical condition is not severe enough to warrant staying home (Johns, 2010) may result in employees presenting to work when they are in ill health, but their presence is merely physical and their productivity suffers.

From the individual perspective, presenteeism may result from employees' perceptions of their given workload (Athey, 2009). For example, some employees work with ill health and feel they have too much work to do, need to meet deadlines, feel morally obligated and feel there is inadequate coverage to handle their job responsibilities (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Athey, 2009; Johns, 2010). As a result, they damage the quantity and quality of employees' productivity, as well as that of their work team and their co-workers as individuals. Hence, presenteeism can result in the exacerbation of existing medical conditions, accidents and errors due to impaired functions, additional time needed to complete tasks, irritability, fatigue, poor concentration, and decreased motivation (Aronsson et al., 2000; Hemp, 2004; Johns, 2010; Pilette, 2005). Therefore, presenteeism can decrease performance output and negatively affect workgroup productivity (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Hemp, 2004; Scuffham et al., 2014). The current study considers the productivity perspective for presenteeism and examines RL for its influence on employee productivity with the mediational influence of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

2.8 Organisational commitment

The notion of organisational commitment is considered to be a multidimensional construct that can have a meaningful impact on organisational performance and effectiveness (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). It has been extensively researched for years and found to be a reliable predictor of voluntary employee turnover and employee intention to leave the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In general, organisational commitment refers to the strength of an employee's identification with organisational goals and the importance of remaining with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). The term 'commitment' considers the psychological link or bonding between employees and their organisations. The essential characteristics of commitment have been considered as: (1) a faith in and approval of the organisation's goals and values; (2) compliance to exert a work effort toward achieving goals; and (3) a desire to continue job with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Porter et al., 1974). Organisations historically claim that they value the concept of employee commitment, which, according to modern literature, is often considered an essential element in employee performance (Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Hence, the study of organisational commitment steadily gains interest, as the effects stemming from the level of employees' commitment can have a significant impact on organisations and society as a whole (Mowday et al., 1982). An understanding of organisational commitment is essential for organisations to consider employee retention, reduce turnover and achieve greater organisation outcomes (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Several studies show that organisational commitment has a negative relationship with employees' propensity to leave organisations during times of change and upheaval (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

In previous studies, organisational commitment has been considered both as a consequence and an antecedent of employees' work-related variables (Meyer et al., 1989; Cohen, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994). Many studies have suggested that an increase in organisational commitment has the potential to increase organisations' productivity and profit margins, as well as their employees' health and wellbeing (Blau & Boal, 1989; Cohen, 1993; Eisenberger et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Mitchell et al., 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993). However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argued that "although higher levels of commitment may relate to improved job performance in some situations, the present findings suggest that commitment has very little direct influence in most instances" (p.184). This inconsistency may be because of the

ways in which commitment has been conceptualised and measured. Academics and practitioners define commitment and put it into practice in different ways, and it is challenging to incorporate the results of the accumulating research (Akhtar & Tan, 1994; Hrebiniak & Allutto, 1972). The concept of organisational commitment can take several forms, and it is, therefore, imperative that researchers state explicitly what form or forms of commitment are being studied to ensure that the measures, they use, are appropriate for that purpose (Meyer et al., 1993). The current study focuses on employees' commitment toward their organisations as defined by Meyer and Allen (1997).

2.8.1 Definitions of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment refers to a psychological bond between employees and their organisations, and describes the likelihood that employees will not leave their organisations voluntarily (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991). However, various scholars and researchers have offered several definitions from different points of view. For example, Mowday et al., (1982) suggested that organisational commitment indicates the relative strength of an individual's identity and involvement in their organisation. From a cost-based perspective, Kanter (1968) views commitment as "a profit associated with continued participation and a 'cost' associated with leaving" (p. 504). However, Marsh and Mannari (1977) considered commitment as moral responsibility, where employees feel obligated to maintain employment with the organisation, regardless of how little status enhancement or satisfaction their organisations provide. It is evident that there is no single definition for organisational commitment in the literature (Akhtar & Tan, 1994).

Most researchers agree that organisational commitment comprises a psychological bond between employee and organisation, but their definitions differ in the nature of the psychological state being described (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This is because researchers have scrutinised the nature of organisational commitment using two primary approaches: the behavioural (or calculative) approach and the attitudinal approach (Akhtar & Tan, 1994). Both methods are well established in the organisational commitment literature (Mowday et al., 1982; Reichers, 1985; Salancik, 1977). The primary difference between them is that attitudinal commitment research supports the idea that employees are committed to the group first and then perform well, whereas the behavioural commitment approach supports the idea

that the employees perform well and are then committed to the group (Mowday et al., 1982). The following two sections describe the approaches in detail.

2.8.2 Attitudinal approach to organisational commitment

There is significant agreement in the literature that organisational commitment is an attitude (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981; Jaros et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1982). Hence, some researchers refer to commitment as a 'psychological state' (Allen & Meyer, 1990), others simply as a 'bond' or 'linking' (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) of the individual to the organisation; an 'orientation' (Sheldon, 1971), a 'readiness to act' (Leik et al., 1999) or an 'un-conflicted state of internal readiness' (Brickman et al., 1987). Thus, attitude is considered as an individual's internal state preceding and guiding action, feelings, beliefs and behavioural preferences (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Attitudinal commitment focuses on the processes by which employees think about their relationships with their organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). It is also described as employees' mind-set in which they recognise the extent to which their personal values and goals correspond with those of organisation, exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and form a strong desire to stay with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27). The majority of organisational commitment studies focus on the attitudinal approach (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested two primary aspects of the attitudinal commitment approach. First, from an organisational perspective, demonstration of strong commitment is associated with desirable outcomes, such as lower absenteeism and turnover and higher productivity. Second, determination of employees' personal characteristics and situational conditions contributes to their high commitment. Therefore, the attitudinal commitment approach focuses on the process by which employees come to think about their relationship with the organisation mainly as a mind-set in which they consider the degree to which their goals and values are corresponding with those of their organisation (Singh et al., 2008). Here, organisational commitment is deemed to be developed according to a prospective view, which asserts that an individual's psychological bond is a function of his or her involvement, loyalty and belief in the organisation's values.

2.8.3 Behavioural approach to organisational commitment

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) stated that employees' commitment includes 'behavioural terms' that explain what actions a commitment implies. The behavioural approach to commitment relates to the processes by which employees become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with that (Mowday et al., 1982). It focuses primarily on recognising the conditions under which behaviour, once shown, tends to be recurring, as well as on the effects of such behaviour on attitude change (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981). Hence, the behavioural commitment views employees as being committed to a particular course of action (e.g., maintaining employment with an organisation), as opposed to being committed to the organisation itself (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The behavioural approach evolved as a result of Becker's (1960) side-bet theory of commitment, described by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) as "a structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of individual organisational transactions and alternations in side-sets or investments over time" (p. 556). Becker (1960) believed that employees can make certain investments or 'side-bets' in their organisations and these investments then become sunk costs that reduce the attractiveness of leaving the organisation for employment elsewhere. The 'side-bet' is some action or interest or environmental condition that is important to the individual and influences consistency of behaviour (Becker, 1960; Salancik, 1977). Inconsistent behaviour would mean losing the side bet. As noted by Meyer and Allen (1997), employees "[become] too committed to a particular course of action" (p. 9), as a result of the accumulation of side-bets that would be lost if membership in their present organisation terminated. Hence, organisational commitment can be seen as an outcome of perceived profit from maintaining employment or disengaging from an on-going line of activity that is costly to the individual; these choices result in commitment.

2.8.4 Components of organisational commitment

Some theorists have broken organisational commitment into components to better understand its effects; researchers have defined these elements somewhat differently. For example, Caldwell et al. (1990) wrote of compliance, identification, and internalisation commitment. They suggested that compliance commitment occurs when employees adopt certain behaviours to gain concrete rewards; identification commitment occurs when an employee

feels proud to be identified with the group; and, internalisation commitment occurs when an individual's values are congruent with the organisations values (Caldwell et al., 1990). There are several other constructs of commitment theory as well (Becker, 1960; Sheldon, 1971). For example, Meyer et al. (2006) suggested that employees' commitment possesses both cognitive and affective elements. The former are the behavioural expressions that form the basis of the commitment (as described above); the latter encompasses whatever feelings a specific mindset evokes (e.g., pride or guilt). Meyer and Allen's work has been widely cited and validated by a variety of studies, including a cross-cultural study (Kacmar et al., 1999). The depth of this theory lies in its reliability, which makes it an appropriate framework for the current study also.

Even though other conceptualisations of commitment have appeared in the literature (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Pentley & Gould, 1988), the contribution of Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) delivers the richest interpretation of commitment in their three-component model of commitment. This model as explained by Meyer and Allen (1997) still dominates organisational commitment research (Meyer et al., 2002). In their review of the three-component model, Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three distinct components in the definition of commitment: (1) commitment to an affective orientation, or desire to remain with the organisation; (2) commitment to a perceived cost (continuance) associated with leaving the organisation; and (3) commitment as an obligation (normative) to remain in the organisation, each of which members may experience to varying degrees (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Meyer & Allen, 1991). This current study includes the three-component model as one of the mediators; the following section describes the model in more detail.

2.8.5 Three-component model of organisational commitment

The three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment is considered the leading model in organisational commitment research (Bentein et al., 2005; Cohen, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Meyer et al., 2002). The model was proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997), who specified its components as affective, continuance and normative commitment. While these components are different in nature from one another, together they permit an analysis of the relationship between employee behaviour and organisational outcomes; for example, policies based on such analysis can reduce the probability of

employee turnover for organisations. Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so” (p. 3). According to Solinger et al. (2008), three perspectives are noteworthy for analysing the presumed common conceptual ground of the three components. First, all three elements are thought to reflect employees’ psychological state (i.e., want, need, ought) and to address the attitudinal forms of organisational commitment (as described in the previous section). Second, the three elements are assumed to be associated with organisations, reflecting the idea that organisational commitment as an attitude. Third, the three states can be considered simultaneously. Thus, for the conceptualisation of the components, organisational commitment should be recognised as the ‘net sum’ of these three psychological states (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The following three sections highlight the three components in detail.

2.8.5.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment identifies an employee’s particular affinity or affection toward the group, which is related to the retention in organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This affinity indicates a sense of shared identity between the employee and the organisation. Often this shared identity comprises a shared value, which provides great motivation for employees to contribute meaningfully to the work process. Additionally, managers note that employees with high affective commitment report higher levels of adherence to policy and lower levels of job turnover (Mowday et al., 1982). Thus, employees with affective commitment want to stay in the organisation and have an emotional attachment to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As a result, high affective commitment leads to employees’ better job performance (Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Affective commitment also reflects a person's identification with, involvement in, and sentimental attachment to the organisation (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). According to Jaros et al. (1993), “it is a degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness, and pleasure” (Jaros et al., 1993, p. 954). Mowday et al. (1982) described affective commitment as the relative strength of an employee’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (p. 27). Affective commitment is important in the current study, because it appears to have the highest correlations with withdrawal cognitions

and turnover among the three commitment components (Meyer et al., 2002; Stinglhamber et al., 2002). The construct might also tap some of the personal and emotional reasons why employees come to work when they are unwell.

2.8.5.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the state employees are in when they stay in a job because they need to, not necessarily because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1997). With this notion of commitment, employees associate a cost with leaving, and stay in a position even after they no longer feel an affinity for the group. Continuance commitment can create feelings of resentment and negatively correlate with performance indicators, such as employee attendance (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Similarly, it may show negative results for employers, particularly when employees remain committed but not productive in workplaces (Reichers, 1985).

Continuance commitment may be developed as a consequence of actions or events that increase the cost of leaving the organisation and does not involve the emotional aspects associated with such decisions. Meyer and Allen (1991) summarised these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: various investments that employees make and the employment alternatives that they believe exist; and employees' recognition that investments and/or lack of alternatives make their leaving more costly. If employees perceive that the costs are too high to leave the organisation, they are likely to perform tasks that would ensure continuous employment. However, a negative association is reported between continuance commitment and promotion potential (Meyer et al., 1989; Shore et al., 1995), and no significant relationship is with reported with either to job performance or absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995; Hackett et al., 1994). Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that before an employee decides to leave, there is a period of disenchantment. During this phase, employees may respond to dissatisfaction in three ways: they may express ideas about improvement (voice); they may show a willingness to accept things the way they are (loyalty); or they may withdraw (neglect). Researchers recommend that the stronger an individual's continuance commitment, the more likely they are to withdraw or express turnover intentions (Kacmar et al., 1999).

2.8.5.3 Normative commitment

The third component of the three-component model described by Meyer and Allen is normative commitment. In this instance, employees stay in the organisation out of a sense of obligation and feel they ought to remain because of perceived obligations, such as rooted norms of reciprocity (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997). Thus, employees with higher normative commitment continue their jobs by consideration of their belief that it is the right or moral thing to do (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982). Wiener and Gechman (1977) suggested that normative commitment is not a desire or passion that is fuelled by an individual's commitment, belonging instead to their sense of right and wrong. The influence of the psychological contract, with its distinct emphasis that reciprocal obligations in an exchange relationship will be fulfilled, might be the missing link in understanding the relationship between trust and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Employees under normative commitment also may feel that it is morally right to stay with their organisations (Meyers & Allen, 1991). The association between normative commitment and employee performance outcomes is positive, but weaker than that for affective commitment (Randall et al., 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that the beneficial effects of normative commitment might be short-term for organisations than the other two components of organisational commitment.

2.9 Overcommitment

Within organisations, employees are expected to be highly committed to increasing productivity but it remains a question that where to draw the line from higher commitment to overcommitted employees. It will be significant to examine the adverse effects of overcommitment on presenteeism. Researchers suggest that employees with overcommitment drive high demand for restriction and approval, and repeatedly strain their resources, thus precipitating exhaustion and breakdown in the long-term (Joksimovic et al., 1999). In the literature, overcommitment is described as a continuing cognitive-motivational pattern of maladaptive coping with demands identified by excessive striving and a failure to withdraw from duties (Etzion et al., 1998; Siegrist et al., 2004). It is also considered as a risk factor for strain even when there is no effort-reward imbalance; this may be because it appears to be a personal, exhaustive work-related coping style (Preckel et al., 2007; Siegrist, 1996; Tsutsumi

& Kawakami, 2004). The concept of overcommitment in the literature is described more extensively as effort-reward imbalance (ERI) theory in the organisational commitment literature.

2.9.1 Effort-reward imbalance and overcommitment interaction

The ERI model was proposed in the 1990s. It claimed that where an imbalance exists between the higher amount of perceived effort and lower level of perceived rewards, an increased risk of ill health and distress is apparent (Siegrist, 1996). The theory held that work-related benefits depend upon a mutual relationship between effort and rewards at work. Hence, the ERI model claims that work characterised by both high effort and little rewards represents a reciprocity deficit between 'costs' and 'gains' (Vegchel et al., 2002). In this model, effort on the job is an element of a social contract that is reciprocated by adequate reward. Moreover, rewards are disseminated by three transmitter systems: esteem, career opportunities, and job security (Siegrist et al., 2004). This model connects higher work-related stress and sequential morbidity to an imbalance between the amounts of effort employees devote to their work and the rewards they receive (Siegrist, 1996). This model may be explained further and modified by personal dispositions, such as overcommitment to work.

Overcommitment is introduced as an intrinsic component of the ERI model, and is believed to clarify stressful practice caused from high-cost and low-gain conditions at work, as it induces exaggerated exertions that are not met by extrinsic rewards (Siegrist, 1996). It is an individual difference in the way employees experience effort-reward imbalance and appears to be relatively stable over time (Preckel et al., 2007; Siegrist, 1996). The situation of effort-reward imbalance is observed to be more frequent in employees who are extremely committed or over-committed to their work (Kinman & Jones, 2008). Hence, overcommitment can be described as a set of attitudes, behaviours and emotions that reflect extreme striving for results with a higher intention to be recognised and valued (Siegrist, 2001). Therefore, employees who are overcommitted are more likely to strive than a person in the same situation who is less committed.

The ERI model is often applied to organisational and occupational health psychology research, and is central to research on employee populations (Rennesund & Saksvik, 2010). Some employees are assumed to be more at risk for experiencing an imbalance between effort

and reward at work, and effort-reward imbalance is postulated to be experienced more intensively by persons characterised by overcommitment (Hetland et al., 2012). A potential imbalance between effort and reward could lead to stress experiences and strain, and over time could cause increased risk of adverse health effects, including illness and disease (Tsutsumi et al., 2001; Joksimovic et al., 2002; Preckel et al., 2005; Vrijkotte et al., 1999; van Vegchel et al., 2005; Siegrist, 2008). However, both external demands and internal needs can contribute to ERI (Siegrist et al., 2004). Internal requirements are a result of an individual's ambition and personal motivation; accordingly, a person's personality is of importance. Overcommitment could be of particular interest and overcommitted individuals are proposed to underestimate work demands and overestimate their capacities. This study considers employee commitment as the mediational variable for the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism, and it is essential to be aware of employees' overcommitment effects on the selected relational model.

2.9.2 Overcommitment and presenteeism

The ERI model is one of the most influential theoretical frameworks in occupational health research studies (Siegrist, 2002). Various studies on ERI and overcommitment used critical cut-off values to diagnose hazardous conditions to health at the workplace including presenteeism (van Vegchel et al., 2005; Tsutsumi & Kawakami, 2004). For example, employees' overcommitment increases the risk of coronary heart disease (Kuper et al., 2002; Preckel et al., 2005); significant physiological cardiovascular risk influences including elevated lipid levels and haemostatic risk elements (Peter et al., 1998; Vrijkotte et al., 1999); vital exhaustion (Preckel, von Känel et al., 2005); depression (Dragano et al., 2008); and anxiety (Godin & Kittel, 2004). Studies have also found that a high level of overcommitment is linked to decreased job satisfaction (Li et al., 2005), greater work-family conflict (Kinman & Jones, 2008) and increased absenteeism (Godin & Kittel, 2004). However, some studies have suggested that there is no evidence of an association between work attitudes and behaviours, such as turnover intentions (Kinnunen et al., 2008; Derycke et al., 2010) and sickness absences (Hanebuth et al., 2006; Griep et al., 2010).

Several factors are related to work and personal circumstances identified with presenteeism including the concept of overcommitment (Bergstrom et al., 2009). Arronson and Gustafson

(2005) indicated that the risk of sickness presence can be affected by personal and work-related demands for presence. In many cases, presenteeism has been shown to connote perseverance in the face of difficulty, particularly when employees' personality is also considered (Johns, 2010). As a result, employees with an internal health locus of control, high consciousness and hardiness and a strong work ethic who exhibit 'workaholism' or low self-esteem may be prone to showing up at work despite their illness (Johns, 2010). Hence, overcommitment may compel employees to achieve and surpass their ambitions in workplaces. Bergstrom et al. (2009) suggested that among personal factors that can contribute to presenteeism is employees' overcommitment. Similarly, Hansen and Andersen (2008) claimed that the most important personal circumstance of presenteeism is overcommitment. Cicei et al., (2013) advised further research and studies on managerial and organisational measures aimed at reducing overcommitment and promoting programs that discourage presenteeism. However, this study does not focus on employees' overcommitment issues as a factor of presenteeism; rather, it examines the three-component model of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

2.10 Employee turnover intentions

The concept of employees' turnover intentions is used interchangeably with other terms in the literature, such as propensity to leave, staying or leaving intentions, intent to leave, or intention to quit. This study uses the term 'employee turnover intentions' to refer to individuals' behavioural intention to leave their organisations (Good et al., 1996; Mobley et al., 1979). It also indicates individuals' assessed possibility that they will leave their work at some point in the near future (Brough & Frame, 2004). Here, employees' behavioural intentions reflect the most honest and immediate cognitive antecedents of overt behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Triandis, 1977). The theory of attitudes proposes that the best single predictor of employees' behaviour will be a measure of their intention to perform that behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Employees' intentions to stay or leave their organisation are consistently related to turnover, and this relationship is significantly stronger and more significant than the satisfaction-turnover relationship (Lum et al., 1998). Hence, employee turnover intentions are the culmination of employees' personal decision-making process that links their thought

processes and behavioural action (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). However, employees' turnover intentions and actual turnover are not the same. Turnover indicates employees' permanent movement beyond the boundary of their organisations (Rahman & Nas, 2013); turnover intentions refer to three specific elements in the withdrawal cognition process: thoughts of resigning the job, the intention to search for new jobs and the intention to terminate employment (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006).

Several researchers have suggested that intentions have an immediate causal effect on employees' final turnover decision (Bedeian et al., 1991; Addae et al., 2006). Employee turnover is considered detrimental to any organisation for cost and work disruption and has become a much-studied phenomenon (Addae et al., 2006; Yousaf, 2008). Employees' final decision to quit their jobs is an undesirable outcome for both the organisation and employees as it affects both parties. Hence, it is important to recognise employee turnover intentions to minimise the negative impact on both employee and organisational performance (Low et al., 2001). This study examines employee turnover intentions instead of turnover because of the concern of before the fact reaction than highlighting the after the fact response of employee outcomes.

2.10.1 From employee turnover intentions to turnover

The literature on turnover suggests that it occurs because employees, who dislike their jobs, will look for alternative employment opportunities (Spector, 1997). Turnover and turnover intentions are primary concerns for many organisations, particularly with relation to employee performance and productivity. In addition to the cost of turnover, employee turnover intentions also cost organisations money and lost opportunities. According to Joinson (2000), organisations may incur costs that result from employees' slower work pace or increased absenteeism. For example, when employees are unable to come to work, the organisation incurs costs in lost sales opportunities with lost service and also raises its costs by paying overtime pay for employees who take on the work of absent employees. Though turnover intentions are not the same construct as actual turnover, but often used as a surrogate measure in workplaces. This is because the intention to leave is considered to be the immediate precursor of quitting. Fishbein's (1967) model of attitudes-intentions-behaviour and Locke's task motivation model have shown that employees' intentions can be considered as the most

immediate motivational determinant of choice to stay with or leave their organisations (Locke et al., 1970; Locke, 1968). Previous studies have supported this contention by offering empirical evidence of the associations between turnover intentions and actual turnover (Newman, 1974; Kraut, 1975; Porter et al., 1976; Steers, 1977).

Bluedom (1982a) reviewed 23 articles and reported significant positive relationships between turnover intentions and turnover. In that comparison, 15 out of the 23 studies compared the predictive power of turnover intentions with the predictive power of outcome variables. In 19 of 20 comparisons made in these 15 studies, turnover intention was the most accurate predictor of turnover behaviour. Therefore, some researchers have recommended using employee turnover intentions rather than actual staying or leaving behaviour as a criterion variable (Coverdale & Terborg, 1980; Bluedom, 1982b). However, employee turnover intentions can be criticised for not being a perfect measure. According to Mobley et al. (1979), the association between employee turnover intentions and turnover appears to be consistent, but it also accounts for less than 24% of the variance in turnover. They also identified the probable reasons for this; for example, it may not account for impulsive behaviour; it may not capture perception and evaluation of substitutes; and along with individual, organisational and external conditions, a change may occur in the original dimension between the first observation and that of the actual behaviour. Therefore, the more precise the measure of employee turnover intentions and the less time between the measurement and the true response of turnover, the stronger the relationship should be (Mobley et al., 1979). In other words, the more organisations can predict employee turnover intention, the less turnover may result in their future. This is the justification for considering turnover intentions than turnover as a mediating variable in the current study.

2.10.2 Factors affecting turnover intentions

In the literature, several factors have been identified as influences on employees' turnover intentions. For example, Berry (2010) found that employee's attitude, appraiser, peers, management, organisational configuration, external compatibility and job demands are significant for employee turnover intentions. Similarly, Cotton and Tuttle (1986) found that employees' self-assessment of compensation, job satisfaction, work experience, demographic variables, family size, trust and organisational commitment affect employee turnover

intentions. Other researchers have found that job stability and enrichment (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008), positive feelings and trust (Maertz et al., 2007), job prospects (Munasinghe, 2006), employee engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008), pay and benefits (Heckert & Farabee, 2006), employee performance (McNeilly & Russ, 1992), growth and development (Grawitch et al., 2007), supervisors' social support (Noe et al., 2005), job involvement and organisational commitment (Blau & Boal, 1989) and organisational politics (Byrne, 2005) may cause behavioural predisposition to stay or withdraw from the organisation and to judge if a particular job can satisfy expectations. Joo (2010) suggests three specific reasons for employee turnover intentions: employee dissatisfaction with organisation-wide policies; lower levels of organisational commitment in workplaces; and influence of organisations' learning culture and leader member exchange (LMX) quality, or the different exchange relationships leaders develop over time with various subordinates (Maertz et al., 2007). The causes and factors affecting employee turnover intentions in the literature examined here are multiple and complex and demand further study. To shed light on the antecedents of employee turnover, researchers have focused attention on these factors, expecting that changes in them will effect corresponding changes in turnover intentions and actual turnover rates (Biron & Boon, 2013). The current study includes employee turnover intentions as a mediating variable on the relationship between RL and presenteeism.

2.10.3 Two perspectives of turnover intentions

Both the human capital (Becker, 1975) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories acknowledge and emphasise the usefulness of employee turnover intentions literature in organisational studies. For example, Malik et al. (2011) suggested that these two theories are powerful tools for understanding employees' workplace behaviour. Identifying employees as human capital (the human capital theory) suggests that development of employees enhances their productivity and employability in the market, which may induces increased turnover for better jobs (Green et al., 2000). This theory suggests that the employee relationships developed in a context of trust, loyalty or mutual commitments and investment in employees' development (through training or benefits) can create an active employee-mindset to stay with their organisations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Benson et al., 2004; Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008). On the other hand, social exchange theorists (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Sieben, 2007) suggest that social behaviour is the result of an exchange process may affect employees' turnover intentions. This theory suggests that such

exchange processes creates an atmosphere within organisations for honouring organisation-employee relationships, which influences employees' turnover intentions (Foong-ming, 2008), as employees are likely to reciprocate the supervisor's support and trust by exhibiting a strong commitment, loyalty and trust in return (Yukl, 2013). Similarly, Huselid (1995) and Malik et al. (2011) found strong evidence for the social exchange theory as an association with lower labor turnover. They also found that elements of human capital theory associated with employees' decision whether to stay with their organisations depends on reasons such as managerial responses to employees' cultural differences, organisational configuration, external market demands and employee benefits. Hence, both theories may provide a better explanation for turnover behaviour of the Australian employees for this study than either theory on its own.

2.11 Chapter summary

This chapter presented a review of the literature relevant to this study's theoretical framework. The review explained the relevant leadership theories focusing on RL, presenteeism and its effect on work productivity, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

The first part of the literature reviewed organisational leadership theories including RL. It addressed the evolution of leadership theories and offered a detailed analysis of RL with other value-centered theories, such as transformational, ethical, servant and authentic leadership theories. However, the notion of RL was presented with a multiple frame of definitions from individual, organisational, social, stakeholder and global perspectives. Finally, RL was shown to influence organisational performance. The chapter then reviewed the definitions of presenteeism and contrasted it with absenteeism. Subsequent sections explained the type, causes and cost of presenteeism from an organisational perspective. The association of presenteeism with workforce productivity was described to support the conceptual framework of this study.

The focus of organisational commitment in this literature review included its definition; the two perspectives, such as attitudinal and behavioural approaches and its various components. In addition, the organisational components were specified with Meyer and Allen's (1991,

1997) three-component model including the affective, continuance and normative commitment. Lastly, organisational commitment was reviewed with employees' overcommitment where it is described as the ERI interaction and adverse impact of presenteeism outcome.

The last part of this chapter considered employees' turnover intentions. The discussion included how turnover intentions tend to lead to actual turnover; factors affecting their intentions; and the two perspectives of turnover intentions.

The next chapter describes the research methodology used in the current study to correlate the relationship between RL and presenteeism with the mediation of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. It also addresses the appropriateness of the research design; indicates the research questions and hypothesis; describes the study population and sampling frame, measurement instruments, data collection and analysis processes; and discusses issues associated with validity and reliability for this study.

3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides further justifications for the development of this study's hypotheses and their justifications. The development of the research questions with supportive hypotheses and objectives are essential steps in producing relevant results to be used in evidence-based research studies (Farrugia et al., 2010). Sections 3.2 to 3.8 describe the main hypothesised relationships among RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Sections 3.8 and 3.9 present the possible mediating role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism. Finally, Section 3.10 provides an overview of this chapter and builds on to Chapter 4.

3.2 RL and presenteeism

The relationship between leadership and employee outcomes, such as productivity, organisational commitment and employee turnover is well presented in organisational literature. Yukl (2013) considered the concept of leadership from two perspectives: as a role, where a person has certain responsibilities and functions, and as an influence process that occurs within a social system. In this study, leadership refers to managerial leadership, where leaders influence employees by holding a formal managerial or supervisory position within organisations. These leadership roles may also influence employees' physical and psychological wellbeing, which in turn may lead to employee productivity and presenteeism. However, employees judge their managers' leadership roles and response by different levels of productivity. There is ample evidence in the literature for the association between employees' perceptions of how their managers are and behave, and the level of stress and health conditions at their workplaces (Tepper, 2000; Offerman & Hellman, 1996; Stordeur et al., 2001; Sosik & Godshalk, 2001; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Nyberg et al., 2008). Hence, managerial leadership can play a significant role in employees' presenteeism to manage a productive workforce.

The consequences of presenteeism are more complicated than absenteeism for organisations, and are often not well understood by managerial leadership, especially when it comes to employee performance and productivity. This is because managers may see their employees arrive on time and seemingly ready for a full day's work but not recognise that they are actually not physically or psychologically fit enough to deliver their best efforts. As a result, employees may become inattentive, demoralised and less productive while being present in their jobs. According to a study by Medibank, Australia (2011), the total cost of presenteeism to the Australian economy was \$25.7 billion in 2005-06 and \$34.1 billion in 2009-10. On average, 6.5 working days of productivity are lost to presenteeism per employee annually. As a result, in 2010, presenteeism equalised to a 2.7% decrease in the overall GDP for the Australian economy. Hence, presenteeism is a persistent problem and costs the Australian economy billions of dollars. Organisational leadership needs to realise and address this hidden perennial problem. Support from the organisation's leaders combined with regular attention to employee health and their productivity is essential. Nyberg et al. (2008) suggested that leadership significantly affects presenteeism at workplaces, but it has not been extensively examined. The different ways through which leadership could affect or be associated with presenteeism can thus be explored further, particularly in relation to RL.

Several studies have investigated the relationship among leadership, employee productivity, presenteeism and health-related outcomes at workplaces. There is enough evidence in the literature to link the current study and the relationship it proposes between RL and presenteeism. For example, research has examined the reciprocity in the relationship between managerial leadership and employee wellbeing (van Dierendonck et al., 2004), the mediating role of diverse work characteristics (Arnold et al., 2007; Nielsen et al. 2008), the moderating role of psychological factors and coping among employees (Harvey et al., 2007), the destructive components of leadership (Ensley et al., 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007), and transformational leadership (Nielsen et al., 2008). Moreover, leadership and its impact on employees' health have been researched from various perspectives within the organisational studies. For example, employees' assessment of managerial leadership and incidence of ischemic heart disease has been shown to have a significant association (Nyberg et al., 2009). Similarly, Hetland et al. (2007) suggested that aspects of leadership practices have a greater impact on employee health conditions at work. Some studies have predominantly focused on leaders' personal characteristics and behavioural influences on employee outcomes. For

example, leaders' personal attributes have been linked to improved wellbeing and decreased levels of stress among employees (Arnold et al., 2007; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Harris, 1999; Melchior et al., 1997; Wilcoxon, 1989; Nielsen et al., 2008; Seltzer & Numerof, 1998). However, based on a meta-analysis, Kuoppala et al. (2008) suggested that further research is needed to strengthen and clarify the evidence for the relationship between organisational leadership, employees' wellbeing and health-related outcomes. Hence, this exploration is warranted to study RL and presenteeism regarding employee outcomes in the Australian context.

Evidence suggests that employees' psychosocial health is related to presenteeism (Aronsson et al., 2000; Elstad & Vabø, 2008; McKevitt et al., 1997). According to Gilbreath and Benson (2004), managerial leadership showed a significant influence on employee psychological wellbeing over many other factors, including stress, life and work events. Hence, leadership is connected with employees' both psychological and physical health to influence presenteeism and productivity loss (Kelloway & Barling, 2010; Nyeberg et al., 2008; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

Along with other recent leadership theories, transformational leadership has been studied in considering employees' psychological health. For example, transformational leadership in particular has been found to be positively associated with employee psychological wellbeing for both individual and organisational performance (Arnold et al., 2007). According to Cummings et al. (2010), transformational leadership is the most commonly used leadership approach to influence workers' sense of meaningfulness, commitment and identification with their work within the organisational context. However, managerial leadership may influence working conditions, which in turn affects employees' presenteeism. In addition, employees' ability and motivation also play a significant role in the leader-follower relationship (Hofstede, 2006). This study specifically incorporates RL in organisations to examine its influence on presenteeism in Australian workplaces.

The notion of RL is relatively new in organisational leadership theories (Waldman & Balven, 2015; Siegel, 2014) and there appears to be, no reported conceptual or empirical study to date, outlining the pathways by which RL links to presenteeism in the Australian context. One reason for this scarcity of literature is that because RL and presenteeism discourses have

developed mostly independently of each other. Studies of this relationship are based on managerial leadership theories, which are often examined either for various employee health conditions or estimating organisational effectiveness (Setterlind & Larsson, 1995; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Yukl, 2006; Kouppala et al., 2008). Employees' health conditions related to presenteeism have been shown to lead to reductions in productivity levels, including both quality and quantity of work outcomes (Shamansky, 2002; Hemp, 2004). Moreover, several researchers suggested that leadership in organisations positively affects employees' health in terms of both physical and psychological wellbeing in workplaces (Gavin & Kelley, 1978; Sheridan & Vredenburgh, 1978; Mullen & Kelloway, 2010). Hence, it is evident in the literature that leadership in organisations positively influences employees' health, and that employees' health at work negatively influences presenteeism. This research specifically focuses on the relationship between RL and presenteeism in light of the vast amount of organisational leadership studies. Thus, it is useful to research how RL in organisations associates with employees' presenteeism; this leads to the following hypothesis:

H₁: There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism.

