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**Quel est le rôle des différentes cibles de reconnaissance dans le processus de retrait?**

**par**

**Dimitri Ressin**

**Sciences de la gestion**

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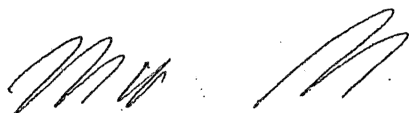
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## **QUEL EST LE RÔLE DES DIFFÉRENTES CIBLES DE RECONNAISSANCE DANS LE PROCESSUS DE RETRAIT?**

**Dimitri RESSIN**

### **SUMMARY**

Les comportements de retraite tels que l'absentéisme et le roulement sont indéniablement des problèmes importants pour les organisations. Il est déjà connu que ces deux phénomènes sont en croissance dans les entreprises et peuvent entraîner des coûts annuels de plusieurs millions de dollars. Malgré l'existence de plusieurs variables qui peuvent influencer les comportements de retraite, dans cette étude nous nous sommes principalement intéressés aux effets possibles des différentes sources de reconnaissance sur l'intention de quitter, l'absentéisme et le roulement. Notre recherche s'appuie sur des données recueillies auprès de 221 employés d'un hôpital dans la grande région de Montréal. Dans cette étude, on propose des liens directs entre cinq sources de reconnaissance non-monétaire et l'intention de quitter ainsi que les effets indirects avec l'absentéisme et le roulement volontaire. On postule que l'intention de quitter agira comme variable médiatrice dans la relation entre la reconnaissance non-monétaire (organisation, superviseur, collègues, médecin, bénéficiaires) et que l'absentéisme agira à son tour comme variable médiatrice entre l'intention de quitter et le roulement volontaire. De plus, nous avons cherché à identifier les effets de modération entre les différentes sources de reconnaissance et l'intention de quitter. En outre, cette recherche constitue une des rares études qui a cherché à appliquer l'approche multifoci à la reconnaissance.

Les résultats obtenus suggèrent que les différentes sources de reconnaissance tant individuellement que combinées, s'avèrent des variables importantes pour réduire le roulement dans les hôpitaux. Deux de cinq sources de reconnaissance (organisation et

superviseur) ont un effet direct négatif sur l'intention de quitter et une des sources de reconnaissance, (reconnaissance superviseur), a un effet négatif indirect sur le roulement réel. Quant aux trois autres sources de reconnaissance, celles-ci n'ont pas affichées de lien significatif avec l'intention de quitter, lorsque utilisées seules. Néanmoins, leurs interactions se sont avérées significatives avec l'intention de quitter. En ce qui a trait aux relations entre la reconnaissance et absentéisme, à l'exception d'une faible corrélation entre la reconnaissance organisationnelle et l'absentéisme, aucun lien significatif n'a été observé dans cette étude, ce qui nous laisse croire que l'absentéisme répond à une logique de retrait différente de celle du roulement. Par conséquent, les résultats de notre étude suggèrent que l'absentéisme et le roulement sont des phénomènes bien différents.

Cette recherche sert de rappel aux entreprises qu'il ne faut surtout pas sous-estimer les bénéfices qu'elles peuvent retirer des pratiques de reconnaissance non-monétaire. Notre étude illustre clairement que la reconnaissance peut faire diminuer le roulement volontaire et donc les organisations ont tout intérêt à créer une culture de reconnaissance dans leur milieu de travail. Il faut noter que notre étude s'est penchée seulement sur les effets de la reconnaissance sur le roulement volontaire, mais selon certains auteurs d'autres effets favorables peuvent naître d'une culture de reconnaissance dont, entre autres, la hausse de productivité, un meilleur climat de travail, un accroissement de la performance et une diminution de stress (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003).

**Mots Clés :** absentéisme, absences, roulement, intention de quitter, rétention, reconnaissance non-monétaire, récompense, secteur de la santé, multifoci, médiation, modérations, régression.



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## INTRODUCTION

There are two things people want more than sex and money: recognition and praise

Mary Kay Ash, founder, Mary Kay

In the last few decades, withdrawal behaviours have become a serious problem for organizations (Hemingway & Smith, 1999, p.285). According to Gupta and Jenkins, employee withdrawal can be viewed as a “volitional response to perceived aversive conditions, designed to increase the physical and/or psychological distance between the employee and the organization” (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396). When defined this way, many attitudes and behaviours such as estrangement, lateness, low involvement, and presenteeism can be considered manifestations of withdrawal. However, by far, the most studied withdrawal behaviours are absenteeism and turnover (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396; Gupta & Beehr, 1978, p.74; Topchick, 2005, p.59).

With regards to absenteeism, its rate has been rising steadily in the past decade, going to 6.6 days per full-time employee in 2008-2009 which is the highest point since the Conference Board of Canada began surveying employee absences 20 years ago—from 5.7 days in 2000-2001 (Ling, 2010, p.1). In fact, Canada’s absenteeism rate is higher than the five days per employee reported by both the U.S. and the U.K. (Ling, 2010, p.1). But absenteeism rates seem to vary across industries (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.76). Particularly, in the healthcare sector, absenteeism of front-line caregivers is of an increasing concern and a costly problem for hospital employers (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.312). The Canadian Institute of Health Information (2005) reports that on average, healthcare professionals are 1.5 times more likely to be absent from work because of illness or injury compared to other occupations (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.313). In addition, statistics show that on average, days lost per year for Canadian health professionals range anywhere from 12 to 15 days. (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009,

p.313). Also, Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook and Lo explain that a nurse that makes \$28 an hour, works 40 hours a week, and calls in sick six times in a year, would cost the organization \$1344.00 (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.313). Moreover, these same authors add that to replace a nurse at double time, in case overtime rates for replacement are required, would cost the organization \$2688, with the total cost of \$4032 (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.313). Finally, to replace 50 caregivers who are absent six times in a year would cost the organization approximately \$201,600 (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.313). Based on this information, it is not astonishing that authors such as Taunton, Hope, Woods and Bott, declare that unscheduled absences of caregivers contribute to decreased continuity and quality of patient care and strained organizational budgets (Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p.217).

With respect to turnover, the statistics are not more encouraging. The Bureau of National Affairs and the Wall Street Journal (1998) place turnover in North America at a 10-year high whereas the U.S. Bureau of Labour (2000) statistics point to the fact that an average worker stays at his job less than three and a half years (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.16). In Canada, the annual turnover rate is around 14.8 percent (Belcourt, Bohlander & Snell, 2008, p. 93). However, as with absenteeism, turnover rates tend to differ from one economic sector to another. For example, in Canada, turnover rate ranges from a low 6.7 percent in the transportation sector to a high of 35.9 percent in the retail sector (Belcourt, Bohlander & Snell, 2008, p. 93). In the health care sector, organizations are facing unprecedented shortages of nurses, physicians, specialists and other caregivers (Angermeier, Dunford, Boss, Boss & Miller, 2009, p.4). According to a recent study, Canada will experience a shortage of 113,000 registered nurses by 2016 (Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p.739). Furthermore, a 2001 study conducted in the United States, Canada, England and Germany, showed that 22 percent of nurses planned to leave their job in the coming year (Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p.740). It seems clear that the turnover of caregivers adversely impacts healthcare costs and the quality of care being given

(Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p.740). Typically, according to Hayes, O'Brien Pallas and Duffield (2006), cited by Rondeau, Williams and Wager, financial costs associated with replacing departing caregivers can range from \$10,000 USD to \$ 60,000 USD per registered nurse depending on the nurse specialty (Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p.740). Other authors such as Strachota, Normandin, Clary, O'Brien and Krukow (2003), also referenced by Rondeau, Williams and Wager, cite a cost of \$42,000 USD to replace a medical/surgical nurse and \$64,000 USD to replace a specialty nurse (Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p.740).

So how do organizations go about solving personnel problems such as absenteeism and turnover? For many, the solution lies in monetary compensation. According to Half, money is and always has been a powerful retention tool (Half, 1996, p.14). The logic here is that companies that place too many restrictions on salary and bonuses risk losing good people who might otherwise stay if their current employer could match the offers they have been receiving from competitors (Half, 1996, p.14). This is why companies give employees what they say they want—large salaries, bonuses and stock options (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.12). In agreement with Half, Willis (2000) claimed that compensation is the most critical issue when it comes to keeping talents (Willis, 2000, p.20). For Parker and Wright (2000), this causes some companies to provide compensation packages that are well above the market rate to retain critical talents (Parker & Wright, 2000). There are even studies such as the one realized by McShulskis in 1997, cited by Appelbaum and Kamal, in which the latter discovered that while 80 percent of employees rated their organization as the best place to work, 40 percent would quit in order to obtain only marginally higher pay (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000, p.739). Likewise, Appelbaum and Kamal emphasize on the fact that employers that do not analyse the indirect impact of negative employee attitudes towards pay beyond the immediately observable effect to the bottom line, suffer the consequences in the form of increased absenteeism and higher turnover rates (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000, p.739). Addressing withdrawal behaviour through the use of financial rewards is prevalent in the healthcare sector. For example, when

physicians in a major metropolitan area in the Southeastern United States, were asked for recommendations concerning specific improvements that could be made, nine out of thirteen physicians stated that the hospitals needed to increase nurse satisfaction via better salaries (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.2). Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds note that for years, management including hospital boards, administrators and physicians has always thought that the way to solve most personnel problems is to throw more money at them (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.2).

There is no doubt that in order to successfully retain employees, companies should offer them competitive pay and benefits (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.13). Employees' needs start with ensuring that salaries are sufficient in providing the basic necessities for themselves and their families (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000, p.758). Nonetheless, for most of us, once we are able to meet our monthly expenses, our attention turns to other factors that have much greater significance in our work lives (Nelson, 1996, p.66). This same idea was expressed by Hart, the CEO of Rideau Inc. Hart stated that "there is no doubt that employees want to be recognized for their work, and while cash is always good, it's not everything" (Holloway, 2006, p.1). Macdonald makes a similar point when he states that regardless of the industry, employees have similar needs, and they do not begin and end with salary and bonuses (Macdonald, 2003, p.17). Hence, there is no reason to believe that this type of thinking cannot apply to the caregiver population. In fact, in a study conducted by O'Donovan in 1983, cited by Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds, although compensation was a primary factor affecting job satisfaction, few caregivers actually left their profession for this reason only (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.5). Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds assert that it is simply foolish for administrators to assume that by only paying caregivers larger salaries, they will always retain the best personnel (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.5). Their conviction is that by giving higher wages and more benefits alone, the administrators will not be able to completely solve the nursing shortage (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.5). McCoy also shares these authors' perspective. She does not believe that an increased pay alone can retain



a nurse either (McCoy, 2011, p.3). Furthermore, a research by Alpander (1990) and Robins (1993), cited by Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds, indicated that after an adequate level of income is attained, caregivers rank feelings about job related matters, being treated as an integral part of the team and having responsibility for work outcomes as equally important (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.2).

So if the use of monetary compensation to combat absenteeism and turnover is not effective, what is? For many authors, the solution lies in nonmonetary recognition. Gostick and Elton refer to it as “the missing piece in the puzzle of employee retention” (Gostick & Elton 2001, p.7). According to the latter, recognition is the most powerful strategy a company can employ to achieve better business results and retain the best people (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.16). This recognition can be both formal such as employee of the month or top sales award programs, and informal such as social recognition that includes acknowledgment, attention, praise, approval, a genuine appreciation of work done from one individual or group to another and performance feedback ( Peterson & Luthans, 2006, p.275). The delivery of recognition allows employees to realize that they are noticed whereas the feedback allows employees to know how they are doing (Peterson & Luthans, 2006, p.275). A survey conducted by the Society of Human Resource Management showed that while many companies compete for the best employees with pay, promotions and other enticements, 79% percent of employees who leave their jobs do so because of a lack of recognition or appreciation (Gostick & Elton, 2010, p.24). Similarly, another survey of executives conducted by Robert Half International confirmed the importance of recognition in employee retention. The survey showed that the number one reason employees leave organizations today is due to limited recognition and praise for the work they do which was ranked higher than all other responses, including inadequate compensation, limited authority, and personality conflicts (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p.7). Likewise, some studies indicate that employees who feel recognized are almost three times more likely to stay with their employer than peers who feel unappreciated (Gostick & Elton, 2010, p.31).

Another interesting fact comes from a noted researcher Dr. Sullivan. According to the latter, companies that recognize their employees will often have turnover rates of 4 percent or less (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.85). A real-world example of the effects of recognition on turnover is provided by Yaeger (1998), cited by Luthans (Luthans, 2000). In this particular situation, Dierbergs Markets implemented a formal recognition and feedback program. As a result, turnover has almost been cut in half over a six year period—from 50 percent to 28 percent (Luthans, 2000, p.35). The relationship between absenteeism and recognition has also been well documented in the literature. Nelson and Spitzer explain that when employees are thanked and valued for the work that they do, they actually begin to look forward to coming to work. Consequently, absenteeism declines (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p.xxiii). A real-world example of the effects of recognition on absenteeism is provided by Boyle (1996), cited by Luthans (Luthans, 2000). In this particular situation, Diamond International Corporation, since formalizing their employee recognition program has experienced a 48 percent decrease in absenteeism (Luthans, 2000, p.35).

In the healthcare sector, recognition for their work is also highly valued by caregivers in terms of respect and rewards received for their job (Schalk, Bijl, Halfens, Hollands & Cummings, 2010, p.3). Rad and De Moraes specify that recognition and respect are highly important especially for employees who are in direct contact with patients, patients' relatives, peers and other healthcare team members (Rad & De Moraes, 2009, p.61). Coulter (1991), cited by Hurst, Croker and Bell, suggested that the primary source of discontent in caregivers is lack of recognition (Hurst, Croker & Bell, 1994, p.2). Also, Donovan (1980) noted that lack of individual recognition has been ranked as one of the top ten most worrisome problems faced by the caregivers (Donovan, 1980, p.27). The caregivers' good work is often overlooked while infrequent errors are remembered forever (Hurst, Croker & Bell, 1994, p.2). In fact, close to thirty-eight percent of caregivers claim that lack of recognition constitutes a crucial problem and almost 56 percent of caregivers claim that no feedback on

matters concerning them constitutes a crucial problem (Donovan, 1980, p.27). As well, Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds mention the lack of recognition and status felt by caregivers (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.6). Helmer and McKnight (1989), cited by Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds, explain that this problem is evident in the nurse/physician relationship. The problem is that unfortunately, many physicians still view nurses as subordinates and continue to give orders, without considering a possibility of a give and take communication (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.6). A more concrete example of the effects of recognition on turnover in the health industry comes from Detroit area Mount Clemens General Hospital. After implementing a recognition program that awarded employees with a Strength of Purpose Award for superior patient care that demonstrated compassion, one of the hospital's core values, the hospital saw their employee turnover rate cut in half and bed vacancy rate become among the lowest in the region (Gostick & Elton, 2010, p.66).

Overall, there is a plethora of theoretical articles and books on the positive effects of recognition on both turnover and absenteeism, demonstrating that recognition contributes to the reduction of these more often than not undesirable phenomena. These include articles and books by St-Onge, Haines, Rousseau and Lagassé, 2005; Laval, 2008; Nelson and Spitzer, 2003; Gostick and Elton, 2001, 2010; Luthans, 2000; Brun and Cooper, 2009 among others. Yet, when it comes to finding empirical articles investigating the relationship between recognition, absenteeism and turnover, these appear to be much rarer in occurrence. In fact, there are almost no studies that test the association between recognition and turnover. One such study, cited by Muchinsky and Tuttle, was realized by Ross and Zander in 1957 (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 58). The findings were that workers who terminated their employment perceived themselves as receiving less feedback and recognition than those employees who remained with the company (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 58). Likewise, in another study conducted by General Electric in 1964, researchers matched a sample of engineers who quit their jobs with a sample of engineers who

remained on the job with each matched pair having had the same manager. The results showed that engineers who left their job had significantly more negative attitudes regarding the amount of feedback they received from their manager (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 58). At last, there is a much more recent study by Ali and Baloch that did not test the direct effect of recognition on turnover, but rather the effect of recognition on turnover intentions. In this study, the authors found a negative relationship between recognition and turnover intentions (Ali & Baloch, 2010). If studies linking recognition to turnover were difficult to find, studies relating recognition to absenteeism are virtually non-existent. In general, according to Mowday, Porter and Steers, most research into withdrawal behaviour has focused on employee turnover and has treated absenteeism with only subsidiary interest (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.78).

Although, from the above explanations, it becomes evident that there is a severe lack of empirical studies on the influence of recognition on absenteeism and turnover, in the literature review of turnover and absenteeism models, one variable seems to stand out as one of the most consistent predictors of turnover and somewhat less consistent predictors of absenteeism. This variable is turnover intention or intention to stay. The terms turnover intention and intention to stay are often used interchangeably, for example, Mobley (1977). For the sake of parsimony, the intention to quit and the intention to stay will be considered as the opposites of the same coin. And although it was pointed out by Flowers and Hughes that the reasons for staying may not be simply the opposite of reasons for leaving, this distinction does not seem to be relevant for the purpose of this study (Flowers & Hughes, 1973, p.49-50).

There are many studies that point to the existence of a direct path between turnover and turnover intention. These include studies by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Carraher and Buckley, 2008; Saks, Mudrack and Ashforth, 2011; Hom, Katerberg and Hulin, 1979; Price and Mueller, 1981; Kraut, 1975. Evidence from these studies supports the existence of a direct relationship between intentions to quit

and quitting. The studies indicate that intention to stay has a direct negative influence on turnover. Put differently, turnover intention has a direct positive impact on turnover. The evidence seems to be so strong that Bowen came to a conclusion that, “efforts to expand existing knowledge of the withdrawal process by establishing a tie between employees intending to quit and employees quitting have been successful” (Bowen, 1982, p.205). However, evidence concerning the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is not as decisive. Despite Iverson and Deery’s (2001) claim that absenteeism is shown to be positively linked to turnover intention, cited by Cross and Travaglione, and Taunton, Hope, Wood and Botts’ (1995) statement that absenteeism and turnover are affected by some of the same variables, not all studies point to an existence of a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism (Cross & Travaglione, 2004, p.278; Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p.218). For example, a study realized in 1989 by Taunton, Krampitz and Woods found a correlation between intention to stay and absence spells whereas another study conducted by Carraher and Buckley in 2008, found that intentions to quit were related to actual turnover, but not to absenteeism (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989; Carraher & Buckley, 2008). Finally, Price and Mueller also reported finding no support for the application of their turnover model to absenteeism (Price & Mueller, 1986, p.205).

Another weakness in the recognition literature is that most authors treat recognition in general and seem to ignore the fact that recognition can emanate from different sources. For example, an employee can be recognized by his/her immediate supervisor, coworkers or clients (Tremblay & Simard, 2006, p.107). St-Onge, Haines, Rousseau and Lagassé also point to the fact that recognition should stem from various sources such as immediate supervisors, work colleagues, subordinates, internal and external clients as well as upper management (St-Onge, Haines, Rousseau & Lagassé, 2005, p.91). In the scientific literature, when researchers study different behavioural targets, it is generally referred to as the multifoci approach. The essence of this approach is that employees maintain distinct perceptions about, and direct different

attitudes and behaviours towards multiple foci such as the organization, supervisors, and coworkers (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p.841). Basically, what this means is that hypothetically it is possible that an employee feels that he /she is recognized by one of the possible sources of recognition, but not the other and thus the behaviour that the employee will exhibit towards the two sources of recognition will consequently differ. The multifoci approach has already been used in organizational justice, and social exchange literatures, but to our knowledge, to this day there have been very few empirical studies that applied the multifoci approach to the study of recognition (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007; Becker, 1992; Morin, Morizot, Boudrias & Madore, 2011). One such study is a qualitative study realized by Bédard, Giroux and Morin in 2002, where healthcare employees rated different sources of recognition in the following order of importance starting from the most important and ending with the least important source: hierarchical supervisor, work colleagues, subordinates, general public, regional office and the health minister (Bédard, Giroux & Morin, 2002, p. 24). Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner actually encourage other researchers to continue the recent trend of integrating multifoci perspectives across relevant organizational behaviour constructs to provide a more complete representation of the employee experience at work (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 841).

As it was explained in the previous paragraph, it is clear that there could be multiple sources of recognition, but which ones are the most relevant to healthcare employees? Reichers (1985), cited by Becker, argued that top managers, supervisors and coworkers are generally the most important foci for employees (Becker, 1992, p. 3). Gostick and Elton also thought that recognition is best to be received from immediate supervisors and coworkers (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p. 40). In addition, several other authors seem to be in agreement with Reichers (1985), and Elton and Gostick (2001). For example, McCoy noted that for caregivers, recognition by supervisors and peers has a significant impact on retention (McCoy, 2011, p. 3). Similarly, Hurst, Croker, and Bell claim that for caregivers, to be recognized by one's peers is the highest

compliment one can receive (Hurst, Croker, & Bell, 1994, p. 3). Likewise, for Lacey, recognition is the most powerful when it comes from the boss (Lacey, 1994, p. 2). At last, in the study by Bédard, Giroux and Morin mentioned earlier, hierarchical supervisor was ranked as the most important source of recognition (Bédard, Giroux & Morin, 2002, p. 24). Three other sources of recognition that will be included in this study are customers which in the hospital setting are the equivalent of patients, the organization, meaning the hospital itself and physicians, meaning medical doctors. It seems only logical that caregivers would care about being recognized by their patients for the hard work they do. This is exactly the point made by Ashley, Kernicki, Kirksey and Franklin when they state that all employees seek some kind of fulfillment, but caregivers in particular appreciate a positive response from patients they care for so tirelessly (Ashley, Kernicki, Kirksey & Franklin, 2011, p. 2).

As far as the organization foci is concerned, the latter will be included because it was considered as relevant in the organizational justice and social exchange literatures. There does not seem to be any reason to believe that the organization should not constitute pertinent foci of recognition in the healthcare context. In fact, it is not impossible that all type of formal recognition programs such as employee-of-the-month programs, years-of service awards or attendance rewards will be interpreted by the caregivers as having the organization as a recognition source because after all, it is the organization that is usually in charge of putting these programs into place. According to Bourcier and Palobart, at the organizational level, the concern with recognizing employees is generally expressed through policies and programs that confirm the intentions of the organization to recognize the work realized by its' members (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997). Lastly, physicians also represent pertinent recognition foci for caregivers. According to Cangelosi, Markham and Bounds, caregivers find themselves frustrated with their efforts to use their skills and abilities when they cannot effectively communicate with the physicians (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.6). These authors firmly believe that hospitals that do not create an environment that recognizes the importance of consultation with professional

caregivers in patient care decisions will most likely experience higher turnover rates (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998, p.6).

### **Research Objectives and Research Question**

The objectives of this research will be to investigate the relationship between various recognition foci and withdrawal behaviours. Recognition foci will include recognition from the organization, supervisor, coworkers, patients and physicians. Withdrawal behaviours will include turnover and absenteeism, with turnover intention mediating the relationship between recognition foci, absenteeism and turnover, and absenteeism mediating the relationship between turnover intention and turnover. This research is specifically concerned with the influence of recognition on withdrawal behaviours with the question formulated as follows:

**What are the effects of nonmonetary recognition on the turnover intentions, absenteeism and turnover of caregivers in a hospital?**

### **Potential Research Contributions**

We believe that this study can make an important contribution to the current state of knowledge because it will empirically test the alleged relationship between recognition and absenteeism, with turnover intention mediating the relationship between these two variables. Because most articles that claim an existence of a positive effect of recognition on absenteeism are theoretical, an empirical study of the phenomena is definitely warranted. Likewise, since the link between turnover intention and absenteeism is equally highly controversial, this study will provide some clarification on this relationship as well. Also, it is one of the few studies that will test the association between recognition and turnover, once again with turnover intention mediating the relationship between the two variables. As it was previously mentioned, most of the studies related to recognition and turnover do not directly test the relationship between these two variables, but rather focus on the relationship between recognition and turnover intention. In the same time, it will be a confirmatory study of an already well established relationship between turnover and



turnover intentions. Finally, it is one of the rare studies that use a multifoci approach to study recognition. Moreover, this study potentially can also make some valuable practical contributions. In order to keep their best employees, many organizations offer special pay premiums, stock options, bonuses, but nothing seems to hold the employees (Chew & Chan, 2008, p.4; Gostick & Elton 2001, p.7). Some companies still suffer 20 to 30 percent turnover per year and they are now looking to human resources for answers (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.12; Gostick & Elton, 2001, p.7). Disturbingly, recognition is still often perceived as a non-essential practice that generates no significant benefit to the organization (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000, p.739). This study is a reminder to human resource practitioners and hospital administrators not to underestimate the power of nonmonetary recognition. Often overlooked, nonmonetary recognition can be very effective and efficient because it does not cost much, is available for everyone to use and no one gets too much of it (Luthans, 2000, p.33). In fact, according to Stajkovic and Luthans, social recognition costs the organization financially much less while promising similar results (Stajkovic and Luthans, 2003, p.163). Considering the fact that the healthcare system continues to be plagued by absenteeism and recurrent shortages of caregivers, this study may just give reason to hospital administrators to pay a much closer attention to nonmonetary recognition because it may just turn out to be the missing link in helping them face the absenteeism and turnover challenges (Sanders & Davey, 2010, p.30; Barton, 2002, p.viii). Besides, some recognition foci may surface as more relevant than others in predicting caregiver absenteeism and turnover. This information will enable the hospital administrators to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of the withdrawal behaviour and hence will make them better equipped to fight against it.