3.3 RL and organisational commitment

It is essential for leaders to ensure organisational commitment for their employees to meet the challenges of a competitive global market. The concept of organisational commitment refers to the relative strength of individuals' identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. It also conceptualises employees' affective attachment to their organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1993; Salami & Omole, 2005). The influence of affective attachment leads employees to share organisations' values and increases their desire to remain in their organisation and their willingness to exert more effort for it (Mowday et al., 1979). Previous studies have found that organisational commitment influences other organisational elements, such as job satisfaction, motivation, decision-making, organisational support, reward, communication and leadership (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Salami & Omole, 2005). Organisational commitment, as described in Section 2.8.5, has been classified in the literature as affective (emotional attachments), continuance (costs of leaving) and normative (personal values) (Meyer & Allen, 1993; Brief, 1998). Affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and a sense of attachment to the organisation, and is related to personal

characteristics, organisational structures and work experiences, such as pay, supervision, role clarity and skill variety (Hartman, 2000). Continuance commitment refers to employees' comparison of the costs associated with leaving the organisation or staying (Murray et al., 1991). Normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of moral compulsion to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Research shows that committed employees perform better. Organisational commitment is considered as an important antecedent to other positive organisational outcomes (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). For example, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that organisational commitment influences employee performance, absenteeism, attendance, and employee turnover. From a leadership perspective, many studies have implied that leadership in organisations can uphold a higher level of organisational commitment and demonstrated positive relationships between various leadership approaches and employee attitudes, motivation and performance (Bass et al. 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Stogdill, 1963; Yozgat et al., 2014; Gokce et al., 2014; Şahin et al., 2014; Keskes, 2014; Wagner et al., 2013; Suk et al., 2015). According to Zahra (1984), employees' perceptions of their managers' leadership styles influence their organisational commitment. However, organisational commitment influences both employee turnover intentions and leadership styles (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Doh et al., 2011; Salami & Omole, 2005). Hence, employees may perceive that some managers' leadership approach influences them more than others in enhancing their organisational commitment. For example, significant attention has been given to transformational leaders and their ability to enhance their employees' organisational commitment (Bass, 1985). This study focuses on other value-based leadership approaches to justify the reason for examining RL with organisational commitment in the Australian context.

Among the value-based leadership approaches, transformational leaders influence their employees with personal rather than positional authority, and encourage employees to think critically. They also involve employees in internal decision-making processes and inspire their loyalty while recognising and ensuring that each employee has the opportunity to develop personal potential (Yammarino et al., 1993). There is strong evidence for a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Xueli et al., 2014; Choi,

2014; Kim, 2014; Top et al., 2015). Similarly, some researchers have focused on the relation between leaders' ethical behaviour and employees' level of commitment toward organisations. Brown et al. (2005) defined ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement and decision-making" (p.120). Several researchers have suggested that leaders' ethical behaviour influences employees' behavioural outcomes, including commitment, job satisfaction and turnover (Pettijohn et al., 2008; Beeri et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2014; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Among the value-based leadership approaches both transformational and ethical leadership have been shown to have a significant positive relationship with organisational commitment. This is provoking for the newly evolved notion of RL; however, other leadership approaches should not be overlooked here.

Managers who adopt a servant leadership approach keep employees' needs, aspirations and interests above their own (Greenleaf, 2002). Previous research suggests that the considerate behaviour of servant leaders is a strong component and positively correlates with organisational commitment (Agarwal et al., 1999; Miao et al., 2014). Similarly, Cerit (2010) identified servant leadership as a significant predictor of employees' commitment to their organisations. Researchers have also found that authentic leadership is also a key determinant of organisational commitment (Avolio et al., 2004). According to Leroy et al. (2012), managers' authentic leadership is related to employees' work role performance and fully mediated through affective organisational commitment. Moreover, authentic leaders can enhance their employees' behavioural outcomes, such as affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and productivity (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Studies of managerial roles coupled with authentic leadership have confirmed that employees share leaders' values, beliefs and convictions, and that authentic leadership is associated with positive organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Gardner et al., 2005). Therefore, various value-based leadership approaches have been shown to predict employees' organisational commitment meaningfully; however, RL has not been extensively examined and needs to be scrutinised further to apply in organisational leadership. This limitation in the literature can be overcome by examining the relationship between RL and organisational commitment. RL is considered to be linked to employees' organisational commitment in this study, which leads to the following hypothesis:

H₂: There is a positive relationship between perceived RL and organisational commitment.

3.4 RL and employee turnover intentions

Employee turnover intentions refer to employees' behavioural intent to leave their organisations (Mobley et al., 1979). In the literature, it is also referred to as propensity to leave, staying or leaving intentions, intention to quit or intent to leave. In other words, it is a distinct decision as individuals' psychological withdrawal from their occupation or organisation and behaviour to look for other jobs or career alternatives (Martin, 1979; Mobley, 1982; Moore, 2000; Blau, 1988, 2007; Blau et al., 2003). Psychological withdrawals mount in workplaces when employees mentally distance themselves from their work environment and eventually increase intentions to leave their organisations (Keaveney & Nelson, 1993). Moreover, employees who form turnover intentions, in general, do not work to their full potential. They lose their focus on work, deliver reduced performance and become less productive than the employees who do not bear turnover intentions (Beehr & Gupta, 1978). The notion of employee turnover intentions has been studied in various disciplines from attitudinal, behavioural and organisational perspectives (Samad, 2006). Demographic variables such as age and tenure have been also found to be related to turnover intentions within organisational studies (Cohen, 1993). Similarly, work-related issues (managerial leadership or organisational commitment), personal (health condition or illness), external (social impression about the organisation) and job-related factors (job environment) are also found to play an important role in employees' decision to remain with or leave their organisations.

The role of managerial leadership is well researched in the employee turnover literature; however, most research has focused on general supervisory support (Griffeth et al., 2000; Holtom et al., 2008; Bass & Bass, 2008). Manager-employee relationships at workplaces may also influence employee turnover intentions because of employees' emotional and intellectual involvement. Employees spend a significant portion of their working life in daily interactions with managers; understandably, that builds and reflects their attitudes toward managerial leadership outcomes and turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; DeConinck & Stilwell, 1997; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Wells & Peachey, 2011; Palanski et al., 2014; Mathieu et al., 2015). According to Myatt (2008), employees leave their jobs for several reasons, and

most of them are directly or indirectly related to leadership. As a result, several studies have focused on the influence of leadership on employee turnover intentions and actual turnover (Hsu et al., 2003; Silverthorne, 2001; Long & Thean, 2011; Liu et al., 2013; Zhiqiang et al., 2013; Wang & Yen, 2015). Employee turnover intentions can be instigated because of low salaries, work overload, relocation, layoff and job dissatisfaction (Schwerin & Kline, 2008). Moreover, research suggests that many employees leave their jobs because of not having a good relationship with their managers (Joyce, 2006; Myatt, 2008). Hence, leadership role is viewed as an important influence to manage employee turnover intentions; this study examines RL and its relationship on employee turnover intentions among Australian employees.

Transformational leadership has been characterised by four leadership influences: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1990). Gill et al. (2011) described a negative relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intentions. Managers who adapt transformational leadership have shown significant positive associations with several organisational processes and outcomes: job performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and employee attitudes toward adopting evidence-based practices (Walumbwa et al., 2005). Several studies also found that transformational leadership has a negative relationship with employee turnover intentions and moderates the effect of organisational climate and work environment (Hamstra et al., 2011; Tse et al., 2013; Green et al., 2013; Badawy & Bassiouny, 2014; Peachey et al., 2014). Transformational leaders in an organisation may help to reduce employee turnover intentions by strengthening group cohesion, increasing organisational commitment and recognising and rewarding the work done by employees. They also can buffer the negative effects of a stressful job environment by providing support and inspiration to their employees (Stordeur et al., 2001). As a result, organisations have more committed employees, which reduce their overall turnover losses.

Employees respond more positively to leaders who practise value-based leadership because of these leaders' employee orientation and informal communications. Leaders' pro-employee behaviours significantly influence employees' turnover intentions (Jaramillo et al., 2009). For example, ethical leadership has been shown to assure more satisfied and committed employees, which in turn, results in lower employee turnover intentions and superior competitive performance (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Palanski et al., 2014). Similarly, Jaramillo et

al. (2009) found that servant leaders create a positive work climate in which salespeople feel a stronger sense of shared organisational values, become more committed to organisations and express a deeper desire to remain in their organisations. Moreover, servant leaders create a positive work environment in which employees develop feelings of attachment and loyalty to organisations (Liden et al., 2007). Managers who adopt a servant leadership approach make their primary priority to support employees' requirements such as better work condition and employee benefits. These managers also have a moral obligation to take care of the necessities for their employees to minimise turnover intentions (Greenleaf, 1977; Greenleaf, 2002; Jaramillo et al., 2009). Authentic leaders also foster trust and promote employee identifications and build confidence to accomplish work goals; this culminates in increased employee and organisational performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio et al., 2009). According to Laschinger and Fida (2014), authentic leadership in a managerial role influences employee retention significantly, and reduces turnover intentions. Kiersch (2012) also suggested that authentic leadership is a significant predictor of turnover intentions, finding a significant relationship with employee turnover. Hence, the role of the value-based leadership approaches are well recognised in the literature for employee turnover, but not enough research has been done into the relationship between RL and employee turnover intentions to draw the same conclusion (Kleinman, 2004; Loke, 2001; Luthans, 2005; Vroom & Jago, 2007). Moreover, the relationship between RL and employee turnover intentions should not be overlooked. Therefore, this study aims to further advance the organisational leadership literature to explore the direct influence of RL on employee turnover intentions in the current Australian context with the following hypothesis:

H₃: There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and employee turnover intentions.

3.5 Organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions

In addition to the key aim of examining the relationship between RL and presenteeism and the mediational role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions, this study also inspects the direct relationship between the mediators. Both organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions have been well researched and shown to be significant for employees' intentions to leave or stay with organisations. Committed employees express a willingness to go beyond the expected requirements of their duties, and are more likely to

remain with the organisation than less committed employees (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organisational commitment is related to employee turnover intentions; one way to overcome turnover rate is to increase employee commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Bedean, 2009). Previous studies have noted that organisational commitment and turnover are significantly related, and negatively associated to each other (Paillé et al., 2011; Simo et al., 2010; Mowday et al., 1982; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Robbins & Coulter, 2003): committed employees demonstrate positive intentions to serve their organisations and also think less about quitting their jobs.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), employee turnover negatively correlates with organisational commitment. They conceptualised a multiple-component commitment model following the antecedents to and consequences of commitment with affective, continuance and normative units. In the literature, it is known as a three-component model of organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) found that all three components of organisational commitment show significant negative relationships with employees' turnover intentions in various levels. For example, a meta-review of the correlations between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions confirmed their significant negative relationship significantly the coefficients ranging from -0.29 to -0.61 (Meyer et al., 2002). Many researchers have highlighted the inverse relationship between this three-component model of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions (Trimble, 2006; Harris, et al., 2009; Paillé et al., 2011; Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Manzoor & Naeem, 2011; Lee et al. 2012). In addition to the above studies, the current study also considers the recent literature of human resources management for the associations between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions (Faloye, 2014; Watty & Udechukwu, 2014; Yousaf et al., 2015; Brien et al., 2015; Saranya & Muthumani, 2015). Organisational commitment has been considered a better predictor and measure for employees' turnover rate and intentions to stay in organisations than other influences at work, such as job satisfaction or work environment (Wagner, 2007; Watty & Udechukwu, 2014; Yueran & Liu, 2015). The current study also expects to find a negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions for the study sample. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H₄: There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

3.6 Organisational commitment and presenteeism

Research suggests that organisational commitment plays an essential role in employee productivity, because employees who are highly committed show higher participation and efficiency at work than others (Angle & Perry, 1981; Ekmekci, 2011; Phipps et al., 2013). Similarly, Balfour and Wechsler (1996) recommended that employees' organisational commitment is an appropriate and significant aspect to give insights into employee productivity. Hence, it is important that managers develop employees' organisational commitment through psychological elements to produce more-devoted employees to support their organisational goals, interests and values (Singh et al., 2008). Moreover, organisations fostering an environment that encourages employee commitment will also profit from higher productivity. According to Kinjerski and Skrypnek (2006), when employees are committed to work, despite their health conditions, they try their best to get their work done productively. However, highly committed employees may be inspired to work longer hours, which inevitably takes its toll on them for both of their psychological and physical health (Schwartz & McCarthy, 2007). Research has shown that organisational commitment is associated with lower absenteeism, but that it is also related to higher levels of presenteeism and may lead to 'over-commitment' consequences (Caverley et al. 2007; Bergstrom et al., 2009; Johns, 2010; Bierla et al., 2013; Graf et al., 2015). It is understandable that committed employees may come to work despite being ill and sometimes if may force themselves to work harder; in turn, this may increase presenteeism instead of further productivity. However, the current study focuses on employee commitment instead of over-commitment effects.

According to Hansen and Andersen (2008), organisational commitment is a significant predictor of presenteeism; that is, employees with higher commitment are more likely to force themselves to be at work while sick. For example, employees may prefer to come to work rather than taking the risk of being absent because of its related consequences such as job security and additional workload. Bockerman and Laukkanen (2009) noted that organisational commitment implies a willingness by employees to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, which ensures a good attendance record and productive work.

Similarly, Taifor et al. (2011) examined the direct influence of organisational commitment on presenteeism and found that higher organisational commitment associates with lower presenteeism at work. However, there is not enough available literature on the relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism in leadership studies. Hence, this study postulates a link between organisational commitment and presenteeism in the Australian context with the following hypothesis:

H₅: There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism.

3.7 Employee turnover intentions and presenteeism

Employee turnover intentions may influence employee productivity, expenses and overall performance of organisations. It is assumed that if leaders in organisations can reduce employees' turnover intentions, turnover will decrease and employee productivity will be influenced positively. A number of studies have inspected the relationship between employee productivity and both employee turnover intentions and employee wellbeing (Stewart et al., 2003; Kim & Garman, 2004; Boles et al., 2004; Kemery et al., 2012). Employees' health conditions result in low productivity due to several reasons, such as low energy, increased distractions while at work, negative emotions about work resulting in turnover and inability to attend work or perform well (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Kim & Garman, 2004). Employees' wellbeing is considered to be a multidimensional construct that incorporates several concerns. They include work environment, financial benefits, emotional or physical health and behavioural risks (such as turnover intentions) and quality of employees' social connections within a community (Diener, 2000; Lee et al., 2004; Diener, 2006; Kemery et al., 2012; Sears et al., 2013). For example, unhealthy workplaces that poses a threat to employee health and insufficient medical allowances for health care facilities might demoralise employees to leave their jobs. There is strong evidence that these elements are associated not only with employee wellbeing, but also with further organisational expenditure, and influence performance outcomes, including productivity (Lynch et al., 1993; Boles et al., 2004; Sears et al., 2013; Kemery et al., 2004). Employee turnover intentions, whether observed or concealed may increase the actual turnover rate, and influence employee health and presenteeism in a way that decreases productivity in organisations.

In the literature, employee turnover intentions have been described as the pre-stage of employees' actual decisions on whether to leave or quit their jobs, and have been argued to be a causal effect on the turnover decision (Bedeian et al., 1991; Addae et al., 2006). Employee turnover intentions that end at turnover may cause several indirect costs, such as diminished productivity and additional time required by managers for recruiting, selecting and supporting new employees. Reductions in employee turnover lead to increases in organisational performance. They also help to reduce the costs associated with loss of human capital such as hiring and replacing employees (Egan et al., 2004; Silverthorne, 2004). Employee turnover intentions may cause under-performance with less productivity as employees become emotionally detached from their organisations and increase presenteeism (Reese, 1992; Taifor et al., 2011). Thus anything that can be done to reduce employee turnover intentions may lead to significant benefits for both employees and employers.

Ruez (2004) identified some key drivers of presenteeism, such as workplace stress, employee health and work-life balance that may also be relevant to employee turnover intentions. Understandably, adverse levels of these drivers demoralise employees, which affects their job effort and organisational commitment and increases absenteeism and employee turnover. A higher amount of absenteeism provides an initial indication for employees' withdrawal process, and organisations should consider such information as more than just data on absence rates (Cohen & Golan, 2007). However, when employees have turnover intentions and are forced to come to work while being ill for any reason, they may demoralise themselves to work below their best effort. In that situation, they may not have enough mental and psychological fitness to work with their expected productivity. To the best of my knowledge, no studies have been published that measure the associations between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Therefore, this study hypothesises that employee turnover intentions have a positive relationship with presenteeism and asserts the following hypothesis:

H₆: There is a positive relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.

3.8 The mediating role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism

Various organisational factors have been examined to link employees' wellbeing and presenteeism in organisational studies, such as job efforts and rewards (Siegrist, 1996), organisational change and job security (Kivimaki et al., 2000); work environment factors including management and leadership (McGregor et al., 2014); and work-life balance (Voss et al., 2000; Burton et al., 2004). There is also evidence for a direct association between employees' perceptions of how their leaders perform and level of presenteeism (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), but evidence is lacking for any indirect relationship with mediational effects. The direct influence between leadership and presenteeism is not straightforward, and may yield varying results because of the influence of other work-related outcomes. Less attention has been given to leadership practices and employees' work-related outcomes, such as organisational commitment and turnover intentions, to link them to presenteeism. There is also a scarcity of evidence in the literature to signify any mediational influence of employees' work-related outcomes on the relationship between RL and presenteeism. According to Nyberg et al. (2008), the relationship between leadership and presenteeism has not been examined extensively and needs further exploration. Many other researchers have also stressed the need to further examine influence of leadership approaches on employees' wellbeing and presenteeism (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Nyberg et al., 2009; Westerlund et al., 2010). Therefore, the current study includes two specific work-related outcomes as mediators to examine the indirect relationship between RL and presenteeism among Australian employees: organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

3.8.1 The mediating role of organisational commitment on the relationship between RL and presenteeism

Organisational commitment is identified as an essential component for understanding organisational performance and employee behaviour, as most researchers make an effort to clarify its predictors and consequences (Gomes, 2009). It is also specified as an emotional attachment for the identification and involvement established between employees and their organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organisational commitment is important not only for the evaluation of employees' performance outcomes but also for examining overall

organisational performance. Employees' commitment has been shown to be associated with several relevant organisational elements, such as leadership styles (Keskes, 2014); employee performance outcomes including absenteeism, attendance and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990); organisational citizenship behaviour (Schappe, 1998); job characteristics (Lin & Hsieh, 2002); and organisational trust (Korsgaard et al., 1995). Hence, organisational commitment has become a significant element for organisational leadership studies.

The recent literature of organisational studies has considered organisational commitment as a significant mediator because of its influences over employees' various work-related outcomes, such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Ahmed et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2014), customer relationship management (Garrido-Moreno et al., 2014), employee turnover intentions (Han et al., 2015) and job satisfaction (Hsu et al., 2015). Previous studies have also indicated the relative strength of organisational commitment for employees' identification, involvement and attachment to their organisations (Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974; Aldag & Reschke, 1997), and signify the importance of organisational commitment as a mediator for organisational studies. Moreover, organisational commitment in organisational leadership studies has also been shown to have significant role as a mediator (Yeh & Hong, 2012; Hougyn, 2012), but evidence is lacking for the relationship between RL and presenteeism. Therefore, the current study also considers organisational commitment as a mediator between RL and presenteeism (Figure 3.1). Employees who are highly committed to their organisations tend to come to work despite being ill, which contributes to the prevalence of presenteeism. The possible influence of organisational commitment is demanding further examination for its mediational intervention on the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism. Moreover, to justify the mediating role of organisational commitment:

- 1) RL must be related with both organisational commitment and presenteeism; and
- 2) The introduction of organisational commitment into the analysis must reduce the initially observed link between RL and presenteeism.

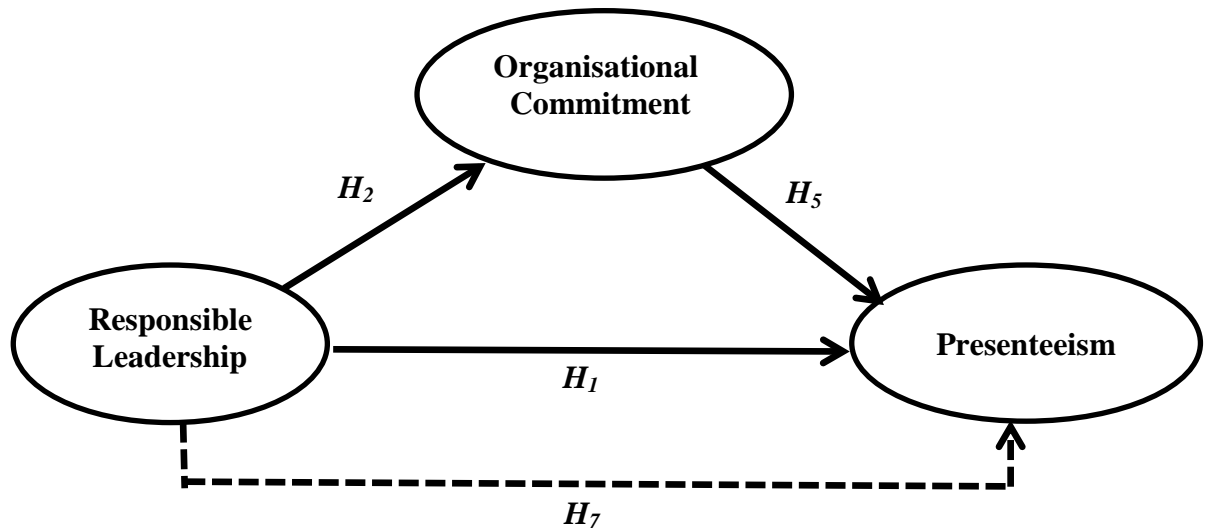


Figure 3.1: Hypothesised model proposing the direct and mediational relationship between RL, organisational commitment and presenteeism

The following considerations are also essential to examine the mediational influence of organisational commitment on the relationship of RL and presenteeism. First, RL must have a direct relationship with presenteeism. The direct relationship between RL and presenteeism was hypothesised (H_1) in Chapter 1 and justified in Section 3.2. Second, RL should also have a direct relationship with organisational commitment. The direct relationship between RL and organisational commitment was hypothesised (H_2) in Chapter 1, and Section 3.3 suggested various leadership approaches to organisational commitment to link RL and organisational commitment for this study. Third, for the mediational model shown in Figure 3.1, organisational commitment should have a direct relationship with presenteeism; this was hypothesised (H_5) in Chapter 1, and Section 3.6 outlined the direct relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism for this study. Finally, the inclusion of organisational commitment into the mediational model (Figure 3.1) must reduce the initially observed relationship result between RL and presenteeism. In other words, if the result of the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism shows any detrimental outcome compared to their primarily tested direct influence, the mediational influence will be justified. The latter condition, which indicates that introducing organisational commitment will reduce the strength of the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism, is tested in the results chapter of this thesis in Section 5.9.2 of Chapter 5. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H₇: *Organisational commitment mediates the association between RL and presenteeism.*

3.8.2 The mediating role of employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism

The notion of employee turnover intentions is not the same construct as actual turnover, but is often used as a surrogate measure, as it is the immediate precursor of quitting. According to Spector (1997), turnover results because employees who dislike their job or work environment will look for alternative employment prospects. As a work related-outcome, turnover can be considered as an end result of employees' turnover intentions, and it has become a major concern for many organisations. The concept of employee turnover intentions is also recognised as the cause of psychological, sociological and economic difficulties in workplaces (Meral et al., 2014). Both turnover and turnover intentions may cost organisations money and lost opportunities and lead to under-performance, and thus loss of productivity. Employees with turnover intentions gradually become emotionally detached and incur costs that result from their slower work pace, which influences increased absenteeism and presenteeism (Reese, 1992; Joinson, 2000; Taifor et al., 2011). Moreover, when employees conceal turnover intentions, organisations suffer costs in lost productivity and higher overheads by paying overtime for employees who take on the work of absent employees. In these circumstances, leadership may not have any role to play in higher employee outcomes.

In previous studies, researchers have tried to predict and explain employees' turnover intentions so that leaders in organisations can lead with effective strategic initiatives to avoid potential future turnover (Kraut, 1975; Hwang & Kou, 2006). Researchers have also suggested that employees' turnover intentions are the most immediate motivational determinant of choice to stay or leave their organisations (Fishbein, 1967; Locke, 1968; Locke et al., 1970). Previous studies have supported these arguments and offered empirical evidence for the relationship between employee turnover intentions and actual turnover (Newman, 1974; Porter et al., 1976; Steers, 1977). Moreover, employee turnover intentions have received significant attention in recent organisational studies as a mediator for employees' several behavioural outcomes, such as leadership outcomes, employee wellbeing, perceived organisation support and organisation commitment (Christian & Ellis, 2014; Kuo et al., 2014; Yousaf et al., 2015; Takase et al., 2015; Saranya & Muthumani, 2015; Brien et al., 2015), but evidence is lacking for RL and presenteeism. Hence, one of the purposes of this study is to examine the influence of employees' turnover intentions as a mediator on the relationship between RL and presenteeism. However, to justify this mediating role:

- 1) RL must be related with both employee turnover intentions and presenteeism; and
- 2) The introduction of employee turnover intentions into the analysis must reduce the initially observed relationship between RL and presenteeism.

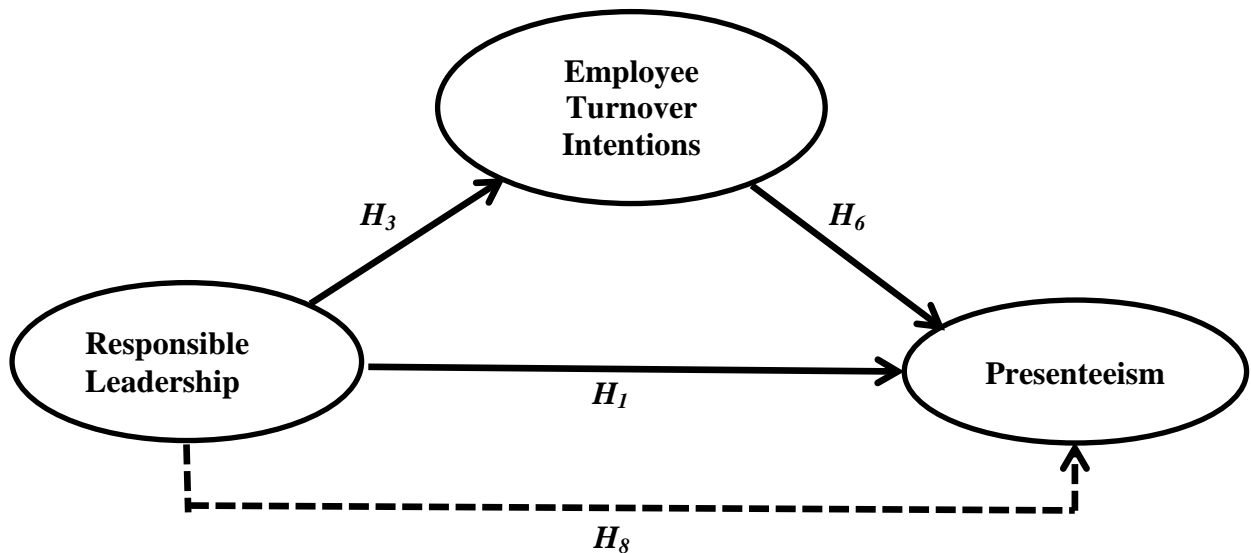


Figure 3.2: Hypothesised model proposing the direct and mediational relationship between RL, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism

In this study, the mediational influence of employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism comprises the following considerations. First, RL must have a direct relationship with presenteeism for the proposed mediational model, as shown in Figure 3.2. The direct relationship between RL and presenteeism was hypothesised (H_1) in Chapter 1 and justified in Section 3.2 with the evidence to link RL and presenteeism. Second, RL should have a direct relationship with employee turnover intentions. The direct relationship between RL and employee turnover intentions was hypothesised (H_3) in Chapter 1, and Section 3.4 outlined the direct relationship among leadership and employee turnover intentions for the justification to examine the influence of RL on employee turnover intentions for this study. Third, for the mediational model shown in Figure 3.2, employee turnover intentions also need to have a direct relationship with presenteeism; this was hypothesised (H_6) in Chapter 1, and Section 3.7 outlined the direct relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism. Finally, the presence of employee turnover intentions in the mediational model (Figure 3.2) must decrease the initially detected relationship outcome between RL and presenteeism. In other words, if the effect of the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism shows any reduced outcome compared to their primarily tested direct influence,

the mediational influence of employee turnover intentions will be justified. The latter condition, which indicates that introducing organisational commitment will reduce the strength of the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism, is tested in Section 5.9.2. The above considerations warrant investigation into whether employee turnover intentions mediate the relationship between RL and presenteeism and drive the following hypothesis.

H₈: Employee turnover intentions mediate the association between perceived RL and presenteeism.

3.9 Chapter summary

This chapter presented a comprehensive review of the literature and the current state of knowledge for the development of the hypotheses as shown in the relational model (Figure 1.1) in Chapter 1. The overall review explained the relevant literature for the conceptualised relationships among RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. It also included the justification for the mediators on the relationship between RL and presenteeism.

The first part of this chapter (Sections 3.2 to 3.4) outlined the literature of the various leadership approaches that examined presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Section 3.2 outlined the various value-based leadership practices along with employee wellbeing to justify the direct influence of perceived RL on presenteeism. In Section 3.3 the notions of RL and organisational commitment were described and assumed to have a positive relationship. Section 3.4 outlined a negative relationship between perceived RL and employee turnover intentions.

The second part (Sections 3.5 to 3.7) described the development of hypotheses for the relationship of presenteeism with organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions relationships. Section 3.5 predicted a negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions; Section 3.6 similarly predicted a negative relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism; and Section 3.7 predicted a positive relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.

Finally, Sections 3.8 and 3.9 described the development and justifications of the hypotheses for two mediating variables of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the association between RL and presenteeism.

Chapter 4 will present a detailed outline of the research methodology and approaches followed in this thesis.

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the methodology on which the study is founded. Its eight sections describe the sequential steps for empirical research methods according to Punch (2003) and Balnaves and Caputi (2001). Section 4.2 reviews the hypotheses set out in Chapter 1. Section 4.3 outlines the justification of the current research design and clarifies the methodology applied in this thesis. Section 4.4 explains the target population, sampling design, sampling method and sample size. The descriptive characteristics of the sampling profile are presented in Section 4.5. Thereafter, Section 4.6 describes the measures (survey instruments) used for assessing the selected variables in the thesis. Section 4.7 then outlines the data-collection procedure, and Section 4.8 gives the statistical techniques for hypothesis testing. The last section summarises the chapter.

4.2 Study model and proposed hypotheses

Chapters 1 and 2 have described the development of the proposed model and the formulation of the hypotheses for the current study. The model illustrates the hypothesised relationships between RL and the mediators of employee presenteeism: organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The proposed structural model is presented in Figure 4.1.

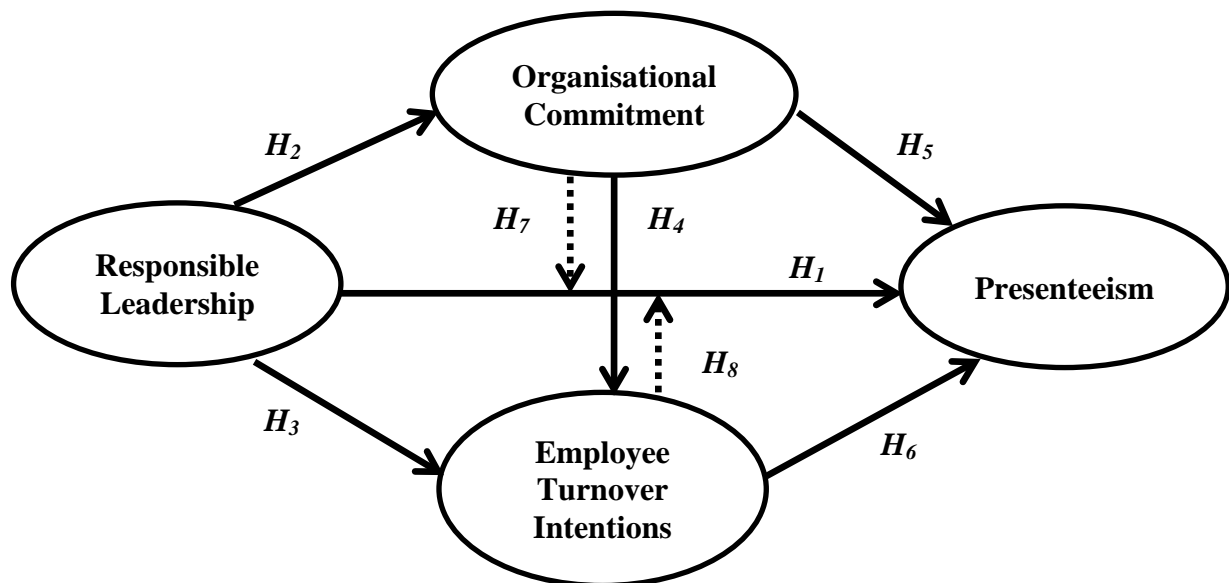


Figure 4.1: The proposed structural model and hypotheses

Eight hypotheses were developed to meet the purposes of the thesis (Section 1.6). These hypotheses will be tested to empirically validate the suggested structural model (Figure 4.1). The key aim of this study is to determine the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism with the mediating effects of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The research questions (Section 1.7) are addressed by the following hypotheses (H₁-H₈)

Hypothesis H₁: *There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis H₂: *There is a positive relationship between perceived RL and organisational commitment.*

Hypothesis H₃: *There is a negative relationship between perceived RL and employee turnover intentions.*

Hypothesis H₄: *There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.*

Hypothesis H₅: *There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis H₆: *There is a positive relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis H₇: *Organisational commitment mediates the association between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

Hypothesis H₈: *Employee turnover intentions mediate the association between perceived RL and presenteeism.*

4.3 Overview of the research design

Research methods are the ‘blueprints’ or ‘recipes’ for research studies to collect and analyse data (Cooper & Schindler, 2006; Creswell, 2005). Any research approach relies heavily on the level of existing knowledge about the research topic, and should incorporate a specific background for the studied variables. It also should specify the context and type of observation and data collection, and describe the processes required to accomplish the aimed study. A justified research design is important “to understand how the nature of the problem influences the choice of research method” (Zikmund, 2003, p. 54). Hence, research designs justify the aims of research studies to be examined in an accurate and unbiased manner.

This study, which used a quantitative methodological approach, can be defined as explanatory (deductive-reasoning) and correlational research. It also applied a cross-sectional survey within Australia. A survey-based design with a number of measures (survey instruments) was used to assess full-time Australian employees' perceptions of RL, presenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Quantitative studies involve deductive reasoning and develop specific predictions from the literature to test hypotheses (Hart, 2007). The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there is any relationship between the variables RL, presenteeism, organisational commitment, and employee turnover intentions. Previous studies have similarly addressed managerial leadership and employees' health conditions or performance outcomes with quantitative research techniques (Doh et al., 2011; Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012; Westerlund et al., 2009; Nyberg et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 2009). This quantitative design was appropriate for the study as "it is useful for identifying the type of association, explaining complex relationships of multiple factors that explain an outcome, and predicting an outcome from one or more predictors" (Creswell, 2005, p. 338). Moreover, quantitative design identifies the characteristics of the observed variables and explores correlations among two or more variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Sekaran, 2003). Sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.5 elaborate the research design to explore the objectives, clarify the relationships, and draw the implications of the current study.

4.3.1 Explanatory research design: hypothesis-testing

Research designs are described from two perspectives in the literature (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Sekaran, 2003). First, a research design should include a specific framework or structure, such as exploratory, descriptive or explanatory. These approaches help the researcher to make decisions about whether to use a cross-sectional, longitudinal or experimental design, a case study or a combination of these. This perspective clarifies the structure (or nature or framework) of the research so that it can deliver the evidence needed to answer research problems (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Second, a research design should include the type of data (primary or secondary, qualitative or quantitative or a combination), method of data collection and sampling strategy. This perspective justifies the decision about how to collect evidence to answer the research questions. For example, social science studies can be categorised into three classes of research: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Exploratory research aims to explore and identify problems when limited information is known, clarify the nature and scope of the problems under study look for insights, develop

propositions and hypotheses for further research and reach a better understanding of the solutions. Descriptive research is based on a previous understanding of the nature of the research problems and finds the answers to the research the questions (e.g., who? what? where? when? wow? how many?). Finally, explanatory research describes a process where the aim is to develop explanations through possible mechanisms (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Sekaran, 2003). This research approach not only states what is happening (as in descriptive research), it also offers answers about why something occurs in a certain manner. Researchers develop their hypotheses on the basis of the possible causes of a certain relationship and the existing literature, and then provide evidence to support or reject those hypotheses and draw a conclusion.

4.3.2 Designs for hypothesis testing: correlational design

This study surveyed and collected data without any experimental interventions from full-time Australian employees. Respondents were under managerial supervision so that their responses could be used to examine the relationships among the selected variables, such as RL, presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. A correlational, also known as non-experimental, research design focuses on the empirical relationship between studied variables. It is a non-experimental approach because it does not involve any manipulation of the variables; instead, it aims to determine the relationship among variables and the strength (significance) of the variables' association with each other. Punch (2003) noted that correlational designs measure the degree to which variables vary or co-vary, rather than manipulating independent variables. Manipulation of an independent variable is possible in a causal or experimental design as it is associated with cause-and-effect hypotheses (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Zikmund et al., 2010). However, the current study does not require manipulation of independent variables, so a correlational design rather than a causal relationship design was selected.

4.3.3 Quantitative research

There are two major approaches to research studies: qualitative and quantitative. Whether a study adopts a qualitative or quantitative approach is important for the overall research justification (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2003). Quantitative research is a way to test theories by examining the relationship among variables (Polit & Hungler 2013; Moxham, 2012).

Moreover, quantitative research designs involve “either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomena,” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 179). The variables may or may not be manipulated but the data are collected in a quantified or numeric form and referred to as statistical evidence (White & Millar, 2014; Wong, 2014). This method is suitable for addressing the questions of the current study and its hypotheses, as they support explanatory (theory-testing) research and examine the relationships among variables (Hair et al., 2004; Newman & Harrison, 2008).

Qualitative methods are applied to explore new challenges or opportunities and develop an understanding of the human experience by making sense of, or interpreting, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Greenhalgh & Taylor, 1997; Bowling, 2002). Creswell (2003) recommended qualitative research to investigate new beliefs and emotions to deliver higher-quality information. Qualitative research may include exploratory, theory-generating research, narrative research, case studies or ethnographic studies. The quantitative and qualitative approaches differ in their perspectives. In a quantitative research, it is assumed that cognition or behaviour is highly anticipated and explicable. Here, the assumption of determinism applies, which means that all events are completely determined by one or more reasons (Salmon, 2007). For example, the process by which children learn to speak or communicate is determined by one or more causes and quantitative research cannot identify a universal or exact law for particular human learning. On the other hand, a qualitative approach views human behaviour as dynamic, and as changing over time or place; it usually is not aimed at generalising beyond the particular people who are studied. Thus, in qualitative research, different individuals or groups may provide their different realities or perspectives, and various social constructs may influence how they perceive or understand their world and how they should act. In other words, quantitative studies search for explanations while qualitative studies seek the understanding of complex interrelationships (Groat & Wang, 2002).

Quantitative approaches function under the assumption of objectivity and assume that there is a reality to be observed and that rational observers who look at the same phenomenon will agree on its realism and characteristics. Standardised questionnaires and other quantitative measures or tools are often used to measure what is observed. In contrast, qualitative approaches mostly contend that reality is socially constructed (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). For

example, individuals' social behaviour follows the socially constructed norms they have internalised. For this reason, a significant difference among qualitative and quantitative approaches is in their data-collection procedures. Qualitative studies involve data-collection procedures that allow an in-depth understanding of human behaviours and support a comprehensive, detailed explanation of the concern under investigation (Creswell, 2003). The results of qualitative research are not tested to determine whether they are statistically significant or simply due to chance (Patton, 2002); as a result, it is problematic to generalise qualitative findings. The findings of qualitative studies cannot be generalised to the wider population, or to other related populations, with certainty equal to that of quantitative findings (Creswell, 2003). In contrast, quantitative studies allow the findings to be generalised to the defined population and allow the researcher to make claims about the population to a high degree of certainty (Zikmund, 2003; Hair et al., 2004).

This study is concerned with explaining the relationship among the selected variables in the Australian context; quantitative research was used to test these associations. It will be important that findings from this research can be generalised across Australian workplaces, because the research was intended to provide managers or supervisors with new understanding of manager-employee relationships, with the ultimate goal to clarify how they can increase levels of RL, enhance organisational commitment and reduce employees' presenteeism and turnover intentions. Hence, this study as a 'correlational design and hypotheses testing' is appropriate and justifiable for the overall objectives of the study, and the quantitative approach is appropriate to establish its results for this thesis.

4.3.4 Deductive reasoning

Reasoning is considered to be a systematic process of thought that yields a conclusion from perceptions, thoughts or assertions (Johnson-Laird, 1999). Research clusters around two major research paradigms that are formed by a combination of inductive or theory-building approaches with qualitative research methods, and deductive or theory-testing approaches with quantitative research methods (Bitektine, 2008). Inductive approaches are embedded in rich empirical data and consider circumstances to produce a theory that is accurate, interesting and testable as a natural complement to deductive research (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Gulati, 2009). Inductive reasoning also refers to a process in which researchers develop

theories from their observations and descriptions. Deductive approaches follow the natural science model and apply hypothetic-deductive logic to state hypotheses first, then test them (Lee, 1989). De Vaus (1995) noted that deductive reasoning “is to derive from the general theory more limited statements that follow logically from the theory” (p.17). Thus, deductive reasoning is applied when researchers consider a theory, and then propose hypotheses to test it through formal analytical procedures. Balnaves and Caputi (2001) also suggested using inductive reasoning to derive a theory, and deduction to produce conclusions that require further testing and evidence. Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) considered each approach as the other’s mirror: the inductive or theory-building approach produces a new theory from data while the deductive or theory-testing approach completes the cycle by using data to test a theory.

This study used a deductive approach to produce explicit conclusions from the research results, because deductive reasoning is considered to be “reasoning from the general to the particular” (Pelissier, 2008, p.3). Therefore, based on the premises and inferences presented in Chapters 1 and 2, this study used a quantitative correlational research approach to test the eight hypotheses. Figure 4.2 shows a flowchart of the deductive approach for this thesis. For example, this thesis reviews the literature regarding relevant theories for the specific variables examined in this study and develops hypotheses. Thereafter, the observations are incorporated into data analysis and discussion chapters to either reject or confirm the relationship as showed in the structural model (Figure 4.1).

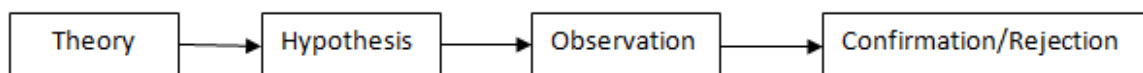


Figure 4.2: Deductive approach of this study

4.3.5 Survey design

Survey design is a commonly used data-collection procedure; it is used to meet specific needs and is easy to administer (Fink, 2006). Zikmund (2003) defined a survey as “a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people using questionnaire” (p. 66). A series of questions administered to study participants who answer the questions by

themselves (that is, not in an interview or through interaction with a survey administrator) is referred to as self-report data. Zikmund et al. (2010) suggested that this survey design enables the collection of data from the research-sample participants to provide information about the present: learn what the population is thinking, acting and expecting in real time; identify typical responses; and explore new understanding.

This study used a cross-sectional and self-administered online survey posted on a website to collect and assess data for each of the variables at a specific point in time. Web-based surveys are self-administered, and are thus the simplest form of administration for researchers (Burns & Bush, 2006). All questions in the questionnaire used a Likert scale to collect participant responses, except for the demographic section. All questions were collected from previous studies that used either five- or seven-point Likert scales (Section 4.6). The advantages of this method made it preferable to other, more traditional approaches: it has been found to be faster, more efficient and economical and better suited for collecting data or information that may be sensitive. Therefore, a self-administered online survey was suitable for this study.

4.4 Participants: The sample population

According to McGaghie & Crandall (2001), sampling from populations addresses research efficiency and accuracy. The term ‘population’ refers to all members of a defined group that researchers can study or from which they can collect information for their studies; a sample is a systematically drawn group from the population that represents the same characteristics as the population. However, the technique of determining and justifying a sample is a complex matter in quantitative research (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). In the current study, the following three steps were used to clarify the sample population (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2010): identifying the target population and sampling frame; determining the sampling method and the procedures for locating participants; determining the sample size or number of participants. Sections from 4.4.1 to 4.4.3 describe these three steps.

4.4.1 The sampling design: Identifying the target population and sampling frame

Sampling is a technique of studying from a few selected items, instead of the whole unit. In other words, it is a process of surveying only some members of the population to make

inferences about the population as a whole (Burns & Bush, 2006). The target population is defined as a complete group that possess a common set of characteristics that are relatively similar to the entire group under study as described by the research objectives (Burns & Bush, 2006; Zikmund et al., 2010). This study identified the target population as employees over 18 years of age and working full-time within Australia. The sampling frame was limited to employees who are exclusively working under direct managerial or supervisory positions from any Australian sector, such as finance, health, education or health.

4.4.2 The sampling method and the procedures for locating participants

In quantitative studies, representativeness is an important quality for any sample. However, it would be unrealistic and highly expensive to examine all participants in the target population. Thus, the common characteristics of the population and its sample size need to be well clarified. It is essential to use a representative sample that has no qualitative differences to the target population. A web-based online survey provides no chance to claim any selection procedure for the sampling technique. Here, the probability of any participant being selected was unknown, and a non-probability judgemental sampling was used to select potential participants from the target population. The judgemental sampling is an 'educated guess' as to who should represent the population (Burns & Bush, 2006). It ensures the selection of participants who have certain characteristics that fulfil the aim of particular studies (Zikmund, 2003; Fink, 2006). Judgement sampling also helps in collecting a large number of participants in an effective manner (Zikmund, 2003). In addition, this sampling method is one of the most appropriate methods when the target population is too big and difficult to contact (Burns & Bush, 2006).

A web-based online survey was used in this study to reach potential research participants and to ensure the quality of the judgment sampling method. An US-based professional survey company, 'Qualtrics' was hired to administer the web-based online survey questionnaire across the various sectors within Australia. A total of 3500 potential participants were contacted for participating in the study through e-mail invitations.

4.4.3 Determining the sample size

Sample-size determination is an essential phase for any research study (Lenth, 2001). Researchers can alter the sample size to increase its 'power' and ability to detect 'effect size' according to the context of the research (Cohen, 1990; 1992). Power refers to the ability to generalise to other samples from the same population based on their regression coefficients. Effect size indicates the magnitude of difference between two groups. The effect size of sample is a crucial component of the research process without which it may take months to investigate something with a tool that is either completely useless or costly. Hence, the justification of an appropriate sample size should rely mostly on the nature and purpose of study, the degree of accuracy required from the results and the variation of the population (Lenth, 2001; Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; De Vaus, 2002).

There are several approaches to determining sample size. For example, researchers may specify the desired width of a confidence interval and fix the sample size to achieve their goal (Lenth, 2001). Similarly, the Bayesian approach can be used where a study optimises some utility function, such as precision of estimation or cost. This technique, named for the English mathematician Thomas Bayes, allows researchers to combine prior information about a population parameter with evidence from information contained in a sample to guide the statistical inference process (Ross & Mackey, 2015). Israel (1992) also advised several approaches, such as, considering the whole population as a sample when the sample is small and manageable; using a sample size that is comparable to other similar studies; using published tables; using formulas, which is known as a power analysis. One of the most popular approaches to sample size determination involves conducting a power analysis. Lenth (2001) indicated several essentials for the power analysis approach. First, the researcher specifies a hypothesis test on a parameter θ (along with the underlying probability model for the data). Second, the significance level α of the test is identified. Third, an effect size (d) that reflects an alternative of scientific interest is specified. Fourth, historical values or estimates of other parameters needed to compute the power function of the test are obtained. Finally, a target value of the power of the test when $\theta = d$ is specified.

This study used power analysis to calculate the sample size, and followed the SEM technique suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Marsh et al. (1988) for the data analysis (Section 4.8). A satisfactory sample size is essential for using SEM analysis to produce

reliable results and effective suggestions. Hair et al. (2010) considered four conditions adequate for establishing an appropriate sample size within SEM: (1) the normality of the data; (2) the estimation technique used by the researcher for analysis; (3) the size of the model and its complexity; and, (4) the missing data. All these conditions are described in Section 5.4. Similar to previous relevant studies, the sample size for this study was 200 (see Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012; Williden et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 2008; Nyberg et al., 2008). A total of 323 survey responses were received, from which were drawn 200 complete responses. The power analysis in this study was deemed sufficient with an effect size of .15 and error probability of .05 for the targeted sample. Moreover, the choice of this sample size was supported by other researchers, who claimed that a sample size of 200 participants can be considered sufficient to achieve a desired level of statistical power with a specified model (Kline, 2011; Garver & Mentzer, 1999; Hoe, 2008).

4.5 Profile of the selected sample

The web-based online survey for this study consisted of two sections. The first included questions about participants' demographic characteristics; the second asked about the study variables. Participants were primarily screened out by their minimum age and job status (less than 18 and/or part-time job). If qualified, they were requested to provide information about their age, gender, marital status, income, level of education, working position, duration of service in work, working hours per week, industry type, total number of employees at their organisation site, the duration of service under the supervisor, their own appraisal rating over the last year and any illness that prevented them from attending work at the time of data collection. Table 4.1 provides the demographic data for the participants in this study.

Table 4.1: Demographic profile of participants (N = 200)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	95	47.5
	Female	105	52.5
Age	18-25 years	13	6.5
	26-35 years	68	34.0
	36-45 years	50	25.0
	46-55 years	45	22.5
	56-65 years	17	8.5

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
	66+ years	7	3.5
Marital status	Married	104	52.0
	Divorced	15	7.5
	Widowed	2	1.0
	Separated	2	1.0
	Never been married	40	20.0
	In a de facto relationship	37	18.5
Personal annual income after tax	Under \$20,000	2	1.0
	Between \$20,000 and \$40,000	23	11.5
	Between \$40,001 and \$70,000	92	46.0
	Between \$70,001 and \$100,000	49	24.5
	Between \$100,001 and \$150,000	26	13.0
	Greater than \$150,001	8	4.0
Household annual income after tax	Under \$20,000	1	.5
	Between \$20,000 and \$40,000	11	5.5
	Between \$40,001 and \$70,000	49	24.5
	Between \$70,001 and \$100,000	56	28.0
	Between \$100,001 and \$150,000	54	27.0
	Greater than \$150,001	29	14.5
Highest level of education	High school or equivalent	50	25.0
	Vocational/technical school	40	20.0
	Some college/university	18	9.0
	Bachelor degree	57	28.5
	Master degree	26	13.0
	Doctoral degree	3	1.5

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
	Professional degree	4	2.0
	Others	2	1.0
Work position in the organisation	Unskilled Worker	16	8.0
	Skilled Worker	70	35.0
	Team Leader	25	12.5
	Executive	8	4.0
	Manager	43	21.5
	Director	8	4.0
	General Manager	7	3.5
	Chief Executive Officer	3	1.5
	Others	20	10.0
Duration of service in work	Less than 1 year	16	8.0
	1-3 years	40	20.0
	4-7 years	64	32.0
	8-11 years	21	10.5
	12-15 years	23	11.5
	Over 15 years	32	16.0
	Total	196	98.0
	Missing	4	2.0
Working hours/Week	Less than 10 hours	1	0.5
	20-29 hours	2	1.0
	30-39 hours	105	52.5
	40-49 hours	69	34.5
	50-59 hours	19	9.5
	60-69 hours	2	1.0
	More than 70 hours	2	1.0
	Less than 10 hours	1	0.5
Industry type	Financial sector	30	15.0
	Telecom sector	8	4.0
	Health sector	22	11.0
	Don't know	10	5.0
	Others	130	65.0
No. of employees work at participants'	1	10	5.0
	2-4	14	7.0
	5-9	13	6.5

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
organisation site	10-19	22	11.0
	20-99	44	22.0
	100-499	39	19.5
	500+	52	26.0
	Don't know	6	3.0
Duration of service of the reporting supervisor	Less than 1 year	28	14.0
	2-4 years	59	29.5
	5-10 years	57	28.5
	11-15 years	25	12.5
	16-20 years	16	8.0
	Over 21 years	15	7.5
Participants' appraisal rating over the last year	The highest rating	51	25.5
	The equivalent of very good	84	42.0
	An average rating	25	12.5
	The equivalent of needs improvement	6	3.0
	No rating	31	15.5
	Prefer not to say	3	1.5
Any illness that prevented participants from attending work	Yes	62	31.0
	No	138	69.0

The respondents identified themselves as coming from across various sectors of the Australian workforce with different work positions. Thirty (15%) were from the financial sector, eight (4%) from telecom sector, 22 (11%) from the health sector and 130 (65%) from other specified sectors. However, 10 of the respondents were not sure about their sectors (5%). In this question, participants had the opportunity to type in their answers if their sector was not provided in the list of choices, and a large percentage (65%) indicated that they worked in another service industry, such as academia, tourism or transport.

Respondents were asked whether they had any illness that prevented them from attending work. Of the 200 respondents, 62 (31%) said yes, and 138 (69%) said no. When respondents reported attending work despite either psychological or physical illness during the last month

38 reported that they did not want to increase workload of others (19%), 44 reported lack of replacement (22%), 34 felt that there would have been an increased burden of work once returned (17%), 87 reported not being sick enough (43.5%), 24 reported pressure from work (12%), 19 reported money or financial stresses (9.5%), three reported that their sick leave had been used up (1.5% rounded), 16 reported concern for job security (8%) and 44 specified other reasons (22%).

4.6 Measures (survey instruments)

The second part of the web-based survey questionnaire combined four measures with 40 items in total for the hypothesised model. The measures were:

- Perceived Responsible Leadership from Doh et al. (2011);
- Presenteeism with the Stanford Scale 6 (SPS-6) from Koopman et al. (2002);
- Organisational Commitment from Meyer et al. (1993); and
- Employee Turnover Intentions from Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975).

4.6.1 Perceived responsible leadership

In this study, RL was measured using a scale developed by Doh et al. (2011) that measures RL from employees' perceptions about their managers' or supervisors' leadership responses; it consists of 13 items divided into three components of the scale: stakeholder culture (*This organisation takes an active role in its community. This organisation responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders*), HR practices (*Our performance appraisal programs are effectively used to retain the best talent. Our organisation believes that all employees deserve to be actively managed as talent*), and managerial support (*My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well. My immediate manager is good at developing people*) (Appendix C). Responses were on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = somewhat agree, 7 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha of perceived RL was .94 as a composite scale. Stakeholder culture, HR practices, and managerial support yielded alpha values of .87, .93 and .95 respectively in this study.

Scholars have commented on the lack of available instruments to measure RL, and have said that the development of any new instruments risks incorporating a subjective notion of RL (Waldman, 2011; Miska & Mendenhall, 2016). The cross-level perspectives (macro, meso and micro) of RL are known to challenge the importance of RL orientations across all levels (see Voegtlin et al., 2012, p. 5). Here, macro-level indicates interaction of organisations with the wider society; meso-level, the level of analysis of internal organisational structures and practices; and micro-level, the degree of personal interaction of individual agents. To achieve the research aims of this study, a scale to assess both subjective and organisational perspectives (stakeholder culture, HR practices and managerial support) was required. There are two scales to measure RL. The discursive responsible leadership measure developed by Voegtlin (2011) includes items that measure superiors' roles with respect to various stakeholders rather than focusing on employees' expectations that their leaders will exhibit RL. As the aim of this thesis was to measure the influence of RL on employee outcomes from the employee perspective, Voegtlin's (2011) scale was deemed inappropriate. The other scale to measure RL was developed by Doh et al. (2011) through collaboration between academics and HR experts, and intended to be applicable and generalisable to multi-country studies. This scale has the required components (as noted in Section 4.6.1, page 120) to gather data about perceptions of RL from both organisational and employees' perspectives, and exhibits the appropriate psychometric properties (Appendix A-3). Hence, Doh et al.'s (2011) scale, rather than Voegtlin's, was deemed appropriate for this study.

4.6.2 Presenteeism

Presenteeism was measured with the Stanford Scale 6 (SPS-6: Koopman et al. 2002). The SPS-6 measures an individual's ability to perform at normal levels while in a state of distraction. The six-item scale was structured with 10 health conditions: allergy, arthritis, asthma, any cancer, depression/sadness/mental illness, diabetes, heart disease, hypertension, migraine/headache and respiratory disorders. This scale used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample item from the SPS-6 is: *Because of the above mentioned health condition(s) the stresses of my job were much harder to handle.* Internal consistency or reliability for SPS-6 was found to be high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.80$), and concurrent validity was found to be high also in the specific measures of presenteeism (Koopman et al., 2002). However, in this study, the reliability score (Cronbach's alpha) of

SPS-6 was .78 as a composite scale. The components 'work process' and 'work outcome' had the alpha values of .82 and .75 respectively. The Stanford SPS-6 measures an employee's ability to perform at normal levels through selected health conditions (Koopman et al., 2002). This thesis examined the influence of RL on the attribute of presenteeism with 10 health conditions (see Section 4.6.2, page 121).

Various scales are used across organisations and professions to measure the costs associated with presenteeism. The researcher had the option of using the Iverson et al. (2010) measure or the Stanford SPS-6 measure in the current study. The Iverson et al. (2010) measure estimates the cumulative impact and related costs of presenteeism for employee productivity. This instrument focuses on productivity loss or cost of time lost from working hours. However, this thesis did not aim to measure productivity loss due to presenteeism.

The Stanford SPS-6 measures employees' ability to perform at their usual levels at various health levels (Koopman et al., 2002). McClain (2013) recommends SPS-6 as an emerging scale to apply in employee health and wellness interventions for improving employee productivity. Several researchers (e.g. Collins et al., 2005; Turpin et al., 2004) have suggested that SPS-6 is the most concise and appropriate for these purposes. This thesis examines the influence of RL on the attribute of presenteeism relating to 10 health conditions (Section 4.6.2, page 121). Therefore this study applied the Stanford SPS-6 measure to assess the degree of difficulty employees experience in performing their daily work tasks.

4.6.3 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using the three commitment scales adapted from Meyer et al. (1993). This scale has three components: affective, continuance and normative each of which has six items, for a total of 18 items (Appendix C). Sample items for affective commitment included *I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation* and *I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation*. Sample items for continuance commitment included *It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to* and *I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation*. Sample items for normative component included *I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now* and *This organisation deserves my loyalty*. Responses used a five-point

scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree). Ko et al. (1997) conducted a study using the Meyer et al.'s (1993) scales and reported coefficient alphas of 0.86 for affective commitment, 0.58 for continuance commitment and 0.78 for normative commitment in sample 1 and 0.87, 0.64, and 0.76, respectively, in sample 2. In this study, the reliability score, or Cronbach's alpha of organisational commitment was .88 as a composite scale. The components of affective, continuance, and normative commitment had alpha values of .86, .73, and .90 respectively.

Several scales are available to measure OC. For example, Grusky (1966) proposed a scale with four items: organisational seniority, identification with the organisation, attitudes toward administrators and general attitudes toward the organisation. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) applied a four-item scale of OC that asked, in effect, "what it would take for the employee to leave the organisation". Similarly, Kanter (1968, 1977) used a 36-item scale, but has not reported on either its validity or its reliability. Thereafter, Wiener and Gechman (1977) proposed an approach where OC was measured by noting employees' conduct of voluntary work-related activities during personal time. However, all these instruments and scales had systematic and comprehensive limitations on establishing stability and consistency.

Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale was the most suitable for the research aims of this thesis for two reasons. First, as Jaros (2007) notes, this scale reflects: (a) a specific type of commitment, such as affective, normative, or continuance, associated with remaining in the organisation; (b) the target of this commitment (organisation); (c) the behaviour to be predicted, such as remaining a member of the organisation; and (d) affect, with cognitions being captured by the mindset and behavioural terms. These characteristics of the scale align well with the research aims and context of this thesis (Section 1.5, page 20). Second, similar to the aims of this study, Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale has been used by several researchers to predict essential employee outcomes, such as turnover and citizenship behaviours, job performance, absenteeism and tardiness, with satisfactory validity and reliability scores (Meyer et al., 2002).

4.6.4 Employee turnover intentions

Employee turnover intentions were measured with a scale developed by Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975). The three-items scale used a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree) (Appendix C). The measure included items such as *It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon; I often think about quitting; and, I will probably look for a new job in the near future*. Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975) provided evidence of the scale's criterion validity; reliability was indicated with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 (Fournier et al., 2010). The reliability score, Cronbach's alpha for employee turnover intentions was .88 in the current study.

The notion of turnover intention is well examined in the organisational studies literature (Sager et al., 1998). In most cases, researchers have used a single-item scale (Guimaraes, 1997; Lambert et al., 2001), but this was deemed inadequate for this thesis. Martin and Roodt (2008) suggest that only a limited number of studies have used more than three items in their instruments (e.g., Becker, 1992; Fox & Fallon, 2003; Lum et al., 1998). However, these instruments have been shown to be insufficiently validated. This study applied Donnelly and Ivancevich's (1975) scale for two reasons. First, this scale has been well established to examine turnover intentions as a means of measuring the impact of turnover predictors (Price & Mueller, 1981; Bluedorn, 1982; Hom & Griffeth, 1987). Second, several researchers recommend this scale as a credible and effective tool because it includes items such as: *It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon; I often think about quitting; and I will probably look for a new job in the near future* (Lysonski & Johnson, 1983; Johnston et al., 1990).

4.7 Procedure for data collection

In this study, a pilot test was conducted prior to final data collection. In the pilot test, 20 respondents (10% of the sample size N=200) were requested to provide their feedback about the measures, and to identify any probable difficulties responding the questions, so that these could be rectified in the final data collection. According to Reynolds et al. (1993), use of a pilot test enhances the questionnaire design and identifies areas for improvement in the survey. In the pilot, respondents were requested to provide further comments and suggestions

to improve the survey questionnaire. The feedback from the pilot test was used to validate the survey for the final data collection. However, no major changes were needed except a few explanatory notes about item wording. For example, 'formal high potential program' was reworded as 'employee training and development for team building or enhancing leadership skills' for better comprehension in the final data collection. Finally, this study was approved by the University's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) (Appendix A-1 contains the HREC Report).

After the pilot test, invitations to complete a web-based survey were sent out by the company Qualtrics. The invitation letter included the nature and purpose of the study, data-collection process, potential contribution and information about participants' confidentiality and privacy. Participants were also told the approximate time the survey would take and the number of questions it involved. The invitation letter and the survey questionnaire are attached at Appendix A-2 and A-3 respectively. The link to the survey questionnaire was provided in the invitation letter and distributed by Qualtrics. It was an anonymous survey, and the invited participants had the choice to discontinue their participation at any point before submitting the complete survey. In addition, participants were required to answer all the questions in each section before they moved to the next part of the questionnaire. The survey was technically programmed so that each participant could not submit more than one survey, and that only one survey could be submitted from a given IP address.

Qualtrics recruited the participants. Data collection was carried out for two weeks. To recruit the target sample (N=200), Qualtrics sent 3500 online invitations via email to potential participants; 323 responses were collected to confirm 200 complete responses. A total of 123 responses were incomplete and were, therefore, exempted from the findings, resulting in an overall response rate of 9.2%. This response rate is reasonably common for this type of survey; Punch (2003) found that a response rate of 30-40% or even less is expected for online surveys. At the end of data collection, the sample of 200 responses was analysed using the statistical analysis program IBM SPSS (Version 21) as described in the following section.

4.8 Procedure for data analysis

Data analyses in the current study were conducted in two stages: preliminary data analysis and hypothesis testing.

4.8.1 Preliminary analysis

This study used descriptive and inferential statistics for the data analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the basic features of the research variables and to summarise the studied data. Preliminary analyses conveyed the important aspects of the distribution for the survey data and described the basic features of the participants' responses to ensure that there were no out-of-bound items beyond the projected range. The means, standard deviations, inferential statistics with correlation matrix and reliability analyses of the selected scales were used to test the hypotheses. Correlation analysis established the linear relationship among the studied dependant and independent variables.

4.8.2 SEM: the two-step modelling approach

The current study used structural equation modelling (SEM) to conduct data analysis to examine the hypothesised model (Figure 4.1). SEM is a comprehensive statistical modelling tool for analysing multivariate data involving complex relationships between and among variables (Hoyle, 1995). It combines the structural model and the measurement model, which comprises everything that has been measured and observed among the variables examined. Here, SEM was applied to test the proposed direct and mediated hypotheses between RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. SEM was applied to assess whether the model (both scales and hypothesised model) produced a satisfactory fit with the collected data. This analysis was implemented using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS), distributed by IBM SPSS (Version 21). Hence, SEM was the prime analytical tool used in the current study, as explained in detail in Chapter 5.

This study followed the two-stage modelling approach developed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), which is a widely recommended approach for SEM. This approach considers a feasible statistical tool for exploring multivariate relationships among some or all of the variables and provides a comprehensive approach to a research question for measuring or

analysing theoretical models (Burnett & Williams, 2005; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). It also examines measurement error and provides path coefficients for both the direct and indirect effects of structural hypotheses (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). Hence, the two-stage modelling is a suitable approach, as it “provides a basis for meaningful interference about theoretical constructs and their interrelations, as well as avoiding some special interference” (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 411). In the current study, SEM was applied with two fundamental components: measurement model and structural model.

In the first stage of the *measurement model*, SEM assesses the acceptability of the scales based on how well each of the underlying indicators and errors fits in the model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by SEM was used to test the validity, reliability and goodness of fit for the measurement instruments. Researchers recommend conducting CFA for each set of observed variables hypothesised to indicate their respective latent variable (Byrne, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The goal of the study was to investigate how the indicator variables (items of scales) converge on their respective theoretical latent construct. In addition, the SEM measurement model was used to estimate the composite scale reliabilities and discriminant validities of the latent variables. This was achieved by comparing the correlations among the variables. In addition, Cronbach’s alphas were calculated to determine whether the instruments maintained reasonable (>0.78) internal consistency (reliability).

The second step in the measurement model stage determined the reliability for each construct in the hypothesised model to ensure that the items posited to measure a construct were adequately related to be reliable in justifying their degree of consistency (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, reliability was tested with the Cronbach’s alpha test in SPSS. For the Cronbach alpha value, researchers have suggested > 0.75 to confirm acceptability of reliability (Hair et al., 1995).

Finally, the measurement model examined the goodness of fit for each measure by showing how satisfactorily each variable of the proposed model fitted the collected data. Thus, a combination of indices was compared with absolute, badness and incremental fit indices as prescribed by several researchers (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2010). The

detail of the goodness of fit indices and their respective cut-off values are presented in Chapter 5.

The *structural model* stage focused on the overall relationship between variables by identifying how each construct appears in the model. The overall goodness-of-fit of the proposed structural model was assessed according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The structural model estimates the path coefficients of the direct and indirect relationships between variables, whether latent or measured (Grimm & Yarnold, 2000). According to Byrne (2001), a model fits the data well when the fit indices are established to be higher than the specified cut-off values. These indices and particular threshold values are presented in Chapter 5.

4.8.3 Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis testing is a statistical procedure used to accept or reject the hypothesis based on the sample information (Burns & Bush, 2006). This study proposed six direct hypotheses and two simple mediation hypotheses (H_1 - H_8) to address the aims of the current study, as described in Section 4.2. The following two sections describe each underlying test that was used in the data-analysis process.