### **Plan of the Research Project**

This research project will consist of five chapters. In the first chapter, we will present a literature review of the theories and concepts relevant to this study as well as the proposed relationships between them. In the second chapter, we will present our

research model, our research hypotheses and both empirical and theoretical arguments in support of these hypotheses. In the third chapter, we will present the methodological choices that we have made in order to adequately answer our research question. More specifically, this chapter will include the research design, the data collection methods, sample information, the measuring instruments and the statistical analyses used. In the fourth chapter, we will present the results obtained from the statistical analyses with some of the hypotheses confirmed while others invalidated. The fifth and last chapter of this research project will contain a discussion of the study results followed by study contributions; limitations as well as potential future research avenues.

## CHAPTER 1

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 1.1 Withdrawal Process

As it was presented in the introduction, withdrawal phenomena have been the subject of much research and thought because they represent important organizational problems. In general, withdrawal is a form of alienation from an organization (Burke & Wilcox, 1972, p.639). To a large extent, it can be characterized as an escape response to noxious organizational conditions (Gupta & Jenkins, 1983, p.63). Employees' withdrawal intentions comprise of several distinctive and yet related constructs such as thinking of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit, which have been widely studied in relation to withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism and turnover (Carmeli, 2005, p.4). Similarly to Gupta and Jenkins, other authors such as Rosse and Hulin define withdrawal behaviour broadly as "actions intended to place physical or psychological remoteness between employees and their workplace", a definition which implies that besides the traditional variables of turnover and absenteeism, employee withdrawal behaviour encompasses behaviours such as low involvement, tardiness and presenteeism. This research study will only pertain to the former behaviours (Rosse & Hulin, 1985, p.325). Undoubtedly, psychological withdrawals such as absenteeism from the job in mind and in spirit, or attrition in place through indifference, constitute extremely important preoccupations for organizations (Hinrichs, 1980, p.1). However, based on the fact that the healthcare sector is now facing a significant problem with turnover and absenteeism, for example, according to authors such as Schalk, Bijl, Hollands and Cummings the healthcare system in Canada has increasingly received attention due to high absenteeism, and shortages of caregivers, this research project will not directly deal with psychological withdrawal. Instead, it will deal with physical withdrawal only (Schalk, Bijl, Halfens, Hollands & Cummings, 2010, p.1; Hemingway & Smith,

1999, p.285). Hence, the definition of withdrawal behaviour that will be retained for the purpose of this study is actions intended to place physical distance between employees and the organization (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396; Carmeli, 2005, p.4).

### **1.1.1 Turnover Intention**

Turnover intentions have been often integrated with models designed to summarize the withdrawal process (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p.673). Turnover intention is an individual's perception of the likelihood of discontinuing membership in an organization (Mueller & Price, 1986, p.17). It has been operationalized by aggregating responses to items asking about: thinking of quitting, desirability of quitting and likelihood of quitting one's current job (Blau, 1998, p.442). This operationalization is somewhat consistent with the scale measures used by Mobley in his 1977 turnover model. According to Mobley, cognitions consist of a number of items that include thoughts of quitting, intention to search and quit intentions. For this author, in the withdrawal process, thinking of quitting is the next logical step after experienced dissatisfaction, and turnover intention, following many other steps which include intention to search. Turnover intention may be the last step prior to actual quitting (Mobley, 1977, p.237-238). The desirability of quitting one's job does not seem to be part of the withdrawal cognitions advocated by Mobley. In fact, according to Lee and Mitchell, desirability of quitting, first identified by Barnard (1938), Simon (1945) and March and Simon (1958) as one of the main antecedents to voluntary turnover, back then referred to as desirability of movement, over time has been essentially equated with job satisfaction (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p.52). In addition, Hom and Griffeth (1991) assessed some of the same constructs of withdrawal intention as Mobley (1977). These authors argued that withdrawal cognitions consist of three items: thinking of quitting, intent to search and intent to quit (Hom & Griffeth, 1991, p.352). For Hom and Griffeth, desirability of quitting one's job is not part of the withdrawal cognitions construct either. For the latter, desirability of quitting seems more related to attitude toward quitting which is part of the expected utility of the withdrawal

construct (Hom & Griffeth, 1991, p.352). Also, in their study of withdrawal behaviours, Falkenburg and Schyns, split turnover intention into several stages that included thinking about quitting, intention to search for another job and intention to quit (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007, p.713). Similarly, Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, in their study of employee turnover, and Carraher and Buckley in their study of behavioural intentions and their relationship to absenteeism, performance and turnover, measured the same withdrawal cognitions of thinking of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978, p.410; Carraher & Buckley, 2008, p.95-96). Clearly, these cognitions and intentions follow directly from withdrawal models and are hypothesized as precursors of withdrawal behaviour (Roznowsky & Hanisch, 1990, p.368). However, what is less clear is the sequence of these cognitions and intentions. For example, for some, Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro (1984) the intention to stay or quit directly predicts actual quitting (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p.54). For others, Mobley (1977) the intention to stay or quit activates a search for alternatives, which in turn, predicts eventual quitting (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p.54). Thus, withdrawal intentions are acknowledged as a strong predictor of an employee's actual behaviour (Carmeli, 2005, p.4). But despite the expected positive relationship to turnover, a distinction should be made between withdrawal intentions and withdrawal behaviour (Carmeli, 2005, p.4). In other words, turnover intent does not equal actual turnover behaviour (Blau, 1998, p.443). Turnover act, namely the departure from the organization, is a time specific event marked by physical separation from the organization whereas turnover intention according to Arnold and Feldman is a final cognitive variable that immediately precedes and has a direct impact on turnover (Carmeli, 2005, p.5; Arnold & Feldman, 1982, p.353). In addition, a further distinction should be made with regards to withdrawal intentions. The literature has recognized the difference between withdrawal intentions from the organization, withdrawal intentions from an occupation, and withdrawal intentions from a job (Carmeli, 2005, p.4-5). Cohen conducted a study in 1993, where he examined these three withdrawal intentions (Cohen, 1993). He suggested that different types of work commitment would be

associated differently with different types of withdrawal intentions (Carmeli, 2005, p.5). However, his findings were inconsistent. Cohen found that job commitment was the strongest predictor of job withdrawal intentions, but occupational commitment was not significantly related to occupational withdrawal intentions (Cohen, 1993, p. 82). Withdrawal intention from the organization is usually defined as an employee's own subjective assessment that he/she will be leaving his/her organization in the near future. Withdrawal intention from the job is usually defined as an employee's own subjective assessment that he/she will be leaving his/her current job in the near future and finally, the occupation's withdrawal intention is usually defined as an employee's own subjective assessment that he/she will be leaving his/her current occupation in the near future (Carmeli, 2005, p. 5). As well, it is pertinent to point out that intention to leave his/her occupation is a much more difficult decision than leaving the organization because an individual may make a decision to leave an organization yet stay in his/her occupation. Likewise, the intention to leave a job is a much easier decision than leaving an organization because an employee may ask to leave his/her current job, but wish to remain in the organization (Carmeli, 2005, p. 5).

In the end, as mentioned previously, even though there are some researchers such as Blau (1993), Kirschenbaum and Weisberg (1994) among others that claim that turnover intent may not be the most immediate antecedent to actual turnover with job search being a more proximal predictor, in the last thirty years a veritable explosion of intent–turnover research has taken place : Hom, Katerberg, and Hulin, 1979; Kraut, 1975; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Caraher and Buckle, (2008); Taunton, Krampitz and Woods, 1989; Price and Mueller, 1986; Parasuraman, 1989; Sacks, Mudrack and Ashworth, 2011. The main impetus behind these studies of behavioural intentions stems in part from theoretical arguments that have singled them out as the most direct and immediate cognitive antecedents of overt behaviour (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p. 673). More specifically, implicit in many of these research studies is the belief that turnover intention is the single best predictor of turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p. 673). Therefore, as in most other conceptualisations of

turnover, in this study turnover intention will be treated as the final cognitive variable preceding withdrawal behaviour (Arnold & Feldman, 1982, p. 353). To conclude, among the three forms of withdrawal intentions discussed earlier, this research study will focus on withdrawal intentions from the organization.

### **1.1.2 Absenteeism**

While some researchers, such as Porter and Steers, state that absenteeism is a clear-cut act, the literature review allowed us to conclude that this withdrawal behaviour is anything but clear-cut (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 151). Absenteeism has been defined in many different ways (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 395). In fact, absenteeism is a particularly ambiguous concept and this ambiguity has clouded the exact meaning of many studies that investigated the relationship between absenteeism and other variables (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 317). Wolpin and Burke note that absenteeism has long been recognized as a problematic criterion (Wolpin & Burke, 1985, p. 58). According to these authors, disagreements over operational definitions of absenteeism are well documented (Wolpin & Burke, 1985, p. 58). A commonly used definition characterizes absenteeism as “a failure of workers to report on the job when they are scheduled to work” (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 396). Absenteeism can be further subdivided into voluntary absenteeism which refers to absenteeism that is under employee’s control and involuntary absenteeism which refers to absenteeism that is not under employee’s control (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 396). The former is avoidable whereas the latter is unavoidable. For Kanungo and Mendonca, involuntary or unavoidable absences include absences caused by illness and accidents, by the necessity to attend to family obligations or by the unavailability of transportation (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1997, p. 161).

The categorization proposed in the previous paragraph is paralleled to the B-type and A-type absences discussed by Chadwick-Jones, Brown and Nicholson (1973). Chadwick-Jones, Brown and Nicholson classify individual absence from work as

either A-type which refers to absence from work that is unavoidable or B-type which refers to absence from work that involves some exercise of individual choice-voluntary absence (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75). These authors explain that in terms of the work contract, A-type absences are legitimate and are justified by definitions of necessity (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75). For Chadwick-Jones, Brown and Nicholson, the determinants of the A-type behaviours may be extra-organizational such as; disabling and infectious ailments, bereavements or serious illness in the immediate family, and social duties such as jury service or they may be internal such as; industrial accidents, strikes or suspensions (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75). As for the B-type absences, they are those seen to lack imperative personal or situational justification and which allow for the exercise of individual choice and decision (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75). According to Chadwick-Jones, Brown and Nicholson, the principal difference between A-type and B-type absence lies in the nature of the cause (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75). Causes of A-type are explicit, such as sickness, epidemics, industrial disputes whereas causes of B-type are implicit such as norms and individual choices (Chadwick-Jones, Brown & Nicholson, 1973, p. 75).

Moreover, some researchers differentiated between excused absenteeism and unexcused absenteeism, but unfortunately without any real effort to actually define these concepts (Adler & Golan, 1981). However, it does seem that excused absenteeism is conceptually closer to involuntary, unavoidable or A-type absences whereas the unexcused absenteeism is conceptually closer to voluntary, avoidable or B-type absences.

After reviewing a number of studies on absenteeism, Lyons described absenteeism research as representing a hodgepodge of conceptually and operationally differing definitions (Lyons, 1972, p. 278). His findings were that some of the studies used total absences, some differentiated types of absenteeism such as unexcused, excused ,



sickness, and so on and many did not specify which type of absenteeism was used (Lyons, 1972, p. 278). About sixty years ago Kerr et al. (1951) cited by Muchinsky, drew a similar conclusion in lamenting a major finding in their own study. For these authors, the most disconcerting result of absenteeism research is the discovery that absenteeism is such a non-unitary variable that certain types of absenteeism are completely unrelated to certain other types (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 335). If we follow this logic, it is reasonable to hypothesize that many of the conflicting and contradictory findings reported about absenteeism are in part attributable to the ill-defined concept of absenteeism (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 317).

Considering the fact that the ultimate objectives of most social science research are the prediction and control of behaviour and these behaviours are those under the direct control of individuals, in the context of absenteeism, only voluntary absenteeism seems relevant (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.399). And even if it is known that distinguishing between avoidable and unavoidable absenteeism is not always an easy task, this research will focus on B-type, voluntary, absenteeism only (Porter & Steers, 1973, p.151). In fact, one practical way to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary absence is to assess the frequency and duration of absence/sick days. Research has shown consistently that frequency and duration measures provide a reasonable index of voluntary absenteeism. (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p.313) For example, Gibson (1966) cited by Chadwick –Jones, Nicholson and Brown claimed that one-day absences are almost entirely voluntary non-sickness absences (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson & Brown, 1982, p.58). According to the latter, the shorter the absence, the more likely it is to be B-type or voluntary (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson & Brown, 1973, p. 76). In agreement with Gibson, Taunton, Hope, Woods and Bott argue that short-term absence is generally viewed as a purer measure of voluntary, avoidable absence (Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p. 218). Likewise, Froggatt (1970) also cited by Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson and Brown, using multiple regression techniques, showed that one-day absences correlated with

the number of two-day absences, but never with longer term sickness (over three days' duration). In the same time, another finding in Froggatt's study was that two-day absences, not only correlated with the number of one-day absences, but with longer term sickness as well. Thus, the results of this study seem to indicate that one-day absences are more strictly voluntary whereas two-day absences have a greater sickness component (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson & Brown, 1982, p. 58). Single days and frequency are the most recommended measures of voluntary absenteeism, the idea being that most involuntary absenteeism, since it often lasts for a period of days, is excluded by this measure (Price, 1986, p. 47). To sum up, levels of short-term absences for an organization are more likely to be valid indicators of chosen absenteeism whereas long-term absences are more likely to be valid indicators of absenteeism that is not chosen (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson & Brown, 1982, p. 58). The following definition of absenteeism will be retained for the purpose of this study: "A failure to appear for a scheduled workday" (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p.14). Simply stated, absenteeism occurs when an employee does not show up to work when he or she was expected to be present (Brooke, 1986, p. 349). This definition seems appropriate because it clearly distinguishes absenteeism from other forms of nonattendance such as vacations or temporary duties which are arranged in advance (Brooke, 1986, p. 349).

### **1.1.3 Turnover Intention and Absenteeism: Theory and Empirical Evidence**

The existing data on the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is too inconsistent to be able to draw any firm conclusions (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 17). For example, in two studies by Taunton et al. 1989 and Taunton et al. 1995, discussed earlier, intent to stay was negatively and significantly related to absenteeism (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p. 17; Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p. 223). Conversely, in another study realized by Carraher and Buckley, also mentioned before, intentions to quit were not a significant predictor of absenteeism (Carraher & Buckley, 2008, p. 101). In addition, when Price and Mueller

tested the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, they did not find any relationship between these two variables when single-days absent was the dependant variable (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 158).

Faced with inconclusive evidence concerning the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, authors such as Bowen, attempted to provide some clarity on this particular subject. According to the latter, there are two conditions under which we can expect a strong correlation between turnover intention and absenteeism. The first is that absenteeism and quitting should serve a common purpose for employees, and the second is that employees should have control over their absenteeism (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). Bowen explains that the importance of intention to quit and absenteeism correlation follows from Lock's (1968) point that behavioural consequences of an intention are ordinarily the ones intended or are correlated with those intended (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). Mobley also suggests several situations where absenteeism and quitting would be expected to be correlated because they would represent a common withdrawal process (Mobley, 1982, p. 115).

Mobley saw this as the most probable when: the consequences of absenteeism and quitting have the same commonality, such as when absenteeism represents avoidance of a dissatisfying or stressful job and alternative jobs are available or when an employee is absent to engage in a job search (Mobley, 1982, p. 115). For Bowen, these situations and especially the latter two could describe employees that intend to leave the organization, are unable to obtain an attractive job, but continue to job search. Put differently, although the employee intends to quit, absenteeism is an unintended consequence and therefore a strong correlation between turnover intention and absenteeism is to be expected (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). Fishbein model provides another basis for predicting absenteeism from intention to quit in situations in which absenteeism and turnover can be expected to be correlated (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These situations, for example, one in which absenteeism is a response to unsatisfactory conditions of organizational life, present a view of absenteeism as a

precursor of quitting on the withdrawal behaviour continuum (Burke & Wilcox, 1972, p. 639). In fact, most of the theoretical literature, with the exception of Clegg (1983) who argued that the generalized notion of withdrawal is misleading and called for a redirection of research in this area both through methodological improvements and theoretical innovation, contends that before individuals leave the organization, they progress through series of stages of behavioural withdrawal (Farrel & Peterson, 1984, p. 682; Clegg, 1983, p. 88). For example, Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957), cited by Lyons, asserted that absence is a miniature version of the important decision that a worker makes when he/she quits his/her job (Lyons, 1972, p. 271). This position is most clearly stated by Melbin (1961), cited by Farrel and Peterson: “leaving a job is the outcome of a chain of experiences building up to the final break... events on smaller scale may be signs of coming departure ...high absenteeism appears to be an earlier sign, and turnover the dying state of a lively process of leaving” (Farrel and Peterson, 1984). When absent, it is as if the employee is quitting for a day. Given this view of “functional equivalence” between absenteeism and turnover, the Fishbein model supports predicting absenteeism from intention to quit, because the model predicts actual behaviour from intended behaviour based largely on the level of correspondence between the two (Bowen, 1982, p. 207).

As mentioned beforehand, one of the conditions for an existence of a positive relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is that the employees must have control over their absenteeism. Usually, employees’ control over their absenteeism will be influenced by whether or not their employer has strong penalties for being absent such as a loss of pay or poor performance reviews. When confronted with such penalties, employees may decide that they are simply unable to be absent, despite the fact that they have intentions to withdraw from the job. The role played by the employees’ ability to control absenteeism in affecting the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is most evident in the extreme case in which employees decide that they are entirely unable to be absent. Evidently, it is clear that if a highly constrained situation results in no absenteeism, there will be no

relationship between intention to quit and absenteeism (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). Kanungo and Mendonca seem to agree with this particular point of view. For these authors, sanctions for absenteeism can definitely serve to reduce voluntary absences (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 159). In addition, empirical studies by Herman (1973) and Smith (1977), cited by Bowen, confirm that the constraints of employees' situation can influence the strength of the relationship between job attitudes and absenteeism (Bowen, 1982, p. 207).

On the other hand, of the twenty two studies cited by Porter and Steers that examined the influences on both turnover and absenteeism ,only six found significant relationships in the same direction between factors under study and both turnover and absenteeism (Porter & Steers,1973). This finding is not that surprising because there are a variety of conditions under which observable relationships between turnover and absenteeism, in a correlational sense, would not be expected. These situations occur when turnover is a function of the positive attraction of an alternative job rather than an escape, avoidance, or withdrawal from an unsatisfying or stressful current job; when absenteeism is a function of the need to attend to nonjob role demands, for example parents or sports; when the consequences of quitting relative to the consequences of being absent have little in common; when absenteeism or turnover is constrained, for example, a monetarily enforced absenteeism control policy and no job alternatives, respectively; when absenteeism or turnover is a spontaneous or impulsive act; and other (Mobley,1982, p. 114). It is only logical that these findings led some authors to the conclusion that only under a rather limited subset of conditions absenteeism and turnover represent a common withdrawal process (Mobley, 1982, p.114).

#### **1.1.4 Turnover**

As it was the case with absenteeism, turnover is also fraught with definition problems (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396). For example, the U.S. Department of Labour depicts

turnover as the “gross movement of workers in and out of employment status with respect to individual firms” whereas Gupta and Jenkins, define turnover as “the movement of workers out of employment status with an organization” (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 396). In other words, for Gupta and Jenkins, in comparison to the U.S. Department of Labour, interest in turnover, is confined to movement out of firms. Similarly, Mobley and al. cited by Campion stated that although turnover is often thought of as a clean objective criterion, there is a need for greater attention to the criterion problem in turnover research (Campion, 1991, p. 199). Furthermore, turnover can be classified into voluntary or involuntary turnover (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396). Once again, as with absenteeism, in order to distinguish between the two types of turnover, the exercise of choice is critical (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 2). Voluntary turnover is usually initiated by the employee whereas the involuntary turnover is usually initiated by the employer. Quits are the most common types of voluntary separations, while layoffs, dismissals and deaths are instances of involuntary separations (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 3). In more simple terms, the difference between voluntary and involuntary turnover is that involuntary turnover refers to the case when an employee does not want to quit and he or she is terminated (Ali & Balock, 2010, p. 17). Voluntary turnover, on the other hand, refers to the case when an organization does not want an employee to quit and he or she does (Ali & Balock, 2010, p. 17). Moreover, among voluntary quits, it is possible to further discern between functional and dysfunctional turnover. Functional turnover represents the exit of substandard performers whereas dysfunctional turnover represents the exit of effective performers. Only the latter type of resignations is a disadvantage for the employers (Griffeth & Hom, 2001, p. 6).

Dysfunctional turnover can also be categorized into either avoidable or unavoidable. In general, voluntary turnover is avoidable while involuntary turnover is unavoidable. According to Blau, the unavoidable-avoidable turnover distinction asks if the organization could have prevented the employee's leaving (Blau, 1998, p. 442). According to Hom and Griffeth, unavoidable quits represent those employee

separations that employers cannot control, such as terminations due to childbirth, full-time care for relatives, family moves, acute medical disability, and death (Griffeth & Hom, 2001, p. 6). In one research study, Campion discovered that avoidability was related negatively to voluntariness (Campion, 1991, p. 210). However, he later added that it is possible that some reasons for turnover are both voluntary and avoidable (Campion, 1991, p. 210).

In fact, one of the recommendations made by researchers in order to improve the quality of turnover studies is to refine turnover into subgroups as quits and fired employees, or voluntary versus involuntary termination (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 67). Muchinsky and Tuttle confer that in too many studies these two groups are combined to form a generalized group of leavers because the investigators either felt that there was little or nothing to be gained by keeping them separate, or because the investigators were faced with a problem of small sample size, a problem which could be alleviated by collapsing the two groups (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 67). These authors explain that there exist both theoretical and empirical reasons to separate the two groups. On the empirical level, they report a few studies that did separate the two groups and found differential results. For example, they cite a study by MacKinney and Wolins (1959) where the researchers found that an aptitude test could predict the turnover of discharged, but not voluntary terminators (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 67). On a theoretical level, there also seems to be enough difference between voluntary and involuntary separators in regard to the Porter and Steers (1973) notion of withdrawal behaviour. The two groups are in fact different in terms of who initiates the termination; the organization or the individual, with voluntary separation seemingly being a more precise representation of individual withdrawal from the organization than involuntary separation (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 67). The conclusion made by these authors is that a greater degree of predictability may be attained in studies wanting to predict withdrawal behaviour by cleansing the criterion from contaminating influences (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 67).

Likewise, after a review of a number of turnover studies, as with absenteeism, Lyons found that the methodological hodgepodge surrounding turnover indices plagues the evaluation and interpretation of turnover research as well (Lyons, 1972, p. 278). His findings were that some turnover studies used measures of voluntary turnover, some used primarily involuntary turnover, and the majority did not specify the turnover measure at all (Lyons, 1972, p. 278). It seems that as with studies on absenteeism, with respect to turnover studies, it is equally reasonable to hypothesize that many of the conflicting and contradictory findings reported about turnover are in part attributable to the ill-defined concept of turnover.

Lastly, voluntary turnover is explicitly emphasized in recent reviews or is implied by the term employee withdrawal behaviour (Campion, 1991, p. 200). If voluntary turnover is to be reduced, it must be under the organizational control. For Price, cited by Dalton, Krachardt and Porter, a primary reason for the reliance on voluntary turnover as a dependant variable is that it is more subject to organizational control (Dalton, Krachardt & Porter, 1981, p. 717). Tett and Meyer explain that voluntariness of leaving is definitely relevant in evaluating turnover models because those models invariably apply to voluntary termination (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). As well, Jenkins and Gupta argue that within the context of employee withdrawal, only voluntary behaviours of individuals are relevant (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 398). Due to the fact that the healthcare sector in most developed economies are witnessing an unprecedented shortages of caregivers, it is plausible to assume that most turnover experienced will be voluntary because the organizations simply do not have much of a choice, but to keep their employees (Rondeau, Williams & Wager, 2009, p. 739). Thus, the definition of turnover that will be retained for the purpose of this study is “voluntary leaving from the organization” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 544). Despite some of the known difficulties at the study level in assessing turnover voluntariness, this definition seems to provide an acceptable starting ground for the present study (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p.262; Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.396). Needless to say, this research project is concerned with dysfunctional turnover only.



### **1.1.5 Absenteeism and Turnover: Theory and Empirical Evidence**

Three points of view reflect some of the assumptions that have been made about the relationship between turnover and absenteeism. The first point of view is the one presented a few paragraphs earlier where there is a continuum of withdrawal behaviours, progressing from absenteeism to turnover (Lyons, 1972, p. 271). In other words, according to this view, employees engage in a hierarchically-ordered sequence of withdrawal, where turnover intentions precede temporary withdrawal, absenteeism, and these episodes foreshadow permanent withdrawal, turnover (Cohen, 2000, p. 393). As mentioned before, there are many studies that support this position such as Melbin (1961), Knox (1961), and Burke and Wilcox (1972) among others. Reviews that took into account the methodological problems in the relevant literature, led Lyons (1972) and Muchinsky (1977), cited by Gupta and Jenkins to the conclusion that there is virtually unanimous support for the existence of positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover and that there is a tentative support for the progression notion, particularly at the individual level (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 396). For example, in Lyon's (1972) study at the individual level, eleven out of eleven tests showed that there was a significant positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover (Lyons, 1972, p. 279). Moreover, in the same study, Lyons found that in all ten samples of individuals, the people who eventually left had had significantly higher absences than those who stayed (Lyons, 1972, p. 279). Likewise, a study of phone operators by Burke and Wilcox (1972), cited by Kraut showed that employees who quit had a progressively worsening absenteeism ending in turnover (Kraut, 1975, p. 234). Similarly, a more recent meta-analysis by Mitra, Jenkins and Gupta provided reasonable support for this particular view. After the correction of various statistical artifacts, the latter found positive relationships between absenteeism and turnover ranging from 0.29 to 0.36 (Mitra, Jenkins & Gupta, 1992, p. 885).