4.8.3.1 Direct hypotheses

This study used SEM to examine the magnitude of the effect of the direct relationships among the independent and dependent variables. The estimates of path coefficient weights between the variables in SEM were used to determine the sign and strength of the relationship among the variables proposed in the six direct hypotheses. Hair et al. (2010) advised that it is essential to evaluate several assumptions before testing hypotheses for their conclusions. Hence, four of the most popular assumptions were addressed in the statistical analysis: normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity. Garson (2011) noted that violating any one of these assumptions may undermine the credibility or research outcomes. The assumptions are described accordingly.

First, this study used the Shapiro-Wilk (W) test to examine whether the sample of the study was normally distributed or not. This test is based on the correlation between the data and the corresponding normal scores (Peat & Barton, 2005). Garson (2011) recommended this test for a sample of up to 2000 participants. The value of the W test is not significant if the variable's distribution is not significantly different from normal. Hence, as a guideline: if a W test is statistically non-significant, the null hypothesis of the normal distribution is rejected (Hair et al., 2010).

Second, this study verified linearity for the statistical relationship using scatterplots that plotted the dependent variable against each of the independent variables to justify the assumption of linearity. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that the assumption of linearity reflects better performance for hypothesis testing, because any statistical analysis inconsistent with linear and nonlinear relationships may become inaccurate for further calculations.

Third, the assumption of multicollinearity appears when two or more variables in a hypothesised model are highly correlated and provide redundant information about the sample data. It is effective when there are high levels of intercorrelations among explanatory variables, and they are equal to or higher than $r = .80$ (Rubin, 2009; Garson, 2011). The consequences of high multicollinearity may increase the standard error of estimates (decreased reliability) and cause confusing or misleading results (Burns & Bush, 2006). Hence, Garson (2011) suggested that it would be better to use other tests that can take interaction effects, as well as simple correlations into consideration rather than only considering the values of inter-correlation. Thus, multicollinearity should be assessed and can be eliminated with the tolerance value or variance inflation factor (VIF). However, multicollinearity is not an issue when the tolerance value is below 0.10 or when the value of VIF is above 10.0 (Burns & Bush, 2006; Hair et al., 2010). In this study, there was no reported multicollinearity, as it was measured by Pearson's correlation for describing the strength and direction of the relationships between the hypothesised variables in the proposed model.

Finally, homoscedasticity (also known as homogeneity of covariances) means that the variance of errors is same across all levels of the independent variables (Osborne & Waters, 2003). It refers to the assumption that the dependent variable shows similar extents of

variance across the range of values for the independent variables (Kim & Bentler, 2002; Hair et al., 2010). It is indicated when the width of the band of residuals is nearly the same at different levels of the dependent variable and scatter plots show a pattern of residuals normality distributed around the mean (Berry & Feldman, 1985). The assumption of homoscedasticity in this study was examined using SPSS and checked graphically by observing whether bivariate scatterplots had an oval shape versus a cone shape.

After testing the four assumptions with the direct hypotheses, this study considered the simple mediation of the hypothesised model.

4.8.3.2 Simple mediation hypothesis

This study considered the simple mediation effects of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between perceived RL and presenteeism. Preacher and Hayes (2004) acknowledged that the simple mediation model exists when an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through a mediator (M). The total effect of X on Y signifies the total effect (c). The direct effect of X on Y after the addition of M is expressed as (c'). Path (a) represents the effect of X on M, and path (b) characterises the effect of M on Y controlling for the effect of X. The indirect effect of Y and X is defined as ab. In most cases, the indirect effect (ab) represents the difference between the c and c' ($ab=c-c'$); thus the total effect (c) can be estimated as the sum of c and ab ($c=c'+ab$). As a rule of thumb, a partially mediated model is supported when the value of the indirect effect path (ab) is smaller than the value of the total effect path (c) and has the same sign.

The causal-steps approach established by Baron and Kenny (1986) is the most cited approach to test simple mediation (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009). This approach also indicates a series of requirements that must be considered for the mediation model to work. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), Judd and Kenny (1981), and MacKinnon et al. (2002), the requirements are: (1) the total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be significant; (2) the path of the independent variable to the mediator must be significant; (3) the path from the mediator to the dependent variable must be significant; and (4) the fourth step is required only for complete mediation. However, if the independent variable no longer has any effect on the dependent variable when the mediator has been controlled, the complete mediation has occurred and the model is considered fully mediated.

However, it has weaknesses also, such as limitation to identify the mediation effect and the inability to quantify the magnitude of the mediation effect. The limitations of this method make it questionable for testing hypotheses (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009; Hayes, 2009). In addition, the current study used the bootstrapping approach which is more valid and effective method for explicitly testing the mediation results; hence, it should be the method of choice for mediation analysis (Hayes, 2009).

Bootstrapping uses the sample data to estimate relevant characteristics of the population. It can be used to originate exact standard errors, confidence intervals and hypothesis tests for most statistics (Blunch, 2013). The SEM in the current study involved the bootstrapping purpose in AMOS software for two particular causes. First, it uses several items for goodness of fit indices and helps in estimating whether the hypothesised model fits the observed data to meet the two-step approach developed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Second, SEM enables the testing of a mediating hypothesis, rather than requiring separate regression analyses for testing them. The maximum likelihood estimation method, used as a default in SEM with AMOS, concurrently measures all model paths together (Byrne, 2010). In this study, the bootstrapping procedure in AMOS was used and performed with 5,000 resamples. Statistical significance for the indirect effect was determined by 99% bias and accelerated confidence intervals (Hayes, 2009; Hayes et al., 2010).

4.9 Chapter summary

This chapter stated the overall research methodology used in this study. It has provided a justification for the methodology used to test the hypotheses and achieve the aim(s) of the study. The chapter described the proposed hypothesised model and hypotheses. A detailed analysis of the research design, including the target population, and the sample, concerns of sampling, and the survey instruments used to consider the five variables of the study were explained. A comprehensive explanation of the data-collection and data-analysis procedures was also presented. Chapter 5 presents the results of the data analysis with the details of SEM, the main analytical technique of the study.

5 ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the results of the current study in two parts. The first part (Sections 5.2 to 5.4) provides the discussion and application of structural equation modelling (SEM); Section 5.2 then presents an overview of the SEM including its definition and characteristics and some major strategies used in the current study. Section 5.3 explains four steps for testing models in SEM. The sample size and relative issues of SEM are outlined in Section 5.4.

The second part (Sections 5.5 to 5.9) reports the results of hypothesis testing. Section 5.5 examines the first stage of the two-stage modelling approach to analyse and assess the validity, reliability and goodness of fit for each measurement scale. Then, Section 5.6 inspects the second stage of this modelling approach by evaluating the goodness of fit for the structural model based on the first phase of the two-stage modelling approach. All the correlations among study variables are reported in Section 5.7. Then, Section 5.8 describes the four assumptions for violating issues before testing the hypotheses. Section 5.9 examines all the hypotheses for the current study and the last section provides a summary of this chapter.

5.2 Fundamentals of structural equation modeling

As a methodological procedure, SEM tests and analyses the relationship between variables to incorporate unobserved variables (or latent variables) measured indirectly by indicator variables (Hair et al., 2014). It is used when the unobserved variable is not directly measurable; for example, when the unobserved variable is more theoretical in nature or would be difficult and expensive to measure it in practice. Byrne (2010) indicated two significant aspects of SEM. First, the causal processes within SEM present a series of structural equations (i.e., regression), and second, these structural relations can be modelled pictorially to enable a clearer conceptualisation of the theory under study. Thus, the following sections describe the definitions, characteristics and approaches or strategies of SEM to analyse the collected data.

5.2.1 What is SEM?

SEM, developed by Joreskog (1973), is a multivariate statistical analysis technique that is applied to analyse structural relationships between a set of observed (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables (MacCallum & Austin, 2000; Hair et al., 2014). In other words, it is a technique or methodology for representing, measuring and testing a theoretical network of (mostly) linear relationships among variables (Rigdon, 1998). It offers relative variable strength or importance and simultaneously scrutinises theoretical models. SEM combines the techniques of factor analysis, path analysis, and econometric modeling. Moreover, it can be applied to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the validity, reliability and goodness of fit of the measurement instruments. SEM is concerned with the relationships among several constructs (variables), taking into account their pre-specified measurement structure (Yang, 2003). Hence, SEM provides a more holistic approach to model-building and allows assessing both measurement issues and causal relationships in one model through the use of path analysis, which statistically and visually illustrates complex relationships among variables (Kline, 2011). Moreover, SEM can accommodate the bias in the estimates due to the measurement error associated with imperfect measures in social science data by using multiple indicators for all latent variables (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, SEM can provide more-precise parameter estimates and increased statistical power.

SEM examines relational models to justify its good fit to collected data and provides a research conclusion. The unobserved variables are statistically measured through several underlying observed variables in the proposed model. In this study, the unobserved (latent variables) were RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. The observed variables comprised 13 items of the RL scale; eighteen items of the organisational commitment scale; three items of the employee turnover intentions scale; and six items of the presenteeism (SPS-6) scale. Therefore, the proposed model of this study, which was based on previous research, consisted of four unobserved latent variables and 40 indicators that represented the four scales. It should be noted that this proposed model was modified when conducting the first stage of the two-stage modelling approach according to fit indices.

5.2.2 Key characteristics of SEM

SEM helps researchers with a comprehensive method for the quantification and testing of substantive theories (Grace, 2006). Major characteristics of SEM are that they explicitly take into account measurement (scale) error that is ubiquitous in most disciplines, and typically contain latent variables (Blunch, 2008). Raykov and Marcoulides (2006) identify three significant characteristics of SEM. First, it can measure and consider constructs that are theoretical, abstract in nature or hypothetical and not easy to measure directly. For example, satisfaction, anxiety, attitudes, goals, intelligence, motivation, personality, reading and writing abilities, aggression, or socioeconomic status can be viewed as representative of such constructs. Second, it can consider the potential errors of measurement in all observed variables, in particular in the independent (predictor, explanatory) variables. This is possible by adding an error term for each fallible measure, whether it is an explanatory or predicted variable. The variances of the error terms are, in general, parameters that are estimated when a model is fit to data. Third, SEM usually fits matrices of interrelationship indices; that is, covariance or correlation matrices, between all pairs of observed variables, and occasionally also to variable means. SEM goes beyond regression analysis by modeling several multiple-regression equations between sets of variables together, including mediators when necessary (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2001). These characteristics mentioned suggest SEM as a superior method to test the hypothesised model for this study.

5.2.3 Strategies for model testing in SEM

For a quantitative methodology, SEM can be applied using several strategies. Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) described three strategies for SEM: (1) a strictly confirmatory strategy that examines a theoretical model with no modifications to the original model; (2) model generating or development that estimates the initial specifications for a model, then makes subsequent re-specifications with the aim of reaching a final model with better fit; and (3) an alternative-models strategy that analyses alternative or 'rival' models with the intention of deciding the most valid. A brief description of these strategies is presented below.

Strictly confirmatory: This strategy is highly restrictive, requiring the investigator to evaluate a single model in isolation and leaving little recourse if that model does not work well (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Ultimately, the researcher has a single model that is

accepted or rejected based on its correspondence to the data (Joreskog, 1973). In this strategy SEM assesses the goodness of fit of the hypothesised model, and the researcher aims to focus only on whether to accept or reject the model without any further modification. For a hypothesised model, researchers integrate their concepts from related theories and research described previously to examine the influence among variables.

Model generation: This strategy is probably the most common and occurs when an initial model does not fit the data and is subsequently modified by the researcher. Byrne (2010) found that it was the most common of the three strategies. It depends on the goodness of fit of the model (Section 5.3.3) and is considered useful if the original model provides a poor fit to the data, as it allows the researcher to re-specify and improve the model fit. MacCallum and Austin (2000) advised that any modifications in models for this strategy should be guided by relevant previous research or theories to avoid distorted and unclear results. The strategy is possibly misleading and easily mistreated; studies have shown that such data-driven model modifications may lack validity (MacCallum, 1986) and are highly susceptible to capitalisation on chance (MacCallum et al., 1992). Hence, Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) recommended that this strategy be applied with some preconditions. First, it should be acknowledged that the resulting model is in part data-driven; second, modifications must be substantively meaningful; and third, the modified model must be evaluated by fitting it to an independent sample. In this strategy, the researcher is interested in an exploratory rather than confirmatory manner to modify and re-estimate the model as necessary.

Alternative models: This strategy refers to situations in which more than one a priori model is available, and has been found more useful for testing models using SEM (Joreskog, 1973; MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Here, researchers compare the original model with several alternative credible models to identify a particular model that best fits the research data. MacCallum and Austin (2000) suggested that the strategy contributes some protection from the confirmation bias of other strategies. However, it also requires appropriate theoretical or empirical foundations to identify more than one model; the particular model with adequate correspondence (model fit) to the data may be retained, but the rest will be rejected (Kline, 2011).

This study considered a confirmatory approach and the purpose of this thesis was to test a hypothesised model driven by previous research and find the best model to fit the data (Section 5.3.1). Therefore, it was suitable to follow both the model-generating and alternative-models strategy for testing the hypotheses of this study. The application of both strategies together provided a rigorous evaluation to ensure the best model to fit the data, as well as to offer meaningful inferences for the hypotheses of the study.

5.3 Four stages for testing a model in SEM

Four stages are involved in testing SEM models: model specification, model estimation, model evaluation, and model modification (e.g., Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Hair et al., 2014). They are reiterative because problems at a later step may require a return to an earlier one. These steps are briefly explained below.

5.3.1 Model specification

The hypothesised model (Figure 4.1) was presented in Chapter 4; the current study analysed the model with AMOS using SPSS (IBM Version 21). This was directed by two initial steps: the model conceptualisation and path diagram construction. First, the hypotheses were translated into a testable model. This is an essential step, as it is unlikely that a model lacking unobserved or observed variables can result in a useful, testable model. Second, the hypothesised relationships among unobserved variables and observed variables were drawn graphically as a path diagram. A path diagram connects variables based on relevant theory and logic to visually display the hypotheses that will be examined in the study (Hair et al., 2014). It is important because it helps in explicitly depicting the direct and indirect relationships in the model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). These paths (Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3) were established on the evidence from previous research as described in the literature review chapter.

Model specification requires researchers to support hypotheses with relevant theories and research studies to develop their theoretical models. Hence, before any data collection or analysis, researchers specify a particular model that should be confirmed using variance-covariance data. In other words, available information from literature or related

studies is used to select the variables for the proposed theoretical model and the relationship among them (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Thus, this stage involves determining every relationship and variable in the model according to the study's aims. It is the manner by which the researcher finalizes which relationships are null, which are fixed to a constant, and which may vary (Khine, 2013).

Savalei and Bentler (2006) suggested that in this stage, the researcher should follow three essential conditions. First, the number of estimated parameters in the proposed hypothesised model should be less than or equal to the data obtained from the sample covariance matrix. Second, the study needs to ensure that each unobserved variable has one of its loadings to its indicators or observed variables. However, this is adjusted automatically by AMOS software as a default option. Third, the unobserved latent variables should relate to several underlying indicators to allow their identification. In this study, these conditions were met by assigning the four unobserved variables with the items that developed the four scales. The proposed model was run in AMOS without any error message, and thus satisfied these three conditions and completed this stage successfully.

5.3.2 Model estimation stage

The estimation stage determines the value of the unknown parameters and the error associated with the estimated value from a set of observed data. According to Iriondo et al. (2003), the aim of this stage is to estimate the value of the unknown parameters, such as the standardised path coefficients, in such a way that the observed variance-covariance matrix is optimally adjusted to the predicted moment matrix. Schreiber (2008) also stated that this stage concerns the procedure to derive the parameter estimates, such as the coefficients and standard errors.

This study used AMOS, which provides a number of estimation approaches, such as maximum likelihood estimation (ML), weighted least squares (WLS), generalised least square (GLS), unweighted least square (ULS), two stages least square (2SLS) and asymptotically distributed free (ADF) methods. Selection of any estimation method depends on whether the data are normally distributed. For example, ULS estimates have no distributional assumptions and are scale dependent, which means that the scale of all the observed variables should be the same for the estimates to be consistent. Similarly, the ML and GLS approaches consider multivariate normality although they are not scale-dependent. Hence, when the normality

assumption is violated, it is recommended to use ADF as the WLS estimator, as it does not assume normality. However, the ADF estimator involves very large samples (i.e., $n = 500$ or more) to produce accurate estimates (Yuan & Bentler, 1998). In contrast, simple models estimated with ML can achieve accurate estimates with a sample size as small as 200. The ML method is more popular and more highly recommended than others, as it identifies estimates that have the highest chance of reproducing the observed data (Blunch, 2008).

The ML principle is based on calculation of the likelihood function in AMOS, which expresses the probability of obtaining the present data (covariance or correlation matrix) as a function of the parameters of the method (Blunch, 2008). Thus, ML gives estimates based on maximising the likelihood that the observed covariances are drawn from a population assumed to be the same as that indicated in the coefficient estimates. Garson, (2011) suggested the following important assumptions inherent in ML: (1) it does not assume uncorrelated error terms; (2) it includes a large sample as required for asymptotic unbiasedness; (3) it includes indicator variables with multivariate normal distribution; (4) there is a valid specification of the model; and (5) it includes continuous interval-level indicator variables. Practitioners and researchers have also given other reasons to use ML. For example, Savalei and Bentler (2006) preferred ML because it maximises the likelihood of observed variables under any proposed model and works better than many other estimation methods that require fewer assumptions such as normality.

5.3.3 Model evaluation (model fit) stage

After estimation, the evaluation stage (also known as ‘model fit’) is attained for the specified model to determine how well the data fit the hypothesised model (Schumacker, & Lomax, 2010). This stage focuses on evaluating the fit, or the goodness of fit, of the model to support the proposed model. If the hypothesised model suitably estimates all of the substantiate relationships between the unobserved and observed variables, it should be possible to estimate a covariance matrix between measured variables (Blunch, 2008; Hair et al., 2010). A number of goodness-of-fit indices must be assessed in SEM to establish whether the measurement models (i.e., measurement scales) and structural model provide a good fit for the proposed model. Shah and Goldstein (2006) argued that the complexity of this step guided researchers to consider various goodness-of-fit indices with different cut-off values as a mixture of indices that show the degree of fit or misfit in the models. However, to overcome the

complexity and achieve goodness of fit researchers have advised the use of three sets of indices, such as absolute fit indices, badness-of-fit measures and incremental or comparative fit indices (Blunch, 2008; Hair et al., 2010; Hair 2014). Badness-of-fit measures both weak fit and lack of fit; the bigger the index, the more ‘bad’ the fit. Sections 5.3.3.1 to 5.3.3.4 will describe and summarise these indices and justify their use in this study.

5.3.3.1 Absolute fit indices

Absolute fit indices estimate how well the specified model reflects the data. They provide an assessment of how accurate a researcher’s theory or model fits the sample data (Hair et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2014), and determine the extent to which both the measurement and structural models predict the observed covariance (or correlations matrix) in comparison to no model without using the alternative models as a basis for comparison (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Blunch, 2008; Shah & Goldstein, 2006). They also indicate the extent to which the proposed model reproduces the sample data (Shah & Goldstein, 2006; Khine, 2013). The indices most frequently applied by researchers are the chi-square (χ^2) statistic, ratio of the chi-square to degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF), goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI).

The chi-square statistics tests for the extent of misspecification (Khine, 2013). A significant chi-square suggests that the model does not fit the sample data. In contrast, a non-significant chi-square indicates a model that fits the data well. The chi-square statistic is a traditional standard for estimating overall model fit, and is often pointed to as either a ‘badness-of-fit’ (Kline, 2011) or a ‘lack of fit’ (Mulaik et al., 1989) measure. A good model fit should provide an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold (Barrett, 2007). However, for small sample sized study, chi-square lacks power and may not discriminate between good fitting and poorly fitting models (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). For this reason, researchers have sought alternative indices to assess model fit. For example, relative/normed chi-square (χ^2/df) minimises the impact of sample size, and though there is no consensus regarding an acceptable ratio of this statistic, references range from as high as 5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977) to as low as 2.0 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, in AMOS, the inadequacy in chi-square within CMIN/DF has been reduced by dropping one or more paths. As the cut-off value, researchers recognise a model as ‘fit’ with a value for CMIN/DF that is less than 5, with lower values being better (Blunch, 2008; Hair et al., 2014).

To overcome the insufficiency of chi-square within CMIN/DF, further assessment of model fit with the GFI and AGFI (Blanch, 2008; Khine, 2013). GFI is an alternative to χ^2 and estimates the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). GFI is defined as a measure of the relative amount of variances and covariances jointly accounted for by the model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). GFI assesses the relative value of the observed variances or covariances explained by the model; it is analogous to the R^2 in regression analysis. For a good fit, the recommended GFI value should be > 0.95 , with 1 being a perfect fit (Miles & Shevlin, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Khine, 2013). In contrast, AGFI attempts differing degrees of model complexity and adjusts the GFI by a ratio of the degrees of freedom used in a model to the total degrees of freedom (Blunch, 2008; Khine, 2013), with more saturated models reducing fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); and AGFI tends to increase with a sample size. As with GFI, values for the AGFI also range between 0 and 1, and it is accepted that values of 0.90 or greater indicate well-fitting models (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, both GFI and AGFI have similar limitations to chi-square in that they are less sensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, researchers have suggested applying the badness-of-fit measures or incremental-fit indices (Hair et al., 1998; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). The two most common measures of badness-of-fit (sometimes called ‘parsimonious fit measures’) are the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean residual (SRMR); these are described below.

5.3.3.2 Badness-of-fit indices

RMSEA is defined as the average difference per degree of freedom expected to arise in the population, not the sample (Hair et al., 1995). It has become ‘one of the most informative fit indices’ (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 85) due to its sensitivity to the number of estimated parameters in the model. In other words, RMSEA indicates how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates would fit the population covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). The cut-off points and references for RMSEA have been reduced considerably in the last 20 years. In the 1990s, an RMSEA in the range of 0.05 to 0.10 was considered an indication of fair fit and values above 0.10 indicated a poor fit (MacCallum et al., 1999). It was then thought that an RMSEA of between ‘0.08 to 0.10’ gives a mediocre fit and below 0.08 shows a good fit (MacCallum et al., 1999). However, a cut-off value close to

.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) or a stringent upper limit of 0.07 (Steiger, 2007) now appears to be the consensus amongst authorities in this area.

SRMR is specified as the standardised difference between the observed covariance and predicted covariance, which is well understood in the metric of the correlation matrix (Bollen & Long, 1993; Byrne, 2001). SRMR is the square root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesised covariance model. SRMR also solves this difficulty and is, therefore, much more significant to understand. Values for the SRMR range from zero to 1.0 with well-fitting models reaching values less than .05 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Byrne, 1998), however values as high as 0.08 are deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For SRMR, 0.00 indicates a perfect fit but it must be noted that SRMR will be lower when there is a large number of parameters in the model and models are based on large sample sizes (Byrne, 2001; Khine, 2013).

5.3.3.3 Incremental (comparative) fit indices

Incremental-fit indices, also recognised as comparative (Miles & Shevlin, 2007) or relative fit indices (McDonald & Ho, 2002), compare the perfection of the model to the null model, where the null model considers no covariances among the observed variables (Khine, 2013). They do not use the chi-square in its raw form, but compare the chi-square value to a baseline model (McDonald & Ho, 2002). Moreover, these indices differ from the indices described above as they compare the fit of the proposed hypothesised model with the null model where all variables are uncorrelated and this model has the lowest fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Khine, 2013). According to Norman and Streiner (2003), incremental indices are based on two observations: (1) how much the model deviates from the null hypothesis of no relationships; and (2) the index shrinking as the number of variables increases. The current study applied three of the most popular incremental indices, such as the comparative fit index (CFI), the tucker fit index (TFI) and the normed fit index (NFI). Byrne (2010) suggested that the measures of these indices are normed, so their standards range between 0-1, and asserted that the higher the value, the better the model fit the data. Values that equal or exceed 0.90 are deemed to have an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Markland, 2007; Khine, 2013).

5.3.3.4 Summary of goodness-of-fit indices and their interpretation of optimal values

Given the above discussion about model fit and its measures, it is important to summarise a list of the indices that guided the data analysis in the current study. Researchers have used and justified various; there has been no particular or uniform index that delivers all the criteria needed for model fit (Crowley & Xitao, 1997). It may be a temptation for many researchers to select those fit indices that point out the best fit. Hooper et al. (2008) advised avoiding this situation, as it may become very confusing for others. As a solution, some researchers have suggested reporting a grouping of indices with RMSEA and SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Sugawara & MacCallum, 1993). Similarly, Byrne (2010) advised using the CFI as an important index for estimating the model's goodness of fit. Others have advised using SRMR when evaluating model fit (Savalei & Bentler, 2006). This study applied all the major indices in deciding whether to accept the hypothesised model, and avoided incorrect propositions of assessment by applying the suggested combination of indices. A total of nine indices within the three general fit indices were used for this study. Table 5.1 summarises the selected indices and recommended thresholds.

Table 5.1: Summary of the selected indices and recommended thresholds

Name	Type	Acceptable Level	Comments
Chi-square (χ^2)	Model fit	$p > 0.05$ (at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level) Smaller the better	Greatly affected by sample size. The larger the sample the more likely the p-value will indicate a significant difference between the model and the data. Hence, a non-significant result indicates a model fit (Kline, 2011; Barrett, 2007).
Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	Absolute fit	$1.0 < \chi^2/df < 3.0$	Values close to 1 indicate good fit but values less than 1 may indicate over fit. Hence, fit values of more than 5.0 suggest that the model needs modification (Marsh et al., 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

Name	Type	Acceptable Level	Comments
Goodness of fit (GFI), & Adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI)	Absolute fit	GFI & AGFI > 0.95	Values between 0.90 and 0.95 may also indicate a satisfactory fit. Less than 0.90 suggests that the model is a poor fit. GFI index value that equals or exceeds 0.90 indicates an acceptable fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), and a value close to 0.95 indicates a good model fit (Hoelter, 1983; Hu & Bentler, 1999).
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) & standardised root mean residual (SRMR)	Absolute fit	RMSEA & SRMR < 0.05; good .05 < value ≤ .08; acceptable	RMSEA values between 0.05 and 0.08 may also indicate a satisfactory fit. SRMR is suitable (the model is a good fit) when it is in the range of 0-1 and a value less than 0.05 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Steiger, 2007; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Thompson, 2004).
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), non-normed fit index (NNFI)	Incremental Fit	TLI & NNFI .90 ≤ value < .95; acceptable ≥ .95 ; good	Values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate a satisfactory fit. Values greater than 1 may indicate over fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
Comparative, Tucker and normed fit indices (CFI, TFI and NFI)	Incremental fit	CFI, TFI & NFI > 0.95; good .90 ≤ value < .95; acceptable	Values between 0.90 - 0.95 may also indicate a satisfactory fit. Values close to 0 indicate a poor fit, CFI = 1 indicates a perfect fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hoe, 2003).

5.3.4 Model modification stage

Model modification is important and should be based on theoretical and content deliberations (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Otherwise, modifications would respond to data-driven

considerations that may lack validity (MacCallum, 1986). If the proposed model is not as strong as researcher would like, the modification stage allows the researcher to change the model and evaluate the new version. If the fit of the model is still not satisfactory, hypotheses can be adjusted, and the model retested; this stage is often called re-specification (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Martens (2005) reports that researchers accomplish the modification by using statistical search strategies to determine which adjustments result in a better-fitting model. For the modification stage, Khine (2013, p.17) suggested the following four steps in AMOS. First, the estimates are checked for the regression coefficients and the specified covariances. The ratio of the coefficient to the standard error is equivalent to a z test for the significance of the relationship, with a $p < .05$ cut-off of about 1.96. Second, the covariances or path coefficients are adjusted to improve the model fit. Third, the model is rerun to observe the modification indices and determine whether the fit is now adequate. The new model is now a subset of the previous one and considered a 'nested model'. Here, the difference in the chi-square is a test for whether some important information may lose, with the degrees of freedom of this chi-square equal to the number of the adjusted paths. For example, if the original model had a chi-square of 187.3, and two non-significant paths were removed, resulting in a new chi-square of 185.2 with 2 degrees of freedom (not statistically significant difference), significant information were not lost with this adjustment. Finally, the researcher can refer to the modification indices (MI) provided by most SEM programs if the model fit is still not adequate after steps 1 to 3. The value of a given modification index is the amount that the chi-square value is expected to decrease if the corresponding parameter is freed. In every step, a parameter is freed that produces the largest improvement in fit and this process continues until a sufficient fit is achieved. Although AMOS will recommend all changes that will improve model fit, some of these changes may be nonsensical, and researchers need to be directed by theory.

Byrne (2001) also suggested two popular strategies to modify any misfit model with AMOS: testing the correlation of error terms (also known as 'residuals parameters'); and examining the modification indices to improve the overall model. Here, residual parameters help to detect the discrepancies between a proposed model and an alternative estimated model (Byrne, 2001). Hence, researchers can determine the source of misspecification in the model and correct it. The extent and sign of every parameter should be rational and compatible with the underlying unobserved latent variable. On a proposed measurement model (or scale), each

indicator must significantly load onto its analogous latent variables. Here, standardised residual covariance (SRC) values of 2.58 or less are considered statistically significant at the level of 0.05 (Byrne, 2001). SRC values are considered as modification indices and point out the discrepancies between the proposed and estimated models. These values also indicate whether those discrepancies are significant. Each residual parameter value above the acceptable value indicates that the proposed model lacks sufficient information. The indicator variable must, therefore, be removed from the proposed model to improve the fit of the model (Byrne, 2001).

The second strategy for model fit is the observation of modification indices within the non-estimated parameters. Modifications to any model can be suggested by the residuals obtained in the original run in AMOS, and by special statistics called modification indices. These indices are values observed for the improvement in model fit, specifically changes to paths whose addition to the model would result in the greatest improvement in the overall chi-square value (Savalei & Bentler, 2006). Moreover, these modifications need to make sense theoretically to interpret the overall model. Values for modification indices will reduce the value of chi-square if the estimated parameter is freed up. For example, when using correlated errors, a researcher does not want to free up the covariance between the residual and indicator variables for different factors because this could damage the internal consistency and interpretability of the model. Correlated error terms describe the unanalysed associations, which mean that the specific nature of the shared ‘something’ is unknown. To improve the fit, the focus should be on drawing an arc (as double-headed arrows) between the residuals with the largest value of correlated errors within the same factor (Byrne, 2010). Tracing an arc between the residuals of interest also seems to add internal consistency to the relevant factor and lead to a corresponding reduction in chi-square. However, while the modification indices are helpful for assessing the influence of model modifications, researchers should only make changes to the model based on particular justifications or past research (Hair et al., 2010).

5.4 Correlations among unobserved variables for testing the structural model

Correlation estimates the magnitude of the relationship between a pair of variables; in other words, the degree to which, as the value of one variable changes, the value of the other variable also changes (Hair et al., 1998). This section specifies the correlations between the

four unobserved latent variables of the study. In this study, references to the cut-off values for the effect size of the relationships are followed according to Cohen's (1992) guidelines. Here, a low correlation is shown by an r value less than .28, a moderate correlation by an r value between .28 to .49 and a substantial correlation by an r value greater than .50. A 99% confidence interval is used to determine the degree of significance of a relationship. However, any perfect or extremely high correlation between two variables is not necessarily desirable, and may suggest the presence of multicollinearity. A number of cut-off values have been established in the literature to monitor this evaluation. For example, Rubin (2009) suggested that multicollinearity is detected when the value of the correlation coefficient that exceeds the cut-off value accounts for a substantial proportion of variance ($r = .80$ or above) for two or more coefficients. Table 5.2 presents the correlations among the study variables.

Table 5.2: Correlation matrix among unobserved and demographic variables

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Responsible leadership				
2. Organisational commitment	.552**			
3. Employee turnover intentions	-.555**	-.635**		
4. Presenteeism	-.295**	-.170*	.407**	
5. Age	-.134	-.022	-.141*	-.228**
6. Gender	.092	-.009	-.018	.082
7. Academic background	.115	.053	-.046	.035
8. Industry	-.069	-.003	-.049	-.027
9. Working time/week	-.070	.025	.012	-.072
10. Working length	.043	.116	-.226**	-.120
11. Working length with supervisor	.077	.151*	-.061	-.067

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

Table 5.2 represents the relationship between study variables both at the 0.001 and 0.005 significance levels. These results are in the anticipated direction and show primary support for

all the proposed hypotheses for this study. The following observations explore the nature of the correlations among the variables examined in the study.

RL showed positive and significant correlations with organisational commitment ($r = .55$, $p < 0.001$), negative relationship with intentions ($r = -.55$, $p < 0.001$) and presenteeism ($r = -.30$, $p < 0.001$). Organisational commitment showed large and significant negative correlations with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.64$, $p < 0.001$) and nominal correlations with presenteeism ($r = -.17$, $p < 0.005$). Moderate and significant correlation coefficients were found between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism ($r = .41$, $p < 0.001$). Of the demographic variables, age of participants was significantly correlated with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.14$, $p < 0.005$) and presenteeism ($r = -.23$, $p < 0.001$). Participants' working length was significantly and negatively correlated with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.23$, $p < 0.001$) and working length with supervisor was positively and significantly correlated with organisational commitment ($r = .15$, $p < 0.005$). Finally, the r values (Table 5. 2) indicate that there is no problem of multicollinearity, as the values of r between each pair of variables were less than .80, which is in line with Rubin's (2009) recommendations.

5.5 Assumptions for violation before hypotheses testing in SEM

It was essential to scrutinise four underlying assumptions – normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity – before testing the direct and mediating effects in the proposed model, as any violations of these assumptions could make the overall results unreliable (the data-analysis procedure is described in Section 6.8). The results of this analysis are presented in Appendix B. However, any violations of these assumptions could make the overall results unreliable.

Normality: Table 5.3 presents the results of the skewness and kurtosis of the variables examined in this study; all the values are well within the range of +1 to -1. Table B1 in Appendix B shows the results of the Shapiro-Wilk (W) test of normality; all the values are non-significant ($\alpha > 0.05$). Hence, there was no violation of the assumption of normality.

Linearity and homoscedasticity: Both assumptions were evaluated with the graphical examination of scatterplots. A visual observation of the bivariate scatterplots indicated that the relationships among the study variables formed relatively straight and linear lines, which indicated that there were no violations of linearity. For homoscedasticity, the same visual inspection of the bivariate scatterplots showed a general oval shape that indicated no violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity. The histogram, scatterplots and P-P plots are presented in Figures B-1 to B-3 in Appendix B.

Multicollinearity: Primarily, the results (Table 5.2) indicated no evidence of a violation of the multicollinearity assumption, as none of the values were highly correlated with each other. However, in accordance with Hair et al. (2010), two additional tests, the tolerance value (TOL) and variance inflation factor (VIF), were used to evaluate multicollinearity. Results from the TOL and VIF tests (Table B2 in Appendix B) were within satisfactory range, indicating no violation of multicollinearity.

5.6 Sample size for SEM: adequate sample size in SEM

Sample size plays a significant role in almost every statistical technique applied in empirical research (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). A common formula used to determine sample size when estimating means of variables was given by McCall (1982): $n = (Z \sigma / \epsilon)^2$, where n is the sample size needed for the desired level of precision, ϵ is the effect size, Z is the confidence level, and σ is the population standard deviation of scores (σ can be estimated from prior research studies, test norms, or the range of scores divided by 6). Sample size is an important issue in SEM, and while no consensus has been reached among researchers at present, some suggestions are found in the literature (Raykov & Widaman, 1995; Kline, 2011). The following section describes some issues relating to sample size for SEM.

5.6.1 Sample-size issues in SEM

Sample-size issues in SEM affect the ability to correctly estimate the hypothesised model and identify the specification error (Khine, 2013). Researchers often require larger sample sizes to maintain power and obtain stable parameter estimates and standard errors (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). AMOS also requires larger sample sizes (Byrne, 2010). Hoelter (1983)

suggested using the critical N statistic, which indicates the sample size needed to obtain a chi-square value that would reject the null hypothesis in SEM. Critical N was often useful for AMOS in the current study to determine the standard sample size that would make the obtained fit (measured by chi-square) significant at the stated level.

Raykov and Widaman (1995) indicated four requirements to consider a sample size: model misspecification, model size, non-normality, and estimation procedure. Model misspecification refers to the extent to which the hypothesised model suffers from specification error (e.g. omission of relevant variables in the model). If there are issues about specification error, the sample size can be increased over what would otherwise be required. When considering model size, the minimum sample size should be greater than the variables in the correlation matrix, with preferably 10 participants per parameter or element estimated. If the data exhibit non-normal characteristics, the ratio of participants to parameters should be raised to 15 to confirm that the sample size is large enough to minimise the impact of sampling error on the estimation procedure. For the estimation procedure itself, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) should be used in SEM, as Ding et al., (1995) recommends that the minimum sample size to use MLE appropriately be between 100 to 150 participants; if the sample size increases, the MLE method increases its sensitivity to detect variances among the data.

Several researchers have shown a more liberal approach in their specification, arguing that there is no correct and fixed sample size when applying SEM, as that depends on the subject to observed-variable procedure (Maccallum et al., 1999). Thus, a suitable sample size depends mostly on the number of the observed variables presented in the model. For example, Hair et al. (2014) advised that an acceptable range is to have 20 participants for every variable to be analysed in the model. Moreover, they argued that a minimum agreed on threshold for sample size in SEM is five participants for each observed variable item that needs to be analysed and a satisfactory ratio is 10 participants or subjects for each. Kline (2005) recommended that 10 to 20 participants per estimated parameter would result in a sufficient sample. One hundred cases can be considered as small, 100-200 as intermediate, and more than 200 as large (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). In this study, the sample size (N= 200) was considered sufficient to achieve a desired level of statistical power for the proposed model. Most scholars and practitioners agree that a sample size of 200 cases can be considered

sufficient to achieve a desired level of statistical power with a given model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Ding et al., 1995; Hoe, 2008; Blanch, 2008; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2014). However, Hair et al. (2010) advised that several factors such as multivariate normality, the level of model complexity and missing data should be considered to determine and justify the sample size. The following sections briefly describe these issues to justify the chosen sample size, and confirm the validity of the results for examining the hypotheses.

5.6.2 The level of model complexity

Model complexity is an important issue in sample-size determination and influences models to fit data in SEM (Kline, 2011; Blunch, 2008). According to Hair et al. (2010), more complex paths models necessitate higher sample sizes and model complexity results from an increase in the hypothesised unobserved latent variables and observed variables. As clarified in Chapter 4 (Section 4.4.3), the proposed model consists of 40 observed indicators. The ratio of 40:200 is considered adequate and exceeds the lower level for adequacy of sample size (Hair et al., 2010).

5.6.3 Missing data

It is expected that a researcher collect a complete dataset that contains all responses to all items (Khine, 2013). In the current study, there was no issue of missing data, and, therefore, the related undesirable outcomes were rejected by the data-collection procedure by default. Missing data may become a difficulty in any analysis that is created by the absence of some portions of a familiar data structure from the overall collected data (Hair et al., 2010). Samples with missing data affect the results of SEM because the sample size is reduced from the original number of cases to account for the missing data (Blunch, 2008; Hair et al., 2010). In the data-collection procedure for this study, invited participants completed all the questions in the specified section before proceeding to the next part of the survey questionnaire (Section 4.7 in Chapter 4).

5.7 Multivariate normality

In SEM, it is assumed that the multivariate distribution is normally distributed and identified when the shape of the data distribution for the studied variables differs considerably from the

normal distribution. Kline (2005) suggested that all univariate distributions should be normal, and that the joint distribution of any pair of the variables is bivariate normal. For example, testing a model with non-normally distributed data may erroneously suggest that the model is a good (or a poor) fit to the data. However, this assumption is seldom found in practice, and one of the methods for calculating multivariate normality is Mardia's normalised multivariate kurtosis value (Mardia, 1974). Mardia (1974) offered tests of multivariate normality based on sample measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis. According to Kline (2013), "this is done by comparing the Mardia's coefficient for the data under study to a value computed based on the formula $p(p+2)$ where p equals the number of observed variables in the model" (p.11). If Mardia's coefficient is lower than the value obtained from the above formula, the data is deemed as multivariate normal. AMOS tests the individual variables for normality and provides a test for Mardia's multivariate kurtosis. In this study, Mardia's coefficient was reported to be .024 in AMOS, which was lower than the formula value 24 [$4(2+2)$], and thus satisfied multivariate normality. Similarly, the measures of skewness and kurtosis are often used to assess univariate normality assumption (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness measures the symmetry of the distribution, where a negative value indicates that the distribution is left-skewed, and a positive value that it is skewed to the right. Kurtosis measures whether the data is peaked or flat relative to a normal curve, where a positive value indicates a relatively peaked distribution and a negative value indicates a relatively flat distribution (Hair et al., 2010). These ratios for skewness and kurtosis range from -1 to +1, with a value of 0 indicate that the sample is normally distributed (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The acceptable range for skewness or kurtosis is considered to be below +1.5 and above -1.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Table 5.3 presents the results of the skewness and kurtosis tests in this study for the selected variables; they were found to be within the acceptable range to claim that the sample data as normally distributed.

Table 5.3: Test of multivariate normality- skewness and kurtosis statistics

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Multivariate normality (Mardia's coefficient)	-	.024
Responsible leadership	-.442	-0.38

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Organisational commitment	-.477	-.003
Employee turnover intentions	.268	-1.14
Presenteeism	.057	-0.33

5.8 First-stage analysis of two-stage modelling approach

The first stage in the two-stage modelling evaluates the psychometric properties for each study variable. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) advocated a two-stage approach for SEM, where the first stage (measurement model) is independently formed and developed before the second stage (structural model). The first stage is also essential to justify the second-stage results for the hypothesised model. Byrne (2010) argued that the second stage depends mainly on the estimates of the relationships amongst unobserved latent variables to assess the extent to which these relationships are valid and significant, assuming that the measurement scale (first stage) of each unobserved latent variable is psychometrically suitable. Here, the psychometric properties were estimated and justified by testing whether construct validity (factor loading), goodness-of-fit estimates and reliability of the measurement scales were found within their respective acceptable ranges. However, the estimates of observed variables' loading on their unobserved latent variable need to be higher than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2014), the reliability values for each measurement scale need to be higher than 0.70 (George & Mallery, 2003) and goodness-of-fit indices need to be within the acceptable range of index values. These particulars are presented in Table 5.1.

In the first stage, factor loading and goodness-of-fit for each measurement scale was assessed through a series of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) calculations in AMOS, and the reliability analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS-21. CFA is a distinct procedure of SEM applied to examine the loadings of observed indicators on their unobserved latent variables and the loadings between unobserved latent variables (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Descriptive statistics and psychometric properties for the individual measurement scales are presented in the following Sections 5.8.1 and 5.8.4.

5.8.1 The measurement scale of responsible leadership (RL)

Sections 5.5.1.1 to 5.5.1.3 present the details of the first-stage analysis of the RL measurement scale.

5.8.1.1 Descriptive statistics of the RL scale

The descriptive statistics for the 13 items of the RL scale are summarised in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistics of the perceived RL scale

		Mean	SD	Skewnes s	Kurtosis
	1. This organisation takes an active role in its community.	4.89	1.63	-.52	-.52
Stakeholder culture	2. This organisation takes ethics seriously.	5.41	1.54	-.81	.01
	3. This organisation responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders.	5.32	1.35	-.72	.17
	4. This organisation takes corporate social responsibility seriously.	5.04	1.58	-.64	-.11
	5. Our performance appraisal programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	4.45	1.80	-.48	-.75
	6. Our compensation programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	4.23	1.75	-.46	-.78
	7. Our organisation believes that all employees deserve to be actively managed as talent.	4.69	1.67	-.65	-.486
HR practices	8. Our organisation's program (e.g., training or workshops) for high potentials helps in talent retention.	4.35	1.75	-.36	-.854
	9. The company has a formal 'high potential' program (e.g., training and development for team building or enhancing leadership skills etc.), and people know what they need to do to get into it and to advance within it.	3.85	1.92	-.04	-1.12

	Mean	SD	Skewnes	Kurtosis	
			s		
Managerial support.	10. My immediate manager leads by example.	4.70	1.85	-.46	-.82
	11. My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well.	4.98	1.76	-.84	-.19
	12. My immediate manager is effective.	5.01	1.73	-.76	-.27
	13. My immediate manager is good at developing people.	4.60	1.82	-.50	-.63
Total mean score	4.72	1.58	-.56	-.49	
Stakeholder culture	5.17	1.53	-0.67	-0.11	
HR practices	4.31	1.78	-0.40	-0.80	
Managerial support	4.82	1.79	-0.64	-0.48	

In Table 5.4, items 2 and 3 had the highest means scores of 5.41 and 5.32 respectively. These values indicate that participants were placing comparatively more emphasis on their organisations' seriousness about 'ethics' and responsiveness to the diverse group of stakeholders. However, the overall average of the RL scale was 4.72, which means that the average answers of the respondents were mostly neutral (between the 'Neither agree nor disagree' to 'Slightly agree' response options). The total average value of SD was 1.58, which means that the respondents' answers on the RL scale spread out slightly around the total average mean score. Finally, the skewness and kurtosis values were within the recommended cut-off estimates (-1.5 to 1.5), supporting the assertion that all items of this scale formed a normally distributed sample.

5.8.1.2 Assessing goodness of fit for perceived RL scale

SEM was applied from IBM AMOS 21 to estimate the absolute, badness and incremental-fit indices. The fit indices indicated that the perceived RL fit the collected data ($\chi^2 = 110.596$, $\chi^2/df = 1.813$, $p < .000$, GFI = .92, AGFI = .89, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, NFI = .96, RMSEA = .064 and SRMR = .037). Hence, the scale for perceived RL showed appropriate fit with the proposed measurement model. The value for χ^2 / df fell well within the range of 1 to 3; GFI, TLI, NFI, and CFI were higher than .90; AGFI was suitably .89; and RMSEA and SRMR were at the satisfactory levels of .064 and .037 respectively. In addition to the good fit indices,

all factor loadings were over .72 ($p < .01$), as shown in Figure 5.1, strongly establishing the adequacy of the measurement items included in the RL scale for the study.

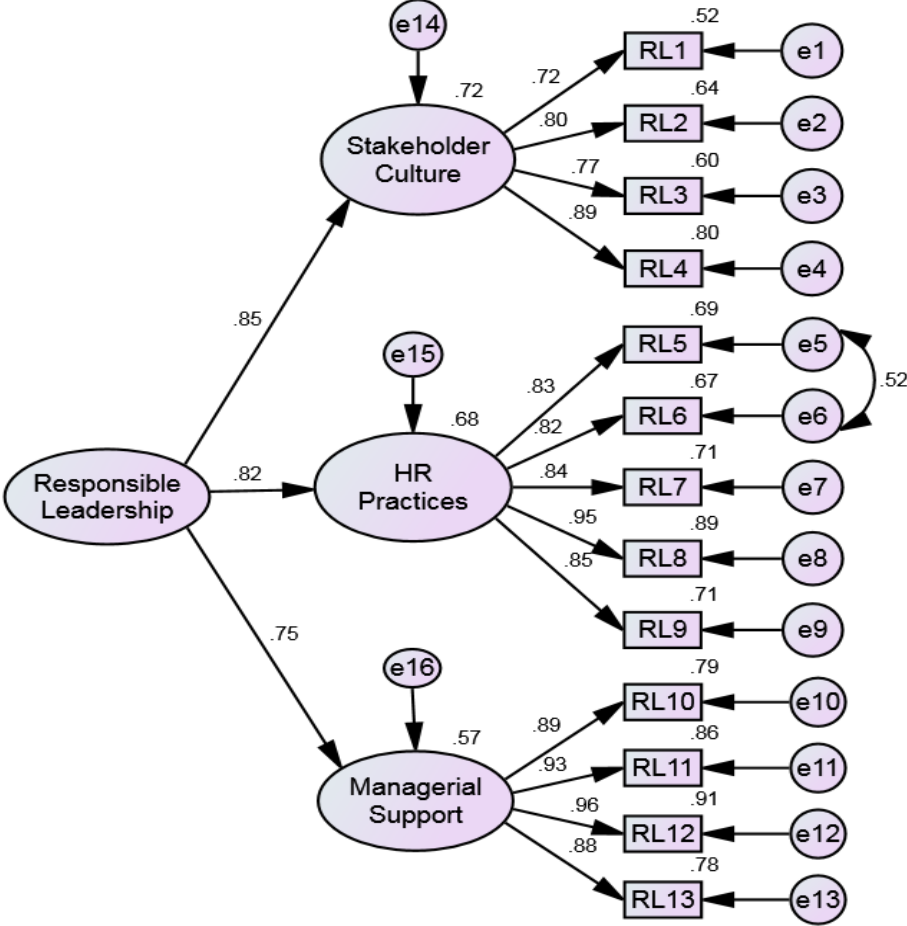


Figure 5.1: Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the measurement model of RL

5.8.1.3 Assessing construct validity and reliability for the perceived RL scale

CFA tests the construct validity, as it is more powerful in identifying adequate items within a measurement domain that best represent the empirical and theoretical domains (Benson & Hagtvet, 1996). The standardised regression weights (known as β coefficients) within AMOS explore the loading of all the items of the scale (observed indicators) with their corresponding latent variable (Byrne, 2001). After CFA for the measurement model of RL (Figure 5.1), β coefficients for the 13 indicators of the perceived RL variable were determined (Table 5.5). The β weights for the RL items ranged between 0.72 and 0.96 at $p < 0.001$. For example, items 13, 12 and 8 had the highest loadings on RL, with β weights of 0.96, 0.93 and 0.92 respectively. These values suggest that when overall RL goes up by 1 standard deviation, the

value of the item ‘My immediate manager is effective’ goes up by 96% of a standard deviation; the item ‘My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well’ goes up by 93% of a standard deviation; and the item ‘Our organisation’s program (e.g., training or workshops) for high potentials helps in talent retention’ goes up by 92% of a standard deviation. Item number 1, ‘This organisation takes an active role in its community’ had the lowest variance, with a β weight of 72%. Therefore, the β weights in Table 5.5 show that the loading estimates for items of perceived RL scale were statistically significant and valid according to the suggested 0.50 cut-off values (Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

The squared multiple correlations coefficients (R^2) describe how much of the variance in the unobserved variable is accounted for the indicator variables (Hair et al., 2010). Table 5.5 shows that estimate of R^2 were high and statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. For example, item 1 ‘This organisation takes an active role in its community’ explained .72 of the variance in perceived RL. In other words, the error variance of item 1 was approximately .28 of the variance of item 1 itself. Moreover, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was above the research guidelines of 0.75, as 0.94 indicates that the scale is sufficiently reliable and measures what it is supposed to measure. Therefore, the goodness-of-fit values, the output of the first-order CFA analysis and Cronbach’s alpha value support the claims that the items of perceived RL in this study are valid and reliable, and have a strong fit with the collected data. Thus, the first measurement scale, perceived RL, requires no further modification.

Table 5.5: The results of first-order CFA Analysis of the perceived RL measurement scale

Items of RL	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R^2	sig.
Stakeholder culture	.84	.70	0.001
1. This organisation takes an active role in its community.	.72	.52	0.001
2. This organisation takes ethics seriously.	.80	.64	0.001
3. This organisation responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders.	.78	.60	0.001

Items of RL	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R²	sig.
4. This organisation takes corporate social responsibility seriously.	.89	.80	0.001
HR practices	.83	.69	0.001
5. Our performance appraisal programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	.88	.77	0.001
6. Our compensation programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	.87	.76	0.001
7. Our organisation believes that all employees deserve to be actively managed as talent.	.84	.71	0.001
8. Our organisation's program (e.g., training or workshops) for high potentials helps in talent retention.	.92	.84	0.001
9. The company has a formal 'high potential' program (e.g., training and development for team building or enhancing leadership skills etc.) people know what they need to do to get into it and to advance within it	.83	.69	0.001
Managerial support	.76	.58	0.001
10. My immediate manager leads by example.	.89	.79	0.001
11. My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well.	.93	.86	0.001
12. My immediate manager is effective.	.96	.91	0.001
13. My immediate manager is good at developing people.	.88	.78	0.001

5.8.2 The measurement scale of organisational commitment

Sections 5.5.2.1 to 5.5.2.3 present the details of the first-stage analysis for the measurement scale of organisational commitment.

5.5.2.1 Descriptive statistics of organisational commitment scale

The descriptive statistics for eighteen items of OC scale are summarised in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics of the perceived organisational commitment scale

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	
Affective commitment	1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	3.40	1.34	-.39	-1.01
	2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	2.74	1.32	.24	-1.17
	3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	3.32	1.39	-.30	-1.24
	4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation.	3.35	1.32	-.40	-1.06
	5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation.	3.52	1.30	-.62	-.77
	6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	3.28	1.29	-.26	-1.08
Continuance commitment	7. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	3.88	1.14	-.91	-.06
	8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	3.57	1.24	-.61	-.70
	9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	3.59	1.25	-.59	-.73
	10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	3.14	1.28	-.25	-1.10
	11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	2.71	1.17	.24	-.85
	12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the	3.54	1.24	-.56	-.77

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
scarcity of available alternatives.				
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	3.16	1.29	-.17	-1.14
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.	2.94	1.33	.10	-1.18
15. I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now.	2.81	1.39	.11	-1.37
16. This organisation deserves my loyalty.	3.22	1.36	-.35	-1.13
17. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	3.20	1.31	-.31	-1.11
18. I owe a great deal to my organisation.	2.94	1.31	-.07	-1.15
Total average score	3.24	1.29	-0.28	-0.98
Affective commitment	3.27	1.33	-0.29	-1.06
Continuance commitment	3.41	1.22	-0.45	-0.70
Normative commitment	3.05	1.33	-0.12	-1.18

Table 5.6 presents the mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis for the 18 items of organisation commitment, including the three sub-dimensions: affective, continuance and normative commitment. The overall mean for the measurement scale of organisational commitment sample was 3.24, which indicates that the responses of employees on the scale were mostly positive. The deviation of the data from the overall mean score was small (SD= 1.29). On the other hand, for the sub-dimensions, the mean and SD were 3.27 and 1.33 respectively for affective commitment; 3.41 and 1.22 respectively for continuance commitment; and 3.05 and 1.3 respectively for normative commitment. Among the three sub-dimensions, continuance commitment had the highest mean (3.41) which suggests that employees who completed this scale showed more continuance commitment to their work than affective or normative commitment. The last two columns (skewness and kurtosis values) fell within the satisfactory cut-off value range (-1.5 to +1.5), which indicates that all items on this scale were normally distributed.

5.5.2.2 Assessing goodness of fit for the organisational commitment scale

The fit indices for the CFA (Figure 5.2 shows the OC and its fit indices) indicated that the data did not fit well ($\chi^2=530.31$, $\chi^2/df= 4.46$, $p< .000$; GFI= .74, AGFI= .67, CFI= .77, TLI= .74, NFI= .72, RMSEA= .132 and SRMR= .103). Some goodness-of-fit indices were lower than the required cut-off values. Particularly, GFI and AGFI were found to be lower than the recommended cut-off values (0.74 and 0.67 respectively). This is suggestive of poor fit also, the values of the incremental-fit indices were less than the required 0.95 cut-off value - 0.77, 0.74 and 0.72 for CFI, TLI and NFI respectively. Therefore, a review of the standardised residual correlations and modification indices was used to respecify the model (Byrne, 2001).

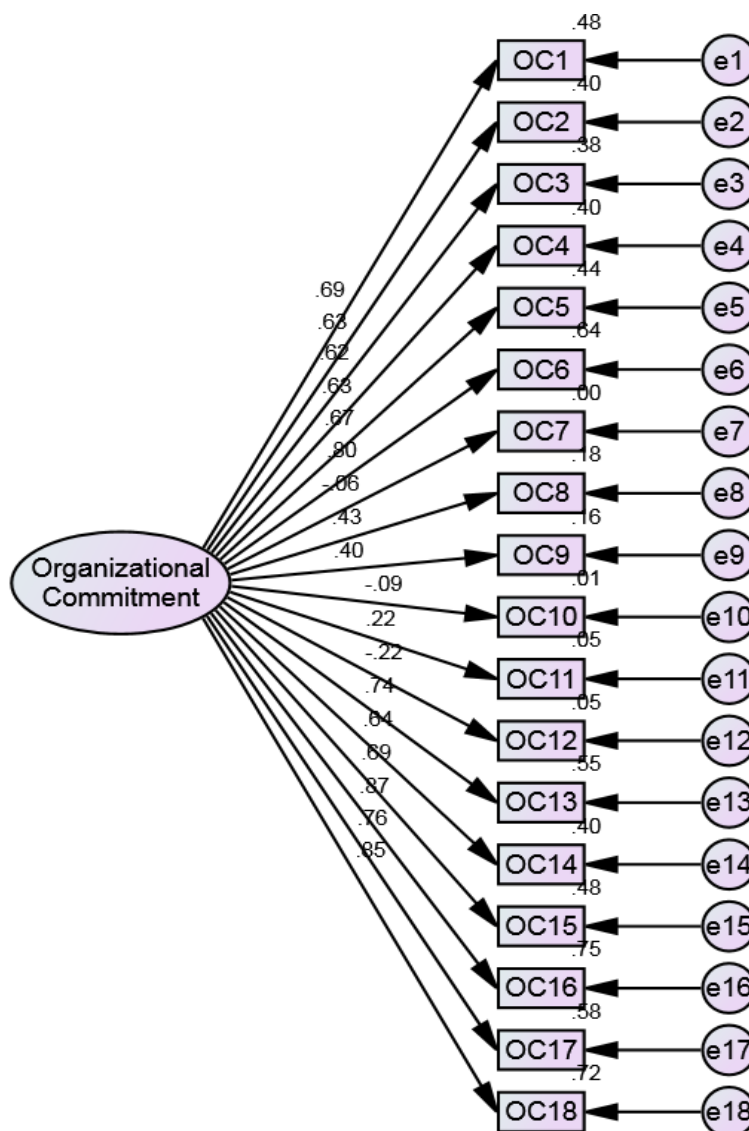


Figure 5.2: Illustration of CFA for the measurement model of organisational commitment with the modification indices: $\chi^2=596.29$, $\chi^2/df= 4.42$, $p< .000$; GFI= .72, AGFI= .64, CFI= .75, TLI= .71, NFI= .70, RMSEA= .131 and SRMR= .112

Based on the modification indices (Section 5.3.4), it is possible to improve the fit of a scale by correlating one pair of standardised errors if it has fewer than three items, or by removing item(s) with a loading value lower than 0.50 from the scale because the error related to the items is greater than the variance they explain (Hair et al., 2010). All such items were removed from the scale in this study.

Three items from the continuance commitment sub-scale were removed to obtain an adequate model fit. The procedure for deleting any item from this scale was based on the re-specification strategies presented in Section 5.3.4, and was followed until the estimates of the goodness-of-fit indices indicated an adequate fit with the data. Three more items (OC8, OC9 and OC11) could have been removed as they had less than .50 of their loading value, but were kept to maintain the continuance commitment sub-scale with at least three items. Hence, modification was made to the OC from a scale based on 18 items to one based on 15 items. Rerunning the model without these three items (Figure 5.3 shows the OC scale after modification and its fit indices) indicated that all indices met the minimum cut-off values and provided a better fit to the data ($\chi^2= 162.95$, $\chi^2/df= 1.90$, $p < .000$; GFI= .90, AGFI= .86, CFI= .95, TLI= .94, NFI= .910, RMSEA= .067 and SRMR= .0560).

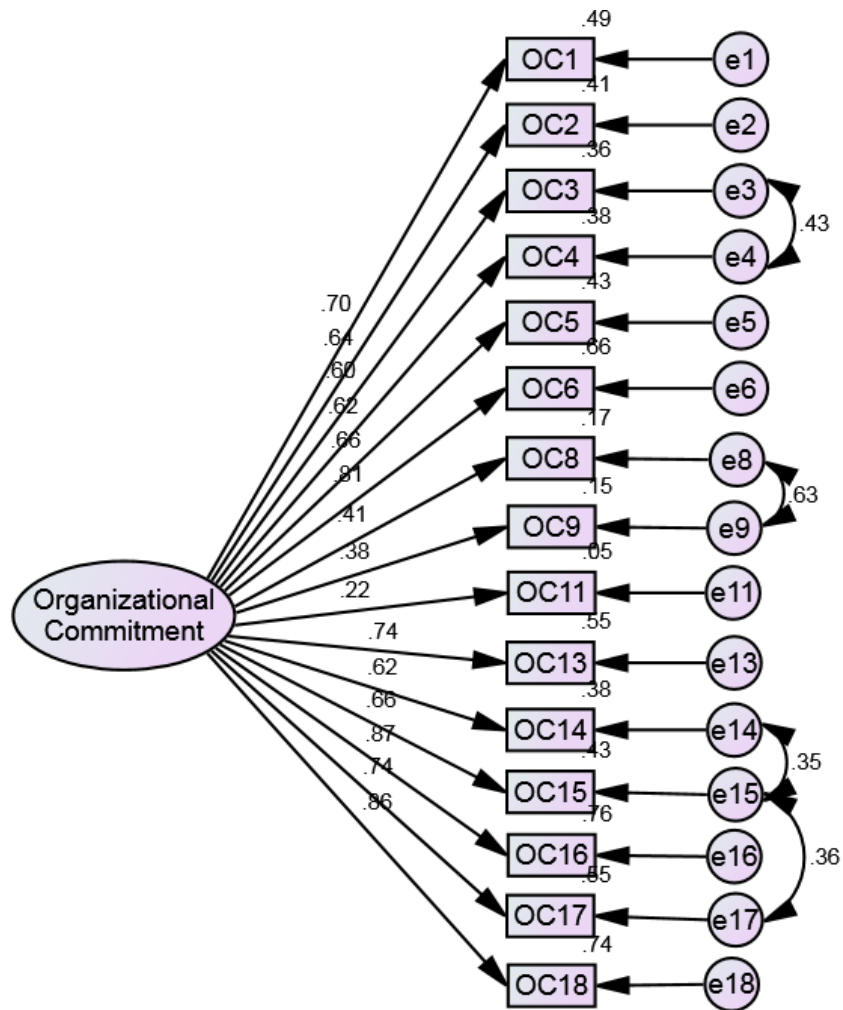


Figure 5.3: The final (modified) models of CFA for the measurement model of OC with the modification indices: $\chi^2= 162.95$, $\chi^2/df= 1.90$, $p< .000$; GFI= .90, AGFI= .86, CFI= .95, TLI= .94, NFI= .910, RMSEA= .067 and SRMR= .0560

5.5.2.3 Assessing construct validity and reliability of organisational commitment after modification

After modifying the fit of the organisational commitment scale (Figure 5.3), the parameter estimates of the scale items were considered, as shown in Table 5.7. Outcomes from CFA revealed that all three organisational commitment items loaded significantly except the continuance sub-scale, and more specifically the OC8, OC9 and OC11; these items were deleted because of their negative values of -.06, -.09 and -.22 respectively. The β weights and R^2 estimates were calculated for each item of the modified scale and sub-dimensions (affective, continuance and normative) in Table 5.7. The estimates of R^2 for the modified items were high and significant at $p< 0.001$.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall scale was 0.875. This means that the 15 items measured on the overall construct of organisational commitment were highly related and consistently measured employees' organisational commitment.

Table 5.7: Results of CFA for organisational commitment after modification

Items of organisational commitment	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R²	sig.
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	.699	.736	0.001
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	.642	.554	0.001
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	.600	.764	0.001
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation.	.617	.435	0.001
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation.	.656	.379	0.001
6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.812	.547	0.001
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	.415	.050	0.001
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	.384	.147	0.001
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	.224	.172	0.001
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	.739	.660	0.001
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my	.615	.430	0.001

Items of organisational commitment	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R ²	sig.
organisation now.			
15. I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now.	.659	.380	0.001
16. This organisation deserves my loyalty.	.874	.360	0.001
17. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.744	.412	0.001
18. I owe a great deal to my organisation.	.858	.489	0.001

5.8.3 The measurement scale of employee turnover intentions

Sections 5.5.3.1 to 5.5.3.3 present the details of the first-stage analysis for the scale of employee turnover intentions.

5.8.3.1 Descriptive statistics of the employee turnover intentions scale

Table 5.8 summarises the descriptive statistics for three items of employee turnover intentions below:

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistics of the employee turnover intentions scale

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.	2.52	1.41	.43	-1.15
2. I often think of quitting my current job.	2.68	1.47	.27	-1.41
3. I will probably look for a job in the near future.	2.74	1.46	.16	-1.38
Total mean score	2.65	1.45	.29	-1.31

Amongst the three items of the scale, item 3 had the highest mean score, 2.74, whereas item 1 had the lowest mean score, 2.52. Both values indicate that the majority of respondents intended to look actively for a new job in the near future. The estimates also suggest that the total mean score for the three items of the employee turnover intentions scale was 2.65, which indicates that on average, respondents' answers were mostly closer to the 'uncertain' option. In contrast, the SD for the total scale was 1.45, which indicates that respondents' answers varied little from the total mean score. This lower value of SD indicates respondents' higher level of agreement. Finally, the columns for skewness and kurtosis show values within the recommended cut-off estimates (-1.5 to 1.5), which indicates that all items related to employee turnover intentions were in a usual distribution through the sample.

5.8.3.2 Assessing goodness-of-fit for the employee turnover intentions scale

The estimates of the goodness-of-fit indices for employee turnover intentions showed that the scale has zero degrees of freedom and the chi-square statistic is zero. Hence, the model should fit the data perfectly, as there was no probability level assigned to the chi-square statistic. However, this is because this scale had only three items and the indices were already over-fitted (e.g. CFI and GFI 1.00) and RMSEA was .82 by the default value. However, a composite reliability (Raykov, 1997a, 1997b) was measured from the structural model (Figure 5.6) with each item's standardised loadings; this resulted in an estimated .90 for the scale of employee turnover intentions. The results in the structural model show that all the three items were significantly loaded onto the TI construct, with values ranging from .79 to .92.

5.8.3.3 Assessing the construct validity and reliability for employee turnover intentions scale

Table 5.9 shows the β weights for the items in the employee turnover intentions scale. The results of the first-order CFA revealed that parameter estimates for the three measurement items ranged between .76 and .95. In the scale, item 3 had the highest loading on unobserved variable, with .95. This means that when employee turnover intentions increase by one standard deviation, the item, 'I will probably look for a job in the near future' will increase by 95% of a standard deviation. Item 2, 'I often think of quitting my current job', had the lowest variance, with a β weight of .76. The outcomes show that parameter estimates for items of the employee turnover intentions scale were statistically significant.

All values of R^2 were satisfactory and statistically significant. For example, the item ‘It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon’ explained 90% of its variance in the scale means, and the error variance of this item was approximately .10 of the variance of the item itself. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .90, indicating that the scale is strongly reliable to measure the overall construct of employee turnover intentions with high internal consistency. Therefore, the scale of employee turnover intentions used in this study is reliable and fits the collected data, and does not need further modification.

Table 5.9: The results of first-order CFA analysis of employee turnover intentions scale

Items of employee turnover intentions	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R^2	sig.
1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.	.89	.90	.001
2. I often think of quitting my current job.	.76	.58	.001
3. I will probably look for a job in the near future.	.95	.80	.005

5.8.4 The measurement scale of presenteeism

Sections 5.5.4.1 to 5.5.4.3 give the details of the first-stage analysis for the measurement scale of presenteeism.