The second point of view is the one taken by a number of researchers from the Tavistock Institute. They suggest that absences, along with accidents, are forms of withdrawal behaviour that are alternative to turnover (Hill & Trist, 1955). Absences indicate the disturbances in a continuing relationship between the individual and the organization whereas turnover denotes the severance of the relationship (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.397). The alternatives notion was also supported by the research of Talacchi (1960) cited by Jenkins and Gupta, who hypothesized that dissatisfied employees discover the minimum level of adequate performance and plague the firm with tardiness, low output, low quality, and other undesirable behaviours, but do not leave the organization (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.397). Thus, if this view is accurate, absenteeism and turnover should be negatively related. Higher absenteeism should be associated with lower rates of turnover (Wolpin & Burke, 1985, p.58). This means that in order for the alternatives argument to receive empirical verification, a negative correlation would have to be established between absenteeism and turnover. As it was noted earlier, however, the empirical evidence generally indicates a positive rather than a negative association between the two withdrawal behaviours (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.397-398).

The third point of view, expressed by March and Simon (1958), contends that absenteeism and turnover have no underlying relationship with each other (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.398). These authors argue that there is no consistent association between these two variables and that an employee will be absent or terminate a job depending on the perceived consequences for that employee of these alternative forms of withdrawal (March & Simon, 1958; Burke & Wilcox, 1972; Hawk, 1976, p.293). But it is known that the consequences of absenteeism and turnover are diverse and somewhat different from each other. In the same time, the repeated findings showing a positive association between absences and turnover negate the possibility that the two variables are unrelated (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p.398).

## **1.2 Determinants of Absenteeism**

Most research concerning absenteeism in the last twenty years, particularly the conceptual work, has focused on absenteeism origins and causes. The large number of predictions that these theories and hypotheses make, the breadth of approaches that they take, as well as the scope of evidence that they have generated, all make it clear that absenteeism just does not have a simple aetiology (Harrison & Martocchio, 1998, p.311; Johns, 1997). Compilations of withdrawal have characterized absence research as showing little comprehensive theory building and have summarized the state of knowledge on the topic as not encouraging (Farrell & Peterson, 1984, p.682). With regards to absenteeism models, despite the widespread recognition of the urgent need to develop and test more comprehensive models of absenteeism, very few such models have been reported to date (Brooke & Price, 1989, p.1-2). In this section, we will discuss two of the most popular absenteeism models that emerged from our literature review that will enable us to identify some of the most common absenteeism predictors. These are: Steers and Rhode's (1978) model and Brooke's (1986) model.

### **1.2.1 Steers and Rhode's (1978) Model**

Steers and Rhode's model was developed deductively, based on a review of hundred and four empirical studies of absenteeism and incorporates both voluntary and involuntary absenteeism (Rhodes & Steers, 1990, p.45; Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.392) (See figure 1.1). This model attempts to examine in a systematic and comprehensive fashion various influences on employee attendance behaviour. Briefly stated, it suggests that an employee's attendance behaviour is largely a function of two variables: an employee's motivation to attend (box 6) and an employee's ability to attend (box 7) (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.392). Although not explicitly stated by Steers and Rhodes, it seems that determinants of employee motivation to attend (box

6) are more related to voluntary absenteeism whereas the ability to attend variables (box 7) are more related to involuntary absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p.346).

We will first begin by examining the proposed antecedents of attendance motivation (box 6). The first relationship proposed by this model is between Job Situation (box 1), Satisfaction with Job Situation (box 4) and Attendance Motivation (box 6). One of the fundamental premises of this model is that an employee's motivation to come to work (box 6) represents the primary influence on actual attendance (box 8), assuming that one has the ability to attend (box 7) (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.393).

Evidence points to the fact that such motivation is determined by a combination of an employee's affective responses to the job situation (box 4) and various internal and external pressures to attend (box 5) (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.393). For Steers and Rhodes, other things being equal, when an employee enjoys the work environment and the tasks that characterize his or her job situation, generally, it is expected that the employee will have a strong desire to come to work. Under such circumstances the experience of coming to work would be a pleasurable one. In view of this situation, the first question is concerned with the manner in which job situation (box 1) affects one's attendance motivation (box 6) (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.393). In this model, the job situation (box 1) refers to the general work environment, and not just the nature of the required tasks. As such, the job situation factors that are said to influence an employee's satisfaction include: job scope, job level, role stress, work group size, leader style, coworker relations, and opportunity for advancement. Job scope is a broad term that refers to many constructs including routinization. Routinization is the degree to which the cycle of tasks in a job is repetitive (Brooke, 1986, p.351). A work setting such as an assembly line, in which a job entails a few tasks repeated frequently, would be considered as having a high degree of routinization (Brooke, 1986, p.351). Task repetitiveness has been found to be positively correlated with absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p.353). For example, in a study of two manufacturing firms Kilbridge (1961), cited by Porter and Steers, found that

absenteeism was somewhat higher on the more repetitive jobs (Porter & Steers, 1973, p.162). In fact, task repetitiveness can be considered as one of the aspects of the job content. According to Kanungo and Mendonca, job content influences the individual's expectancy of personal work outcomes when he or she attends work (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p.159). These authors explain that employees that have high growth needs, the requisite skills and knowledge, will be motivated by an enriched job, but when the core characteristics of an enriched job are missing, the employee's attendance motivation will be severely affected, and the likelihood of voluntary absence will greatly increase (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p.159). But not everyone seems to support this position. For example, for Hulin and Blood (1968), cited by Porter and Steers, routinization will not necessarily result in reduced alienation and withdrawal from work (Porter & Steers, 1973, p.162). The latter statement has some empirical evidence. For example, in their 1989 study, Taunton, Krampitz and Woods, failed to find any association between routinization and absenteeism (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p.17). Furthermore, job scope also includes task identity defined as "the degree to which a job requires completion of the whole and identifiable piece of work, that is doing a job from the beginning and to the end with a visible outcome" and autonomy defined as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Johns & Sacks, 1996, p. 203). Evidence with regards to the relationship between absenteeism and these two variables is not conclusive. Steers and Rhodes cite some studies such as the one conducted by Hackman and Lawler (1971) that found that both task identity and autonomy were inversely related to absenteeism, and other studies such as the one realized by Kilbridge (1961) that did not find such an association between these variables and absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 394). Job level refers to one's level in the organizational hierarchy. According to Steers and Rhodes, people who hold higher level jobs seem to be more satisfied and less likely to be absent than those who hold lower level position (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 394). As evidence, Steers and Rhodes cite studies by Hrebiniak & Roteman (1973) and

Waters and Roach (1971) among others (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 394). Role stress is a broad term that generally refers to three dimensions: role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. Role overload is the extent to which work role demands exceed the amount of time and other resources available for their accomplishment (Brooke, 1986, p. 352). Even if individual tasks may be within the worker's capacity; role overload occurs when there is too much work to do in the time that is available (Brooke, 1986, p. 352). Empirical evidence linking role overload with absenteeism has been reported by Gupta and Beehr (1979). These researchers found small, but significant positive correlations between role overload and absenteeism (Gupta & Beehr, 1979, p. 380). Role ambiguity reflects the uncertainty employees experience about what is expected from them in their jobs (Kelloway & Francis, 2008, p. 139). The opposite of role ambiguity is role clarity (Kelloway & Francis, 2008, p. 139).

Once again, the empirical linkages between role ambiguity and absenteeism were reported by Gupta and Beehr in their 1979 study. Similarly, the researchers also found small, but significant positive correlations between role ambiguity and absenteeism (Gupta & Beehr, 1979, p. 380). Role conflict is the degree to which role expectations are incompatible (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970, p. 155). This concept constitutes a type of job related stress which is distinct from the idea of unclear expectations central to role ambiguity (Brooke, 1986, p. 352). The empirical evidence for a relationship between role conflict and absenteeism comes from a study realized by Gray-Toft and Anderson in 1985. These authors, cited by Brooke, report a limited evidence of a positive linkage between role conflict and absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 352). More precisely, the findings indicate that role conflict results in higher rates of absenteeism (Gray-Toft & Anderson, 1985, p. 769). Work group size does not need to be defined because its meaning is self-explanatory. Evidence in reference to the relationship between the work group size and absenteeism is inconsistent. On the one hand, Steers and Rhodes cite studies such as the one by Baumgartel and Sobol (1959) where the investigators found no relationship between absenteeism and work group

size and on the other hand they cite studies such as the one by Ingham (1970) where the latter found that increases in the size of the total organization were modestly associated with increased absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 395). Leader's style refers to the behaviour of an employee's superior. Conceptually, it appears somewhat similar to one of the facets of job satisfaction, more particularly satisfaction with supervisor. Traditionally, satisfaction has been approached both globally and dimensionally. The global approach typically seeks an overall assessment of liking the job, whereas the dimensional approach seeks to evaluate the liking of different facets of the job, such as working conditions, pay, work, coworkers, supervision and opportunities to advance (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 16). Together, the latter facets of job satisfaction represent the job context. According to Kanungo and Mendonca, dissatisfaction with working conditions, pay, coworkers and supervisors weaken the employees' motivation to attend work. These authors claim that under the conditions of dissatisfaction with job context, absenteeism can be considered as voluntary (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 159). However, the relationship between leader style and absenteeism is rather tenuous. Out of ten studies reported by Steers and Rhodes, only two found significant inverse relationship between satisfaction with supervisory style and absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 395). Coworker relations are conceptually similar to another facet of job satisfaction which is satisfaction with coworkers (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 395). Little evidence exists of a strong association between the nature of coworker relations and absenteeism. Only two out of eight studies reported by Steers and Rhodes found a significant relationship between these two variables (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 395). Opportunities for advancement or promotional opportunity is the degree of potential vertical occupational mobility within an organization. It mainly focuses on the internal labour market (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 13). Evidence concerning the relationship between opportunities for advancement and absenteeism is inconsistent. There are some studies such as Taunton et al. 1989 and Taunton et al. 1995, where promotional opportunities were negatively and significantly related to absenteeism and others such as Price and Mueller, (1986) where the authors did not find any relationship between

these two variables when single-days absent was the dependant variable (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p. 17; Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p. 223; Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 158).

The second relationship proposed by this model is between Job Situation (Box 1), Satisfaction with Job Situation (Box 4), Role of Employee Values and Job Expectations (Box 2), Attendance Motivation (Box 6) and Personal Characteristics (Box 3). According to Steers and Rhodes, there is considerable evidence that suggests that the relationship between job situation (box 1) and attendance motivation (box 6) is not a direct one (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396). Instead, these authors believe that the major influence on the extent to which employees experience satisfaction with the job situation (Box 1) is the values and expectations (Box 2) that they have concerning the job. Steers and Rhodes explain that people come to work with different values and job expectations meaning that they value different features in a job and expect these features to be present to a certain degree in order to remain with the organization (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396). These expectations are partially determined by the personal characteristics of individuals (Box 3) such as their education, how long they have been with the organization, their age gender and family size. Steers and Rhodes provide some examples of the influence of personal characteristics on employee values and expectations. The first example, given by these authors, is the one of employees with higher educational levels expecting greater or at least different rewards from an organization than those with less education. The second example, given by Steers and Rhodes, is the one of older and more tenured employees expecting certain perquisites because of their seniority (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396). For the latter, whatever the values and expectations that employees bring to the job situation, it is important for these factors to be largely met in order for the employees to be satisfied (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396). In support of their position, Steers and Rhodes cite an empirical study by Smith (1972) where the researcher found that realistic job previews created realistic job



expectations among employees and led to a significant decline in absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396).

The third relationship proposed by this model is the one between attendance motivation (box 6) and pressure to attend (box 5). Steers and Rhodes claim that while satisfaction with the job situation may represent a major influence on attendance motivation, the relationship is not a perfect one. According to these authors, other factors that serve to enhance attendance motivation can be identified. These variables collectively are referred to as pressures to attend (box 5) and represent the second major influence on the desire to come to work (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 397). Factors acting as pressures to attend work include the economic/market conditions, incentive reward systems, work group norms, personal work ethic and organizational commitment (Rhodes & Steers, 1990, p. 45). The economic and market conditions factor does not seem to require any definition since it seems self-explanatory. In general, the state of the economy and the job market place constraints employees' ability to change jobs. As a result, when the unemployment is high, there may be increased pressures to maintain a good attendance out of fear of losing one's job (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 397). Steers and Rhodes claim that there is evidence that suggests that there is a close inverse relationship between changes in employment level and subsequent absence rates (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 397). Kanungo and Mendonca appear to support this last point of view. According to these authors, labour market conditions undoubtedly can operate to alleviate or exacerbate absenteeism. Kanungo and Mendonca explain that when unemployment is high, job search activities will be reduced and the rate of absenteeism will be lower whereas when unemployment is low, job search activities will be heightened and the rate of absenteeism could increase (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 159). Incentive/Reward system does not necessitate much defining either because it was already touched upon as one of the facets of job satisfaction, more particularly satisfaction with pay. The evidence concerning the relationship between pay satisfaction and absenteeism is inconsistent. On the one hand, Steers and Rhodes cite studies such as the ones by

Patchen (1960) and Smith (1977) that found an inverse relationship between pay satisfaction and absenteeism and on the other hand, they cite other studies such as the ones conducted by Garrison and Muchinsky (1977) and Hackman and Lawler (1971) that failed to demonstrate such a relationship between these two variables (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 396). Pay, which is different from pay satisfaction because the latter refers to an affective orientation toward pay whereas the former refers to direct cash income, is also part of the Incentive/Reward factor (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 13). Evidence on the relationship between pay and absenteeism is inconclusive. For example, in one study cited by Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook and Lo, conducted in 2000 by Goldberg and Waldman, pay was significantly and negatively related to absenteeism whereas in two other studies; first Taunton et al. (1989) found a weak relationship between pay and absence spells and second, in 1995, Taunton and al. failed to find any relationship between these two variables (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p. 322; Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p. 17; Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p. 223). Likewise, included in the Incentive / Reward factor is the role of punitive sanctions by management in controlling absenteeism. There are some studies that indicate that the use of stringent reporting and control procedures such as; keeping detailed attendance records, requiring medical verifications for reported illnesses as well as strict disciplinary measures was related to lower absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 398). However, there are also studies cited by Steers and Rhodes, such as the one realized by Rosen and Turner in 1971, where the latter failed to find such a relationship (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). Work group norms are another factor that is not very difficult to understand. Steers and Rhodes note that the pressure to attend (box 5) can also come from one's colleagues in the form of work group norms (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). The strength of such norms seems to be well established. According to Gibson (1966), cited by Steers and Rhodes, where the norms of the group emphasize the importance of good attendance for the benefit of the group, increased attendance is usually expected (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). For Whyte (1969), also cited by Steers and Rhodes, this relationship is expected to be particularly strong in groups with high

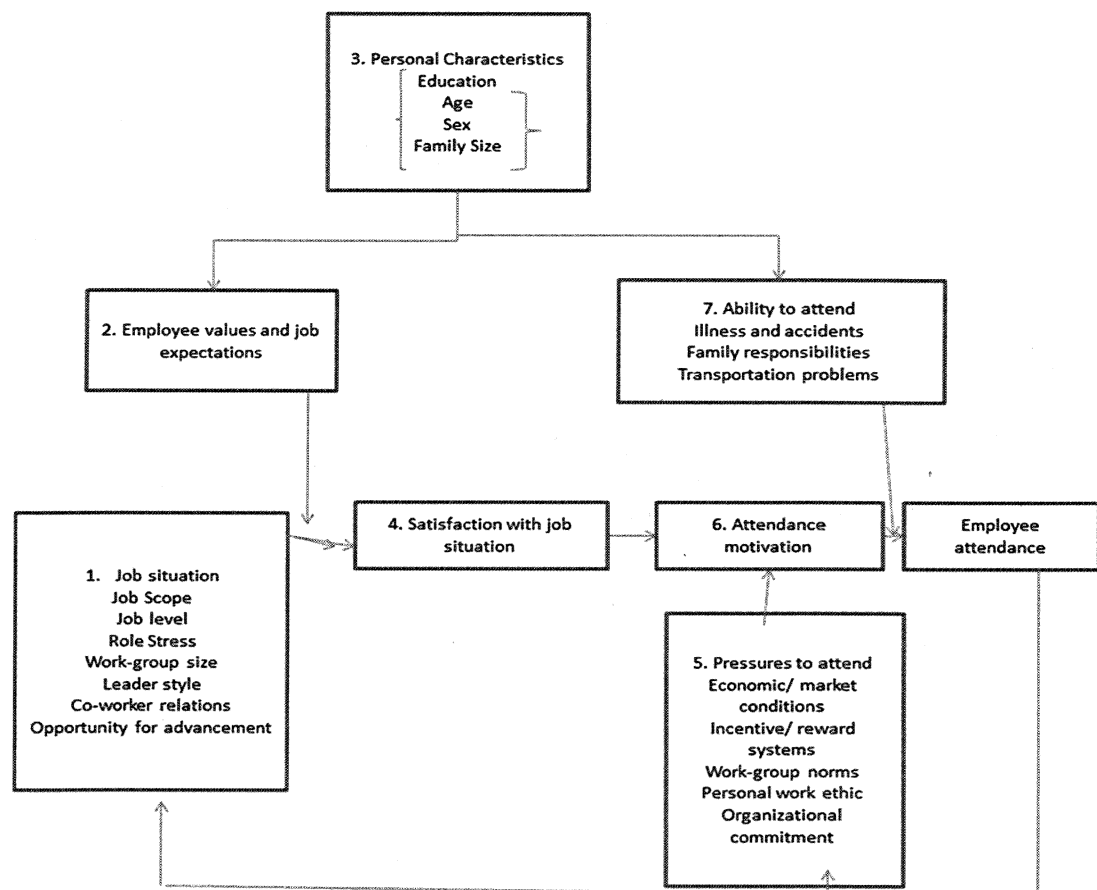
degree of work group cohesiveness (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). In the same time, Steers and Rhodes caution that work group norms can also have detrimental effects on attendance in situations where they actually support periodic absenteeism and punish regular attendance. In agreement with Steers and Rhodes, Kanungo and Mendonca assert that work group norms can function as a two-edged sword. According to the latter, when the norms of a highly cohesive work group are supportive of regular attendance, employee absence in that group will be low, but when the norms operate to isolate employees that attend regularly, absenteeism will be high (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 160). Personal work ethic is defined as “a compelling belief in the goodness of work itself” (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 160). Most research on the work ethic points to considerable variation across employees in the extent to which they feel morally obligated to go to work. Steers and Rhodes argue that although more studies on work ethics are certainly needed, a major pressure to attend derives from the belief by employees that work activity is an important aspect of life, almost irrespective of the nature of the job itself (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). Finally, the last factor that is part of pressures to attend is organizational commitment. Organizational commitment represents an agreement on the part of the employees with the goals and objectives of an organization as well as the willingness to work towards these goals (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 400). Meyer and Allen (1991), cited by Tett and Meyer, articulated three forms of organizational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993, 261-262). Affective commitment denotes the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization, continuance commitment arises from the analysis of costs related to the departure from the organization and finally normative commitment denotes a willingness to remain with an organization due to a sense of moral obligation (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 261-262; Chênevert, Banville & Cole, 2006, p. 5). Although most authors claim that each form of commitment is important, withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover are nonetheless more strongly linked to affective commitment (Chênevert, Banville & Cole, 2006, p. 5). Hence, in this study, the term organizational commitment will refer strictly to the affective dimension of the

commitment construct. Direct linkages between commitment and absenteeism have been reported by Steers (1977), Mowday et al. (1982), Clegg (1983), Meyer and Allen (1991) among others, indicating a negative relationship between organizational commitment and absenteeism. In other words, the more committed one was to the organization, the less one was absent from work (Brooke, 1986). However, the support for this relationship is not entirely consistent. For example, in a study conducted by Angle and Perry in 1981, absenteeism showed no statistically significant association with commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981, p. 9).

The fourth and last relationship proposed by this model is the one between ability to attend (box 7), attendance motivation (box 6), employee attendance (box 8) and personal characteristics (box 3). Steers and Rhodes draw the attention to the fact that sometimes even if an employee wants to come to work and has high attendance motivation, there are many instances where such attendance is not possible, that is when the employee does not have a choice in the matter (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 399). Factors that can impede the employee ability to attend include family responsibilities such as illness of a child, transportation problems such as a car that breaks down and actual employee illness (Rhodes & Steers, 1990, p. 47). In this model, the ability to attend (box 7) appears to play the role of a gatekeeper, moderating the relationship between attendance motivation (box 6) and actual attendance (box 8) (Rhodes & Steers, 1990, p. 47). Illness and accidents do not require much clarification. According to some authors such as Hill and Trist (1955), cited by Steers and Rhodes, together illnesses and accidents represent a primary cause of absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 400). Research shows that both illnesses and accidents are often associated with increased age as demonstrated by studies such as the one conducted by Baumgartel and Sobol in 1959, cited by Steers and Rhodes. Also included in this category of health related absenteeism are problems of alcoholism and drug abuse that hinder attendance behaviour (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 400). Overall, illnesses and accidents that render an employee unable to attend work can be categorized as an involuntary absence (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p.

157). Family responsibility is another concept that is self-explanatory. This factor is shown to be largely determined by the personal characteristics such as age and gender (box 3). In general, it seems that women as a group are more absent than men. This finding is explained by the fact that women typically hold different types of jobs compared to men as well as by the responsibilities that are traditionally assigned to women such as caring for sick children (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 400). In support for these theories, Steers and Rhodes cite studies in the likes of Naylor and Vincent (1959) and Noland (1945) among others. In addition, Steers and Rhodes note that the available evidence also suggests that absenteeism for women declines throughout their work career, which in their point of view, is mainly due to the fact that family responsibilities associated with young children tend to become less central (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 400). As for males, the pattern is quite different. Males' unavoidable absenteeism, as demonstrated by studies such as the one by Nicholson, Brown and Chadwick-Jones (1977), cited by Steers and Rhodes, appears to increase with age, possibly due to health issues, while avoidable absenteeism does not (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p.400). Absenteeism due to family obligations is generally classified as involuntary or unavoidable absenteeism (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 157). Finally, one other factor that is included in the ability to attend transportation problems. There is certainly much evidence that suggests that difficulty in getting to work can sometimes influence employee attendance whether it is a question of the travel distance to work as presented in a study by Martin (1971) cited by Steers and Rhodes or it is a question of weather conditions causing significant traffic as presented in a study by Smith (1977) also cited by Steers and Rhodes (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 401). Although Steers and Rhodes do mention the existence of some rare studies such as the one by Nicholson and Goodge (1976), who found no relationship between either travel distance or availability of public transportation and absence, overall, there are good reasons to believe that transportation problems represent a potential obstacle for attendance for some employees even when they are motivated to attend (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 401). Absence from work because of

transportation problems is often unavoidable and involuntary (Kanungo & Mendonca 1997, p. 159).



**Figure 1.1 Steers and Rhode's (1978) Model of Employee Attendance**

### 1.2.2 Brooke's (1986) Model

Brooke's 1986 model of employee absenteeism modifies and extends Steers and Rhode's (1978) model of employee attendance (See Figure 1.2). Brooke argues that despite its considerable utility as a starting point, Steers and Rhode's model is suffering from several limitations which make it difficult to test empirically (Brooke, 1986, p.345). According to Brooke, the sources of difficulties in its operationalization arise from imprecision in specification of the dependant variable and of predictors such as job scope, work group norms, incentive/reward systems and economic/market conditions that involve multiple concepts; potential problems with the construct

validity of key components such as attendance motivation; pressures to attend and ability to attend as well as considerable uncertainty regarding the interpretation of relationships specified by their model (Brooke, 1986, p. 346-348 ; Brooke & Price, 1989, p. 2). This model seems to focus more on the voluntary type of absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 351).

The first variable that is included in Brooke's model is routinization .The second variable in Brooke's model is centralization. Centralization refers to "the degree to which worker power is distributed in an organization" (Price & Mueller, 1986, p.12). The concentration of all organizational power in one individual would reflect a maximum degree of centralization. In contrast, centralization would be at the minimum if all members of an organization exercised their powers equally (Brooke, 1986, p. 351).

The third variable in Brooke's model is pay. The fourth variable in Brooke's model is distributive justice. Distributive justice is the degree to which rewards and punishments are related to performance inputs into the organization. This concept addresses the extent to which the employees are rewarded fairly for their contributions and efforts on behalf of the organization (Brooke, 1986, p. 352). Distributive justice is also referred to as fairness of outcomes. Generally, the employees are likely to judge an outcome as unfair when they do not receive a reward or recognition they feel they deserve (Kelloway & Francis, 2008, p. 153). Distributive justice is usually high in an organization when hard work is rewarded and absence is punished. The assumption is that when hard work is rewarded whether it is through pay, recognition or advancement, the employees will define the situation as equitable and fair (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 13).The empirical evidence of the linkages between distributive justice and absenteeism is not conclusive. For example, in one study conducted by Taunton, Hope, Woods and Bott, in 1995, the authors found that distributive justice was related to absenteeism in one out of four hospitals (Taunton, Hope, Woods & Bott, 1995, p. 223). Yet, in another study realized by Taunton,



Krampitz and Woods in 1989, distributive justice was not related to absence spells (Taunton, Krampitz & Woods, 1989, p. 17).

The fifth, sixth and seventh variables in Brooke's model are meant to capture an overall role of stress. These are: role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010, p. 711). The eighth variable in Brooke's model is work involvement. Work involvement is a normative belief in the centrality of the work role in a person's life. It refers to a personal code of ethics regarding work in general rather than attitudes toward a specific job and is more a function of one's past cultural conditioning or socialization (Brooke, 1986, p. 352; Kanungo, 1982, p. 342). According to Brooke, there seems to be considerable support for the direct negative effect of work involvement on absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 353).

The ninth variable in Brooke's model is organizational permissiveness. Organizational permissiveness is the degree to which absenteeism is accepted by an organization. The key idea behind this concept is frequent absence without any consequence. In an organization where employees are able to take unscheduled days off easily, or in which numerous casual absences result in little or no apparent adverse consequences would be considered as highly permissive towards absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p.353). Empirical support for a direct relationship between permissiveness and absenteeism was reported by a number of authors cited by Brooke which are Seatter (1961), Rhodes and Steers (1981), Winkler (1980) among others (Brooke, 1986, p.353). Nonetheless, not all authors agree that there exists a relationship between these two variables. For example, Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook and Lo claim that organizational permissiveness does not constitute a significant predictor of absenteeism (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p. 322).

The tenth variable in Brooke's model is kinship responsibility. It refers to "involvement in kinship groups within local community" (Brooke, 1986, p. 353).

This concept is concerned with existence of obligations outside the organization which may be related to absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 353). The eleventh variable in Brooke's model is job satisfaction. Satisfaction is generally defined as "the degree to which individuals like their jobs" (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 16). In fact, virtually all major reviews of the absenteeism literature have found consistently significant relationships between job satisfaction and absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 353). In all, except in a few studies, overall job satisfaction has been found to be negatively related to absenteeism (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 326). For example, Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook and Lo report three studies where job satisfaction predicted absenteeism; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Taunton et al. 1985, 1995. In all these studies, as job satisfaction increased, absenteeism decreased. (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p. 320). However, this relationship was not supported by all the researchers. For example, Locke (1976), cited by Mowday, Porter and Steers, points out that the magnitude of the correlation between dissatisfaction and absenteeism is generally quite low, seldom surpassing  $r=0.40$  and typically much lower (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 82). Moreover, Nicholson, Brown and Chadwick-Johnson, in their review of twenty-nine studies, concluded that "at best it seems that job satisfaction and absence from work are tenuously related" (Nicholson, Brown & Chadwick-Johnson, 1976, p. 734). Then, these researchers went on to declare that "the common view of absence as a pain-reductive response on the part of the worker to his work experience is naive, narrow, and empirically unsupportable" (Nicholson, Brown & Chadwick-Johnson, 1976, p. 735).

The twelfth variable in Brooke's model is health status. It refers to "the physical and mental states as well as being among employees" (Brooke, 1986, p. 354). The thirteenth variable in the Brooke's model is alcohol involvement. It refers to "the extent to which employees use alcohol as a coping mechanism" (Brooke, 1986, p. 354). This concept mainly focuses on the effects of employee absenteeism because of alcohol misuse, defined as "excessive or problem drinking, which is a socially deviant mechanism for coping with stress, dissatisfaction, or other personal

maladjustments” (Brooke, 1986, p. 354). There seems to exist an overwhelming empirical evidence such as studies by Miner and Brewer (1976) and Roman and Trice (1976) among others, cited by Brooke, that point to the fact that higher levels of alcohol involvement are related to higher levels of employee absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p.354).

The fourteenth variable in Brooke’s model is job involvement. Job involvement is a cognitive belief which describes the degree to which the individual is psychologically identified with his or her current job and tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy one’s present needs (Kanungo, 1982, p.342). Usually, individuals who possess high levels of job involvement believe that their current job has the ability to fulfill important needs, whatever they may be (Brooke, 1986, p. 354). Some studies point to direct significant relationships between job involvement and absenteeism. For example, Cohen (2000) cited by Davey, Cummings, and Newburn-Cook and Lo, reported that, as job involvement increased, absenteeism significantly decreased (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p. 320). However, there are other studies that fail to demonstrate the existence of any relationship between these two variables. For example, in one study conducted by Blau (1986) also cited by Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook and Lo, the direct relationship of job involvement to absenteeism was not significant (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook & Lo, 2009, p. 320). The fifteenth and last variable in Brooke’s model is organizational commitment.

What’s more is that Brooke did not stop at developing an absenteeism model. In 1989, he and Price actually tested their model of determinants of absenteeism empirically. Among some of the confirmed hypotheses we find the positive effect of kinship responsibility on absenteeism; the positive indirect effect of role ambiguity on absenteeism; the direct positive effect of organizational permissiveness on absenteeism; the indirect positive effects of centralization on absenteeism; job satisfaction mediating completely the effects of routinization and work involvement on absenteeism and partially mediating the effects of centralization and role

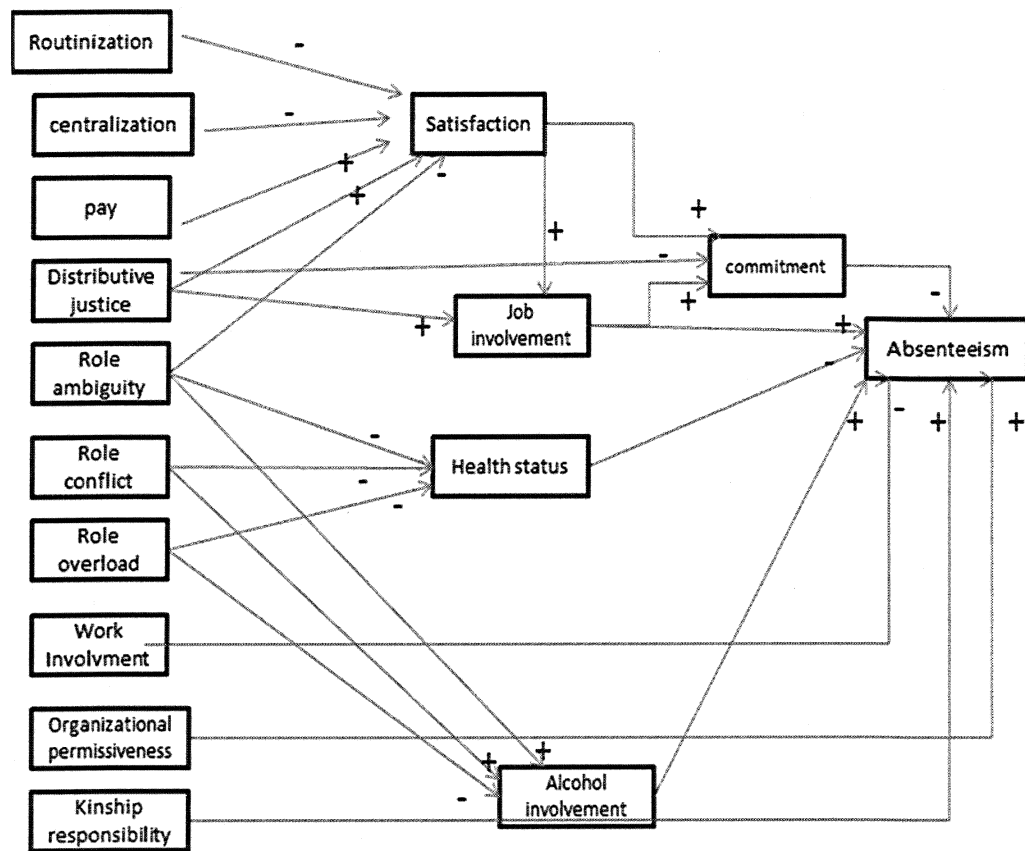
ambiguity; the direct positive effect of alcohol involvement on absenteeism; as well as the direct positive effect of pay on absenteeism (Brooke & Price, 1989, p. 16). The hypotheses that were not validated by Brooke and Price's empirical study include among others: the non-significance of job involvement and distributive justice, the non-significance of organization commitment as a mediator between other attitudes and absenteeism and lastly the non-significance of health status as a determinant of absenteeism (Brooke & Price, 1989, p. 16).

What make this model particularly relevant to our study are the site as well as the sample chosen by the authors for their research. This study took place in a hospital in the upper mid-West of United States and the sample included 425 full-time clerical employees, registered nurses, managers and non-nursing clinical staff (Brooke & Price, 1989, p. 5).

### **1.2.3 Model Synthesis**

At first glance, if we look at the two models presented, none appears to include any of the variables that are of interest to our study: neither recognition nor turnover intentions are explicitly stated as being relevant variables in the employees' decision not to show up to work. Yet, by analyzing closely some of the variables described, it becomes clear that recognition and turnover intention, without being formally acknowledged as pertinent variables in the model, are nonetheless implied by some of the variables that the authors chose to present. For example, one of the variables in Steers and Rhode's model is job scope which includes routinization, which is also part of Brooke's model, and autonomy. These variables do not appear to be elements of recognition, but actually, they are very important elements of recognition. In fact, according to St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé, one of the ways show recognition to its employees is through job enrichment (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau & Lagassé, 2005, p.94). Also, for Brun and Cooper, autonomy is closely linked to recognition at work (Brown & Cooper, 2009, p.115). Likewise; Ventrice

asserts that employers can recognize their employees by providing them with more freedom in how the work gets done (Ventrice, 2003, p. 19). Another variable that is present in both models is role ambiguity. If the employees' role is not clear, chances are, it is because they are not getting enough feedback. And what is feedback? For some authors, feedback is conceptually close to recognition. For example, Peterson and Luthans declare that social recognition is a form of feedback and vice versa (Peterson & Luthans, 2006, p. 277). In addition, St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé also affirm that recognition can be expressed through feedback (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau & Lagassé, 2005, p. 89). Another variable that implies recognition is distributive justice in Brooke's model. Just by looking at its definition, it becomes evident that the concept of distributive justice is related to recognition. Also referred to as fairness of outcomes, distributive justice is generally judged as being low, when employees do not get the recognition that they feel they deserve (Kelloway & Francis, 2008, p.153). As well, according to Tremblay and Simard, when the employees perceive that they are being recognized, it is possible to speculate that they are also more likely to perceive that they are being treated fairly (Tremblay & Simard, 2006, p. 115). Similarly, a variable that implies recognition is satisfaction with job situation in Steers and Rhodes' model and satisfaction in Brooke's model. Studies such as Danish and Usman (2010) and Ali and Baloch (2010), show that there is a significant positive relationship between recognition and satisfaction (Danish & Usman, 2010, p. 8; Ali & Baloch, 2010, p.13). In other words, when employees feel that they are being recognized, they are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Concerning intention to stay or turnover intention, it also seems that none of the above absenteeism models include it as an important predictor variable. However, one of the variables present in both models is organizational commitment. In the Steers and Rhode's model, organizational commitment acts as one of the factors under pressures to attend (box 5) which in the path diagram affects attendance motivation (box 6) which in turn affects employee attendance (box 8) while in the Brooke's model commitment is the variable directly preceding absenteeism.



**Figure 1.2 Brooke's (1986) Model of Employee Absenteeism**

Actually, because in the Steers and Rhode's model, organizational commitment is one of the factors included in (box 5) that directly affects attendance motivation (box 6), and which according to Steers and Rhodes "represents the primary influence on actual attendance", it is reasonable to assume that as in Brooke's model, commitment is thought to be one of the last steps of the model prior to the actual decision to be absent (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, p. 393).

Moreover, in the past twenty years, the construct of organizational commitment has occupied a prominent place in organizational behavioural research, but unfortunately as Morrow (1983), cited by O'Reilly and Chatman, pointed out, "the growth in commitment related concepts has not been accompanied by a careful segmentation of commitment's theoretical domain in terms of its intended meaning of each concept or the concepts' relationships among each other" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492). For example, Staw (1977), also cited by O'Reilly and Chatman, noted that the value of commitment as a separate construct distinct from other psychological concepts such as motivation, involvement, or behavioural intention remains to be demonstrated (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492). In addition, in their review of turnover literature, Maertz and Griffeth point to the conceptual overlap between commitment and turnover intentions (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004, p. 668). In fact, there are a number of authors including Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Porter, Crampton, and Smith 1976, among others, that view intent to stay as one of the dimensions of commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Porter, Crampton & Smith, 1976). More specifically, according to these authors commitment consists of three components: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Price and Mueller, 1981, p. 558). The intent to stay in the organization simply corresponds to the third component (Price and Mueller, 1981, p. 558). Thus, if we accept the latter argument that intent to stay or turnover intention constitutes one of the dimensions of the concept of commitment; this would mean that in both models reviewed, turnover intention is one of the most direct and immediate predictor variables of employee absenteeism.

### **1.3 Determinants of Turnover**

Over the last half a century, turnover researchers identified a large array of antecedent variables that are scattered throughout the turnover and work attitude literatures (Martz & Griffeth, 2004, p. 667). Very few areas within industrial /organizational

psychology have received as much attention as employee turnover. In fact, there have been literally hundreds of turnover investigations since the early nineties (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 55). Many of the variables that determine employee turnover turned out to be the same variables that determine employees' absenteeism. This finding actually led some authors to hypothesize that no differences exist between absenteeism and turnover insofar as the factors inducing such forms of behaviour are concerned (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 173). However, other authors criticized this position. For example, Porter and Steers, in their 1973 study that investigated the antecedents of both absenteeism and turnover argued that "too often in the past, absenteeism has been considered simply an analogue of turnover, and it has been assumed without sufficient evidence, that the two shared identical roots" (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 173). Our literature review enabled us to come to a conclusion that both perspectives are correct. There are situations when absenteeism and turnover will have common antecedents and will be related to each other, and there are other situations when these two behaviours will not have common antecedents and thus not be related. Considering a substantial number of turnover studies and reviews, it is not surprising that there exist many turnover models (Price & Mueller, 1986, p.21). Yet, according to some researchers such as Maertz and Rodger, there is still no overarching framework available for researchers and practitioners that seek to understand the employee's motivations for staying with or leaving an organization (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004, p.491). According to the latter, "although predictive models abound, gaps in theory remain" (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004, p.491). In this section, we will discuss some of the turnover models that surfaced from our literature review that will enable us to identify some of the most common predictors of turnover. These are: Mobley's (1977), Price and Mueller's (1981), Mowday, Porter and Steer's (1981), and finally Hom and Griffeth's (1995) models.



### 1.3.1 Mobley's (1977) Model

In recognition of the fact that some of the major antecedents of turnover had been already identified, in his conceptual model, Mobley focused on the intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982 p. 116; Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 53). Rather than attempting a full model of the turnover process, he chose to concentrate on how satisfaction does or does not ultimately lead to turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982 p. 116). (See Figure 1.3)

The block A in the model represents the process of evaluating one's existing job whereas block B represents the resulting emotional state of a certain degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Mobley, 1977, p. 237). In order to explain the process inherent in blocks A and B Mobley proposed a few theories. For example, one such theory is Porter and Steers' theory of met expectations. According to this theory, met expectations constitute a central concept in withdrawal behaviour. For Porter and Steers, in an employment situation each individual comes with his own unique set of expectations for his job and whatever these expectations may be, it is important that they are substantially met, if that individual is to be satisfied (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 170-171).

Block C in the model suggests that one of the consequences of dissatisfaction is to stimulate thoughts of quitting. In this block, Arrow (a) accounts for the fact that other forms of withdrawal less extreme than quitting such as absenteeism for instance, represent other possible consequences of dissatisfaction (Mobley, 1977, p. 237).

Block D suggests that the following step in the decision to leave the organization is the evaluation of the expected utility of search and of the cost of quitting. In the evaluation of the expected utility of search, Mobley includes some estimate of the probability of finding an alternative to working in the present job, some evaluation of the desirability of possible alternative and the costs of search such as travel time. As

an example of costs of quitting, Mobley provides loss of seniority or benefits (Mobley, 1977, p. 237-238). The latter postulated that “ if the costs of quitting are high and /or the expected utility of search is low, the individual may re-evaluate the existing job, reduce thinking of quitting, and /or engage in other forms of withdrawal behaviour (Mobley,1977,p.238). However, if the dissatisfied employee believes that an acceptable alternative can be found and perceives that the costs of quitting are not prohibitive, the employee may decide to look for work elsewhere (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984, p. 142).

The next step, block E, represents the behavioural intention to search for alternative jobs. In addition, in block E, Arrow (b) accounts for the fact that non-job related factors can also elicit an intention to search. Mobley provides examples of a spouse transfer or health problems (Mobley, 1977, p. 238). After the intention to search, comes block F, which represents the actual search behaviour. Mobley explains that at this point “if no alternatives are found, the individual may continue to search, re-evaluate the existing job, simply accept the current state of affairs, decrease thoughts of quitting, and/or engage in other forms of withdrawal behaviour” (Mobley, 1977, p. 238).

In case of an availability of alternatives, which may include withdrawal from the labour market Arrow (d), an evaluation of alternatives may be initiated. This step corresponds to block G. Next to the evaluation of alternatives, comes a comparison of the present job to an alternative which corresponds to block H in the model (Mobley, 1977, p. 239). If the comparison favours the alternative, it will stimulate the intention to quit, representing block I in the model, followed by actual resignation, representing block J in the model (Mobley, 1977, p. 239; Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984, p. 142). On the other hand, according to Mobley “if the comparison favours the present job, the individual may continue to search, re-evaluate the expected utility of search, re-evaluate the existing job, simply accept the current state of affairs, decrease thoughts

of quitting , and/or engage in other forms of withdrawal behaviour” (Mobley, 1977, p. 239).

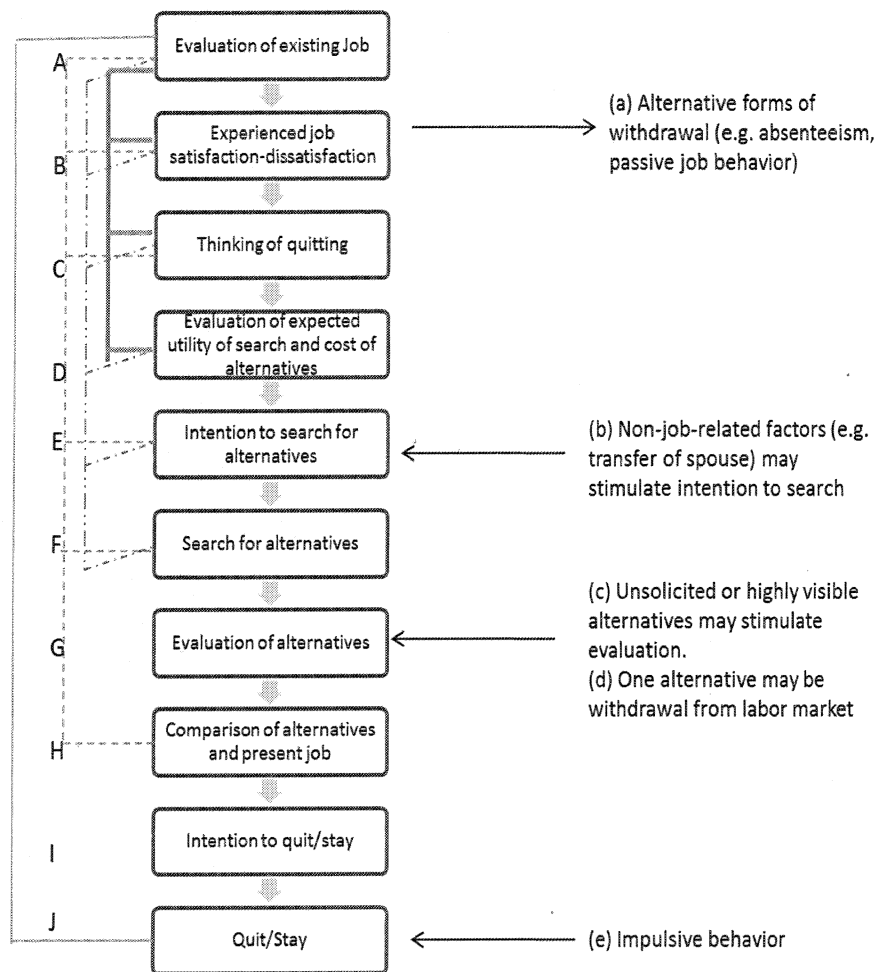
Finally, Arrow (e) accounts for the fact that some individuals decide to quit impulsively, involving few if any of the preceding steps in this model (Mobley, 1977, p. 239). As well, it is important to note that Mobley’s model is described as heuristic rather than descriptive. It was not presented as a lock-step sequence that all employees experience identically. Rather, some employees may skip particular steps or experience an alternative ordering of steps. Actually, for some employees the whole process will end up being more conscious than for others and for some employees the act of quitting will be more impulsive rather than based on a subjectively rational decision process (Mobley, 1977, p. 239; Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 53).

In fact, there exists some partial empirical support for Mobley’s 1977 model. In 1978, a simplified version of the model was tested by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth. The abbreviated model hypothesized that job satisfaction will influence thoughts of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit. Thoughts of quitting was predicted to directly influence intention to search which, in turn , was predicted to directly influence intention to quit. Furthermore, the probability of finding an acceptable alternative was proposed to affect intentions to search and to quit (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, p.1984, p. 142). Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth found validity for this reduced form of Mobley’s 1977 model even if the probability of finding an acceptable alternative did not have any direct effects on search and quitting intentions (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, p. 1984, p. 142). The setting of this research study is very in much in line with the context of our research project. More specifically, the location where Mobley, Homer and Hollingsworth proceeded with data collection is a medium-sized south-eastern urban hospital and the sample included 203 full-time employees from service, technical, clerical and nursing services (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978, p. 410). Also, in somewhat more stringent tests of Mobley’s

model, Hom, Katerberg and Hulin, reported cross-validation of the model across similar samples (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 116-117). However, Mowday et al. (1980) were unable to cross-validate the model across diverse samples (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 117).

### **1.3.2 Price and Mueller's (1981) model**

It is often said that the major weakness of various turnover explanatory models is their lack of inclusiveness. Different models vary greatly in terms of the variables that they emphasize as being important. Variables that are deemed as critical in one model are not even cited in other models. One of the explanations offered for why this is so is that there exist multiple research traditions, each often ignoring the findings of the others. More specifically, some of the variables included in the models are stressed by economists, while others are suggested by sociologists or social psychologists (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 559). In 1977, Price provided a summary of the research findings, on the determinants of turnover, and thus giving scholars the opportunity to become aware of the generalizations that may be drawn from the past research. Price and Mueller's 1981 model is based on the synthesis of this literature (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 544-543) (See Figure 1.4).



**Figure 1.3 Mobley's (1977) Model of Turnover**

The first variable that is included in Price and Mueller's model is opportunity elsewhere. Opportunities elsewhere in the turnover literature often surface under the name of alternative job opportunities. Along with job satisfaction, it is one of the major variables that captured the academic attention (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001, p. 458). Back in 1958, March and Simon, cited by Lee and Mitchell, proposed that employee turnover results from the individual's ease of movement which over time has been essentially equated with job alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 52). The availability of jobs is influenced by economic and market conditions (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 130). Most research studies with regards to the relationship between job opportunities and turnover point to a positive significant relationship

between them (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 515). For example, in a study conducted in 1981, Price and Mueller found a positive correlation between opportunities elsewhere and turnover (Price & Mueller 1981, p.558). Moreover, in 1986, Price and Mueller affirmed that their study results confirm the importance of opportunity elsewhere in the context of turnover research (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 122). Lastly, in a more recent meta-analysis Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner found a positive correlation between these two variables (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 468).

The second variable in Price and Mueller's model is routinization. The relationship between routinization and turnover is highly inconclusive. Early studies, such as Kilbridge (1961), Wild (1970), cited by Porter and Steers, reported a moderate positive association between task repetitiveness and turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 165). Later on, authors such as Cotton and Tuttle, in their meta-analysis of employee turnover, declared that task repetitiveness is weakly if at all related to turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 63). Finally, a more recent meta-analysis carried out by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner shows that there may be no relationship between routinization and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 468).

The third variable in Price and Mueller's model is participation. Price and Mueller define participation as "the degree of power that an individual exercises concerning a situation" (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 546). There are not too many studies that investigated the relationship between participation and turnover. For example, Cotton and Tuttle initially planned to include participation in their review of turnover, but then had to abandon that idea because too few studies addressed the relationship between these two variables (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 56). However, the researchers such as Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, that studied the linkages between these two variables, found a significant negative correlation between participation and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 467).

The fourth, fifth and sixth variables in Price and Mueller's model are instrumental communication, integration and pay. Instrumental communication refers to formal transmission of job information within the organization. Usually, discussions of realistic job previews deal with instrumental communication as do treatments of feedback (Mueller & Price, 1986, p.12). The relationship between instrumental communication and turnover is inconsistent. Early reviews such as Porter and Steers (1973) did not include instrumental communication as an important variable for predicting turnover. Then in 1977, researchers such as Price, cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, claimed that there exists a consistent negative relationship between instrumental communication and turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 514). To finish, a more recent meta-analysis by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner indicates that there may be a significant negative relationship between these two variables (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 467). Social integration refers to the degree to which the members of an organization have close friends in their immediate work units (Mueller & Price, 1986, p. 29-158). The relationship between social integration and turnover is rather ambiguous. Early reviews such as Porter and Steers (1973) did not include social integration as one of the pertinent determinants of employees' decision to leave their organization. Some later reviews such as the one by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) initially intended to include it, but then abandoned the idea because too few studies addressed the relationship between these two variables (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 57). One of the rare authors that actually proposed a relationship between social integration and turnover is Price (1977), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 514). According to the latter, there is a consistent negative relationship between the two (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 514).

Clearly, based on this evidence, no conclusions can be made in reference to the effect of social integration on turnover.

There exists a considerable disagreement concerning the relationship between pay and turnover. While authors such as Porter and Steers (1973) and Price (1977), cited

by Cotton and Tuttle, report pay to be consistently and negatively related to turnover, other authors such as Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, in their 1979 review conclude that the findings with regards to pay are inconclusive (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 56; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 514). However, a more recent meta-analysis realized by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner shows a significant negative correlation between pay and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 466).