5.8.4.1 Descriptive statistics for the presenteeism scale

The descriptive statistics for the six items of the presenteeism scale are summarised in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Descriptive statistics of the presenteeism scale

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Because of the above mentioned health condition(s) the stresses of my job were much	2.81	1.24	-.05	-1.22

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
harder to handle.				
2. Despite having the above mentioned health condition(s), I was able to finish hard tasks in my work.	1.95	1.08	1.39	1.51
3. The above mentioned health condition(s) distracted me from taking pleasure in my work.	3.28	1.27	-.55	-.86
4. I felt hopeless about finishing certain work tasks, due to the above mentioned health condition(s)	2.27	1.13	.51	-.83
5. At work, I was able to focus on achieving my goals despite the above mentioned health condition(s).	2.21	1.15	.84	-.18
6. Despite having the above mentioned health condition(s), I felt energetic enough to complete all my work.	2.42	1.21	.60	-.72
Total mean score	2.49	1.18	.46	-.38

Table 5.10 presents the mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis for the six items of SPS-6 for the measurement scale of presenteeism. The overall mean for the SPS-6 sample was 2.49, which indicates that the responses were, on average, negative. The spread of the data from the overall mean score was minor (SD= 1.18) and indicates that employees who completed this scale felt more dedicated to work process than to outcomes. The last two columns (skewness and kurtosis values) fell within the satisfactory value range (-1.5 to +1.5), which indicates that all items on this scale were normally distributed throughout the sample.

5.8.4.2 Assessing goodness-of-fit for the presenteeism (SPS-6) scale

The fit indices for the CFA (Figure 5.4 shows SPS-6 and its fit indices) showed that the data did not fit well ($\chi^2=172.42$, $\chi^2/df= 19.16$, $p< .000$; GFI= .74, AGFI= .38, CFI= .65, TLI= .42, NFI= .97, RMSEA= .302 and SRMR= .154). Some goodness-of-fit indices were lower than the minimum cut-off values. For example, GFI, AGFI, CFI and TLI were found to be lower

than the recommended cut-off values (0.74, .38, .65 and 0.42 respectively). This indicates poor fit and suggests that the model was misspecified (Byrne, 2001). Therefore, the standardised residual correlations and modification indices were conducted to re-specify the model.

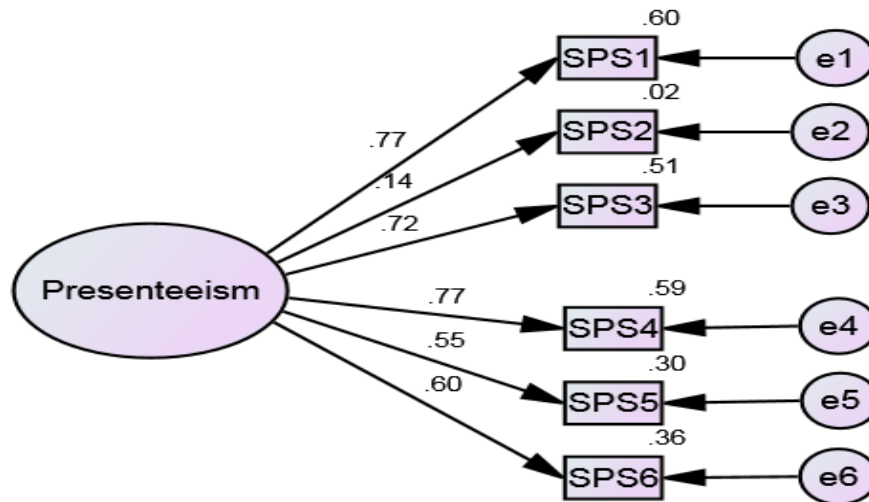


Figure 5.4: Illustration for CFA for the measurement model of presenteeism (SPS-6) with modification of the following indices: $\chi^2=172.42$, $\chi^2/df= 19.16$, $p< .000$; GFI= .74, AGFI= .38, CFI= .65, TLI= .42, NFI= .97, RMSEA= .302 and SRMR= .154

According to the modification indices (Section 5.3.3.4), it is possible to improve the fit of a scale by correlating one pair of standardised errors if it has fewer than three items, or by deleting from the scale any item with a loading value lower than 0.50. Any factor with a loading value less than 0.50 can be removed; because the error related to the items is greater than the variance they explain (Hair et al., 2010). However, as noted earlier that modification of a model requires a strong theoretical justification or support from previous research (Byrne, 2001; Hooper et al., 2008).

One of the items (SPS2) from the subscale of work process was removed to obtain an adequate model fit. The technique for removing any item from this scale was based on the modification strategies detailed in Section 5.3.4, and was followed until the estimates of the goodness-of-fit indices indicated a satisfactory fit with the data. The SPS-6 scale was modified from six items to five. Rerunning the model with the five items (Figure 5.5) indicated that all indices met the required cut-off values and provided a better fit to the data

($\chi^2=13.84$, $\chi^2/df= 4.61$, $p< .003$; GFI= .97, AGFI= .87, CFI= .97, TLI= .91, NFI= .97, RMSEA= .135 and SRMR= .044).

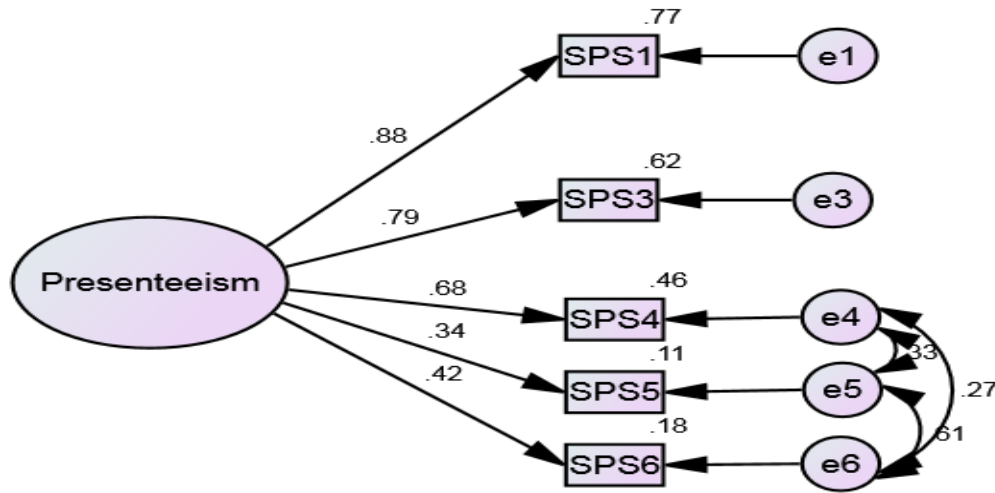


Figure 5.5: The final (modified) model of CFA for the measurement model of SPS-6 with the modification indices:($\chi^2=13.84$, $\chi^2/df= 4.61$, $p< .003$; GFI= .97, AGFI= .87, CFI= .97, TLI= .91, NFI= .97, RMSEA= .135 and SRMR= .044

5.8.4.3 Assessing the construct validity and reliability of SPS-6 after modification

After modifying the fit of presenteeism (Figure 5.5), the parameter estimates of the items of the scale were considered in Table 5.11. The results of the β weights from the CFA revealed that three items (SPS-1, 3 and 4) loaded significantly, with estimates of .88, .78 and .66 respectively. However, two items (SPS 5 and 6) loaded moderately, with estimates of .34 and .42 respectively, which are below the cut-off value of .50. These two loadings were adapted because of the above modification indices and to avoid over-fitted model indices. If the items SPS 5 and 6 were removed, the overall presenteeism model with three items (SPS-1, 3 and 4) becomes over-fitted with the modification indices. Moreover, the estimates of R^2 for modified items were high and significant at $p< 0.001$. The variances in the presenteeism construct were largely explained by the five items, at 77%, 79% 66% 34% and 42% respectively. This gives further support to the modified model. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall scale was 0.81. This means that the five items measured on the overall construct of presenteeism are highly related and consistently measure employees' presenteeism.

Table 5.11: The results of the CFA analysis of presenteeism scale after modification

Items of presenteeism (SPS-6) after modification ($\alpha= 82\%$)	β weights (factor loadings of indicators on RL)	R²	sig.
1. Because of the above mentioned health condition(s) the stresses of my job were much harder to handle.	.88	.77	0.001
3. The above mentioned health condition(s) distracted me from taking pleasure in my work.	.79	.62	0.001
4. I felt hopeless about finishing certain work tasks, due to the above mentioned health condition(s)	.66	.46	0.001
5. At work, I was able to focus on achieving my goals despite the above mentioned health condition(s).	.34	.11	0.001
6. Despite having the above mentioned health condition(s), I felt energetic enough to complete all my work.	.42	.18	0.001

5.9 Second stage: estimate the structural model

All necessary elements for addressing the first stage of the two-stage modelling approach were met, and after determining the psychometric properties for each measurement scale, some modifications were proposed regarding the original model of the study. A structural model consisting of perceived responsible leadership (13 indicators), organisational commitment (15 indicators), employee turnover intentions (three indicators) and presenteeism (three indicators) was established. This structural model is presented in Figure 5.6 and considered as the hypothesised model of the study.

Here, the estimates of the goodness-of-fit indices indicated that this modified structural model presented in Figure 5.6 fit the data adequately. In the modification, items from: RL (RL1), organisational commitment (OC7 to OC12) and presenteeism (SPS2, SPS5 and SPS6) were removed because of their poor loading (estimated between .06 and .55). The modified structural model closely fit the data, with a relative $\chi^2 = 592.713$, $\chi^2/df = 1.55$, GFI = .84, AGFI = .81, CFI = .96, TLI = .95, NFI = .89, RMSEA = .053, and SRMR = .060. All fit indices except GFI and AGFI were within the acceptable range.

5.10 Hypothesis testing

This section tests the study model with the proposed hypotheses as described in Section 3.2. Here, the process of hypotheses testing is divided into two sub-sections. Section 5.9.1 focuses on testing the direct relationship hypotheses formulated in hypotheses H₁ to H₆. Section 5.9.2 tests the simple mediation hypothesis formulated in hypotheses H₇ and H₈.

5.10.1 Hypothesis testing of direct relationships: hypotheses H₁-H₆

This study considered six direct hypotheses (H₁ to H₆), and used the standardised β estimates of the modified structural model applied with AMOS to test their relationships. Here, both the value of Pearson's correlation coefficient r and the β estimates for the six hypotheses were presented in the paths between unobserved variables (Figure 5.6).

The first hypothesis (H₁) was developed to assess the nature of the relationship between RL and presenteeism within the sample of Australian employees. The Pearson's correlation coefficient showed a significant and negative association with RL and presenteeism ($r = -.30$, $p < 0.001$), and the results of the β estimates in the SEM revealed the similar relationship ($\beta = -.22$, $p < 0.034$). The second hypothesis (H₂) was developed to evaluate the nature of the relationship between RL and organisational commitment. Here, the values of both r and β showed a significant and high positive association, with $r = .55$ ($p < 0.001$) and $\beta = .65$ ($p < 0.001$). The third hypothesis (H₃) was formulated to assess the nature of the relationship between RL and employee turnover intentions. The Pearson's correlation coefficient also supported a significant and negative association with RL and employee turnover intentions ($r = -.55$, $p < 0.001$), and the results of β estimates in the SEM revealed the supportive

relationship ($\beta = -.17$, $p < 0.037$). The fifth hypothesis (H_5) was established to consider the nature of the relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Here, the values of both r and β showed a significant and high negative association, with $r = -.64$ ($p < 0.001$) and $\beta = -.61$ ($p < 0.001$). Finally, the last direct relationship (H_6) was developed to assess the nature of the relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Here, the values of both r and β showed a significant and positive association, with $r = .41$ ($p < 0.001$) and $\beta = .44$ ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, all the direct relationships among the studied variables in hypotheses H_1 to H_6 were supported with both Pearson's correlation coefficient and β values, with the exception of the significance values of $p < 0.034$ and $p < 0.037$ for H_1 and H_3 respectively. The outcomes of the squared multiple correlations (R^2) in Figure 5.6 also showed that organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism were explained by RL, with values of .41, .53 and .25 respectively.

5.10.2 Testing of simple mediation hypothesis: hypothesis H_7 and H_8

This study considered two mediation relationships with the hypotheses H_7 and H_8 in the proposed model (Figure 4.1). Hypothesis H_7 asserted that organisational commitment mediates the direct relationship between RL and employees' presenteeism at work. Similarly, hypothesis H_8 asserted that employee turnover intentions mediate the direct relationship between RL and employees' presenteeism.

To test H_7 , the total effect of RL on presenteeism (c) and the direct effect of RL on presenteeism (c') needed to be assessed. Moreover, path (a), which represents the direct effect of RL on organisational commitment, and path (b), which represents the direct effect of organisational commitment on presenteeism, also needed to be inspected. The total indirect effect (ab) of RL on employees when controlling organisational commitment also needed to be tested. The estimate of the indirect effect (ab) represents the difference between c and c' . Consequently, the value of c can also be calculated as the sum of c' and ab (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). As a general rule, Shrout and Bolger (2002) suggested that a partially mediated hypothesis is supported when the value of the indirect effect path (ab) is smaller than the value of the total effect path (c) with the same sign. Therefore, if the direct effect of organisational commitment accounts for a significant amount of variance in presenteeism, but

c' remains significant, a partial mediation relationship is indicated. On the other hand, a full mediation relationship is supported when the significant effect between RL and presenteeism is no longer significant when controlling organisational commitment. Figure 5.7 presents the simple mediation relationship and mediator effects for both H_7 and H_8 .

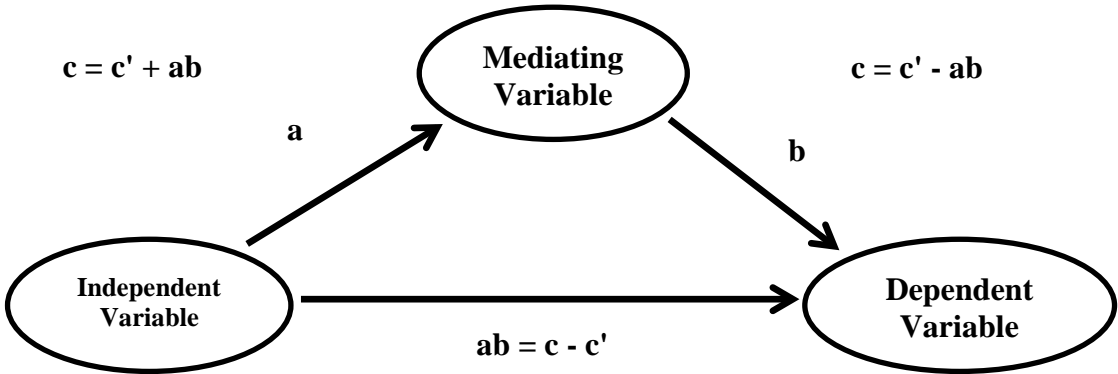


Figure 5.7: Simple mediation relationship

Several tests are available in the literature to examine mediation among variables. Here, SEM with bootstrapping was used to assess and report estimates of the indirect effects. The justifications for using this approach were defined in Chapter 3 (Section 3.8.3.2). Bootstrapping with 5000 resamples was applied to give more-precise estimates of the significance of the indirect effect of organisational commitment. The statistical significance of the indirect effect was determined using 99% bias and percentile confidence intervals.

Figure 5.8 represents all the essential estimates of bootstrap analysis to examine hypothesis H_7 and assess the indirect effect.

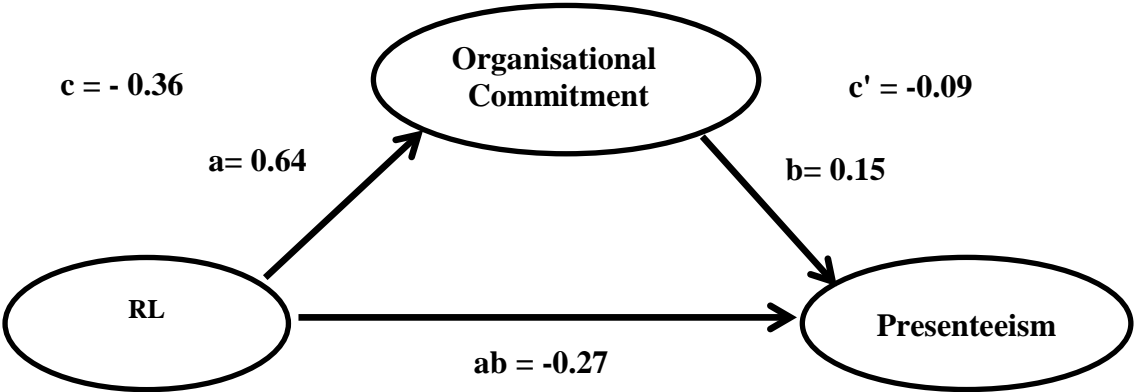


Figure 5.8 : The β estimates of specific indirect and total indirect effects to assess H_7

Figure 5.8 shows the evidence for partial mediation to support hypothesis H₇ for the current study. The results indicate that the value of the total effect of RL on presenteeism is $\beta = -.36$, $p < .001$. The value of the indirect effect when controlling organisational commitment is $\beta = -.09$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.243, .042]. Comparing values in the figure shows that there is evidence for partial mediation, as the total effect of RL reduced marginally but remained significant when controlling organisational commitment as a mediator. Figure 5.8 also shows that organisational commitment carried -0.27 of the total effect of RL on employees' presenteeism for the sample of the current study.

Similarly, for the second mediation with H₈, Figure 5.9 shows that the values of the total effect of RL on presenteeism was $\beta = -.36$, $p < .001$. The value of the indirect effect when controlling employee turnover intentions was $\beta = -.18$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.322, -.092]. Comparing values in the figure showed that there is evidence for partial mediation, as the total effect of RL reduced greatly but remained significant when controlling employee turnover intentions as a mediator. Figure 5.8 also shows that as the second mediator in the hypothesised model, employee turnover intentions, also carried -0.18 of the total effect of RL on employees' presenteeism for the sample of the current study.

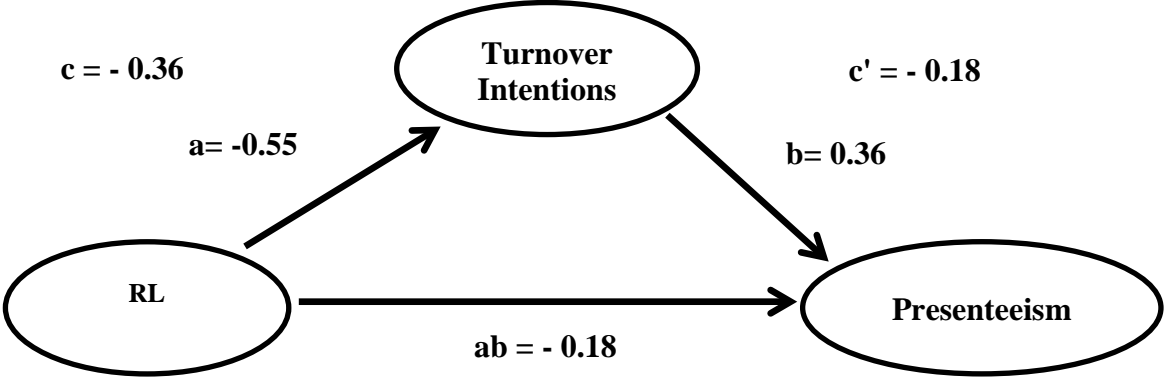


Figure 5.9: The β estimates of specific indirect and total indirect effects to assess H₈

Finally, a post-hoc power analysis was conducted to observe the overall statistical power of the studied model (Figure 5.6) with the observed probability level (95% level of confidence), the number of predictors (three), the observed R^2 (0.24), and the sample size (N=200). In the findings, the observed statistical power was calculated as 0.999, which further justifies the hypotheses.

5.11 Chapter summary

This chapter analysed and reported the collected survey data. The overall analysis presented a number of issues.

First, among the four measurement scales, RL and employee turnover intentions provided a good fit for the data. However, the organisational commitment and presenteeism (SPS) scales required further modification to improve their goodness of fit. As described, some items from both scales were removed as an approach to present the degree to which indicators represented the unobserved latent variables of the study.

Second, descriptive statistics for the applied measurement scale were presented. The figures and related values indicated that there were no out-of-bounds estimates and that the results were well within the expected ranges. All the measurement scales confirmed good psychometric properties. The results of CFA satisfied the loading of indicator items on constructs and above the preferred 0.50 threshold of tolerability. Each scale also had a Cronbach's alpha above the preferred 0.75 requirement of acceptability. Hence, no assumptions of violation were noted, and the study variables were strongly and significantly correlated with each other.

Third, the analysis of direct hypotheses revealed that RL to organisational commitment, organisational commitment to employee turnover intentions, and employee turnover intentions to presenteeism have significant effects to each other. RL to presenteeism and turnover showed moderate effects on each other but significant with their correlational measures. However, organisational commitment to presenteeism has the minimum effect, and that may indicate employees' overcommitment issues as described in the literature Chapter 2 (Section 2.10).

Finally, the mediation results from the proposed model showed that both mediators, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions partially mediated the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism. Therefore, the proposed model of this study

confirmed the best fit for the collected data and supported all the developed hypotheses with evidence of sufficient statistical power of 0.999.

The next chapter discusses the overall findings and conclusions based on the quantitative data and analysis in this chapter. It will describe both the theoretical and methodological contributions of this study, including the practical implications of the findings. It will also identify the potential limitations of this thesis and future research opportunities. Lastly, concluding remarks will be presented.

6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the overall findings of this thesis. It also recognises its contribution to the literature and implications for future research opportunities. This chapter consists of seven sections. The next section, Section 6.2, presents a general review of the purposes, aims and hypotheses of the thesis. The findings for each hypothesis and their links to the research purposes are described in Section 6.3. The theoretical contributions of this thesis are outlined in Section 6.4. Section 6.5 contains the implications for managerial practice, and Section 6.6 identifies the potential limitations of this thesis. Thereafter, Section 6.7 offers some guidelines and suggestions for future researchers. Finally, the concluding remarks are presented in Section 6.8.

6.2 General overview of the thesis

The main purpose of this thesis was to develop and examine a relational model that explains the relationships between RL, presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis is the first study to investigate these variables simultaneously within an Australian context. The present thesis was undertaken based on several important theoretical and practical aims, as outlined in Section 1.5:

1. Empirically examine the nature of the relationship between RL and presenteeism in a sample of Australian employees;
2. Evaluate and test the role of employees' perceptions of RL for explaining the nature of the relationship between RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions, and presenteeism; and
3. Develop and test the mediational role of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism.

Eight hypotheses setting out six direct and two simple mediational relationships were formulated (Section 4.2). To meet the aims of this thesis, and to test the hypotheses, a comprehensive literature review was undertaken to establish theoretical justifications for each hypothesis (Chapters 2 and 3). A web-based survey combining four scales was used in the data-collection process. A sample of 200 employees was recruited for the survey. The eight hypotheses, including the mediation analyses, were tested through SEM. The results fully support seven of the eight hypotheses. As presented in Chapter 5, one hypothesis (H_1) required further analysis. The following section describes the main findings of this thesis and explains the results of each hypothesis in detail.

6.3 Discussion of findings

The intent of this study was to determine whether a relationship existed between RL and presenteeism and whether organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions among Australian employees mediated this relationship. This section presents the results of the tested hypotheses (H_1 to H_8) as presented with the research questions in Chapter 1 (Section 1.7) and described in Chapter 5 (Section 5.9). The overall findings of this study regarding the relationships among the examined variables in the context of previous literature and the framework of the conceptual model are discussed below.

6.3.1 Perceived RL and presenteeism

Hypothesis 1 (H_1) posited that there is a direct and negative relationship between RL and presenteeism in workplaces among Australian employees. Previous leadership and presenteeism studies have examined the effect of various leadership practices on employee performance (Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012; Nyberg et al., 2008) and wellbeing (Nyberg et al., 2009; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), including the prevalence of presenteeism. The findings of this thesis demonstrate specifically that RL can influence presenteeism in workplaces. The results showed a significant and negative association between RL and presenteeism ($r = -.30$, $p < 0.001$). The β estimates in the SEM revealed a similar relationship ($\beta = -.22$, $p < 0.034$), which also suggests a moderate direct impact of RL on presenteeism for the studied sample. In addition, a further secondary analysis was conducted (Figure C-1 in Appendix C) among RL and the subscales of presenteeism: work process and work outcome. The results found

that RL has more influence on work process ($\beta = -.36, p < 0.001$) than on work outcome ($\beta = .07, p < 0.065$). This finding means RL has a significant negative influence on presenteeism that is particular to work process rather than work outcome. In other words, while the relationship between RL and a composite score for presenteeism is negative, at the subscale level, only presenteeism related to work process is significantly related to RL.

The findings for Hypothesis 1 (H_1) indicate that when employees perceive their managers or supervisors as leaders who lead with more perceived responsibility, there is a greater likelihood that employees will generate less presenteeism at work. The higher levels of perceived responsibility include leading by exemplary behaviour and care of employees through managerial support, taking initiatives for higher employee retention with superior HRM practices and CSR initiatives using morals and ethics in stakeholder relationships. This finding is consistent with previous research (Hetland et al., 2007; Nyberg et al., 2008; Kelloway & Barling, 2010; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Nyberg et al., 2011), and suggests that RL in workplaces directly affects employees' work processes and prevalence of presenteeism.

6.3.2 Perceived RL and organisational commitment

The findings for Hypothesis 2 (H_2) suggest that there is a direct and positive relationship between RL and organisational commitment in the study sample of Australian employees (Section 1.6). As described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3), the organisational studies literature has described the positive impact of various leadership approaches on organisational commitment (Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Top et al., 2015). In line with these studies, the current study demonstrated a significant positive influence between RL and employees' organisational commitment. Primarily, findings revealed a significant and positive association between RL and organisational commitment ($r = .55, p < 0.001$). In addition, the analysis from SEM confirmed that employees' perceived RL had a strong and significant direct influence on organisational commitment ($\beta = .65, p < 0.001$). Thereafter, a further secondary analysis was executed (Figure C-2 in Appendix C) with RL and the three subscales of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). The results showed that RL has more influence on employees' affective ($\beta = .538, p < 0.001$) and normative ($\beta = .507, p < 0.001$) commitment than on their continuance commitment ($\beta = .104, p < 0.002$), and thus RL has a significant and positive influence on employees' emotional attachments for their

organisations (e.g., affective commitment) and individual personal values (e.g., normative commitment) more than on their costs of leaving, such as losing attractive benefits or seniority (e.g., continuance commitment).

The results of Hypothesis 2 (H₂) suggest that when employees perceive more qualities of RL in their leaders, they respond with a higher level of organisational commitment. Hence, RL, with its attributes of a relational stakeholder culture, HRM practices and managerial support, more positively influence employees' organisational commitment than do other leadership styles. These results are consistent with previous studies (Bass et al. 2004; Wagner et al., 2013; Yozgat et al., 2014; Gokce et al., 2014; Şahin et al., 2014; Keskes, 2014; Suk Bong et al., 2015).

6.3.3 Perceived RL and employee turnover intentions

Hypothesis 3 (H₃) posited a direct and negative relationship between RL and employee turnover intentions among the Australian workforce. Previous literature (Section 3.4) suggested that different leadership practices, such as transformational, ethical, servant and authentic leadership, have negative relationships with employees' turnover intentions. In the current study, the findings showed a significant and negative association between RL and employee turnover intentions ($r = -.55$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, β estimates in the SEM also revealed a supportive negative relationship among the variables ($\beta = -.17$, $p < 0.037$).

The outcome of Hypothesis 3 (H₃) indicated that when employees recognise the greater potential of their managers' RL, they hold a lower level of turnover intentions. Employees responded particularly to the specific leadership attributes of leaders' care for them (i.e., managerial support), employee retention and HRM functions (i.e., HR practices) and managers' ethical decision-making and concern for their stakeholders (i.e., stakeholders culture). These findings are consistent with previous studies (Silverthorne, 2001; Hsu et al., 2003; Myatt, 2008; Zhiqiang et al., 2013; Tse et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2014). The results of the current thesis also suggest that RL directly affects employees' turnover intentions. In other words, RL enhances employees' perception of organisational leadership with greater responsibility, HRM functions and communities, and that this perception eventually leads to a higher employee retention rate for organisations.

6.3.4 Organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions

Hypothesis 4 (H₄) claimed that there is a direct and negative relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions in the Australian workforce. Chapter 3 (Section 3.5) demonstrated that the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions has been studied extensively and has been acknowledged as an important concern for employees' initiatives to leave or stay with their organisations. In this study, findings showed a significant and negative association among organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions ($r = -.64$, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, β estimates in the SEM analysis revealed a supportive relationship ($\beta = -.61$, $p < 0.001$) for the sample of Australian employees. A further secondary analysis was executed with the three components of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. For each posited relationship, the Pearson's correlation coefficient showed a significant negative relationship with affective ($r = -.64$, $p < 0.001$) and normative ($r = -.60$, $p < 0.001$), but an insignificant relationship with continuance commitment ($r = -.12$) (Table C-1 in Appendix C). However, the results of the β estimates in the SEM showed a supportive relationship for affective ($\beta = -.65$, $p < 0.001$), normative ($\beta = -.24$, $p < 0.001$) and continuance ($\beta = -.20$, $p < 0.008$) commitment (Figure 6.3 in Appendix C).

The results from testing Hypothesis 4 (H₄) show that organisational commitment reduces employees' turnover intentions in workplaces. Among the three components, employees' affective commitment showed the highest negative influence on employee turnover intentions. These findings are rational and similar to those of previous studies (Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Manzoor & Naeem, 2011; Lee et al., 2012; Faloye, 2014); these studies also found that organisational commitment in organisations directly affects employees' turnover intentions and may affect employee retention rates.

6.3.5 Organisational commitment and presenteeism

The results supported Hypothesis 5 (H₅), showing a direct and negative relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism for the sample of Australian employees in the study. Chapter 3 (Section 3.6) described organisational commitment as employees' willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of their organisations as expressed by better attendance records and more effective and productive work, and showed that it is associated

with lower presenteeism. In the current study, results showed a minimal negative association between organisational commitment and presenteeism ($r = -.17, p < 0.005$). The β estimates in the SEM also revealed an insignificant positive relationship ($\beta = .09, p < 0.457$) for the studied sample. A further secondary analysis was executed with the three components of organisational commitment on presenteeism. The Pearson's correlation coefficient showed a significant negative relationship with affective ($r = -.27, p < 0.001$) and normative ($r = -.19, p < 0.001$) commitment, but an insignificant and positive relationship to continuance commitment ($r = .128$) (Table C-2 in Appendix C). The β estimates in the SEM showed a similar relationship for affective commitment ($\beta = -.38, p < 0.001$), but insignificant for normative ($\beta = -.08, p < 0.326$) and continuance ($\beta = .10, p < 0.324$) commitment (Appendix C).

The results of Hypothesis 5 (H_5) showed that employees' higher levels of organisational commitment did not influence presenteeism, but only their affective commitment. This indicates a further opportunity to explore employees' overcommitment in workplaces, as employees' continuance and normative commitment may further encourage them to come to work when they are not in a fit state to perform their jobs, and may need support from their managers to take sick leave. This finding is similar to previous studies (e.g. Arronson & Gustafson, 2005; Bergstrom et al., 2009; Johns, 2010; Cicei et al., 2013). To manage presenteeism for higher employee productivity, further research is required to examine employees' optimum level of organisational commitment rather than overcommitment.

6.3.6 Employee turnover intentions and presenteeism

The results of Hypothesis 6 (H_6) showed a direct and positive relationship between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism in the sample of Australian employees. As described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.7), employee turnover intentions are the pre-stage of employees' actual decisions on whether to leave or quit their job. These intentions make them emotionally detached from their organisations, which may lead to presenteeism. In this study, the Pearson's correlation coefficient exposed a significant and positive association between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism ($r = .41, p < 0.001$). The results of β estimates in the SEM also revealed a supportive relationship ($\beta = .44, p < 0.001$) in the sample of Australian employees.

The results of Hypothesis 3 (H₃) proposed that employees' higher levels of turnover intentions influence higher levels of presenteeism in organisations. In other words, when employees are considering turnover intentions and are forced to work in spite of poor health, eventually they show higher levels of presenteeism. This finding is congruent with previous studies (Reese, 1992; Ruez, 2004; Hemp, 2004; Taifor et al., 2011), which additionally suggests that employees' turnover intentions in organisations positively influence presenteeism to reduce employee productivity at work. To the best of my knowledge, there is no published study measuring the associations between employee turnover intentions and presenteeism; therefore, this finding is a novel empirical contribution.

6.3.7 The mediating influence of organisational commitment on the association between RL and presenteeism

The results of Hypothesis 7 (H₇) stated that employees' organisational commitment mediates the relationship between RL and presenteeism among the sample of Australian employees. Section 3.8 described the role of organisational commitment as a mediator for the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism. However, this thesis appears to be the first study to report the influence of RL on presenteeism with the mediational influence of organisational commitment. Results showed that RL influenced presenteeism both directly (Hypothesis 1), and indirectly or partially mediated (Hypothesis 7) by organisational commitment for employees' productivity outcomes. This is because the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism remained significant at the time of considering organisational commitment as the mediator (Section 5.9.2). In other words, results suggested that managers who scored high on perceived RL are more capable of decreasing presenteeism and increasing organisational commitment. However, for the indirect (mediated) relationship between RL and presenteeism, the inclusion of organisational commitment decreases the total effect of RL on presenteeism (β estimates from -0.36 to -0.27 at $p < 0.001$). Hence, organisational commitment only partially mediates the relationship between RL and presenteeism.

This partial mediational effect of employees' organisational commitment in the relationship between RL and presenteeism can be further described. For example, with the influence of RL, employees may work with higher organisational commitment to exert more effort at work instead of being ill at work which will tend to reduce presenteeism. This association also

indicates that responsible leaders need to consider their employees as important stakeholders to generate higher levels of work motivation, creativity and productivity (Lynham & Chermack, 2006; Lowhorn, 2009; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). These results suggest that when organisational commitment is introduced as a mediator on the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism, the total effect of RL on presenteeism is somewhat less (Figure 5.8). Several recent studies have also considered organisational commitment as a mediator in their studies because of its significant influence over other organisational factors such as among performance appraisal and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ahmed et al., 2013); between perceived reputation and citizenship behaviour (Fu et al., 2014); between job characteristics and job satisfaction (Hsu et al., 2015); and between role stress and turnover intentions (Han et al., 2015). Therefore, the mediational analysis on organisational commitment supports a partial mediation in the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism, and further confirms the findings of previous studies.