The seventh and eight variables in Price and Mueller's model are distributive justice and promotional opportunity. There is a disagreement amongst various authors on the relationship between promotional opportunities and turnover. On the one hand, authors such as Porter and Steers (1973), report promotional opportunities to be consistently negatively related to turnover and on the other hand, authors such as Price (1977) and Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979), cited by Cotton and Tuttle are less convinced (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 155; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 56). For the latter, the relationship between these two variables is inconclusive (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 514). Nevertheless, a more recent meta-analysis carried out by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner shows a significant negative correlation between promotional chances and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 467). Most studies that investigate the relationship between distributive justice and turnover, point to an existence of a weak negative association between these two variables. For example, in their 1986 study, Price and Mueller found that distributive justice had a small total effect on turnover (Price & Muller, 1986, p. 120). These authors concluded that it is the amount rather than the distribution of monetary rewards which is the most important to turnover (Price & Muller, 1986, p. 120). Likewise, a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner established a negative correlation between distributive justice and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 466).



The ninth variable in Price and Mueller's model is professionalism. The latter define professionalism as "a dedication to occupational standards of performance" (Price & Muller, 1986, p. 14). According to Price and Mueller, turnover literature suggests that professionalism is one of the determinants that can produce changes in turnover (Price & Muller, 1981, p. 544). Yet, not all studies provide evidence in support of his position. For example, Bartol (1979) did not find any relationship between professionalism and turnover (Bartol, 1979, p. 820).

The tenth variable in Price and Mueller's model is generalized training. The authors define it as "the degree to which the occupational socialization of an individual results in the ability to increase the productivity of different organizations" (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 546). Unlike most of the variables in Price and Mueller's model that were included based on the synthesis of turnover literature, generalized training was included because of Becker's (1964) suggestions and Parson's (1972) empirical study (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 546). In effect, there are a number of studies such as Denova (1969) and Lefkowitz (1970), cited by Hinrichs, that point to the fact that the institution of a training program can lead to lower rates of turnover (Hinrichs, 1980, p. 20). In addition, a more recent meta-analysis carried out by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, shows a significant negative relationship between training and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 465). Nonetheless, these results are not universal. For example, Hinrich cited a study conducted by Quinn, Levitin and Eden in 1975, where the researchers found that training specifically designed to reduce turnover among disadvantaged population, did not have any effect (Hinrichs, 1980, p. 20).

As it was the case with general training, kinship responsibility was not added to the model based on synthesis of turnover literature. Rather, kinship responsibility was suggested by the demographic literature on migration (Price & Muller, 1981, p. 547). Research on the effects of family consideration on turnover is centered on two related variables: family size and family responsibility. In one study realized in 1959, Naylor

and Vincent and Stone, cited by Porter and Steers, found that increases in family size among female samples were related to increased turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 166). Also, in another study, Knowles (1964), also cited by Porter and Steers, found that increased family size was inversely related to turnover among male workers (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 166). Porter and Steers explain these gender differences by the nature of traditional role differentiation in the past. However, Frederico, Frederico and Lundquist (1976), cited by Muchinsky and Tuttle, found that family size and turnover were negatively related in a sample of female therapists (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 54). This finding weakens the explanation offered by Porter and Steers, as differential results occurred in two samples. Frederico, Frederico and Lundquist, cited by Muchinsky and Tuttle, noted that a large portion of the sample consisted of females who were not working in the capacity of secondary wage earners which constitutes the more traditional view of female workers (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 54). This evidence led Muchinsky and Tuttle, to alter Porter and Steers' explanation from differences based on gender of the employee to differences based upon primary/secondary wage earner status of the employee (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 54).

Closely related to the family size, are the needs and requirements placed on an individual as a result of family responsibilities resignation (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 167). Guess (1955), cited by Porter and Steers, found that some of the turnover among male factory workers resulted from pressure exerted by their spouses who feared that the strains of the job will break up what they considered a normal family life (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 167). As well, Saleh et al. (1965), cited by Porter and Steers, found that thirty percent of their sample of terminated nurses reported family reasons as a primary reason for their resignation (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 167). Similarly, evidence from three studies which include Fleishman and Berniger (1960), Minor (1958) and Robinson (1972), cited by Porter and Steers, indicates that older women whose children are either grown or require less attention, consistently demonstrate lower turnover rates than their younger counterparts (Porter & Steers,

1973, p. 167). Muchinsky and Tuttle conclude that degrees of family responsibility are positively related to turnover whereas the relationship between family size and turnover seems moderated by whether the employee is the primary or secondary wage earner (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 167). More specifically, for primary wage earners, this relationship appears to be positive, while for secondary wage earners this relationship seems to be negative (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 54). Finally, a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, showed a significant negative correlation between kinship responsibility and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p.465).

The twelfth and the thirteenth variables are job satisfaction and intent to stay. With regards to satisfaction, there are some studies that seek to establish a relationship between overall job satisfaction and turnover and other studies that seek to establish a relationship between satisfaction with different job facets and turnover. Most of the early studies used global measures of job satisfaction, while many of the later studies used measures of job facet satisfaction (Muchinsky and Tuttle, 1979, p. 55). Most studies involving overall job satisfaction indicate a negative relationship between overall satisfaction and turnover (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Newman, 1974), with the exception of Koach and Steers' (1978) study, cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, as well as March and Mannari's (1977) study, cited by Hinrichs, where the researchers did not find any relationship between these two variables (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 497; Hinrichs, 1977, p. 16).

As for the relationship between job facet satisfaction and turnover, the study results are indecisive. Some authors such as Cotton and Tuttle claim that satisfaction with work itself, pay satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision produce significant results, indicating that these are negatively related to turnover whilst other authors such as Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner assert that satisfaction with various job facets represent a modest predictor of turnover (Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000, p. 479; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 60). Moreover, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) model of the

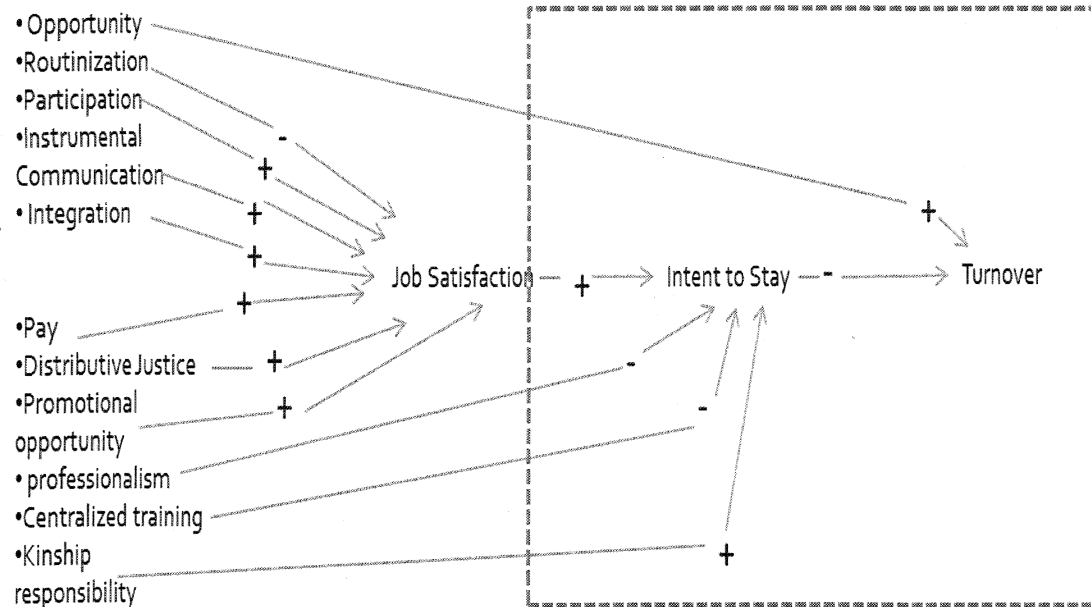
relationships among intentions and behaviours emphasizes the role of intentions in understanding the link between turnover intentions and turnover. This model postulates that “the best single predictor of an individual’s behaviour will be a measure of his intention to perform that behaviour” (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p. 673). There exists an important number of empirical studies that all point to the fact that intention to stay or to leave is consistently related to turnover behaviour and constitutes the most proximate determinants of turnover behaviour. These include studies by Kraut (1975); Newman 1974; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Saks, Mudrack and Ashforth, 2011; Steel and Ovalle, 1994; Price and Mueller, 1981; Carraher and Buckley, 2008; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, 1979 and many others. Evidence from all these studies supports the existence of a direct relationship between intentions to quit and quitting. The studies indicate that intention to stay has a direct negative effect on turnover. Put differently, turnover intention has a direct positive influence on turnover. Finally, in a recent meta-analysis, Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner found that quit intentions are the best predictors of employees’ decision to quit among all the variables that they have reviewed with a positive correlation of .38 (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 468).

What’s more is that Price and Mueller tested their model empirically. The researchers’ findings were that intent to stay turned out to have the largest effect on turnover than any other variable in the model; opportunity was the second most important variable with both indirect and direct effects on turnover; general training was the third most important determinant of turnover with both direct and indirect effects; job satisfaction had no significant net influence on turnover, but was found however, to serve as an important mediating variable between the other determinants and turnover. Some of the remaining determinants such as pay, kinship responsibility, routinization, instrumental communication, promotional opportunity, and participation had total effects too small to be meaningful while other determinants such as integration, distributive justice and professionalism had no total effects at all (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 559).

Interestingly enough, the actual research site where data was collected is at seven general hospitals and the sample consisted of 1,091 both full time and part time nonsupervisory, registered nurses (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 550). Considering the fact that our research study also takes place in a hospital and our sample consists of caregivers, this makes this model relevant to our research study.

### **1.3.3 Mowday, Porter and Steers' (1981) Model**

Mowday, Porter and Steers' model was developed as a summary and integration of prior theoretical and empirical work on turnover. Building upon earlier research, the latter constructed a largely cognitive model of voluntary employee turnover that focuses on the processes leading to the employee's decision to either leave or stay. Mowday, Porter and Steers describe their model in three sequential parts which entail: (a) job expectations and attitudes, (b) job attitudes and intent to leave and (c) intent to leave, available alternatives, and actual turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.123; Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 54). (See figure 1.5)



**Figure 1.4 Price and Mueller's (1981) Model of Turnover**

The first part of Mowday, Porter and Steers' model begins with an individual and his expectations and values (box 2) because it is the individual who must ultimately decide whether to stay or to leave (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 123). These expectations (box 2) are thought to be influenced by at least three factors which are: individual characteristics (box 1), available information about an organization (box 3) and alternative job opportunities (box 4). Among the individual characteristics (box 1) that according to Mowday Porter and Steers, are thought to influence job expectations and ultimately, turnover are: one's education, age, tenure, family responsibilities, family income level, personal work ethic, previous work experiences and personality (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 123). From the above mentioned characteristics, most turnover research focuses on education, age, tenure, family responsibility and personality. With regards to the relationship between education and turnover- evidence is inconsistent. For example, the study by Frederico, Frederico and Lundquist (1976), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, found that female credit union employees with higher education had lower tenure whereas in another study by Hellriegel and White (1973) also cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, discovered no such differences (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino,

1979, p. 497). However, a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Griffeth Hom and Gaertner showed a significant positive correlation between education and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 1995, p. 465). In reference to age, most existing empirical evidence, with the exception of Hellriegel and White (1973), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, that reported no differences, generally agree that there is a negative relationship between increased age and turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496; Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 164). Similarly, Muchinsky and Tuttle mention eleven studies that have related age to turnover and almost all have reported that age is negatively related to turnover, with the exception of two studies by Shott et al. (1963) and Downs (1967) that report mixed findings (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 50). At last, in a more recent meta-analysis, carried out by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, the latter found a significant negative correlation between age and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 1995, p. 466). Closely associated with age is tenure with an organization, and not surprisingly, some corresponding results emerge. For example, Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino report three studies that show a negative relationship between tenure and turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). In fact, according to some authors such as Mangione (1973), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, the length of service is one of the best single predictors of turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). A recent meta-analysis by Hom, Griffeth and Gaertner indicates that there is a negative significant correlation between tenure and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 1995, p. 465). Concerning family responsibility, the relationship between this variable and turnover has been reviewed previously. As for the relationship between personality and turnover, despite Porter and Steers' (1973) claim that there is negative correlation between these two variables for extreme traits, the research evidence is inconclusive at best (Hinrichs, 1980, p. 14; Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 514). One of the most comprehensive reviews was conducted by Schuh (1967), cited by Hinrichs. Schuh's conclusion was that there were no consistent trends for personality and turnover (Hinrichs, 1980, p. 14).

In addition, job expectations are influenced by the available information about the job and the organization (Box 3). In general, research points to a significant negative correlation between met job expectations and turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 515; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986, p. 61; Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 170-171). In fact, in a recent meta-analysis realized by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, the researchers found a significant negative correlation between met expectations and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 1995, p. 466).

The third major determinant of employee expectations is the extent to which an individual has alternative job opportunities (box 4) (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 125). The next segment in the model relates job expectations and values to subsequent job attitudes (box 8). The literature on job attitudes suggests that affective responses that include job satisfaction and organizational commitment, result from the interaction of three factors that are: (a) job expectations, (b) organizational characteristics and experiences and (c) job performance level. There are a number of studies that examined the organizational commitment–turnover relationship. Mowday, Porter and Steers cite a few studies where highly significant negative correlations were found between commitment and turnover. These include Angle and Perry (1981); Koach and Steers, (1978); Steers, (1977), cited by Mowday, Porter and Steers, among others (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 38). Only one study, already mentioned before, Marsh and Mannari (1977), cited by Hinrich, did not find a significant relationship between commitment and turnover (Hinrich, 1977, p. 16). In fact, for Mowday, Porter and Steers, commitment represents the best single indicator of turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.38). Findings from the studies realized by Koach and Steers (1976) and Porter et al. 1974, cited by Steers, indicate that commitment is often even a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (Steers, 1977, p. 46). Similarly, a more recent meta-analysis of correlates and antecedents of employee turnover, conducted by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, also showed that organizational commitment predicts turnover better than overall satisfaction (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 480). More specifically, the



established correlation between overall job satisfaction and turnover was  $-.19$  whereas the correlation between organizational commitment and turnover was  $-.23$  (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000, p. 466-470). Albeit, not all researchers seem to agree with the fact that commitment is a better predictor of turnover than satisfaction. For example, although Price and Mueller in their 1986 study found that commitment reduces turnover, they still argued that satisfaction is a more important determinant of turnover than commitment and that the results of their research considerably de-emphasize the postulated significance of commitment (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 122). According to Mowday, Porter and Steers, in addition to organizational characteristics and experiences, other aspects that could influence the extent to which these expectations are met include pay, promotions, employees' actual job duties, coworker relations, work group size, supervisory style, organization structure and opportunities for participation in decision making, geographic location and organizational values and goals (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 126).

Research also suggests that employee performance may influence employee job attitude and ultimate turnover (box 7). In effect, most studies find a moderate negative correlation between job performance and turnover, meaning that good performers are more likely to stay and poor performers are more likely to quit (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004, p. 676). For example, in a recent meta-analysis, Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner showed that there is a negative correlation between job performance and turnover (Hom, Griffeth & Gaertner, 2000, p. 269). In the same time, some researchers such as Allen and Griffeth (2001), cited by Maertz and Griffeth, point to the fact that good performers may also be more likely to quit than average performers, especially if their performance is visible to potential alternative employers (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004, p. 676). Furthermore, the resulting employee attitudes, in turn can be expected to influence several other aspects of behaviour. They can feed back and influence both organizational experiences (box 6) and job performance (box 7). As well, job attitudes may cause employees to engage in efforts to change the situation (box 9). Mowday, Porter and Steers believe that it is only logical to assume that before

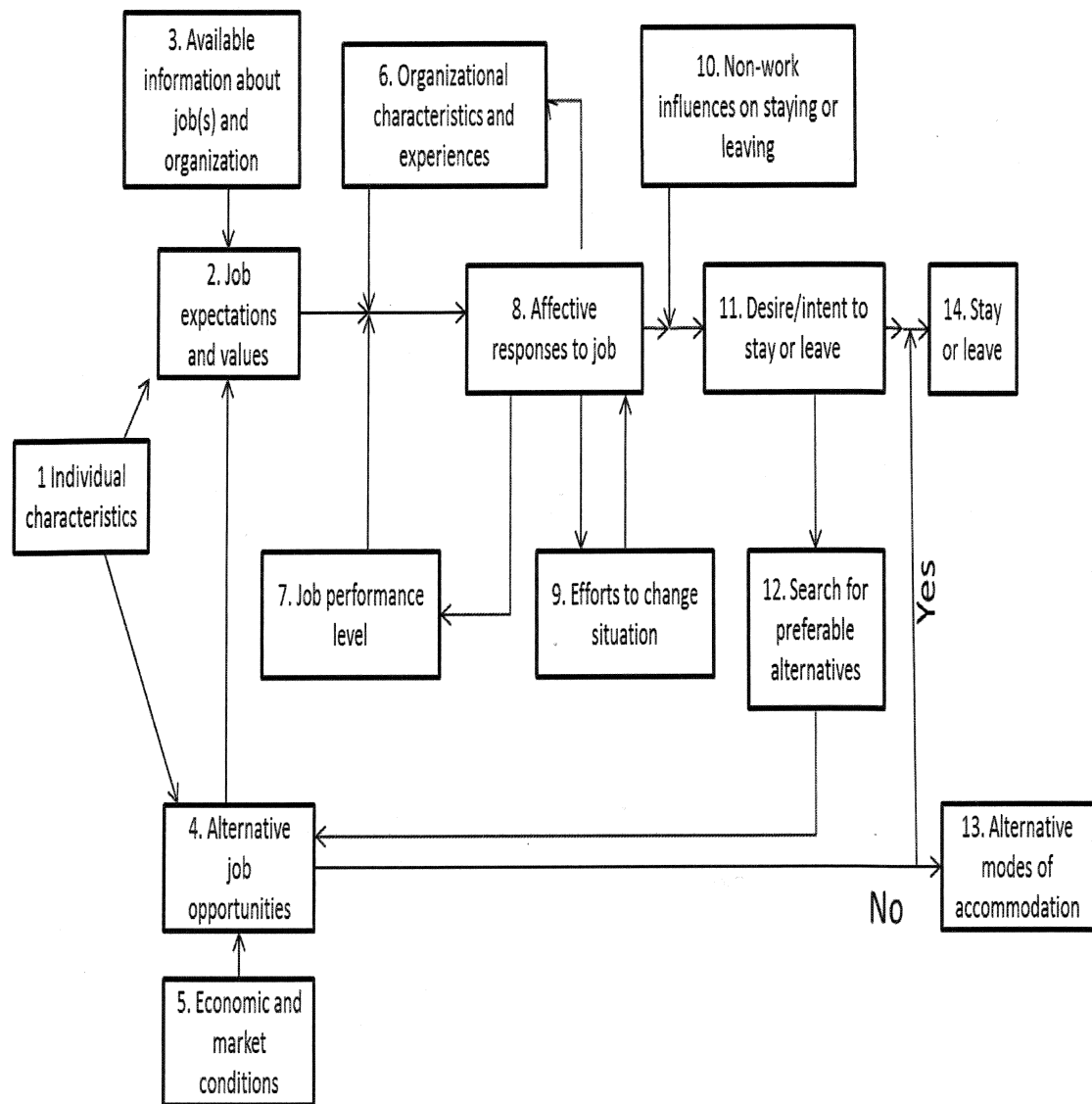
actually leaving, the individual would attempt to change or eliminate those aspects of the work situation that are compelling he/her to leave (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 127).

The second part of the model examines the relationship between one's attitude and one's desire or intent to leave. Mowday, Porter and Steers suggest that the desire or intent to leave is influenced by (a) employees' affective responses to the job and nonwork influences of staying or leaving (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 128). Following Fishbein's (1967), suggestion that one's affective responses to the job can lead to behavioural intentions and that these intentions govern behaviour, Mowday, Porter and Steers, expected that reduced levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (box 8) will result in an increased desire or intent to leave (box 11). Also, for Mowday, Porter and Steers, another often ignored determinant of desire or intent to leave is a constellation of nonwork influences of staying or leaving (box 10). In fact, there are many circumstances under which one may or may not like a particular job, but still does not quit. These situations may include: an employee that tolerates an unpleasant job because of its instrumentality for future considerations, a spouse that is limited geographically to a certain region and alternative employment is scarce; the employee's central life interests lie outside of work and family considerations (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 128). It is important to note that in this model, for the sake of parsimony, the authors combined desire to leave and intent to leave (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 128).

The third and last part of the model focuses on the link between behavioural intent to leave and actual turnover. In this model, Mowday, Porter and Steers, argue that employee turnover is ultimately determined by a combination of behavioural intent to leave (box 11) and the availability of alternative job opportunities (box 4). The researchers explain that employees' intent to leave can influence subsequent turnover in two ways. First, it may cause turnover directly. Second, it may further influence actual turnover indirectly by causing the employee to initiate search behaviour for

alternative jobs (box 12) (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 130). Moreover, for Mowday, Porter and Steers, alternative job opportunities (box 4) are also influenced by individual characteristics (box 1) and economic market conditions (box 5). These authors assert that individual characteristics such as age, sex, occupation often constrain one's opportunities for jobs (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 130). Furthermore, economic and market conditions also influence the availability of jobs. Mowday, Porter and Steers explain that if few alternative opportunities exist, the employee would probably be less likely to leave the organization, but instead, in order to reduce the anxiety or frustration that results from not being able to leave, he/she may engage in alternative forms of withdrawal or accommodation such as absenteeism, drug abuse or alcoholism, sabotage, slowdowns and so on (box 13) (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 130).

In fact, there is some partial empirical support of Mowday, Porter and Steer's model. Lee and Mowday (1987) reported that most of the antecedents to turnover were related to one another as it was predicted by the model ( Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 54). More specifically, the results of the study indicated that met expectations, job values, intention to leave the organization and actual leaving were all related to many , though not all theoretical antecedent variables , with the intention to leave explaining six percent of the variance in the employee turnover ( Lee & Mowday, 1987, p.721; Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 54).



**Figure 1.5 Mowday, Porter and Steer's (1981) Model of Turnover**

#### 1.3.4 Hom and Griffeth's (1995) Model

Based on a review of turnover literature, Hom and Griffeth developed a general framework to summarize the numerous turnover causes documented by research studies over the years (Hom & Griffeth, 2001, p. 121). (See figure 1.6) According to Hom and Griffeth, employees who become dissatisfied with their jobs, or lose their organizational commitment, form their decisions to leave. There are some employees that leave soon after making this decision and there are others that start looking for a

job if they believe that quitting is not costly to them and the opportunities for employment elsewhere are good. Job seekers then solicit alternative jobs, and if they obtain alternative jobs that are better than their present job, they leave. Hom and Griffeth's framework identifies different antecedents of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. More specifically, these authors contend that repetitive work, (work complexity) role stress (conflicting, vague or excessive work role requirements), conflict with coworkers, inadequate compensation, poor working relationships with supervisors (weak leader-member relations), unmet expectations (initial expectations not fulfilled at work), and negative affectivity (personality disposition to view the job and oneself negatively) create job dissatisfaction (Hom & Griffeth, 2001, p. 120). Likewise, Hom and Griffeth also postulate that inequitable distribution of rewards and benefits (procedural justice), job insecurity, and conflicts between work and non-work roles (inability to participate in family or other outside pursuits due to work demands and scheduling) undermine feelings of commitment to the organization (Hom & Griffeth, 2001, p. 120-121). The researchers also clarify that even though in their diagram, they assign each determinant with a particular attitude, this is done for clarity sake only. In other words, the influences presented may shape both satisfaction and commitment (Hom & Griffeth, 2001, p. 120). Furthermore, in 1994, Lee and Mitchell suggested that traditional thinking overlooks some non attitudinal reasons behind quitting. They argued that sometimes people quit even when they are not dissatisfied. To address this gap in turnover literature, Lee and Mitchell's unfolding model, advances the notion of shocks which they defined as "jarring event that triggers the psychological analyses involved in quitting a job" (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberle, 2008, p. 242). Shocks can be personal such as pregnancy or acceptance to graduate school, organizational such as a hospital that changes its nursing philosophy, or external such as unsolicited job offer. It is important to note that shocks are not always negative. For example, a mother may decide to quit because she wants to personally raise her young children. All of the above events can trigger exits. Given this development, Hom and Griffeth included

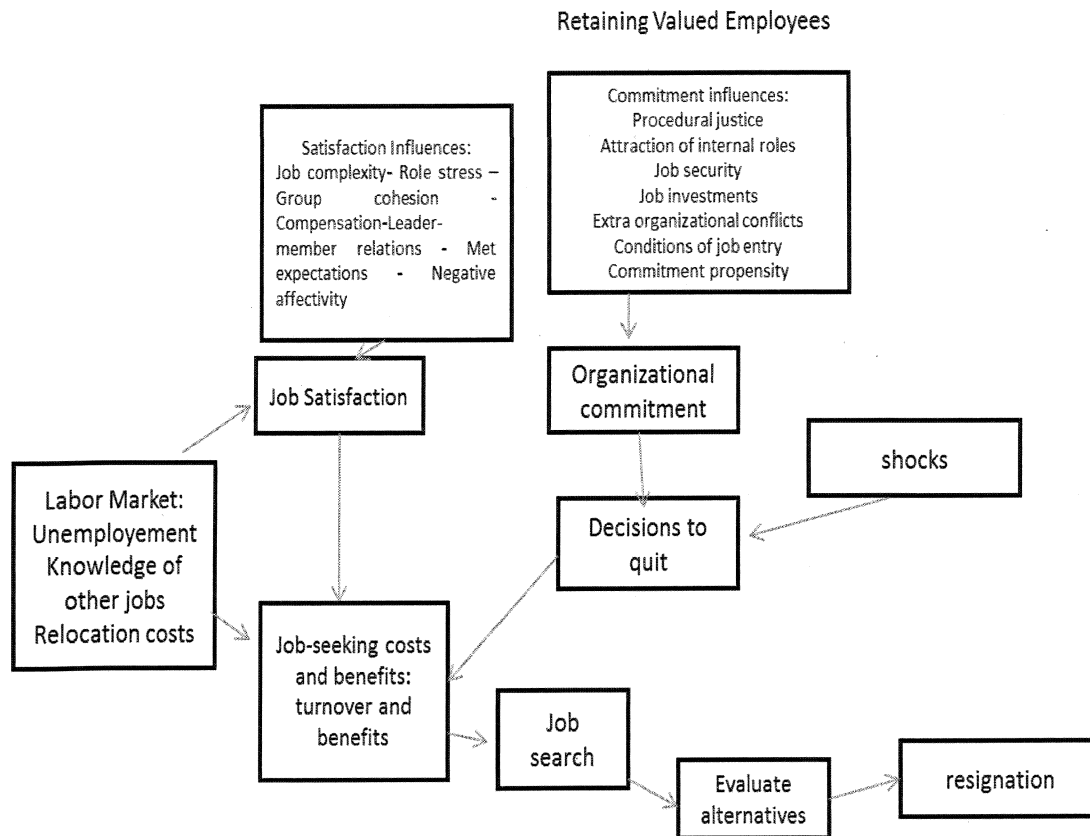
shocks in their model as another determinant of withdrawal decisions (Hom & Griffeth, 2001, p. 121).