6.3.8 The mediating role of employee turnover intentions on the association between RL and presenteeism

The results of Hypothesis 8 (H_8) stated that employee turnover intentions mediate the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism in organisations. However, this thesis seems to be the first study to report the influence of RL on presenteeism with the mediation of employee turnover intentions. This suggests that RL affects presenteeism directly, as shown in Hypothesis 1 (H_1), and indirectly or partially mediated (H_8) by stimulating employee turnover intentions for employees' productivity outcome. The results in the analysis showed that managers who scored high on perceived RL were more capable of influencing both presenteeism and employee turnover intentions to which RL is directly related. However, for the indirect (partially mediated) relationship between RL and presenteeism, the inclusion of employee turnover intentions decreased the total effect of RL on presenteeism (β estimates from -0.36 to -.18 at $p < 0.001$); this means that employee turnover intentions offer a partial mediation in the current study.

The partial mediation relationship (H_8) can be explained further. If employees do not perceive higher levels of RL from their superiors, their pride in their work and their job satisfaction are likely to decline (Doh et al., 2011). As a consequence, employees' thoughts of leaving their organisations (turnover intentions) become more prevalent and some of them may leave when

available opportunities elsewhere are offered. Moreover, presenteeism is positively influenced by dissatisfaction at work and employees forcing themselves to attend work with ill-health. Pless et al. (2011) suggested that responsible leaders should build and sustain businesses that benefit their multiple stakeholders, and should prioritise their own employees. However, the influence of RL on HR practices has been overlooked so far. Researchers have suggested that RL can hardly be accomplished without a deep transformation of managerial motivations and values (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Maak & Pless, 2006; Wittenberg et al., 2007; Brown & Trevino 2006; Ciulla, 2006; Waldman & Galvin, 2008;). Hence, employees' levels of turnover intentions influence the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism as mediator.

The partial mediating role of employee turnover intentions can be explained from the HRM perspective as well. For example, leaders hoping to practice RL to discourage presenteeism may experience an adverse result if the employees conceal their turnover intentions. Previous studies have also considered employee turnover intentions as the mediating variable because of its significant influence over organisational performance (Gond et al., 2011; Waldman & Galvin 2008; Maak & Pless, 2006; Doh et al., 2011; Voegtlin et al., 2012; Yukl, 2013). Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that employees' turnover intentions reduce the total effect of RL on presenteeism (Figure 5.9) and support a partial mediation.

6.4 Theoretical contributions

This study examined the relationship between RL and presenteeism with the mediational effects of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions in the Australian context. The theoretical contributions of this thesis are threefold. First, it provides an understanding of the antecedents and consequences of RL with presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions as study variables. Hence, it contributes to the literature on organisational leadership to link RL with employees' behavioural outcomes. Second, this thesis contributes to the literature of both organisational behaviour and HRM by exploring the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism. Third, this thesis examines an underexplored concept of presenteeism and contributes to the literature of organisational

studies to explore the influence of RL in organisations. These three key theoretical contributions are described more fully below.

The notion of RL is largely underexplored and lacks evidence in the literature of organisational studies. Researchers suggest that there are many challenges in applying RL because of organisations' continual changes and new demands of business contexts (Maak & Pless, 2006; Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Pless et al., 2011). While several studies have confirmed the relationship between various leadership practices and presenteeism (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Van et al., 2004; Nyberg et al., 2008), this thesis extends the literature of RL in several ways. First, this study addressed both Maak (2007) and Maak and Pless's (2006) understanding of RL from the employee's perspectives to examine the hypothesised model (Figure 1.1). For example, Maak and Pless suggest that leadership that goes beyond the dyadic leader-follower model and extends it to a higher engagement between leaders and stakeholders (Maak 2007; Maak & Pless 2006b). This thesis has examined employees' perception of these RL attributes – for example, managers' stakeholder culture (see the RL scale in Appendix A-3) – to link RL and employee outcome. The findings of the thesis suggest that managers' RL attributes influence organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism in workplaces. Hence, this thesis has explicitly examined the attributes of RL to apply Maak and Pless's views in practice and contribute to the literature of RL.

Second, the study findings extend the work of Brown and Trevino (2006, 2009) and Spreitzer's (2007) value-centered leadership practices. This thesis has conceptualised RL as a value-based leadership approach (Section 2.4) to examine its relationships with presenteeism, organisational commitment, and employee turnover intentions. Researchers have suggested that value-based leadership incurs obligations for leaders to manage their values and create a corporate culture that optimises economic performance, ethical actions and social participation and reduces environmental impact (Pless, 2007; Brown & Trevino 2006, 2009; Spreitzer, 2007). This thesis contributes to the literature to include the evidence on how these attributes of RL can influence employees' organisational commitment, turnover intentions and presenteeism.

Third, this thesis extends the work of Lynham and Chermack's (2006) theory of Responsible Leadership for Performance (RLP). They suggested RLP as an integrative framework addressing the nature and challenges of organisational leadership which are both responsible for and focused on organisational performance. This thesis extends this claim and contributes to the literature about the relationship between RL and organisational performance, focusing on the employee outcomes of organisational commitment, employee turnover intention and presenteeism. Hence, conferring to RLP, this thesis also suggests that managers' perceived RL can be linked with organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism for superior organisational performance.

Fourth, this thesis highlighted the notion of Voegtlin et al. (2012) to measure the positive outcomes associated with RL at the micro level (organisational level) in the employee-manager relationship (p.5). They suggested that among the three levels (macro, meso and micro), responsible leaders may have a direct and considerable effect on their immediate followers, particularly at the micro level. This thesis has examined RL at the micro level and supported their claims. Hence, this thesis contributes to the literature of organisational leadership and suggests that RL has an effect on followers at the micro-level.

The second key theoretical contribution of this study is to the literature on organisational behaviour and HRM through its exploration of the mediators, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the direct relationship between RL and presenteeism. As stated in Chapter 5 (Section 5.9.2), managers who hold RL attributes can influence employees' level of presenteeism indirectly through both mediators. In other words, both organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions showed partial mediational influences that can affect employees' presenteeism. These results support those of several recent studies that have shown a significant role for organisational commitment as an effective mediating variable (Garrido-Moreno et al., 2014; Jing & Zhang, 2014; Han et al., 2015; Hsu et al., 2015). Similarly, the mediating influence of employee turnover intentions matches with several recent organisational studies on the relationship between leadership and presenteeism (Christian & Ellis, 2014; Yousaf et al., 2015; Takase et al., 2015; Saranya & Muthumani., 2015; Brien et al., 2015). This thesis suggests that employees who are highly committed to organisations and who come to work with health conditions show less presenteeism than who lack the organisational commitment. However, it is also anticipated

that employees' overcommitment in the workplace may affect the relationship between RL and presenteeism. In other words, overcommitted employees may result in higher levels of presenteeism in workplaces. If employees are experiencing health issues, they should take leave from work to avoid presenteeism. However, because of their overcommitment they may come to work and increase presenteeism. These results lend support to existing research findings and extend the existing literature on RL and presenteeism. The thesis results further confirms new research areas to examine novel propositions that have been suggested in the literature but are yet to be explored.

There is a scarcity of literature on the notion of presenteeism and its consequences in the field of HRM. Researchers have suggested that studies related to presenteeism and employees' wellbeing are well established in the literature for occupational health studies, but limited in the field of HRM and organisational studies (D'Abate & Eddy, 2007; Polach, 2003; Bing et al., 2003; Goetzel et al., 2004; Johns, 2010; Scuffham et al., 2014). Moreover, employees' work-life integration issues have received limited attention from HR perspectives and have been overlooked as a critical force for leadership, organisational effectiveness and HR development (Polach, 2003; Gond et al., 2011). Hence, D'Abate (2005) attempted to identify a full range of activities related to employee engagement in workplaces and the reasons behind the behaviour, pointed out the need for further empirical studies to examine presenteeism. The current study inspected the influence of RL on presenteeism with employees' behavioural attributes, such as organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions, and thus contributes to the literature on HRM to comprehend how the notion of presenteeism can disrupt positive organisational outcomes, and to argue that it should be taken seriously for future organisational studies to promote sustainable competitive advantage. Moreover, the current study contributes to the literature of HRM because of the results of both the mediating influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the direct influence between RL on presenteeism. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the literature of both HRM and organisational behaviour, and answers calls to examine the relationship between RL and presenteeism with the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

6.5 Methodological contributions

This study presents a unique structural model and methodology for testing the relationships among the antecedents and consequences of RL. The uniqueness of this model balances the fact that it offers a methodology for examining a new combination of variables arranged in a specific pattern, including both direct and indirect (mediation) relationships. In addition to the theoretical and practical contributions, this thesis offers several methodological contributions to understand the underlying mechanism by which RL shows its relationship with organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. First, examining RL with a relational model within organisational studies is rare. This thesis provides a new insight through its hypothesised model (Figure 1.1) and examines the influence of RL on employees' outcomes, such as organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Second, this study is one of the first RL studies to test the mediators, employee turnover intentions and organisational commitment for their relationships with presenteeism. Several researchers have proposed that leadership practices in organisations lead to performance through workforce characteristics, and have examined the direct relationship between various leadership approaches and employee performance outcomes (Section 2.5). However, while employee commitment has been well examined (Section 3.8.1), employee turnover intentions as a mediator has not previously been tested (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Haque et al., 2014). Hence, the current study methodologically contributes to the RL literature through mediational analyses. Third, this study applied SEM as a data-analysis technique to examine the hypothesised model (Figure 1.1), which is also a novel application to the examination of linkages between RL and presenteeism within organisational studies. Shah and Goldstein (2006) advised that the use of SEM as a methodological procedure to test and analyse the relationship between variables has been steadily increasing in organisational studies. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the existing organisational studies by proposing a systematic methodological approach with SEM to examine a relational model between RL and presenteeism with the mediation of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

6.6 Practical implications

The empirical findings of this study also provide useful insights on the relationship between RL and specific employee outcomes (organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism). The empirical results contribute to the development of effective organisational strategies and leadership practices. The findings described in this thesis have potential practical implications in three areas:

- (1) Conducting training programs to promote and develop RL for organisational leadership;
- (2) Recognising presenteeism and incorporating organisational strategies to recover losses from presenteeism; and
- (3) Encouraging managers to enhance organisational commitment and reduce employee turnover intentions in organisations.

6.6.1 Conducting training programs to promote and develop RL for organisational leadership.

The empirical results of this study showed that RL influences employee outcomes such as organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. These findings raise significant concerns for organisations to hasten progressive changes within workplaces to promote RL practices. Stahl and De Luque (2014) specified the importance of preventing unethical behaviour for managers in workplaces and advised on the promotion of responsible behaviour through further training and education to achieve higher leadership outcomes. However, there has been much debate in the literature about whether leaders in organisations can be trained to become responsible leaders (House & Aditya, 1997). Regardless of the argument, leadership research and consulting practice have effectively focused on developing programs that can shape the effectiveness of individuals in leadership positions. For example, PwC's 'Project Ulysses' is an integrated service-learning program where individuals travel overseas to spend time working with NGOs, entrepreneurs and other small organisations in less developed countries to learn about RL (Waldman & Balven, 2015). The post-program survey provided evidence that this experience enhanced RL qualities among the participants, who can now promote RL in their organisations. Some large companies, such as IBM, Novo Nordisk, GlaxoSmithKline and Unilever, have applied similar programs to support their global corporate social responsibility (CSR) and sustainability strategy to promote RL for

their organisations (Googins et al., 2007; Caligiuri et al., 2013). Programs like Project Ulysses are inspiring examples of how to initiate and design training and development programs for managers to understand how RL can be learned and transferred to their organisations (Pless et al., 2011; Doh & Quigley, 2014).

It is also important for organisations to recognise how individual-level variables, such as personality traits, motives and values, may predict managers' propensity to engage in RL, particularly when recruiting, selecting, and promoting their employees. Several researchers have suggested that individual differences, including their traits and personal characteristics, are associated with leadership outcomes (Stogdill, 1963; Bass, 1990; Bennis, 1994). Hence, organisations may use personality tests and integrity tests (Scroggins et al., 2009) to determine which manager is more likely to act responsibly. Moreover, organisations may also consider managers' attitudes and values to determine whether they match the alignment of their corporate culture with RL, as candidates' formal credentials and job-related skills may not be the best predictors of their responsible behaviour (Stahl & De Luque, 2014). Hence, organisations need to implement RL by actively promoting responsible behaviour from their managers who play leadership roles and discouraging irresponsible acts. In addition, supporting training and development initiatives that use reward systems to increase moral awareness will hold managers (leaders) accountable for irresponsible behaviour (Crane & Matten, 2007). This thesis provides empirical evidence and contributes to leadership practitioners to introduce particular training and development programs for their managers to promote RL in workplaces.

The results of this thesis highlighted the significance of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions as mediators in the relationship between RL and presenteeism. It will be valuable for organisations to provide formal training to managers to apply their RL to enhance organisational commitment and reduce employee turnover intentions to achieve higher employee productivity. Researchers and practitioners acknowledge both organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions as significant factors in effective leadership results (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Salami & Omole, 2005), but there is a scarcity of empirical studies on RL and employees' behavioural outcomes. On the other hand, Doh et al. (2011) suggested that organisations that are enacting RL receive further advantages through higher levels of employee retention. Hence, this thesis provides help to managers in

incorporating strategic HRM with RL for higher employee outcomes, such as higher organisational commitment and reduced employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. For that to be successful, organisations need to align their existing leadership with RL attributes focusing on HR practices and stakeholder perceptions to support employees for in developing organisational commitment and lower employee turnover intentions.

6.6.2 Recognising presenteeism and implementing organisational strategies to recover losses from it

The results showed significant influences among RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. Organisations aiming to develop HR functions and leadership for higher employee outcomes can use the results of this thesis to implement employee wellbeing programs and managerial interventions to minimise presenteeism in workplaces. For example, organisations may employ health professionals to check employees' health conditions at work in a routine or non-routine manner to detect and forestall presenteeism. This will not only help managers to prevent presenteeism in workplaces, it may also provide employee satisfaction and support for employee wellbeing. Similarly, organisations focusing on higher employee outcomes should be aware of presenteeism and focus on RL to redesign job descriptions for managers so that employees feel and act more involved and are motivated and productive.

This thesis recommends that organisations recognise presenteeism and managers act supportively to show further concern for their employees' wellbeing. Organisations can redesign HR functions and departments to enhance their concern for presenteeism and support for employees' wellbeing. Employees who feel they can approach their bosses, colleagues and managers for both physical and emotional support are likely to experience a lower level of burnout and higher commitment (Sullivan, 1993). Hence, managers need to identify and examine presenteeism by fostering an environment of open communication among all employees within organisations to share and identify their wellbeing issues. There are several possible approaches to achieve this objective. It is essential to increase employees' formal and informal associations with managers to understand their expectations and let employees know they have the highest level of managerial support. For example, formal meetings can be organised to share ideas and involve employees in the decision-making process to prevent presenteeism. In addition, informal associations, such as get-togethers or family-friendly days

in workplaces, may also encourage employees to enhance their attachment with their managers for a more collegial work environment. Presenteeism in workplaces is not only the concern of employee wellbeing; it also has significant consequences for employee productivity and organisational profitability (Section 2.7). Hence, initiatives for redesigning existing leadership practices toward RL would help organisations achieve increased employee productivity and sustainable competitive advantage.

6.6.3 Encouraging managers to enhance organisational commitment and reduce employee turnover intentions in organisations

The results of this thesis provide practical implications that address HRM issues related to employee outcomes such as organisational commitment and turnover intentions. From an HRM perspective, it is important for organisations to manage employees' organisational commitment, as it influences their performance outcomes and turnover. Organisations should encourage and develop managers' abilities to practice RL to enhance organisational commitment and reduce employee turnover intentions. This could be achieved by conducting training or development programs to improve existing leadership roles concerning RL. In addition, organisations could create informal initiatives to develop employees' self-initiatives for higher organisational commitment. For example, organising informal get-togethers, helping employees to identify and share their work expectations, recognising organisational values and assessing work environments in which both organisational values and employees' expectation from managers' leadership can be aligned can empower employees to participate in decision-making and encourage informal convention and continuous feedback. Moreover, both these formal and informal engagements need to take into account the need to develop, create and redesign job responsibilities for greater RL outcomes, as these were found to be significant for employees' organisational commitment, turnover intentions and presenteeism in the current study. Therefore, encouraging employees' participation and allowing them to contribute to their work environment will reveal RL to enhance their self-esteem, and result in more organisational commitment and lower turnover intentions.

This thesis provides potential practical implications for organisations to enhance their employees' organisational commitment. By increasing organisational commitment, organisations could have a more positive and higher level of employee productivity and retention. For example, organisations may encourage a job-crafting approach to enhance

employees' organisational commitment in workplaces. Lyons (2008) described the notion of job crafting as the spontaneous changes made by employees to satisfy their personal needs and not necessarily the needs of the organisation. In other words, job crafting includes the ability to adjust employees' abilities and preferences with the current job to make it more satisfying, purposeful and meaningful through their own initiatives. Redesigning employees' jobs with job crafting provide an opportunity for them to shape their jobs in ways that would possibly change how employees do and think about their work, which in turn can improve related outcomes for organisational performance (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This approach increases control over employers and gives employers an indication of areas of weakness in the construction of job tasks. A possible procedure for this change would be as follows. First, organisations need to focus on the areas in the job that are weak and need crafting, such as the employee-manager and employee-employee relationships. After recognising the areas, the next step is to assess how crafting influences the work environment and stakeholders such as employees and clients, including managers providing leadership in the organisations. Second, organisations can then start to implement job-crafting responses in the workplace; for example, recognising clear expectations of employees' careers, tasks and roles, and encouraging their responsibility and development in work environment. Third, organisations need to continually observe whether the job-crafting approach is achieving its aims by obtaining feedback from employees and their managers. These crafting processes ensure the desired positive changes among employees, and organisations can include this approach as a potential practice in their job-redesigning programs to increase organisational commitment and reduce turnover intentions.

From the HRM perspective, the result of this thesis will benefit organisations to facilitate and enrich their initiatives for presenteeism and employee retentions. According to Mercer (2011), 40% of Australian employees were seriously considering leaving their organisation and searching for new jobs in the upcoming year. Hence, managers need to observe employees who are coming to work while ill and should build awareness among their staff about presenteeism. Organisations can design and organise particular training and workshops for employees' wellbeing to reduce presenteeism and enhance employee productivity. As a consequence, this will confirm a positive state of employee retention and reduce employees' turnover intentions. Researchers have shown that managerial support is a major element in reducing employee exhaustion and thus improving the retention rate for organisations

(Brunetto et al., 2010). The relationship between organisational commitment and presenteeism also has important managerial implications regarding overcommitment issues. Because, of the mediational effect organisational commitment has between RL even if employees are highly committed, the level of presenteeism will not necessarily decline, possibly because of overcommitment. Therefore, based on the results of this thesis, organisations should implement strategies that can facilitate their management of presenteeism for higher employee productivity, commitment and retention. For example, organisations may introduce designated leave for presenteeism with pay and encourage employees not to report to work when they have detected health conditions (Section 2.6.3). This strategy will not only signify leaders' attention on presenteeism, but also encourage employees to be under healthcare supervision to avoid productivity losses, thus leading to higher organisational commitment and reduced turnover intentions.

In this study, organisational commitment was examined with employee turnover intentions and observed as an important component for positive workplace outcomes. The findings of this study also provide further support to the results indicated by Erdheim et al. (2006). They suggest that organisational commitment should be included on the list of constructs that are thought to be related to employees' personality, because, as previous studies suggest, organisational commitment provides an attitudinal link in the relationship of employee personality and job search behaviours (Klein et al., 2009; Salgado, 2002; Zimmerman, 2008). The notion of job search behaviours is defined as the actions of an employee to generate job opportunities in other organisations (Swider et al., 2011). These job search behaviours include updating one's resume and attending job interviews for new employment (Blau, 1994). Employees with lower levels of commitment are more likely to leave their organisations (Meyer et al., 2002). Hence, organisational commitment is an important antecedent of job search behaviours, which are in turn highly related to actual employee turnover. Therefore, on the basis of the analysed results, this thesis recommends that organisations could incorporate selection procedures based on personality measures thought to induce high levels of organisational commitment and increase employee retention.

Finally, the findings of this thesis indicate the importance of RL and suggest that it can be effective for HRM policies that benefit organisations by achieving higher employee outcomes. The concern of presenteeism remains a continuing problem for Australian

economy. The total annual cost of presenteeism is estimated to be \$35.8 billion by 2050, which equates to a decrease in GDP of 2.8% (Medibank Ltd, 2011). Both the direct and indirect relationship between RL and presenteeism identified in the Medibank study provide organisations an opportunity to be aware, evaluate and reduce their future contribution to presenteeism levels. The results of the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions can help organisations understand the extent to which RL can influence higher employee productivity. From the thesis findings, organisational commitment is strongly related to employee turnover intentions. Organisations that aim to enhance employee retention should value highly committed employees. By recognising these relationships, organisations will be able to understand the importance of employees' psychological mechanisms to manage higher organisational commitment and lower intentions to quit the job.

6.7 Limitations of the study

Several limitations of this study are worth noting. This study analysed self-reported responses from Australian employees across various sectors. In the data-collection process, there is a chance of common method biasness (CMB) and socially desirable responses (SDR). The notion of CMB refers to the degree to which studied correlations among the variables are altered or inflated due to a methods effect (Meade et al., 2007). According to Podsakoff and Organ (1986), collecting information from a single source may be a limitation, because it may affect the explanations drawn about the relationship between variables. The concept of SDR is the tendency for participants to present a favourable image of themselves (Johnson & Fendrich, 2002). This study minimises the probability of CMB with SEM applications (Section 5.2). Researchers have attempted to create approaches for addressing CBM in SEM (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This study used the CFA test for discriminant validity and satisfied the 'goodness of fit' indices for the proposed relational model. As the SDR issues, this study included all participants' responses of the participants as anonymous, and every step was taken to ensure participants' privacy, and they had the freedom to discontinue their participation at any point of the survey. From the CMB perspective, it would be valuable for future researchers to further validate the results of this study by using various methodological techniques from multiple sources. For example, with a longitudinal approach, the studied model can be examined with employees and their direct managers or supervisors

simultaneously at a certain interval. Collecting the data anonymously will enhance the internal validity of the results to reduce SDR bias. This would provide superior depth and rigorous analysis of the results of the hypotheses examined in this study.

Another probable limitation in this study was related to the cross-sectional approach in data collection. The cross-sectional study, in contrast with a longitudinal approach, does not allow a higher degree of confidence (Hair et al., 2010). A longitudinal study refers to an investigation where participant outcomes or results are collected over multiple follow-up times (Van et al., 2004); such a design offers further confidence in the study results because of the replication of observations of the same variables over an expected period of time (Diggle et al., 2002; Sekaran, 2003). Therefore, it can be advised for future researchers to replicate findings of the study using a longitudinal analysis for at least two reasons. First, it permits more consistent and accurate explanations for the correlational influence of the constructs. Second, researchers can observe any change in the relational outcomes of the hypothesised model over different point of times to justify causal relationships in addition to correlational influence.

It would be worthwhile to note that the demographic characteristics of respondents were not included as control variables in this study. Several studies have shown that control variables in the demographic profile, such as age, gender, income and year of work experience influence the dependent variables and relational outcomes; for example, gender has been shown to influence to organisational commitment (Lee & Peccei, 2007; Dalgıç, 2014), employee turnover intentions (Blomme et al., 2010; Pao-Ling, 2013), leadership (Ming, 2010; Mujtaba et al., 2010) and presenteeism (Petri, 2009; Larson et al., 2009). Consideration of control variables in this study may give more robustness to external validation of the overall results. However, incorporating these demographic variables into the hypothesised model was beyond the purpose of this study, as it would have increased the complexity of the model to a point that it would have been likely to include numerous unidirectional paths, which in turn might affect the ‘goodness of fit’ indices for SEM. Therefore, it would be motivating for future researchers to consider some comparison between respondents and non-respondents with respect to participants’ demographic characteristics.

This research was conducted among a sample of Australian employees, and the results are valid for Australia, but may not be generalizable for employees in other countries. Generalisability for any research describes the extent to which research findings can be applied outside its own contextual setting (Altman & Bland, 1998). Moreover, concerns like the low response rate of the sample, the different definitions of RL and presenteeism, and different sample characteristics of the demographic profile might reduce the validity of attempts to generalise the findings of this study. To minimise these limitations and increase the generalisability of the thesis, a number of pre-emptive stages were taken in this study; for example, the selection of a heterogeneous sample; the sampling strategy applied in this study (Section 3.4); and the use of a professional company (Qualtrics, USA) to ensure variability in the collected data. It would be inspiring for future research to test the model of this study using a superior sample that represents additional demographic features.

This study applied a cross-sectional research design for its data collection and examined the correlational model with the selected variables. This relational study examined the influences among the variables of RL, organisational commitment, employee turnover intentions and presenteeism. A causal investigation may be viewed for cause and effect outcomes among the same variables. The cross-sectional research approach collects data at a given point in time, but limits inferences about causality (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Hence, the proposed model can also be tested as a causal model. Many researchers have suggested that a causal model is easier to examine in SEM, but interpretations for causality must be approached with further caution, as causality can be determined only through experimental design approaches (Grimm & Yarnold, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, for a better understanding of the relationships examined in this study, future research could be carried out using a causal study design approach.

Future researchers may choose to examine how Australian cultural attributes might affect the exercise of RL. For example, Hofstede (1984) suggested the categorisation of Australian culture as masculine, high in individualism, low in power distance, average in uncertainty avoidance and high in short-term orientation. Future researchers could use this characterisation and GLOBE study findings to examine the impact of each of the cultural attributes on how RL is enacted in the Australian context.

Finally, this thesis examined a relational model with eight hypotheses (Figure 4.1). It applied a quantitative method as its explanatory paradigm (deductive reasoning) and used correlational research techniques. This thesis did not attempt to answer the research question: ‘What is RL?’; rather, all the research questions were relationship-based (Section 4.2, page 107). Section 4.3 (page 107) provided the justifications for the methodological approach. To further extend the findings of the study, a number of qualitative techniques may be used in future research to examine the ‘how’ and ‘why’ aspects of the study findings. First, engaging the micro, meso and macro levels of organisations, a qualitative study may explore how the individual, organisational and social elements influence RL. Second, using qualitative methods, researchers may examine how organisational culture may influence the relationship between RL and employee outcomes. Third, the issue of overcommitment can also be examined using qualitative methods, particularly how overcommitment of employees can be managed. Finally, qualitative studies could be conducted across industries, cultures and regions to examine how contextual factors influence RL.

6.8 Recommendations for future research

This thesis benefits both practitioners and researchers of RL to understand its relational influence on employee outcomes, including presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The following future research opportunities and recommendations are provided to further advance the research into the topic.

This study applied SEM to test the direct and mediational relationships among the selected variables. As a tool, SEM generates parameter estimates that support the proposed hypothesised model (Figure 1.1); however, this evidence is not sufficient to establish any causal relationship among the studied variables, as SEM only predicts causality while emphasising mediation in any relational model, but cannot prove it (Bollen, 1989; James et al., 1982). Hence, this thesis cannot confirm the direction of causality regarding the different levels of influences of RL on presenteeism and the other two variables. In other words, this thesis cannot claim that RL can cause reduced presenteeism or employee turnover intentions and increased organisational commitment. Therefore, future research should test the applicability of the proposed model to infer causal relationships, and thus enrich the accuracy of the current study’s results. Moreover, the study applied a cross-sectional survey strategy to collect the data at a single point in time. This was an effective and time-saving approach to

examine the proposed models (Figure 1.1), and makes the study's results suitable as the basis for a longitudinal study. Hence, further research can advance the outcomes of this study by engaging a longitudinal methodology to understand whether the relationships found between variables in the studied model could change over periods of time. For example, the proposed model can be tested over specific periods of time to monitor managers' leadership performance for both employee and organisational outcomes. Therefore, future longitudinal research is encouraged to disclose the causal process of how RL may evolve over a specific period of time to influence employee outcomes.

The study results found partial mediation relationships for both organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism. The inclusion of other employee job-related variables may help to build a more comprehensive model for the relationship between RL and presenteeism. Future researchers, therefore, could focus on identifying other possible mediating or moderating variables to help further understand the underlying mechanisms that influence the nature of the direct relationships for RL and presenteeism. For example, mediators (e.g., trust in the manager) and moderators (e.g., work environment) may provide more rigorous future models, as these factors play a significant role in leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Yozgat et al., 2014; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). According to BlessingWhite (2008), only 28% of employees trust their managers at work, which suggests that this factor may play an important role in employee productivity. Similarly, the role of work environment as a moderator may improve the theoretical underpinnings of the literature and develop an additional process that may also help in applying RL to reduce presenteeism in organisations.

From the theoretical background of RL, the thesis focused on Responsible Leadership for Performance (RLP) as proposed by Lynham and Chermack (2006). The notion of RLP has offered an applicable model that addresses organisational leadership and focuses on both 'performance' and the conception of leaders' responsibility. This study is a further exploration of RLP to promote the influences of RL on three employee outcomes: presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. There are research opportunities further to extend RLP with additional organisational performance-related outcomes, such as return on investment, and employee performance outcomes, such as job satisfaction or turnover.

This thesis extends Voegtlin et al.'s (2012) micro-view of leadership from among multi-level views, such as micro, meso and macro-level of organisational outcome. Future researchers have the opportunity to explore the influence of RL on both the macro and meso-level also. For example, examining the influence of RL on the meso level to link organisational culture and performance, and on the macro level to link relations to external stakeholders (see Voegtlin et al., 2012, p.5). Therefore, researchers will be able to signify the outcome of RL from a broader perspective not only for internal employees but also for external stakeholders to help organisations to be more responsible in their business communities.

The notion of presenteeism is well examined in occupational health studies (Goetzel et al., 2004; Johns, 2010; Scuffham et al., 2014), but is relatively new in the field of HRM (Bing et al., 2003). Hence, it is important to increase the understanding of the factors that relate to presenteeism from HRM perspectives as it is significantly associated with employees' wellbeing and performance outcomes. In addition, it is also necessary to fill the gaps in the literature for presenteeism in HRM. Therefore, further research opportunities can explore more about the influence of presenteeism with other organisational and employee outcomes from HRM, such as return on investment, organisational effectiveness, employee engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour.

This study employed a cross-sectional and self-administered online survey research design to investigate the relational model in the Australian context. Hence, the results of the current study should be validated in other countries or cultural contexts to provide greater support for the outcomes of this study. For example, it could be worthwhile to validate the findings of this study by conducting a cross-comparative study with other nations that have some similar or different characteristics, such as in the European and Asian contexts. Moreover, as the current findings are from a Western context, future researchers may explore further research opportunities by addressing the question in non-Western cultures; for example, revalidating the dimensionality of RL and presenteeism in non-Western cultures or examining the mediational role of employee turnover intentions on the relationship between RL and presenteeism in a non-Western culture.

This thesis focused on the employee outcomes presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions from the employee's perspective on RL only. It is therefore

imperative for future studies to understand the different influences of other leadership styles on employee outcomes. Hence, other possible value-based leadership styles, such as transformational, ethical, situational, transactional or empowering leadership might be considered for the studied variables. Researchers have suggested further studies for RL and prioritised it over other value-based leadership approaches because of two reasons. First, the comparative studies would help in understanding the place of RL in the nomological network (see Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Second, this suggested comparison study would help to provide top management with a better understanding of how to develop training programs for managers to increase levels of productivity currently lost to presenteeism. This current study focused on the three variables for the proposed relational mode examining the relationship of RL, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions to presenteeism. Future research is desired to further explore how presenteeism might be affected from other HRM perspectives. This may include strategic HRM (Schuler & Jackson, 1987); flexible workplaces practices (Moen et al., 2011) and improve work engagement and life satisfaction (Grawitch & Barber, 2010).

6.9 Concluding remarks

This study has achieved its intended goal of examining the impact of RL on presenteeism among a sample of Australian employees including the mediational influences of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Specifically, the study provided evidence that employees' perception of their managers' RL responses is significantly related to the other three studied variables (presenteeism, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions), and also is important for employee productivity. Based on these findings, practitioners and scholars could continue to pursue an appropriate approach to understand the significance of RL for both employee and organisational performance. The development of this model was initially motivated by calls in the literature for research concerning RL (Maak, 2007), presenteeism (Aronsson et al., 2000; Johns, 2010; Brooks et al., 2010; Lack, 2011), organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and employee turnover intentions (Martin, 1979; Mobley, 1982; Moore, 2000; Blau et al., 2003). The results of the data analysis revealed substantial evidence that an RL approach minimises presenteeism and employee turnover intentions, and enhances organisational commitment. This study further enhanced the importance and utility of the relationship

between RL and presenteeism by highlighting two mediators to examine their indirect relationship, such as organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The direct relationship between RL on presenteeism was found to be partially mediated by employees' organisational commitment and turnover intentions. These results contributed to filling the significant gap in previous studies (Nyberg et al., 2008; Kuoppala et al., 2008; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Yukl, 2013; Kouppala et al., 2008).