In addition, in 1991, Hom and Griffeth empirically tested a longitudinal analogue of their model. A survey measured model constructs on three occasions. The structural equations modeling test revealed that some of the links between variables in the model turned out contemporaneously whereas others emerged after a longer time period (Hom & Griffeth, 1991, p.350). The context and the sample of this research do not seem to differ that much from ours. More precisely, for their study, Hom and Griffeth recruited 190 registered nurses from a Cleveland hospital (Hom & Griffeth, 1991, p. 358). This makes this particular model somewhat pertinent to our research study.

### **1.3.5 Model Synthesis**

As it was the case with absenteeism models, at first sight, if we examine the four turnover models presented, none of them seems to explicitly include recognition, the first variable of interest to our study, as a potential predictor of the employees' decision to leave their organization. However, once again, by analyzing carefully some of the variables described, it becomes obvious that, without being formally acknowledged as a relevant variable in the models, recognition is nonetheless implied by some of the variables that the authors chose to present. For example, one of the variables in Price and Mueller's model is participation. According to St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé, making employees participate in an important project, is one of the ways that an organization can show recognition to its employees (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau & Lagassé, 2005, p. 89). Also, Brun and Cooper claim that participation in decision making is closely linked to recognition at work (Brown & Cooper, 2009, p. 115). Other variables that may imply recognition are distributive justice and routinization in Price and Mueller's model and procedural justice defined as "perceived fairness of decision making processes" and job

complexity which includes repetitive work, in Hom and Griffeth's model (Kelloway & Francis, 2008, p.153). The relationship between these variables and recognition was explained earlier. As well, instrumental communication in Price and Mueller's model appears to be conceptually similar to feedback since treatments of feedback deal with instrumental communication (Mueller & Price, 1986, p.12). Also, in Hom and Griffeth's model, we find role stress which among other elements, comprises of role clarity. Stajkovic and Luthans explain that "feedback derives its motivating power almost exclusively from the information it provides about the employees' performance, which in turn enhances role clarity" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p.162). In addition, job satisfaction is explicitly included in all four models. In Mowday, Porter and Steer's model, along with commitment, satisfaction represents one of the components of (box 8) affective responses to job. As it was previously pointed out, there exists a significant positive correlation between recognition and satisfaction (Gostick & Elton, 2001, p. 18). Another variable that may imply recognition is general training in Price and Mueller's model. According to St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé, one way that an organization can recognize its employees is by providing them with training (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau & Lagassé, 2005, p. 89). Likewise, Half suggests that it is possible to show recognition to employees by establishing programs that allow them to develop new skills (Half, 1996, p. 14). Similarly, as a part of a recognition program, Ventrice also proposes to have employees select their own professional development courses and seminars (Ventrice, 2003, p. 19).



**Figure 1.6 Hom and Griffeth's (1995) Model of Turnover**

The last variable that may imply recognition is performance in Mowday, Porter and Steer's model. As mentioned previously, recognition and performance are closely linked (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p.9). According to Nelson and Speitzer, "a fundamental reason for the use of recognition is that it has a measurably positive impact on the job performance of the employees" (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. 9). For example, in one study, Luthans and Stajkovic found that feedback and social recognition had positive effect on work performance. More specifically, social recognition improved performance 17 % whereas feedback improved performance 10 % (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 178). With regards, to the second variable of interest to our study; intention to stay or turnover intention, the latter is explicitly stated as a crucial determinant of turnover. In all four models presented, this variable



constitutes one of the last steps before the employees' decision to quit, in accordance with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action and past empirical evidence for an association between turnover intention and turnover behaviour (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010, p. 710).

#### **1.4 Recognition**

There is no consensus in the scientific community as to the precise definition of the concept of recognition (Bédard, Giroux & Morin, 2002, p. 4). In fact, a number of authors such as Gostick and Elton (2001) and St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé (2005) use concepts such as recognition and rewards interchangeably. In other words, for these authors, there is no difference in the meaning between these two concepts. However, there are also authors such as Speitzer and Nelson (2003) that make a clearer distinction between recognition and rewards. Others, such as Peterson and Luthans (2006), for instance, place rewards in the financial incentives category and recognition in the non-financial incentives category. In this section, we will attempt to discern some of the differences if any, between the concepts of recognition, rewards and incentives, which will help us, decide on the definition that would be most appropriate in the context of our research study.

According to Human Resources Glossary (2004), recognition refers to intangible, nonmonetary acknowledgement of outstanding performance in the form of praise, accolades, commendations, thank-yous, and tributes and may be either formal or informal (Human Resources Glossary, William, 2004, p. 565). Similarly, for Rose, recognition is typically non-financial and consists of ceremonial actions taken to publicise meritorious performance (Rose, 2001, p. 13). Furthermore, Barton asserts that recognition involves identifying and reinforcing work performance, with its basic premise that employees want to be acknowledged and valued for their contributions to the organization (Barton, 2002, p.viii). Nelson and Speitzer view recognition as a positive consequence provided to person for a behaviour and result. They note that recognition can take the form of acknowledgment, approval or the expression of

gratitude (Nelson & Speitzer, 2003, p. xxv). Finally, Brun and Cooper define recognition as “a constructive act of appreciation for a person’s contribution, in terms of both work practices and personal investment” (Brun & Cooper, 2009, p. 22). These authors also believe that recognition can be given both formally and informally. Moreover, it is important to add that as mentioned earlier, a number of authors, including Knouse (1995), Peterson and Luthans (2006), Ventrice (2003) consider feedback as one of the aspects of recognition.

According to Human Resources Glossary (2004), reward is a special tangible (usually) or intangible gain given in return for something done or received to repay an individual or group, but reward is not pay, which usually refers to regular compensation for doing a job (Human Resources Glossary, William, 2004, p. 582). Yet, for Rose, rewards are salary increases, bonuses and promotions keyed to job performance (Rose, 2001, p.13). In addition, Barton claims that rewards involve giving something of value to recognize positive work results, and are an integral part of recognition programs (Barton, 2002, p. viii). Lastly, Nelson and Speitzer, define reward as “an item or experience with a monetary value, (but not necessarily money) that is provided for a desired behaviour or performance often accompanying recognition (Nelson & Speitzer, 2003, p. xxv).

According to Human Resources Glossary (2004), “incentive is a tangible (usually) or intangible reward, financial or otherwise, for performance or achievement that tends to induce, stimulate or spur individual or group motivation and action” (Human Resources Glossary, William, 2004, p.334). Speitzer and Nelson define incentives as “recognition or reward that is promised in advance for an anticipated achievement based on meeting certain criteria” (Nelson & Speitzer, 2003, p. xxvi). As for Rose, the latter argues that incentives are about meeting targets and carry the message “you do that and I will give you that” (Rose, 2001, p. 14).

From this short review of some of the most common definitions of recognition, rewards and incentives available in the literature, it is clear that recognition; is more likely to be nonmonetary and intangible; it can be both formal and informal and

generally includes feedback as one of its aspects. As for rewards, it seems that they are more likely to be tangible than non –tangible, can be monetary, but are not always so, and typically are used in conjunction with recognition. In fact, Hart also makes the distinction between recognition and rewards based on the tangible/ intangible dichotomy. For the latter, the differences between recognition and rewards are that rewards refer to material objects while recognition is ethereal and not easily quantifiable (Hart, 2010, p. 25). To conclude, incentives seem to be about achieving certain objectives and are mostly tangible, and seem to be conceptually closer to reward than recognition because like rewards, more often than not, they are tangible.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of recognition that will be retained is a hybrid of some of the definitions proposed by various authors. More specifically, we will define recognition as tangible, but nonmonetary rewards in the form of merchandise awards, trophies, trips, certificates, theatre, lottery, sporting events tickets or intangible, nonmonetary acknowledgement and appreciation of contribution to the organization in the form of praise, accolades, commendations, thank-yous, and tributes that may be either formal or informal, excluding promotions, but including feedback. Because of the confusion with regards to the meaning of the terms recognition and rewards and the fact that the two often come together, it is highly unlikely that the employees clearly see the difference between the two. Thus, the tangible rewards in our definition of recognition refer to rewards that have a monetary value, but that do not literally involve money. Also, promotions were excluded from the definition because they generally are accompanied by salary increases. Actually, our definition of recognition is not far apart from the classification of recognition proposed by Bourci r and Palobart. For the latter, there are three levels of recognition. The first two recognition/ consideration and pure recognition are less tangible whereas the third one recognition /reward is more tangible (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997, p. 101-102). According to Bourcier and Palobart, Recognition / Consideration occurs when we pay more attention and give more consideration to someone than the attention and consideration that is due to him /her simply because of the fact that he/she is a human (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997, p.101-

102). Pure recognition refers to the recognition of some of the subjectively deserving efforts that do not necessarily lead to the expected results and do not really qualify for any tangible rewards (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997, p. 101-102). To finish, Recognition/Rewards refer to recognition that is accompanied by signs of distinction that have some monetary value, but are not money per se. These include various material symbols such as diplomas, gift certificates, dinners, vacations etc. (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997, p. 101-102). The first part of our definition tangible nonmonetary rewards, appear to resemble the third level of Bourcier and Palobart's classification whereas the first and the second levels of Bourcier and Palobart's classification, appear to resemble the second part of our definition, nonmonetary intangible recognition.

Another interesting classification of recognition was proposed by Brun and Cooper. These authors identified four ways in which people can be recognized. The first one is recognizing the person's value. Here, we recognize the person and his/her distinct qualities, skills, know-how and qualifications. For Brun and Cooper, this recognition is expressed through interpersonal relations and face-to-face encounters (Brun & Cooper, 2009, p. 24). The second way to recognize people, according to Brun and Cooper, is by recognizing the quality of their work. The latter believe that here, we recognize the quality of the job done, the ingenuity shown during the work process, the innovations that are suggested or the improvements that are continually made to a service (Brun & Cooper, 2009, p. 24). The third way that people can be recognized, according to this classification, is by recognizing investment in work. Brun and Cooper allege that here, we recognize the involvement or contribution of an employee or a team. The authors explain that although sometimes, and despite every effort, the results will not live up to the expectations, it is important to still recognize the quality and the intensity of the efforts, which are often unseen (Brun & Cooper, 2009, p.24). In the end, the fourth way to recognize people identified by Brun and Cooper is recognizing results. These authors assert that here, we primarily recognize contributions by employees to strategic goals. This recognition represents a judgment of an individual or team in terms of usefulness, output, productivity or performance

(Brun & Cooper, 2009, p. 25). By inspecting Brun and Cooper's classification, we can clearly see some similarities with the classification suggested by Bourcier and Palobart. For example, the third way to recognize people, recognizing investment in work, is very much alike with pure recognition in the Bourcier and Palobart's classification. As well, the first way to recognize people, recognizing the person's value, is quite similar to consideration/ recognition in Bourcier and Palobart's classification.

Moreover, in 1994, St-Onge grouped recognition in seven distinct categories. The first category is the one of communication. Here, the latter included communication of recognition over the telephone or in person, written communication such as a letter or a note, gestures such as a handshake or a pat on the back etc. The second category is the one of behaviour. Here, St-Onge included recognition behaviours such as helping, approving, supporting, defending, consulting, inviting, listening, showing respect, smiling, giving feedback etc. The third category is the one of providing recognition through symbols. In this category, we find trophies, certificates; excellence ceremony etc. The fourth category is visibility. Here, St-Onge included different ways in which the employees' performance can be made more visible. For example, this can be done by congratulating its peers, emphasize performances during meetings, adding a recognition letter to the employees' record etc. The fifth category includes showing recognition by modifying working conditions such as giving extra days off, work-life balance practices, flexible work schedules including flextime ,part time work, compressed work week and job sharing, job characteristics including skill variety, autonomy, promotions etc. The sixth category is about tangible recognition. This category includes recognizing performance with trips, gifts, tickets etc. At last, the seventh category advocated by St-Onge is remuneration. Here, the latter, proposed to recognize performance through compensation plans based on commission, piece rate, spot bonuses, profit sharing, gainsharing plans etc (St-Onge, 1994, p. 4).Considering the definition that we have adopted for the purpose of our research study, the first six categories with the exception of promotions in the fifth category, showing recognition by modifying working conditions, constitute

recognition as conceptualized in our model. The seventh variable does not fit well with the definition that we have selected because by in large, it includes recognition that involves strictly monetary compensation.

Bourcier & Palobart, 1997	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✚ Recognition/Consideration</li> <li>✚ Pure Recognition</li> <li>✚ Recognition Reward</li> </ul>
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**Table 1.1 Types of Recognition (Bourcier & Palobart, 1997)**

Brun & Cooper, 2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✚ Recognizing Person's Value</li> <li>✚ Recognizing Quality of Work</li> <li>✚ Recognizing Investment in Work</li> <li>✚ Recognizing Results</li> </ul>
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**Table 1.2 Types of Recognition (Brun & Cooper, 2009)**

St-Onge, 1994	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✚ Communication</li> <li>✚ Behaviour</li> <li>✚ Symbols</li> <li>✚ Visibility</li> <li>✚ Working conditions</li> <li>✚ Tangible recognition</li> <li>✚ Remuneration</li> </ul>
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**Table 1.3 Recognition Categories (St-Onge, 1994)**

#### **1.4.1 Recognition, Turnover Intentions and Turnover : Theory and Empirical Evidence**

There is a multitude of theoretical writings that associate recognition with turnover and practically all them seem to indicate that organizations which recognize and respect their employees tend to retain their employees for longer periods of time (Luthans, 2000, p. 54-55). According to Ventrice, organizations that have demonstrated their ability to offer effective recognition as a whole tend to experience lower turnover than their industry averages (Ventrice, 2003, p. 7). Similarly, Appelbaum and Kamal cite employee recognition as a major and recurring source of employee turnover (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000, p. 736-737). In addition, a recent survey of 10 000 employees from Fortune 1000 organizations found that 40 percent identified lack of recognition as a major reason for leaving a job (Gibson, 2008, p.38). As well, Mercer Report (2003) cited by Chan and Chew, shows that employees that stay with their organizations feel that they are rewarded fairly and adequately (Chan & Chew, 2008, p. 19). According to these authors, employees tend to remain with the organization when they feel that their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognized and appreciated (Chan & Chew, 2008, p. 19). In fact, there is one theory in particular that can potentially explain the supposed negative relationship between recognition and turnover. This theory is Blau's 1964 theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964). According to Blau, when viewed as an exchange, the employment relationship can be characterized as either social or economic (Blau, 1964, p. 93-94). Economic exchange relationships are generally short term and involve the exchange of concrete and often pecuniary resource whereas social exchange relationships tend to be long term and are more likely to involve less tangible and perhaps more symbolic or socio-emotional resources such as recognition (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002, p. 926). Social exchanges are usually voluntary actions of treatment of the employees, with the expectation that such treatment will be reciprocated in kind. The exact nature and extent of future returns is a function of personal obligation, gratitude and trust (Gould-Williams, 2007, p. 1628). It seems

only normal that we would give to those that give to us and hurt those that hurt us. What this means, in the context of our research study, is that on the basis of norms of reciprocity, employees that feel recognized, will pay back by maintaining their membership in the organization whereas employees that do not feel appreciated will return the favour by taking the exit. Eisenberger (1990), cited by Gould-Williams, state that the process of social exchange signals to the employees that their contributions are valued, and that their individual interests and well-being are cared for (Gould-Williams, 2007, p. 1628). As for the pure economic exchanges, better characterized by contractual arrangements enforceable through legal actions, the same logic does not seem to apply (Gould-Williams, 2007, p. 1628). If social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust, purely economic exchange does not (Blau, 1964, p. 94). With regards, to the linkages between recognition and turnover, empirical studies represent a rare commodity. Amongst the very few recent studies that attempted to test the association between these two variables, we find studies by Peterson and Luthans (2006) and Moncarz, Zhao and Kay (2009). In the Peterson and Luthans' study, one of the main findings was that social recognition and feedback had a significant impact on turnover over time (Peterson & Luthans, 2006, p. 281). Likewise, Moncarz, Zhao and Kay's study showed that employee recognition positively reduces non-management employee turnover (Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009, p. 2). Much more prevalent in the recognition literature, are empirical studies that verify the potential relationship between recognition and turnover intention. One such study is Ali and Baloch's 2010 study, mentioned earlier, where the authors found a significant negative correlation between recognition and turnover intention (Ali & Baloch, 2010, p. 12). Another study that attempted to corroborate whether there exists a relationship between recognition and turnover intention is Chew and Chan's study conducted in 2008. The results obtained, once again, indicate that recognition positively predicts intention to stay (Chew & Chan, 2008, p. 9). Finally, in a study carried out in 2007, by Paré and Tremblay, one of the key findings was that nonmonetary recognition is negatively and directly related to turnover intentions (Paré & Tremblay, 2007, p. 326).



### **1.4.2 Recognition Foci Theory and Empirical Evidence**

An emerging trend in the organizational justice and social exchange literatures is that employees maintain distinct perceptions about and direct meaningfully different attitudes and behaviours towards multiple organizational foci. The social exchange literature suggests that people may have different social exchange relationships with the organization as a whole and with specific individuals or groups within the organization. Commitment is one of the many ways in which multifoci social exchanges relationships have been operationalized (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 842-847). In the past, when commitment researchers asked themselves the question of what is that employees in the organizations are committed to, the answer seems to have been the organization, and thus the term organizational commitment has arisen. However, according to Reichers, for many employees, organization is an abstraction, an abstraction that in reality is represented by coworkers, superiors, subordinates, customers and other groups and individuals that collectively comprise the organization and thus terms such as coworker, superior, subordinate and customer commitments have arisen (Reichers, 1985, p. 470-475). As well, related literatures have shown that employees differentiate and react to the level of social exchange they perceive themselves having with an organization, as reflected in perceived organizational support, organizational trust and organizational identification, the supervisor, as reflected in perceived supervisory support, supervisory trust and leader member exchange, and the team, as reflected in perceived team support, work-unit identification and team member exchange. Hence, given these relationships, it is possible for employees to experience a high level of social exchange with one party and at the same time experience a low level of social exchange with another (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 847). In addition, the organizational justice literature argues that employees judge how fairly they are treated by multiple entities, meaning that the employees might simultaneously judge one party to be fair while perceiving another party as unfair (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 842-843). In fact,

according to Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner, “there has been growing recognition of the importance of different sources of justice to employee perceptions of fairness including the organization, supervisors, coworkers and customers” (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 845). For Reichers, in order to specify the relevant foci, one must specify the various groups that are relevant to an organization (Reichers, 1985, p. 470). For the latter, groups can be broadly categorized as central and peripheral foci. For example, one of this author’s arguments was that depending on the nature of the employee’s job, drawing on the notion of psychological proximity, coworkers and supervisors may be more proximal, whereas unions and customers may be more distant foci (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 846). Likewise, for Lewin (1943), cited by Vanderberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber, individuals’ behaviour is primarily influenced by those elements from the environment which are perceived being proximal and salient. For example, the organization focus may be viewed by an employee as salient when it comes to predicting turnover behaviour because it is the kind of behaviour for which cognitive deliberations about viability of one’s membership in the organization are activated. In contrast, it is likely that the nature of relationships with other foci such as supervisors or work groups will be less relevant for predicting turnover (Vanderberghe, Bentein & Stinglhamber, 2004, p. 55). This last point is very much in line with the target similarity framework whose conceptual foundation is provided by longstanding theory and research on attitude –behaviour relationships. One intriguing problem that seemed to plague attitude researchers for years was that attitudes were found to be weakly or not at all predictive of behaviour, even if the two appeared conceptually similar to one another (Lavelle, Brockner, Konovsky, Price, Henley, Taneja & Vinekar, 2009, p. 339). In response to this disappointing empirical evidence, Ajzen and Fishbein posited that the strength of the relationship between attitude and behaviours depends on the extent to which the constructs are similar in their scope (Lavelle, Brockner, Konovsky, Price, Henley, Taneja & Vinekar, 2009, p. 339; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). According to these authors, in most studies that yielded little or no relationship between attitudes and behaviours, the two simply were not similar in scope (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977).

There are number of studies in both social exchange and justice literatures that attempted to empirically test some of theoretical claims made about various behavioural foci. For example, in 2002, Rupp and Cropanzano confirmed the multi-foci structure of justice at the individual level that was earlier proposed by Levinson (1965) (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). More specifically, the study showed that justice can emanate from both the supervisor and the organization. Also, another finding in this study was that organizational focused justice and relationships generally predicted relevant organizational outcomes whereas supervisory focused justice and relationships generally predicted both supervisory and organizationally relevant outcomes (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002, p. 925). As well, in another study, Donovan, Drasgow and Munson designed “The Perceptions of Fair Interpersonal Treatment Scale, in order to assess employees’ perceptions of the interpersonal treatment in their work environment. The analyses of the structure and reliability of this new instrument indicated that the “The Perceptions of Fair Interpersonal Treatment Scale” is a reliable instrument composed of two factors: supervisor and coworker treatment (Donovan, Drasgow & Munson, 1998, p. 683). Furthermore, in a study conducted in 2006, Rupp and Spencer examined the effects of customer interactional justice, which refers to how fairly employees are treated both interpersonally and informationally at work, on emotional labour. Their hypothesis was that just as supervisor -initiated justice predicts supervisor-directed outcomes, so will customer -initiated justice predict customer- directed outcomes. The study findings revealed that customers are a viable source of justice and that customer behaviour influences the effort required of service workers to adhere to organizationally sanctioned emotional display rules (Rupp & Spencer, 2006, p. 971). Furthermore, in 1996, consistent with Becker’s 1992 study, that focused on teams, supervisors and organizations as foci, Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert, cited by Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner, found through confirmatory factor analysis that employees differentiated between commitment to the organization and commitment to the supervisor (Becker, 1992; Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 847). Another interesting result obtained in Beckers, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert’s study is that commitment to supervisors was positively related

to performance and was more strongly associated with performance than was commitment to organizations (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996, p.4 64). In addition, series of longitudinal studies carried out by Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinghlamber in 2004, showed among other that ;affective commitments to the organization, supervisor and the work group are factorially distinct and related differently to their theorized antecedents; commitment to supervisor has a direct effect on job performance ; organizational commitment has an indirect effect on job performance through commitment to the supervisor; commitment to the work group has no effect on performance (Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinghlamber, 2004, p. 47). Likewise, in a meta-analysis conducted in 2008, Ng and Sorensen found perceived supervisor support to be more strongly related to satisfaction, affective commitment and turnover intention than perceived coworker support (Ng & Sorensen, 2008, p. 243). Finally, a study by Bishop and Scott realized in 2000, cited by Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner, pointed to the fact that not only do team and organizational commitment load on separate factors, but they also have different antecedents. For example, satisfaction with coworkers was a stronger predictor of team commitment than of organizational commitment (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 845).

As it becomes evident from the last paragraph, multifoci studies in justice and social exchange literatures, seem prevalent, but what about multifoci studies in the recognition literature? Unfortunately, after a thorough investigation we had to come terms with the fact that such studies are extremely rare. In fact, except for the qualitative research, mentioned before, conducted by Bédard, Giroux and Morin in 2002, where the authors identified the sources of recognition that are most important to healthcare supervisors, the only other study that we were able to find is the one conducted recently by Jourdain and Chênevert. In their study, the authors presented a model that included two recognition foci. More specifically, recognition from physicians and recognition from patients. This model is particularly pertinent to our research study because the sample in this study is composed of registered nurses working in the Canadian public health sector (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010, p.713).

One of the findings in this study is that recognition by physicians and patients were negatively associated with depersonalization that had a negative effect on professional commitment which in turn had a negative effect on caregivers' intention to leave the profession (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010). These findings clearly provide evidence in favour of the argument that recognition from different foci represent important considerations that affect attitudes and behaviours of caregivers (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010, p. 717; Chênevert, Banville & Cole, 2006, p. 16).

To conclude, based on some theoretical and empirical studies in the social exchange and justice literatures, theoretical arguments by such authors as Tremblay and Simard (2006), St-Onge, Haines, Rousseau and Lagassé, (2005), the recognition foci identified as most important for the health sector supervisors by Bédard, Giroux and Morin, and the foci included in the model used by Jourdain and Chênevert, it does not seem too farfetched to assume that the multi target logic may equally apply to recognition literature. In other words, we can speculate that the employees can discern between recognition foci and act differently toward them depending on whether they feel that they are receiving recognition from that particular foci. Precisely, the five foci that will be included in our research study are: recognition by the organization, supervisor, coworkers, patients and physicians.

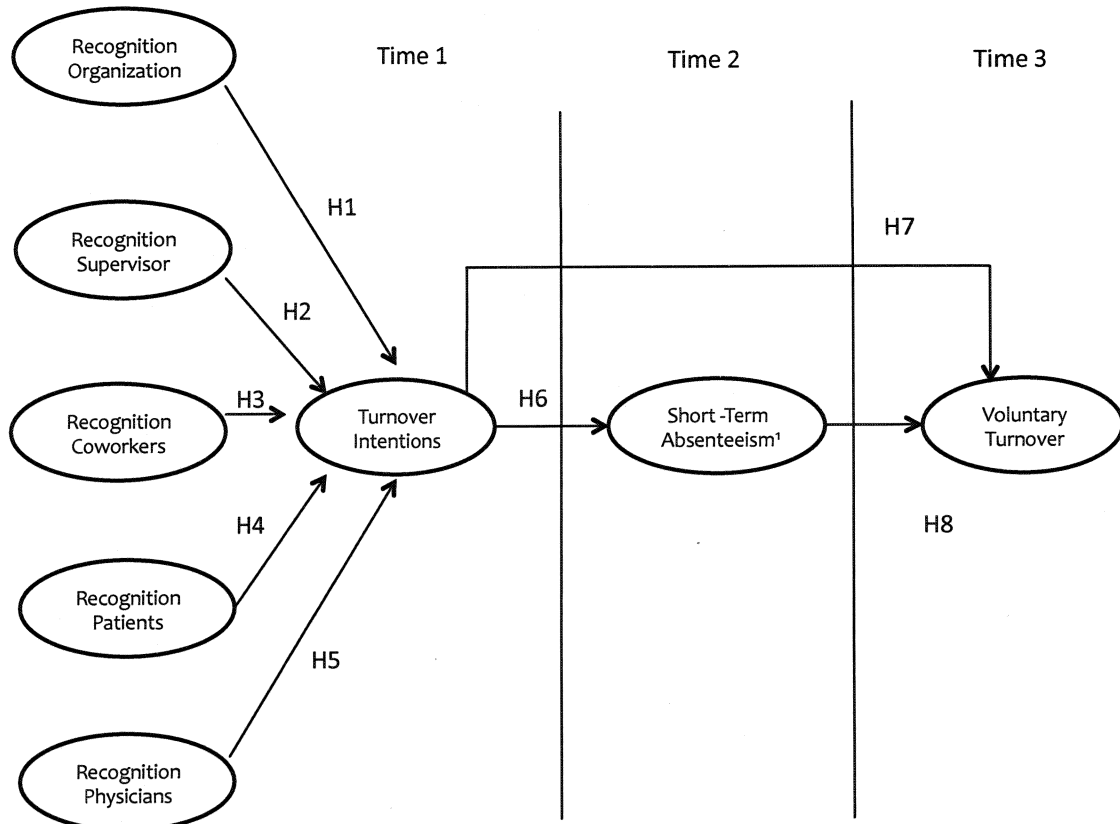
## CHAPTER 2

### CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This section will be mainly dedicated to the presentation of our conceptual model and the development of various research hypotheses. More specifically, we suggest incorporating some of the different theoretical and empirical elements that were prior examined in our literature review as to better justify the relevance of our research hypotheses. However, before presenting the research hypotheses, we will begin by exposing the conceptual model of our research study. The latter will enable us to clarify some of the different associations that may exist between some of the variables included in our model.

#### 2.1 Conceptual Model

As mentioned earlier, our conceptual model is first and foremost, an amalgamation of the central elements presented in our literature review. In general, we propose that nonmonetary recognition emanating from each of the proposed foci will have a direct negative effect on turnover intention, and an indirect and negative effect on absenteeism through its negative effect on turnover intention. Moreover, we believe that nonmonetary recognition from the proposed foci will have a negative and indirect effect on turnover through its negative effect on turnover intentions. In addition, we posit that turnover intention will have an indirect positive effect on turnover through its positive effect on absenteeism (see figure 2.1 for more details).



**Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model**

<sup>1</sup> Short-term absenteeism refers to absence frequency

The elements in the literature review that permitted us to conceptualize this model will be elaborated on through the justification of our research hypotheses.

## **2.2 Link between recognition foci and turnover intention**

During our literature review, we found a substantial number of empirical studies that showed that there exists a significant negative relationship between nonmonetary recognition and turnover intention. These include studies by Ali and Baloch (2010), Chew and Chan (2008) as well as Paré and Tremblay (2007) among others. In fact, there is one theory that can explain the relationship between these two variables. This theory is Blau's 1964 theory of social exchange. In a nutshell, what this theory postulates is that employees form relationships at work, and these relationships can be categorized into two broad classes, economic and social (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002, p. 926). Economic exchange relationships are generally short term and involve the exchange of concrete and often pecuniary resources whereas social exchange relationships tend to be more long term and involve more symbolic or socio-emotions resources such as recognition social (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002, p. 926). According to Blau, social exchanges, which seem to be more relevant to our research study considering the fact we are primarily interested in the nonmonetary recognition, are voluntary actions of employee treatment with the expectation that such treatment will eventually be reciprocated in kind (Gould-Williams, 2007, p. 1628). Essentially, what this means, in the context of our research study, is that on the basis of norms of reciprocity, caregivers that feel that the hospital (organization) recognizes their work; that their work is recognized by their supervisor, by their work colleagues, by their patients and physicians will pay back by expressing less intentions to part ways with their organization whereas caregivers that do not feel the appreciation from some of the latter foci will more likely return the favour by expressing more of an intention to resign. Thus, on the basis of Blau's theory of social exchange as well as past empirical evidence, we have formulated the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Recognition from the hospital is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.



Hypothesis 2: Recognition from the supervisor is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3: Recognition from coworkers is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4: Recognition from patients is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Recognition from physicians is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

### **2.3 Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition foci and absenteeism**

Authors such as Lavalley (2008) and Nelson and Spitzer (2003) speculated that there should be a negative association between recognition and absenteeism. Because both absenteeism and turnover represent withdrawal behaviour, by inference, Blau's 1964 theory of social exchange can also be utilized to explain the alleged relationship between these absenteeism and recognition. Furthermore, a few authors such as Iverson and Deery (2001) and Taunton, Hope, Wood and Botts (1995) affirm that turnover intention is positively related to absenteeism, but the empirical evidence in regards to the relationship between turnover intentions and absenteeism is inconclusive at best. Actually, there are a certain number of studies that fail to establish any meaningful relationship between the two variables. These include studies such as Carraher and Buckley (2008) and Mueller and Price (1986). Conversely, there are also other studies that point to a positive association between turnover intention and absenteeism. Amongst these studies we find Taunton et al. 1989 and Taunton et al. 1995. Authors such as Bowen and Mobley attempted to clarify the ambiguous link between these variables. For Bowen, one of the conditions for an existence of a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is that absenteeism and quitting should serve a common purpose for the employees (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). As for Mobley, he thought of several situations where absenteeism and

quitting would be expected to be correlated because they would represent a common withdrawal process (Mobley, 1982, p. 115). Mobley saw this as the most probable when: the consequences of absenteeism and quitting have the same commonality, such as when absenteeism represents avoidance of a dissatisfying or stressful job and alternative jobs are available or when an employee is absent to engage in a job search (Mobley, 1982, p. 115). Furthermore, theoretical literature tells us that before leaving their place of employment, individuals often progress through series of stages of behavioural withdrawal (Farrel & Peterson, 1984, p. 682). This view is supported by authors such as Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) and Melbin (1961). When an employee is absent it is as if he/her is quitting for one day. Given this view of “functional equivalence” between absenteeism and turnover, there is one theory that can explain the relationship between these two variables (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). This theory is Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) theory of reasoned action. This theory supports predicting absenteeism from turnover intention because it predicts actual behaviour from intended behaviour based largely on the level of correspondence between the two (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). Hence, on the basis of the earlier proposed positive relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, negative relationship between recognition and turnover intention as well as a negative relationship between recognition and absenteeism we formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Turnover intention mediates the relationship between recognition and absenteeism.

#### **2.4 Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition and turnover**

There are a large number of theoretical writings claiming that there exists a negative and direct relationship between recognition and turnover. These authors include:

Luthans (2000), Ventrice (2003), Appelbaum and Kamal (2000), Chan and Chew (2008), just to name a few. As for the empirical studies testing the possible links recognition and turnover, these are much less common. Yet, the ones that we are able to find support the supposed negative association between the two variables. Examples of such studies are studies by Peterson and Luthans (2006) and Moncarz, Zhao and Kay (2009). Naturally, Blau's theory of social exchange can also be used to account for the relationship between recognition and turnover for the same reasons that they accounted for the relationship between recognition and turnover intentions. Therefore, the above considerations, the earlier proposed negative relationships between recognition and turnover intention and the proposed positive association between turnover intention and turnover led us to formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Turnover intention mediates the relationship between recognition and turnover.

## **2.5 Mediating role of absenteeism in the link between turnover intention and turnover**

Our literature review shows that there are many empirical studies that indicate that there exists a significant positive relationship between turnover intention and turnover. These include studies by Kraut (1975); Newman (1974); Tett and Meyer (1993); Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978); Saks, Mudrack and Ashforth, (2011); Cohen and Golan, 2007; Steel and Ovalle (1994); Price and Mueller; (1981); Carraher and Buckley (2008); Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino (1979) and many others. All these studies provide evidence for the fact turnover intention has a direct positive influence on turnover. There is one theory that can explain the relationship between these two variables. In effect, this is same theory that allowed us to account for an existence of a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism. This theory is Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. It emphasizes the fundamental role of intentions in understanding the link between turnover intentions and turnover. This theory suggests that "the best single predictor of an individual's

behaviour will be a measure of his intention to perform that behaviour” (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p. 673). Also, according to one point of view, there exists a continuum of withdrawal behaviours progressing from absenteeism to turnover (Lyons, 1972, p. 271). A number of empirical investigations confirm this particular position. These include Melbin (1961), Knox (1961) as well as Burke and Wilcox (1972) among others. In addition, in their reviews, Muchinsky (1977) and Gupta and Jenkins (1982) concluded that there is nearly unanimous support for an existence of a positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover. In fact, in a recent meta-analysis, Mitra, Jenkins and Gupta found positive correlations between absenteeism and turnover ranging from 0.29 to 0.36 (Mitra, Jenkins & Gupta, 1992, p. 885). Considering the proposed, positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover, positive relationship between turnover intentions and absenteeism, and the theoretical prescriptions and empirical findings pertaining to the relationship between turnover intention and turnover, we posit the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: Absenteeism mediates the relationship between turnover intention and turnover.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

In this section, we will present and justify our methodological choices with regards to data collection and analysis. We will describe the research design of the current study and explain how exactly we proceeded to collect our data. In addition, we will present the tools; the measurement instruments, the measurement scales used, and the research site that was retained for the purpose of this research study. At last, we will end this section with the presentation of the methods utilized in our data analysis followed by an exploratory factor analysis.

#### **3.1 Research Design and Choice of Tools and Measurement Instrument**

Our literature review confirmed the fact that much is already known on the relationship between nonmonetary recognition, turnover intention and turnover. There are many theoretical writings that address the negative links between recognition and turnover intention, recognition and turnover, as well as the positive associations between turnover intention and absenteeism and turnover intention and turnover. Pertaining to empirical studies, a substantial number of these show support for the aforementioned relationships between the latter variables. Studies investigating the relationship between nonmonetary recognition and turnover are rarer in occurrence, but the ones that we managed to find provide evidence in favour of the alleged negative association between nonmonetary recognition and turnover. As for the studies aiming at exploring the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, the results are mixed. In other words, there are studies that find support for the theorized positive relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism

whereas others fail to uncover such a relationship. Likewise, the supposed negative relationship between nonmonetary recognition and absenteeism has been proposed by a few authors, but still needs to stand the test of empirical verification. In fact, to our knowledge, there are virtually no studies that attempted to test the link between nonmonetary recognition and absenteeism. In short, on the basis of different theoretical and empirical elements, we decided that opting for a quantitative research design would be most appropriate for our research study.

In order to collect our data, we used a questionnaire (auto administered) to which the respondents had to answer using a Likert seven-point scale ranging from 1 Strongly Disagree to 7 Strongly Agree. The questionnaire was available in both the original English as well as the translated French version. The translation was done by an expert as to ensure proper correspondence between the English and French versions of the questionnaire. The choice of questionnaire seems pertinent since much is already known on the relationship between the variables under study, and the use of this instrument of data collection allows the researchers to empirically measure the variables of interest. This quantitative approach enabled us to realize some statistical analyses using SPSS and AMOS, as to test our research hypotheses. Also, a questionnaire is useful because it makes test item scoring easy and rapid, and no researcher judgment is involved in the questionnaire scoring (Murphy & Davidshofer, 2004, p. 230). Considering the fact that the population of this healthcare establishment is represented by approximately 1884 employees the former point is definitely relevant.

The questionnaire retained for the purpose of this research study is the one developed as a part of a larger research project, carried out in November and December 2007, by Denis Chênevert and Geneviève Jourdain, which explains why the questionnaire used (annexe I) contains sections that were not used. We will only describe the sections that were actually used. These include sections on recognition from the organization, supervisors, work colleagues, patients, physicians and turnover intentions. The questionnaires used were constructed with measures of adequate reliability. This

point will be developed later on, in the section 3.3, on variable measurement. As for the data regarding absenteeism and turnover, these were obtained directly from employees' personal files. Considering the nature of the variables under investigation, confidentiality was an important concern in this study. Thus, we feel the need to underline the fact that the participation in our study was strictly voluntary and the subjects had the right to withdraw their consent or discontinue participation at any time. Plus, subjects had the right to refuse particular questions. Finally, the participants were asked permission to match their personal file absences and turnover records to the questionnaire responses. The responses of participants that did not give us such an authorization were simply excluded from this study.

### **3.2 Research Site**

The research study was conducted in November and December 2007, in a hospital establishment in the Montreal area. Because we know that the work environment of caregivers in Canada has increasingly received attention due to high absenteeism and shortages of staff augmented by dramatic cutbacks and restructuring of healthcare services in the 1990's, we figured that the location chosen can be considered appropriate (Schalk, Bijl, Halfens, Hollands & Cummings, 2010, p.3). Questionnaires were distributed to all of the employees of the establishment by a human resource professional. The employees were asked to fill out the questionnaire at home. In fact, if the employees were absent, the questionnaire was sent directly to their homes. Each set of questionnaires was accompanied with the return envelope duly stamped and having the researcher's name and university address written on them. The selection of this specific establishment was done strictly out of convenience. The researchers from HEC Montréal already got in contact with the administration and human resources department of the hospital in question. Since our study is taking place in only one hospital, we initially did not focus our attention to some particular category of employees. The questionnaire was distributed to all 1884 hospital employees belonging to six distinct categories. The first, being nursing and cardio-respiratory care. The second, being paratechnical personnel, auxiliary services and trades

personnel. The third, being office workers. The fourth, being technicians of health and social services. The fifth, being health and social services professionals. And the sixth and last, being management and other professionals. However, given that not all of the employee categories had a direct contact with physicians and/or patients, whilst some of the questions could only be answered if it was the case, two of employee categories were excluded from the final sample. More specifically, these are: office workers and management and other professionals.

### **3.3 Variable Measurement**

Most of the variables in this research study were measured with a questionnaire where the caregivers were asked to express their level of agreement with each statement on a continuum ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7), with the only exception being, past absenteeism, one of the control variables, absenteeism, one of the mediating variables, and turnover, the dependant variable all of which were obtained from the organizational records. The independent variable recognition foci and the mediating variable turnover intention were created with the use of the mean function in the SPSS software which provides the average of the variables.

#### **3.3.1 Measurement of Independent Variables**

In the questionnaire, we collected information about recognition emanating from five different foci. Namely: recognition from the organization, recognition from supervisor, recognition from work colleagues, recognition from patients and recognition from physicians. Questions concerning recognition from supervisor, work colleagues, patients and physicians can be found in section 4.3 of the questionnaire entitled “Recognition at work”. As for the questions in reference to recognition from the organization, these can be found in section 7.3 of the questionnaire entitled



“Recognition practices”. The measurement scales linked to recognition were created by Denis Chênevert and Geneviève Jourdain. In their study entitled “Job Demands-Resources, burnout and intention to leave the nursing profession: A questionnaire survey”, published in 2010 in the International Journal of Nursing Studies, the latter used the same questionnaire to measure recognition from patients and physicians. The measurement scales included three items for each of the recognition foci (see table 3.1).

72. Mon supérieur immédiat remarque les efforts que j'investis au travail.
73. Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, mon supérieur immédiat me félicite.
74. Mon supérieur immédiat me témoigne son appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.
75. Mes collègues remarquent les efforts que j'investis au travail.
76. Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, mes collègues me félicitent.
77. Mes collègues me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.
78. Les médecins remarquent les efforts que j'investis au travail.
79. Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, les médecins me félicitent.
80. Les médecins me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.
81. Les bénéficiaires remarquent les efforts que j'investis dans mon travail auprès d'eux.
82. Lorsque je leur rends un service d'une qualité exceptionnelle, les bénéficiaires m'expriment leur gratitude.
83. Les bénéficiaires me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte à leur bien-être.

**Table 3.1 Questions on recognition by the supervisor, work colleagues, patients and physicians**

### Questions on recognition by the organisation

167. L'organisation généralement félicite les employés qui dépassent les attentes.

168. En général, les efforts supplémentaires déployés au travail par les employés sont soulignés par l'organisation.

169. Les contributions exceptionnelles des employés sont reconnues par la direction du CSSS (ex : lors des cérémonies ou de réunions, via un journal interne, par lettre de félicitation, par des prix ou cadeaux, etc.).

### 3.3.2 Measurement of Mediating Variables

The two mediating variables in this study are turnover intention and absenteeism. Questions regarding turnover intentions can be found in section 1.2 entitled “Turnover intentions”. The measurement scales linked to turnover intentions were used in a study published in 1993 by Meyer, Allen and Smith entitled “Commitment to Organizations and Occupations: Extension and Test of a Three-Component Conceptualization” in the Journal of Applied Psychology. The measurement scales included three items (see table 3.2).

13. Je songe souvent à quitter cette organisation.
14. Il est possible que je cherche un emploi au sein d'une autre organisation.
15. Il est probable que je quitte cette organisation d'ici l'an prochain
16. Si on me proposait une offre d'emploi équivalente ailleurs, je quitterais probablement cette organisation.

**Table 3.2 Questions on Turnover Intentions**

In terms of absenteeism data, as mentioned before, it was taken directly from the organizational records. These are more objective measurements of absenteeism in contrast to more subjective measurements of absenteeism. For example, we could have asked the employees to report their absenteeism, but proceeding in such a manner could have introduced an important bias in our study. In fact, Johns' 1994 study showed that employees tend to underestimate their own actual absenteeism because they view absences as deviant behaviours (Johns, 1994, p. 229). As recommended by De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli, the absenteeism data was gathered in the year following the distribution of the questionnaire (De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli, 2002, p. 186). More precisely, the questionnaire responses were collected in 2007 whereas the absenteeism information was obtained in 2008. Because absenteeism information came from employees' personal file, we were limited in terms of information that we could obtain. Employees' records were drawn from two distinct databases: PRASAT and Medisolutions. The information supplied by PRASAT provided more detailed reasons for the employees' absences, but unfortunately did not cover all the employees in the healthcare establishment. Since the data provided by PRASAT was incomplete, we only used the information acquired from Medisolutions. The database gave the number of days of employee absences and divided absences into four categories that include: wage insurance, sickness, disability and temporary assignments. The absences covered by the wage insurance that are paid by the healthcare establishment, are found in the wage

insurance category. The costs of these absences are generally high and for the most part these absences are long term. In fact, absences lasting five or more days are medically certified and covered by wage insurance. The absences in the disability category are absences due to work accidents. Employees that fall in this category are away from work and the healthcare establishment has to pay fees to CSST. If an employee has not stopped working completely and is capable of fulfilling lighter duties or is following a progressive return procedure, these absences are found in the temporary assignments category. Finally, when an employee uses days off because of illness, these absences are placed into sickness category. Full time employees in this hospital are allowed 9.6 sick days paid per year, or put differently 0.80 of a day paid per month. Part time employees are not entitled to any paid sick days. An employee that does not use all of the sick days allocated receives a check in the end of the year for the days that were not used. In addition, an employee can borrow a certain number of sick days from the upcoming year if all the 9.6 days have already been used. Because in our study, we are only interested in voluntary absences, the category of absences that seemed most relevant is the sickness category. Thus, it is the only category of absences that was used in our analysis.

In this hospital, two categories of absences were classified: short term and long term absences. Absences lasting five or more days fall under the long-term category, and are medically certified and covered by wage insurance whereas absences of less than five days in duration fall under the short-term category and, are not medically certified. A number of researchers such as Harrison and Martoccio, 1998; Chaudhury and Ng. 1992; Price and Mueller, 1986; Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson and Brown, 1982 among others, argue that it is best to distinguish between short term and long term absences. The studies indicate that long term absences are involuntary and result from diagnosed sickness while short term absences are usually voluntary and none certified (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p. 10). Actually, single days is one of the often recommended measures of voluntary absenteeism, the idea being that most involuntary absenteeism, since it often lasts for a period of days, is excluded by this measure (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 45). But clearly, not all short term absences are

chosen. In certain circumstances, brief, unavoidable spells of sickness may occur during for instance an influenza epidemic (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson and Brown, 1982, p. 56). Nevertheless, it is possible to conclude that levels of short term absences for an organization are still more likely to be valid indicators of chosen absences (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson and Brown, 1982, p. 56). Another recommended measure of voluntary absenteeism is frequency (Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 45). Research has shown consistently that frequency measures provide a reasonable index of voluntary absenteeism (Davey, Cummings, Newburn-Cook, 2009, p. 213). In fact, frequency of absences is generally considered as an even better measure of voluntary absences than number of days (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 400). In a study realized in 1977, Muchinsky reviewed the reliabilities of different absence indexes using the data from both Chadwick-Jones and al. and elsewhere (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 81). The results were that the reliability of the frequency index appeared to be the highest and the most consistent across studies (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 318). More specifically, these reliabilities were 0.74 and 0.60, Turner, 1960; 0.61, Huse and Taylor, 1962; 0.43, Chadwick- Jones and al. 1971; 0.51, Latham and Pursell, 1975 (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 81). Thus, we believe that an absence incidence or absence spells is an appropriate way to measure voluntary absenteeism. Therefore, for the purpose of our study, we were only interested in absences of five days and less in the medical category. More specifically, we have calculated the total number of times (frequency) missed by the employees in the 12 month period following the distribution of the questionnaire. Partially missed days were included. In other words, if the employee was absent only for four hours out of the work day, this was counted as an absence.

### **3.3.3 Measurement of Dependant Variables**

As it was the case with absenteeism, objective turnover indicators came from the company's records. Because individuals are our unit of analysis, turnover is a dichotomous variable, with each employee being either a "stayer" or a "leaver". Leavers were coded as 1 and stayers were coded as 0. Only voluntary turnover was included. In others words, turnover due to terminations, death, retirement or transfer were excluded from the analysis. Most researchers tend to look at turnover either for 18 months (Price & Mueller 1986; Kraut, 1975) or 36 months (Carragher & Buckley, 2008; Wolpin & Burke, 1985). The average between 18 months and 36 months is 27 months, which is slightly more than two years. In order to follow the logic of progressive hypothesis we decided to examine voluntary turnover for two years after obtaining absenteeism data. The latter was collected from 2007 and till 2008, and hence our turnover information comes from the period of 2008-2009 and 2009-2010.

### **3.3.4 Control Variables**

Control variables are variables that are of little interest to the study itself, but that are believed to influence the variables under study or to falsify the analysis if they are not included in the model. Therefore, as with any research of this nature, control variables which have been found to affect employee absenteeism and turnover were included. This will enable us to conclude with more certainty that it is really the independent and mediation variables that influence the dependant variables. Put differently, the inclusion of variables of control will allow us to eliminate alternative explanations. The control variables that were identified as being correlated with absenteeism are: age, gender, tenure, educational level and previous absenteeism. Several studies have examined the relationship between age and absenteeism. For

example, Jackson (1944) cited by Muchinsky, identified a curvilinear relationship between age and absenteeism, with younger and older workers incurring higher absenteeism than middle age workers (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 320). As well, De la Mare and Sergean (1961) and Cooper and Payne (1965), also cited by Muchinsky, reported positive relationships between age and absenteeism (Muchinsky, 1977, p.320). Age was measured by a single item scale, which is appropriate for objective constructs such as demographics. With regards to gender, a number of studies show that females tend to be more frequently absent than males. These include studies by Covner ,1950;Kerr, Keppelmeier and Sullivan, 1951; Kilbridge, 1961; Isambert-Jamati, 1962; Yolles, Carone and Krynsky, 1975; Flanagan, Strauss and Ulman, 1974, Garrison and Muchinsky, 1977; Johns, 1978, among other, cited by Fitzgibbons and Moch (Fitzgibbons & Moch, 1980, p. 351). Gender is a dichotomous variable. An employee is either a man or a woman. Men were coded as 1 whereas women were coded as 2 (in the database however, men were coded as 0 and women as 1). Concerning tenure, Jackson (1944) cited by Muchinsky reported a negative relationship between absenteeism and tenure whereas Baumgartel and Sobol (1959) also cited by Muchinsky reported conflicting results in their study (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 320). On the one hand, Baumgartel and Sobol found a negative relationship between tenure and absenteeism for male-blue collar workers and on the other hand, they found a positive relationship between tenure and absenteeism for female blue-collar workers and both male and female white-collar workers (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 320). As age, tenure was measured by a single item scale (in years). Education is another variable that is thought to influence employee absenteeism. For example, in one study carried out by Noland in 1945, cited by Muchinsky, the former reported that years of education was inversely related to absenteeism (Muchinsky, 1977, p. 320). Years of education were coded as 1 for high school, 2 for college, 3 for an undergraduate certificate, 4 for bachelors, 5 for masters and 6 for a doctorate.