The results of this study have confirmed the relationships in the proposed model for the sample of Australian employees. This thesis can now be used as a foundation for future research initiatives to extend the existing understanding of the variables examined in the study. Theoretically, one of the major contributions of this study was to understand how and why RL influences employees in workplaces for presenteeism, organisational commitment and turnover intentions. This study showed how employees' perception of RL is mediated with organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions for work-related outcomes (i.e., presenteeism). The results related to this study have filled an important gap in the literature and responded to previous calls (Maak, 2007; Nyberg et al., 2008) to further understand the nature of the influence of RL in organisational studies. Most significantly, the results and model presented in this thesis have provided several practical outcomes for both academics and managerial practitioners. This study has also provided a prescriptive model indicating how organisations configurations for managerial interventions can be optimised strategically to have a significant impact on employee performance. In conclusion, it is believed that organisations can build their capability by deploying effective training and development programs to promote RL, and by rearranging work environments to promote leader-employee relationships that prevent presenteeism, leading to higher organisational commitment and employee retention.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: University of Wollongong Human Resource Ethics Report, Study Invitation Letter and Online Survey

APPENDIX A-1: University of Wollongong Human Resource Ethics Report



In reply please quote: HE13/319

19 July 2013

Mr Amlan Haque
5/82A Smith Street
Wollongong NSW 2500
majh699@uowmail.edu.au;

Dear Mr Haque

Thank you for your response dated 17 July 2013 to the HREC review of the application detailed below. I am pleased to advise that the application has been approved.

Ethics Number: HE13/319
Project Title: Perceived responsible leadership and presenteeism: The mediating role of organisation commitment and employee turnover intention
Researchers: Mr Amlan Haque, Dr Mario Fernando, Dr Peter Caputi
Approval Date: 18 July 2013
Expiry Date: 17 July 2014

The University of Wollongong/Illawarra Shoalhaven Local Health District Social Sciences HREC is constituted and functions in accordance with the NHMRC *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. The HREC has reviewed the research proposal for compliance with the *National Statement* and approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with this document.

A condition of approval by the HREC is the submission of a progress report annually and a final report on completion of your project. The progress report template is available at <http://www.uow.edu.au/research/rso/ethics/UOW009385.html>. This report must be completed, signed by the appropriate Head of School, and returned to the Research Services Office prior to the expiry date.

As evidence of continuing compliance, the Human Research Ethics Committee also requires that researchers immediately report:

- proposed changes to the protocol including changes to investigators involved
- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants
- unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

Please note that approvals are granted for a twelve month period. Further extension will be considered on receipt of a progress report prior to expiry date.

If you have any queries regarding the HREC review process, please contact the Ethics Unit on phone 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Garry Hoban".

A/Professor Garry Hoban
Chair, Social Sciences
Human Research Ethics Committee

Ethics Unit, Research Services Office
University of Wollongong NSW 2522 Australia
Telephone (02) 4221 3386 Facsimile (02) 4221 4338
Email: rso-ethics@uow.edu.au Web: www.uow.edu.au

APPENDIX A-2: Invitation Letter

University of Wollongong



“Information Email”

Perceived responsible leadership and presenteeism: The mediating role of organizational commitment and employee turnover intention

You are invited to participate in a University of Wollongong research project conducted by me for my PhD thesis under the supervision of Associate Professor Mario Fernando and Associate Professor Peter Caputi. The study will examine the association between responsible leadership and presenteeism. Presenteeism is described as attending to work while being ill and “at work, but unable to work”, at least not up to the full capacity.

The main objective of this research is to examine the association between responsible leadership and presenteeism. Presenteeism is attending to work while being ill and “at work, but unable to work”, at least not up to the full capacity. The study will also explore the role of organizational commitment and employee turnover intention. Medibank Private (2011) has estimated that presenteeism is costing the Australian economy \$A 34.1 billion for 2009/10, which is 2.7% of the Gross Domestic Product. Hence, the findings of this study would contribute to an increased awareness of the influence of responsible leadership on presenteeism, and the role of organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Questionnaires have been designed to focus on the relationship between responsible leadership and presenteeism, and the variables of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Some sample questions from the survey are provided below.

- My organization takes ethics seriously (e.g., is committed to ethics training).
- My immediate manager leads by example.
- I felt hopeless about finishing certain work tasks, due to my depression/sadness/mental illness.
- I often think of quitting my current job.
- I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

If you agree to participate in the study, you can access the questionnaire by clicking on the following link which will be deemed as providing informed consent to participate in the study. However, the submitted surveys will be anonymous, you can discontinue your participation at any point of the survey but after the submission you will not be able to withdraw responses any more. This survey should take you approximately 25 minutes to complete.

http: [given link].....

Participants’ individual responses are voluntary and anonymous. The researchers will take every step necessary to ensure the privacy of participants. All the collected data will be kept in password protected personal laptops and only the researchers will have access to it. Only aggregate information will be presented in the final thesis and published in journal articles and conference papers. For the further enquiries about this research, you can contact any one from following researchers:

APPENDIX A-2: Invitation Letter (contd.)

Amlan Haque: Contact No.: 0451127779; Email: majh699@uow.edu.au

Associate Professor Mario Fernando: Contact No.: 02 4221 4053; Email: mariof@uow.edu.au

Associate Professor Peter Caputi: Contact No.: 02 4221 3717; Email: pcaputi@uow.edu.au

Possible risks, inconveniences and discomforts:

Apart from the 25 minutes of your time, we foresee no risks for you. Your involvement in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw your participation from the study at any time, and withdraw any data you provided to that point. Refusal to participate in the study will not affect your relationship with the University of Wollongong or any of its agencies.

Funding and benefit of the research:

This study is funded by an Endeavour Postgraduate Award. The findings of this study would contribute to an increased awareness of the influence of leadership on presenteeism, and the role of organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Ethics review and complaints:

This study has been reviewed by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Social Science, Humanities and Behavioural Science) at University of Wollongong. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the way this research has been conducted, you can contact the UOW Ethics Officer on (02) 4221 3386 or email rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Thank you for your interest in this study.

Yours sincerely,

Md. Amlan Jahid Haque

The School of Management, Operations and Marketing (SMOM)

University of Wollongong

NSW 2522, AUSTRALIA

Email: majh699@uow.edu.au

APPENDIX A-3: Online Survey

SECTION ONE: Screening and Demographic Questions

Screening questions:

Q1. Employment status in Australia:

- Full time employee
- Part time employee

Q2. Your age is 18 or above:

- Yes
- No

Demographic Questions:

Please specify what most suits your situation by using the following options:

Q1. Gender:

- Male
- Female

Q2. Age:

- 18-25 years
- 26-35 years
- 36-45 years
- 46-55 years
- 56-65 years
- 66+ years

Q3. Marital status:

- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Separated
- Never been married
- In a de facto relationship

Q4. What is your personal annual income after tax?

- Under \$20,000
- Between \$20,000 and \$40,000
- Between \$40,001 and \$70,000
- Between \$70,001 and \$100,000
- Between \$100,001 and \$150,000
- Greater than \$150,001

Q5. Please report an estimate of your household annual income after tax:

- Under \$20,000
- Between \$20,000 and \$40,000
- Between \$40,001 and \$70,000
- Between \$70,001 and \$100,000
- Between \$100,001 and \$150,000
- Greater than \$150,001

Q6. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Primary school
- High school or equivalent
- Vocational/technical school
- Some college/ university
- Bachelor degree
- Master degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (Doctor of Medicine, Juris Doctor, etc.)
- Other (please specify) _____

Q7. Your job title:.....

Q8. What is your work position in the organisation?

- Unskilled Worker
- Skilled Worker
- Team Leader
- Executive
- Manager
- Director
- General Manager
- Chief Executive Officer
- Other (please specify) _____

Q9. How many years have you been working for your organisation? If less than a year please indicate number of months: _____

Q10. On average, how many hours do you work per week?

- <10 hours
- 10–19 hours
- 20–29 hours
- 30–39 hours
- 40–49 hours
- 50–59 hours
- 60–69 hours
- ≥70 hours

Q11. In which sector is your organisation?

- Financial sector
- Telecom sector
- Health sector
- Don't know
- Other (please specify)_____

Q12. Including you, how many employees work at your organisation site?

- 1
- 2-4
- 5-9
- 10-19
- 20-99
- 100-499
- 500+
- Don't know

Q13. How long has your superior (your reporting manager) been in his/her work position?

- Less than 1 year
- 2-4 years
- 5-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- Over 21 years

Q14. Please choose one of the following options that best describes your appraisal rating over the last year. I have received:

- The highest rating
- The equivalent of very good
- An average rating
- The equivalent of needs improvement
- A poor rating
- No rating
- Prefer not to say

Q15. Have you had an illness that prevented you from attending work?

- Yes
- No

Q16. Why did you attend your work despite the illness (physical or mental) during last month? (Please check all that apply)

- Did not want to increase workload of others
- There would not have been a replacement available
- Felt that there would have been an increased burden of work once returned
- Not sick enough
- Pressure from work
- Money/financial stresses
- Sick leave had been used up (no more sick days)
- Concerns about job security
- Other (please specify)_____

SECTION TWO: Questions for the variables studied in the thesis:

RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP:

The following questions ask you for your views of responsible leadership. It focuses on particular responses of the managers' responsible leadership approach towards the stakeholder or different interest groups (e.g., customers and community), human resource practices and managerial support of the organisation.

Table A-1: Questions for the scale of RL

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. This organisation takes an active role in its community.							
2. This organisation takes ethics seriously (e.g., is committed to ethics training).							
3. This organisation responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders (e.g., employees, investors, government or its agencies, owners or shareholders, suppliers, unions, and the community).							
4. This organisation takes corporate social responsibility seriously (e.g., has a clear policy that reflects its commitment to one or more social causes).							
5. Our performance appraisal programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.							
6. Our compensation programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.							
7. Our organisation believes that all employees deserve to be actively managed as talent.							
8. Our organisation's program (e.g., training or workshops) for high potentials helps in talent retention.							
9. The company has a formal "high potential" program (e.g., training and development for team building or enhancing leadership skills etc.)- people know what they need to do to get into it and to advance within it.							
10. My immediate manager leads by example.							
11. My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well.							
12. My immediate manager is effective.							
13. My immediate manager is good at developing people.							

PRESENTEEISM:

Presenteeism is attending to work while being ill. It refers to the situation when you are at work, but unable to work, at least not up to full capacity. The following questions ask your work experiences in the last month. A total of 13 health conditions have been considered for presenteeism and they are: Stress, Insomnia/poor sleep, Neck and/or back pain, Cold, Headache, Depressed mood, Allergies/hay fever, Digestive problems, Arthritis, High blood pressure, Influenza, Asthma and Diabetes.

PRESENTEEISM (SPS-6):

Table A-2: Questions for the scale of presenteeism

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Because of the above mentioned health condition(s) the stresses of my job were much harder to handle.					
2. Despite having the above mentioned health condition(s), I was able to finish hard tasks in my work.					
3. The above mentioned health condition(s) distracted me from taking pleasure in my work.					
4. I felt hopeless about finishing certain work tasks, due to the above mentioned health condition(s)					
5. At work, I was able to focus on achieving my goals despite the above mentioned health condition(s).					
6. Despite having the above mentioned health condition(s), I felt energetic enough to complete all my work.					

EMPLOYEE TURNOVER INTENTIONS:

Table Turnover Intentions: The following questions ask about your intentions and motivations to leave the organisation.

Table A-3: Questions for the scale of employee turnover intentions

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job soon.					
2. I often think of quitting my current job.					
3. I will probably look for a job in the near future.					

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Organisational commitment is a psychological state that binds an employee to an organisation; the following questions ask about organisational commitment.

Table A-3: Questions for the scale of employee turnover intentions

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.					
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.					
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.					
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation.					
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation.					
6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
7. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.					
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.					
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.					
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.					
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.					
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.					
15. I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now.					
16. This organisation deserves my loyalty.					
17. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
18. I owe a great deal to my organisation.					

**APPENDIX B: The Assumptions of Violation for Testing Direct and Indirect Influences
of the Hypotheses**

Testing the Assumptions of Violation hypotheses testing

Test of Normality: the Shapiro-Wilk (W) test was applied with the rule of thumb, if W test are statistically non-significant (significant alpha > .05) then the null hypothesis of normal distribution will be rejected and concluded that there is a normal distribution. These values indicate that there was no major violation of the assumption of normality. Therefore, all the data are approximately normally distributed.

Table B1: Results of Shapiro-Wilk test to assess normality

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Responsible Leadership	.976	200	.002
Organisational Commitment	.980	200	.006
Employee Turnover Intentions	.914	200	.000
Presenteeism	.980	200	.006

Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test of Multicollinearity: In addition to the correlation test presented in Table 4.11, the Tolerance value (TOL) and Variance inflation factor (VIF) were applied to check the assumption of multicollinearity (see Table B2). According to Meyers et al. (2006), a VIF value above 10 or a TOL value less than 0.10 are commonly used as cut-off points for determining the presence of multicollinearity. The value of VIF, and TOL below found that the assumption of multicollinearity is not violated for this study.

Table B2: TOL and VIF values of the relationship between RL, organisational commitment, and employee turnover intentions with the dependent variable

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Responsible Leadership	.625	1.600
Organisational Commitment	.540	1.853
Employee Turnover Intentions	.536	1.864

Dependent Variable: presenteeism

Test of linearity and homoscedasticity: Both assumptions were evaluated through visual observation of scatterplots. A visual examination of the bivariate scatterplots displayed that the relationships between the study variables formed relatively straight and linear lines, which was indicative of no violations of linearity. In addition, for homoscedasticity, the same observation of the bivariate scatterplots showed a general oval shape. This specified no violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity. Histogram, scatterplots and normal P-P plot are directed for presenteeism. Specifically, Figure B-1, Figure B-2 and Figure B-3 represent the Histogram, scatterplots and normal P-P plots test for independent variables with Presenteeism.

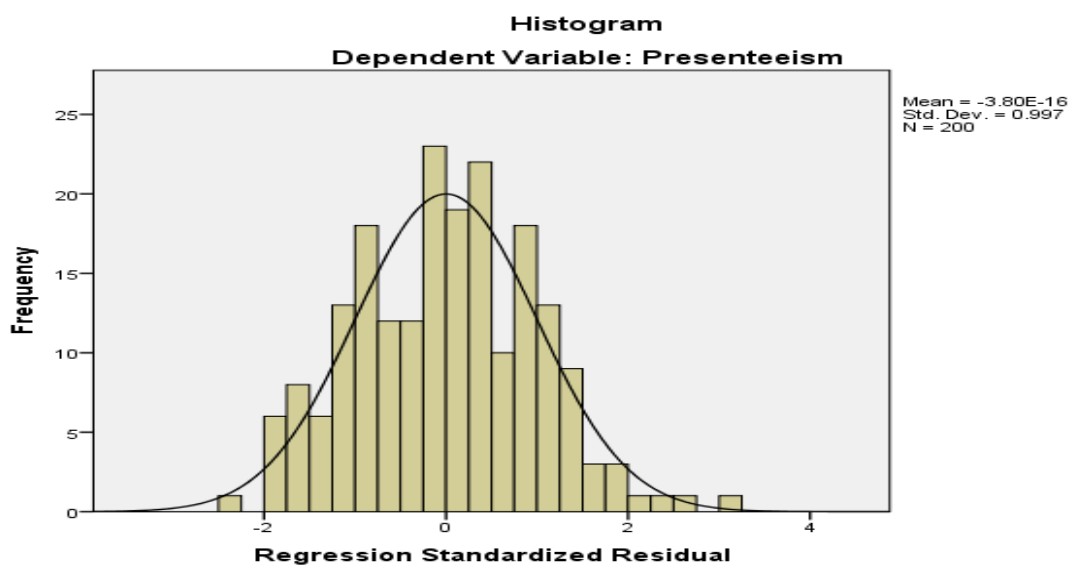
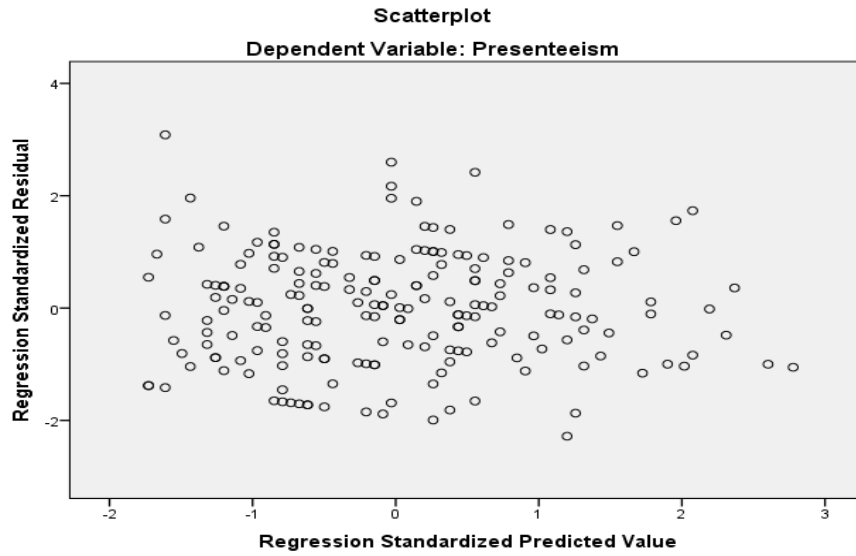


Figure B-1: Histogram of independent variables with presenteeism



16Figure B-2: Scatter plots of independent variables with presenteeism

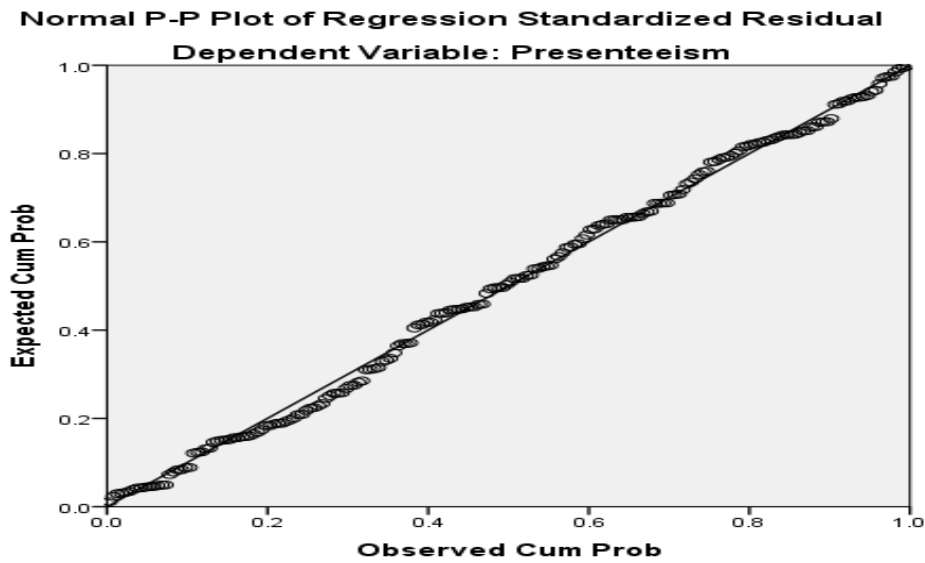


Figure B-3: Results of P-P plots of independent variables with presenteeism

APPENDIX C: Further Secondary Analysis of the Variables Examined in this Study

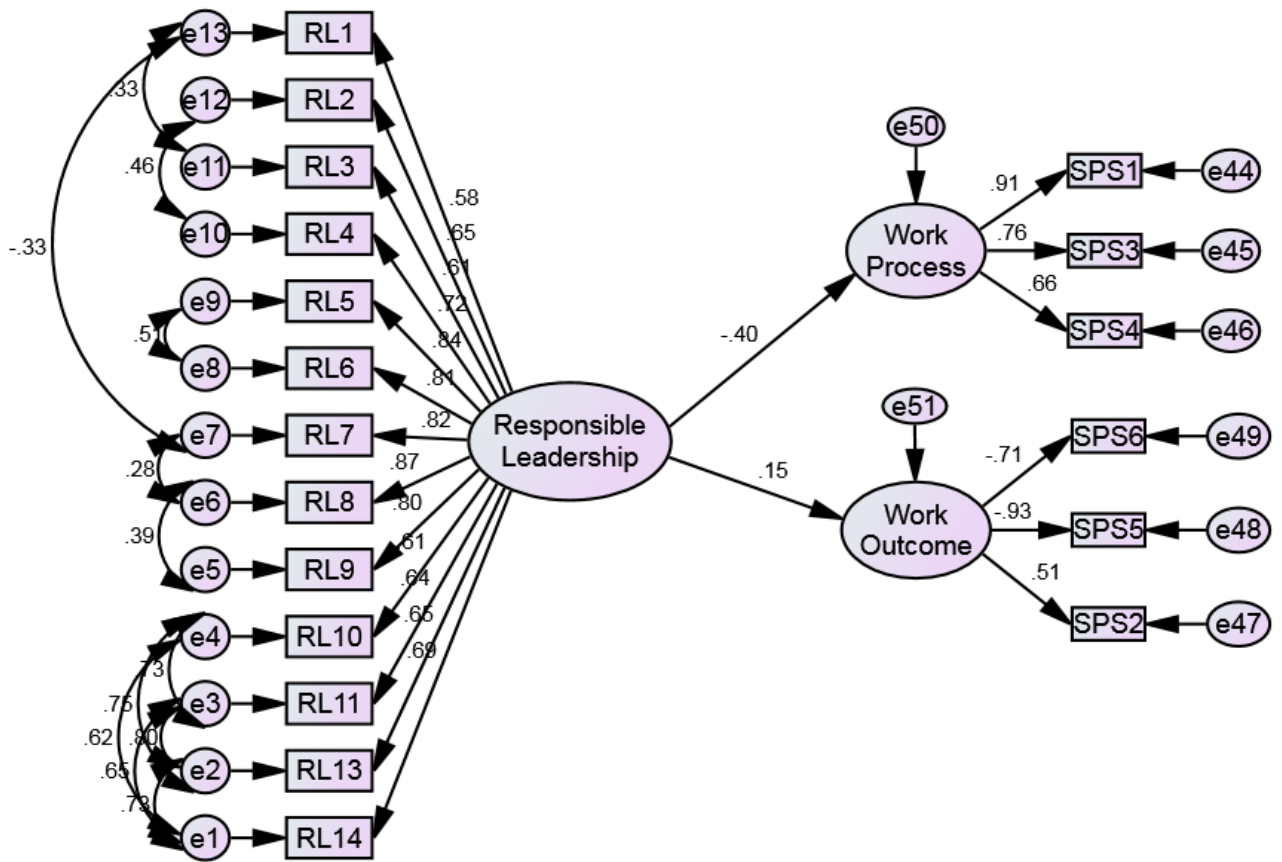


Figure C-1: β estimates of the relationship between RL and the subscales of presenteeism (work process and work outcomes) with : $\chi^2 = 349.391$, $\chi^2/df = 2.532$, GFI = .85, AGFI = .79, CFI = .93, TLI = .91, NFI = .87, RMSEA = .088, and SRMR = .0890.

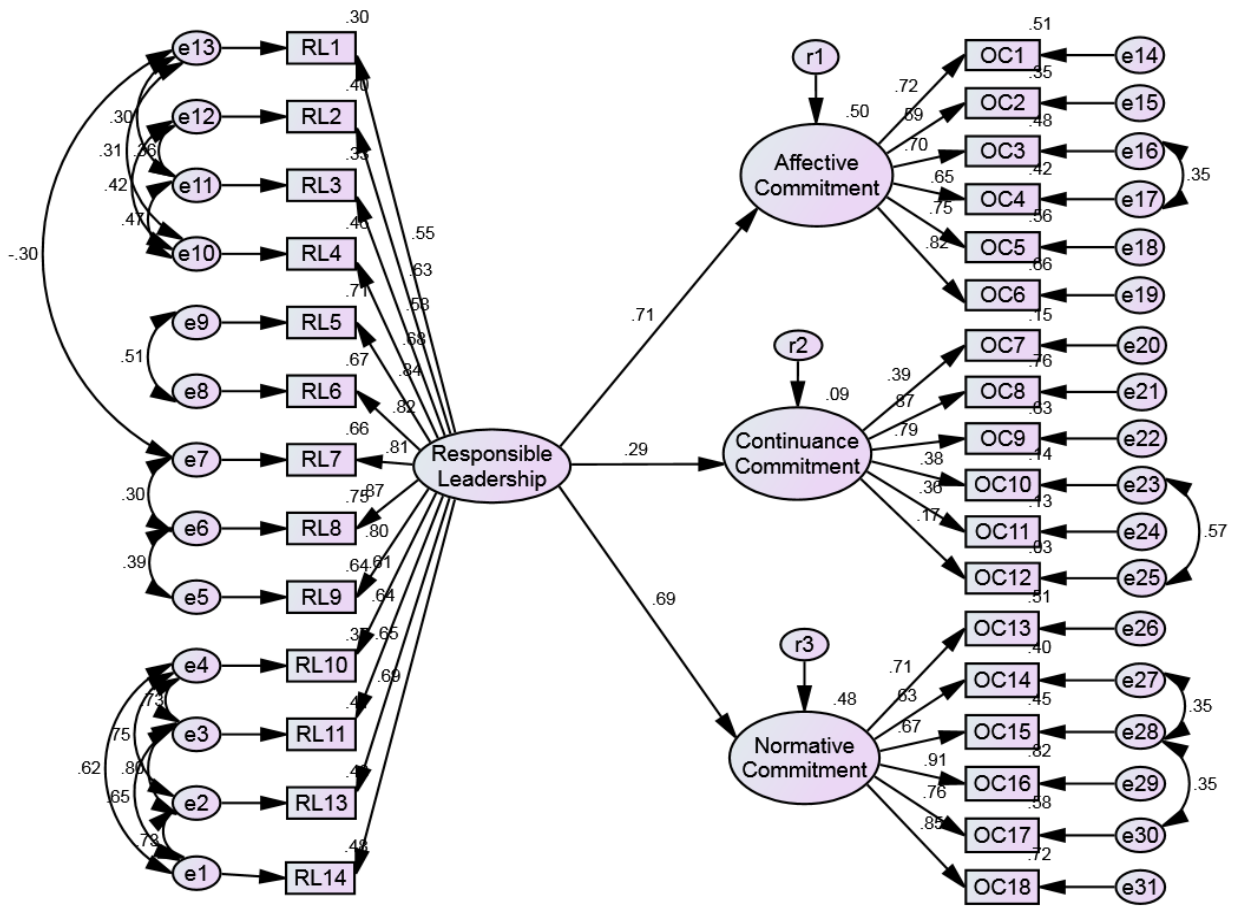


Figure C-2: β estimates of the relationship between RL and the subscales of OC: affective, continuance & normative commitment with: $\chi^2 = 750.868$, $\chi^2/df = 1.822$, GFI = .81, AGFI = .77, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, NFI = .84, RMSEA = .064, and SRMR = .1060.

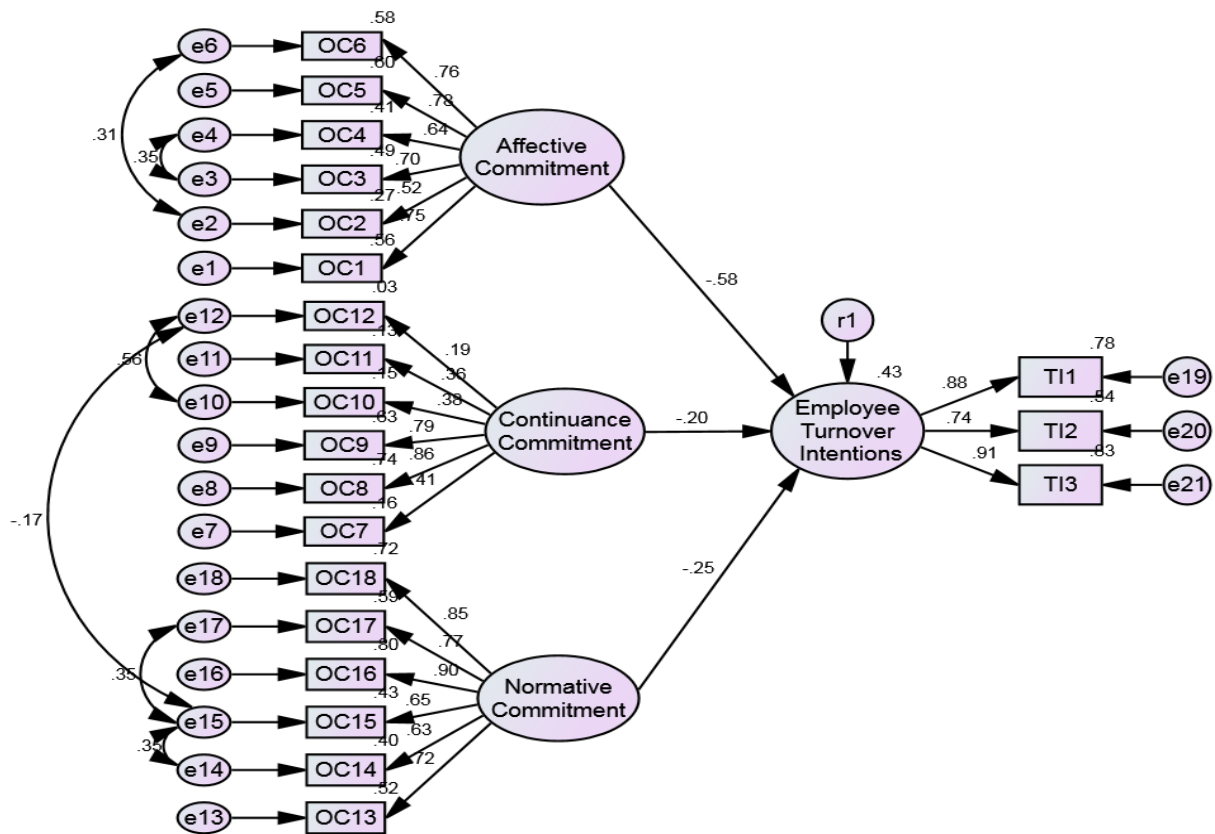


Figure C-3: The results of β estimates of the relationship between three components of OC and employee turnover intentions with: $\chi^2 = 599.407$, $\chi^2/df = 3.330$, GFI = .88, AGFI = .74, CFI = .83, TLI = .80, NFI = .77, RMSEA = .108 and SRMR = .2496.

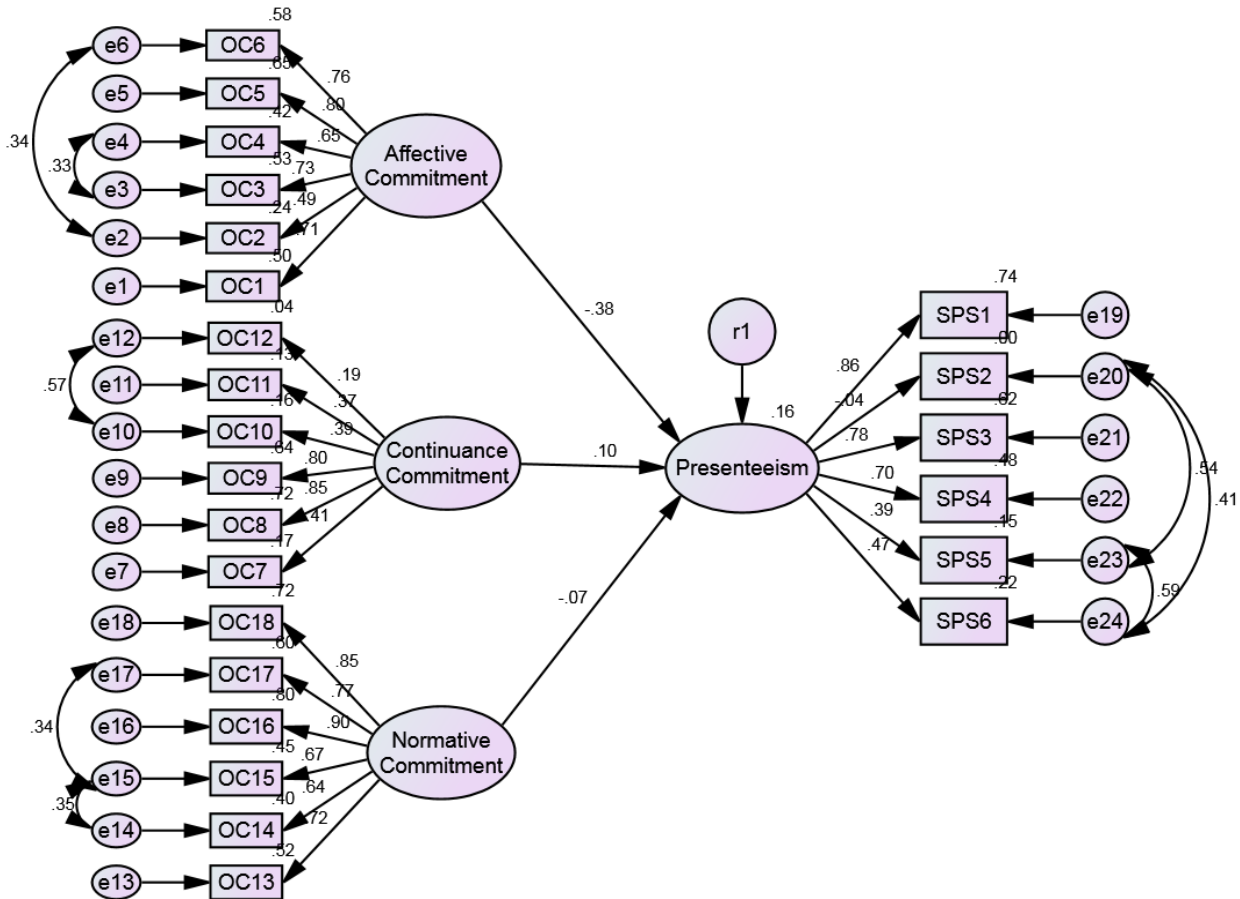


Figure C-4: β estimates of the relationship among affective, continuance, and normative commitment and presenteeism with: $\chi^2 = 675.978$, $\chi^2/df = 2.805$, GFI = .80, AGFI = .75, CFI = .82, TLI = .79, NFI = .75, RMSEA = .095 and SRMR = .2087.

Table C-1: Correlation matrix among the three components of organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Affective Commitment	1			
2. Continuance Commitment	.067	1		
3. Normative Commitment	.770**	.181*	1	
4. Employee Turnover Intentions	-.654**	-.119	-.603**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table C-2: Correlation matrix among the three components of organisational commitment and presenteeism

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Affective Commitment	1			
2. Continuance Commitment	.067	1		
3. Normative Commitment	.770**	.181*	1	
4. Presenteeism	-.273**	-.128	-.186**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).