As recommended by De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli, past absenteeism information was gathered a year preceding the distribution of questionnaire (De Boer, Bakker, Syroit & Schaufeli, 2002, p. 186). More specifically, absenteeism data

covering the period between the years 2006 and 2007 was obtained from the employees' personal files. Several studies have shown that previous absences are the most important predictors of future absenteeism (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p.10). For example, in one study Water and Roach found that frequency of absences during the first and second years correlated 0.62 (Waters & Roach, 1979, p.396). In another study, Morgan and Herman, cited by Breugh also found a substantial correlation between absence frequency in two consecutive years of 0.70 (Breugh, 1981, p.556). Moreover, a study realized by Cohen and Golan in 2007, showed a strong effect of prior absenteeism on later absenteeism (Cohen & Golan, 2007, p. 416). In fact, past absences are better predictors of future absences than any other work attitudes (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p. 10). A meta-analysis by Farrel and Stamm cited by Chênevert, Banville and Cole, revealed a significant correlation between historical absence records and the duration of present absences of 0.75 (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p. 10). Similarly, in a study, realized by Breugh in 1981, the researcher found that past absenteeism was a better predictor of absenteeism than were job satisfaction, job involvement and supervisory satisfaction (Breugh, 1981, p. 556). Finally, in a study conducted in 1985, Ivancevich illustrated that previous absences accounted for most of the absenteeism variance, leaving a very small portion of variance to be explained by the four attitudes included in his study, namely: organizational commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and role overload (Ivancevich, 1985, p. 224).

The control variables that were identified as being correlated with turnover are the same sociodemographic variables that were identified as being related to absenteeism. Past absenteeism was not a control variable, but that is only because it was one of the variables under investigation. Most research indicates that age is negatively related to turnover. Muchinsky and Tuttle reported eleven studies and almost all of them pointed to a negative relationship between age and turnover. These studies include Stone and Athelstan, 1969; Farris, 1971; Robinson, 1972; Federico and al.1976; Waters and al.1976, Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Porter, Steers and Boulian, 1974 among others (Muchinsky &



Tuttle, 1979, p. 50-52; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). Muchinsky and Tuttle mention only two studies that obtained mixed results. These are studies by Shott and al. 1963 and Downs, 1967 (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 50-52). Researchers reported a few studies relating individual's gender with turnover. In one such study Marsh and Mannari (1977), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino observed that female manufacturing employees had higher turnover than males (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). Also, in another study, Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993), established that women had greater rates of actual turnover than men. Yet, Mangione, in his study carried out in 1973, cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, did not find such a relationship (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). Muchinsky and Tuttle presented seven studies that related tenure or length of employment, to turnover, and all of these studies showed that tenure and turnover are inversely related. These are studies by Fleishman and Berniger, 1960; Shott and al. 1963, Knowles, 1964; Robinson, 1972; Federico and al. 1976; Waters and al. 1976 (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 50-53). In fact, Mangione (1973), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, on the basis of a multivariate study, concluded that length of service is one of the best predictors of turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). There are a few studies that dealt with the relationship between education and turnover. In one such study Federico and al. (1976), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, found that female credit union employees with higher education had lower tenure (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 497). However, there are also other studies, cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino such as Mangione (1973) and Hellriggerl and White (1973) that failed to discover such differences (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 497).

Thus, unlike most other research studies out there that typically use the same control variables, our particular study has a separate set of control variables: one for absenteeism and another for turnover intention and turnover. More specifically, the control variables utilized in the case of absenteeism are: educational level and past

absenteeism whereas in the case of turnover intention and turnover the control variables utilized are: gender, age, tenure.

### **3.4 Data Analysis**

Although it seems convenient to distinguish between exploratory and confirmatory research, in practice this distinction is not that clear-cut. As noted by Joreskog (1974), cited by Anderson and Gerbing, many investigations are to some extent both exploratory and confirmatory because they often involve some variables of known and other variables of unknown components. Thus, it is suggested to think of the difference between exploratory and confirmatory analysis as an ordered progress rather than a strict dichotomy (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998, p. 411-412). Keeping this advice in mind we will begin with performing an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS software. This preliminary analysis will enable us to determine the extent to which the item measurements (observed variables) are in fact related to the latent constructs of recognition by the organization, recognition by the supervisor, recognition by work colleagues, recognition by patients, recognition by physicians and turnover intention. Because recognition scales are a relatively new measurement instrument, we thought that it was particularly appropriate to start with an exploratory factor analysis. After the exploratory factor analysis, we will proceed to assess the quality of fit of the measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis, this time using the AMOS software. Usually, confirmatory factor analysis is appropriately used when the researchers have some knowledge of the underlying latent variable structure. And it is based on knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both that the researchers postulate relations between the observed measures and the underlying factors a priori, and then test this hypothesized structure statistically (Byrne, 2006, p. 6). Again, in line with Anderson and Gerbing's recommendation, a sequence of analyses beginning with exploratory factor analysis followed by a confirmatory factor analysis seems reasonable. Clearly, in some ways confirmatory factor analysis is similar to exploratory factor analysis, but philosophically they do differ. In contrast to

exploratory factor analysis, in a confirmatory factor analysis, the researchers must specify both the number of factors that exist within a set of variables and which factor each variable will load highly on before results can be computed. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to provide a confirmatory test of the measurement theory, and a measurement theory requires that a construct first be defined (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 774). Only after corroborating the reliability of our measurement scales, we moved on to hypothesis testing because as noted by Anderson and Gerbing, cited by Chênevert, Banville, and Cole, “it is useless to verify model with latent variables whose reliability is poor” (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p. 9). Accordingly, we have calculated the reliability coefficients that measure the internal consistency of the factors (Chênevert, Banville, & Cole, 2006, p. 9).

### **3.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis**

The initial analysis performed aimed at verifying whether the questions used actually measured the variables under study. More specifically we were interested in verifying the adequacy of the instruments (items) measuring recognition emanating from various foci and turnover intentions. For the purpose of this analysis, with the use of SPSS, we have performed an exploratory factor analysis on the latter variables. Based on some of the empirical and theoretical elements in our literature review, we have anticipated a presence of 5 factors for recognition. Namely; recognition from the organization, supervisor, work colleagues, physicians and patients as well the presence of one factor for turnover intention. More precisely, we have proceeded with the factor analysis with principal components analysis and a rotation based on the varimax method. The principal component analysis is generally considered as a psychometrically sound procedure whereas varimax is a good general approach that simplifies the interpretation of factors (Field, 2000, p. 434-449). For Eigenvalues, we have followed Kaiser’s recommendation, cited by Field, of retaining all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (Field, 2000, p. 436). In fact, in the literature, principal

components with varimax rotation and Kaiser criterion represent the norm (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 1). However, because orthogonal rotation methods such as varimax are a preferred method when the research goal is data reduction to a smaller number of variables or a set of uncorrelated measures for subsequent use in other multivariate technique, we also performed a direct oblimin rotation on our data (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 127). Direct oblimin is an oblique rotation method. Oblique rotations are similar to orthogonal rotations, except that oblique rotations allow correlated factors instead of maintaining independence between the rotated factors (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 127). In other words, orthogonal rotations produce factors that are uncorrelated whereas oblique methods allow for the factors to correlate (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 1). An oblique rotation method seemed particularly relevant to our data set because based on our literature review; we expected that some of the factors would correlate. In addition, according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, “oblique rotations are best suited to the goal of obtaining several theoretically meaningful factors or constructs because, realistically, few constructs in the real world are uncorrelated” (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 127). Also, we have asked SPSS to provide a scree plot as to compare the graph with the structure proposed by SPSS.

### **3.5.1 Recognition from the Organization, Supervisor, Work Colleagues, Physicians and Patients**

At first, we looked at our correlation matrices (see annexe III). Clearly, we can see a pattern emerging. Questions related to recognition from the organization are highly correlated with other questions related to recognition from the organization and less correlated with questions related to recognition from other foci. The latter statement holds true for questions pertaining to all the other four foci of recognition under study (supervisor, work colleagues, physicians and patients). The existence of these

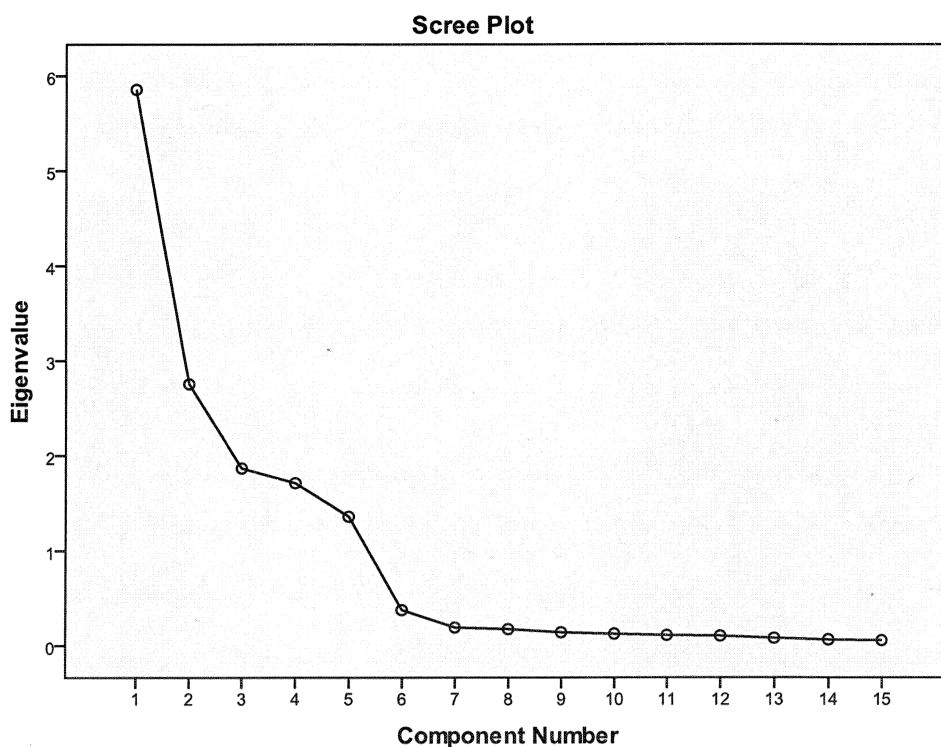
correlations is corroborated by Bartlett's test of sphericity. Basically, what this test does is that it tests whether there exists at least one significant correlation within the correlation matrix. For factor analysis to work, it is necessary that there be some relationship between variables. Therefore, we want this test to be significant (i.e. have a significance value of less than 0.05). For these data, Bartlett's test of sphericity is highly significant with  $p < 0.001$  and thus factor analysis is appropriate (Field, 2000, p. 457). KMO is another test of sampling adequacy. Essentially, it tells us whether doing a factor analysis on this correlation matrix is justified. It gives one numeric representation of how factor analyzable this data set really is. Kaiser, cited by Field, recommended accepting values greater than 0.5 as acceptable. Yet, values between 0.5 and 0.7 are considered mediocre, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and at last, values above 0.9 are superb (Field, 2000, p. 455). For these data, the value is 0.815 which falls into the range of being great: so we should be confident that factor analysis is appropriate for these data. Another adequacy measure is the table of communalities. One of the guidelines provided by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham is to identify variables with communalities of less than 0.50 as not having sufficient explanation (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 131). For these data, the lowest communality is of 0.755 for Q169, question on recognition from the organization (see annexe III).

Item communalities are generally viewed as high if they are 0.8 and greater (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 4). In these data, all but one communality mentioned above are greater than 0.8. As well, if we look at the total variance table, we can see that five factors have been extracted, and they account for 90.393 % of the variation in the model (see annexe III).

Then, we proceeded to examine the loadings of the rotated component matrix. The goal of the rotation is of course to simplify and clarify the data structure. In these data, we seem to have a very clean data set. Usually, a strong data set implies uniformly high communalities, without cross loadings, plus several variables loading strongly on each factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 4). It appears to be the case

with our data. The rotated component matrix confirms the existence of five distinct factors, without cross loadings, and high loadings all around, with the lowest loading of 0.854 for Q169, question on recognition from the organization (see table 3.3). These factors are our five recognition foci.

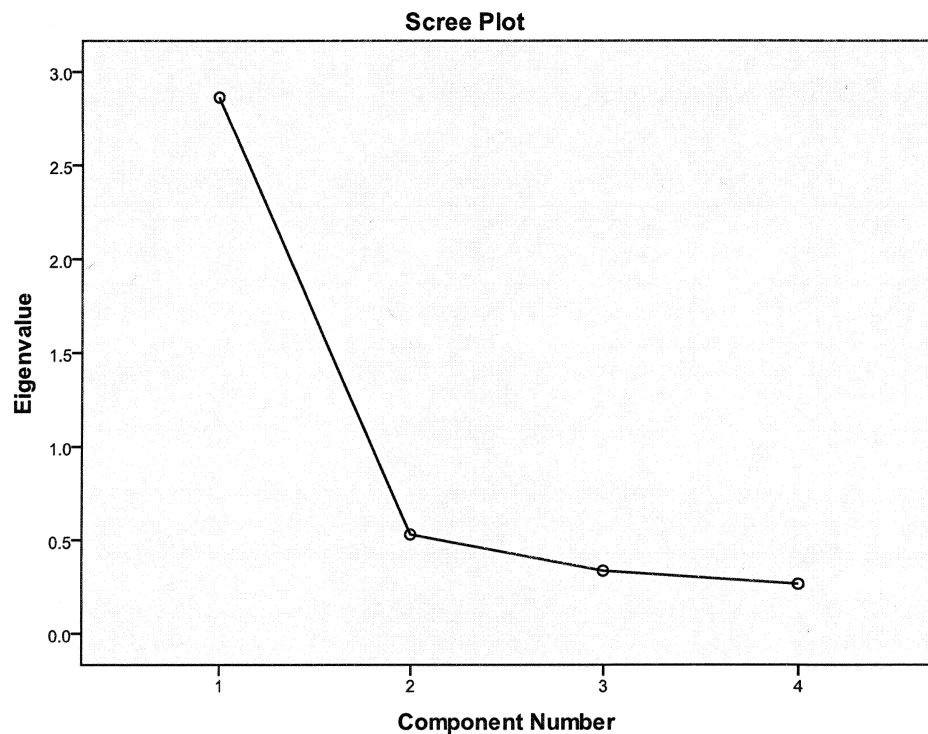
A review of the scree plot supplies even more evidence in support of the existence of five factors already validated by the total variance table and the rotated component matrix. We can very well observe the 5 dots above 1 which correspond to our five recognition foci. In other words, 5 factors were extracted based on eigenvalues above 1 (see figure 3.1). Finally, an oblique rotation, direct oblimin, yielded similar results to orthogonal rotation, varimax.



**Figure 3.1 Scree Plot of Recognition Foci**

### 3.5.2 Turnover Intention

The correlation matrix points to the fact that all the questions regarding turnover intention are correlated with each other (see annexe III). The existence of these correlations is confirmed by Bartlett's test of sphericity. For these data, Bartlett's test of sphericity is highly significant with  $p < 0.001$  and thus factor analysis is appropriate. The KMO for these data has a value of 0.801 which falls into the range of being great; so we should be confident that factor analysis is appropriate for these data (see annexe III). As far as communalities are concerned, these are not very high, but they still meet the minimum generally accepted level of 0.4 (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 4) (see annexe III). In fact, the minimum communality is 0.628 for Q16 on turnover intention. According to Costello and Osborne, item communalities are rarely 0.8, the more common magnitudes in the social sciences are low to moderate communalities of 0.40 to 0.70 (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 4). In addition the table of total variance shows us that only one factor was extracted, and it explains 71.590 % of the variation in the model (see annexe III). The analyses realized in SPSS did not provide any rotated matrices. The latter is confirmed by the fact that all the questions regroup under one factor which is turnover intentions. The component matrix before rotation shows some relatively high loadings on all the four questions (see table 3.4). At last, the scree plot also indicates the presence of only one factor (see figure 3.2).



**Figure 3.2 Scree Plot of Turnover Intention**

Various factorial analyses led us to a conclusion that there exist five factors of recognition and one factor of turnover intention. Now it remains to be seen whether these conclusions will be also supported by a test of internal consistency.

### 3.6 Tests of Internal Consistency

With the use of SPSS software, we have performed a test of internal consistency on our measurement instruments. We have calculated the alpha cronbach which is an estimate of internal consistency associated with the scores derived from a scale. It is considered very important that the measurement instruments be reliable because in the absence of reliability it is impossible to have any validity associated with the



scores of the scales. This test allowed us to confirm their internal consistency. This is a brief summary of some of our findings ( for more details see table 3.3).

The analyses of the recognition foci showed that the model composed of 15 questions had a high reliability coefficient, alpha cronbach of 0.885 which is sufficient to establish reliability. A deletion of any of the questions would not have resulted in an increase of reliability above 0.885 (for more details see annexe II). As well, taken individually, the recognition questionnaires pertaining to each of the recognition foci showed a level of reliability that more than satisfies the minimum threshold of 0.70 recommended by Roussel and al. (2002), cited by Jourdain & Chênevert (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010, p.715). Recognition from supervisor (3 items,  $\alpha = 0.960$ ), recognition from coworkers (3 items,  $\alpha = 0.951$ ), recognition from physicians (3 items,  $\alpha = 0.955$ ), recognition from patients (3 items,  $\alpha = 0.961$ ), recognition organization (3 items,  $\alpha = 0.890$ ) (see table 3.3). A deletion of any of the questions on the recognition from the supervisor scale would not have resulted in an increase of alpha cronbach above 0.960. Also, a deletion of any of the questions on the recognition from the coworkers scale would not have resulted in an increase of alpha cronbach above 0.951. In addition, a deletion of any of the questions on the recognition from the patients scale would not have resulted in an increase of alpha cronbach of above 0.961. Concerning the recognition from physicians and the organization scales, the alpha cronbach of the recognition from physicians scale could have been improved by removing question 78 (les médecins remarquent l'effort que j'investis au travail) by bringing the alpha cronbach from 0.955 to 0.959 whereas the recognition from the organization scale could have been improved by removing question 169 (les contributions exceptionnelles des employés sont reconnues par la direction de CSSS) by bringing the alpha cronbach from 0.890 to 0.918 (for more details see annexe II). Yet, we have decided to keep the entire recognition questionnaire, firstly because overall, the reliability coefficients are high and secondly because according to Baumgartner and Homburg (1996), cited by Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chênevert and Vandenberghe, three or four indicators per factor are required for a confirmatory factor model to be identified and for estimation

problems to be minimized (Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chênevert & Vandenberghe, 2010, p. 416). If we were to get rid of the questions that we have targeted as prime candidates for deletion, we would have been left with only two indicators per factor.

Items	Factors				
	1 ( $\alpha = ,96$ )	2 ( $\alpha = ,96$ )	3 ( $\alpha = ,95$ )	4 ( $\alpha = ,95$ )	5 ( $\alpha = ,89$ )
83. Recognition patients	<b>.969</b>	.013	.086	.108	.002
81. Recognition patients	<b>.948</b>	.073	.065	.120	-.010
82. Recognition patients	<b>.937</b>	.037	.112	.129	.014
72. Recognition supervisor	.059	<b>.919</b>	.157	.142	.133
74. Recognition supervisor	.040	<b>.916</b>	.137	.206	.176
73. Recognition supervisor	.035	<b>.915</b>	.117	.229	.184
80. Recognition physicians	.104	.104	<b>.926</b>	.163	.156
79. Recognition physicians	.087	.162	<b>.923</b>	.157	.169
78. Recognition physicians	.096	.144	<b>.894</b>	.204	.130
77. Recognition coworkers	.154	.177	.140	<b>.916</b>	.105
76. Recognition coworkers	.146	.182	.214	<b>.898</b>	.079
75. Recognition coworkers	.100	.216	.181	<b>.898</b>	.073
168. Recognition organization	-.040	.174	.160	.081	<b>.911</b>
167. Recognition organization	-.002	.235	.112	.011	<b>.873</b>
169. Recognition organization	.041	.057	.141	.045	<b>.854</b>

**Table 3.3 Factor Analysis Recognition Foci: Contributions and Reliability Coefficients**

As for the analyses regarding turnover intention, the model composed of 4 items had a high reliability coefficient, alpha cronbach of 0.867(see table 3.4). A deletion of any of the questions would not have resulted in an augmentation of alpha cronbach above 0.867. Therefore, based on the previous analysis that showed that the alpha cronbach cannot be increased by deleting any of the items we decided that it makes sense to preserve all the items (questions) on turnover intention used in the initial questionnaire.

<b>Item</b>	1 ( $\alpha = ,86$ )
14. Turnover Intention	.879
13. Turnover intention	.864
15. Turnover Intention	.847
16. Turnover Intention	.792

**Table 3.4 Factor Analysis Turnover Intention: Contributions and Reliability Coefficient**

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

In this chapter, we will present the results of the various analyses performed in order to test our research hypotheses. First, we will present the descriptive statistics of our sample. Second, we will expose the results of the confirmatory factor analysis. And finally, we will finish with the results from the multiple regression and logistic regression analyses that will either confirm or disapprove our research hypotheses.

#### 4.1 Descriptive Statistics

As mentioned previously, the questionnaire was distributed to all 1884 hospital employees. Thus, we are not working with a convenience sample. In total, 545 completed questionnaires were returned to the researchers, for a response rate of 28.9 %. Among the 545 respondents 198 employees belonged to the category of nursing and cardio-respiratory care, 61 to the category of paratechnical personnel, auxiliary services and trades personnel, 94 to the category of office workers, 40 to the category of technicians of health and social services, 89 to the category of health and social services professionals and lastly 49 to the category of management and other professionals. Fourteen out of 545 subjects failed to indicate to which employee category they belonged to. The responses of these 14 subjects along with the responses of office workers and management professionals were excluded from the final sample. Out of the remaining 388 employees, only 221 have fully completed the questionnaire. Therefore, after eliminating all questionnaires that contained missing values, we ended up with a final sample composed of 221 employees that represent 11.7 % of the total population. Although the rejection rate may appear rather high, it is important to keep in mind that many questionnaires had to be put aside due to some of the requirements of certain statistical analyses that were used. For example, confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS does not work with databases that include missing values. In addition, answers from some of the categories of personnel were

not considered because they had no direct contact with patients and/or physicians. In terms of sample size needed, for our statistical analysis to provide valid results, 221 subjects seemed appropriate. In fact, Anderson and Gerbing found that a sample size as low as 150 would usually be sufficient to obtain a converged and proper solutions for models with three or more indicators per factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 416). Likewise, according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, models containing five or fewer constructs, each with more than three items, and with high item commonalities (0.6 or higher), can be adequately estimated with samples as small as 100-150 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 744). In fact, the latter recommends a sample size of 200 to provide a sound basis for estimation (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 741). Eighty-nine percent of our sample is composed of women. This number appears representative of employees in a healthcare establishment because in general, most caregivers are female. The age of respondents falls between 22 and 64 years old (for more details see table 4.1). The mean age is 45.46 years old, with a standard deviation of 9.300. Most of the subjects in our sample are married or live in common law (75.3%). The most common levels of education attained are college degree with 36.6% and bachelor's degree with 38 % respectively. As far as the organizational tenure is concerned, the mean number of years that the employees stayed with their organization is 13.01 years, with a standard deviation of 8.929. Lastly, the vast majority of caregivers in our sample are full time employees (66.4 %).

	Mean	St.Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Gender	0.90	0.307	-												
2. Age	45.46	9.300	0.049	-											
3. Tenure	13.01	8.929	0.054	0.439**	-										
4. Educ.L	3.00	1.210	0.054	-0.096	-0.137*	-									
5. Rec.Su	4.6833	1.74055	0.021	0.020	0.032	0.126	(0,96)								
6. Rec.Co	4.9781	1.40836	0.031	0.079	0.067	0.128	0.432**	(0,95)							
7. Rec.Pa	5.3922	1.37742	0.047	0.067	0.043	0.033	0.127	0.285**	(0,96)						
8. Rec.Ph	3.5626	1.68347	0.048	0.178*	0.135	0.065	0.341**	0.409**	0.215**	(0,95)					
9. Rec.Org.	3.2194	1.36892	-0.063	0.090	0.104	0.087	0.371**	0.234**	0.042	-0.352**	(0,89)				
10. Turn.I	3.4840	1.58402	0.050	-0.292**	-0.243**	0.057	-0.354**	-0.134*	-0.050	-0.262**	-0.300**	(0,85)			
11. Abs.be	2.2127	2.59283	-0.092	-0.111	-0.086	-0.140*	-0.161*	-0.146*	0.130	-0.143**	-0.100	0.044	-		
12. Abs.af	2.9050	3.08147	-0.025	-0.140	-0.033	-0.143*	-0.106	-0.072	0.114	-0.116	-0.145*	0.077	0.586**	-	
13. Turn.	0.0950	0.29391	-0.142*	-0.195*	-0.161*	0.102	-0.056	-0.057	-0.053	-0.072	-0.066	0.265**	-0.066	0.105	-

Table 4.1 Correlation Matrix and Reliability Coefficients

\* Correlations are significant at 0.05 level

\*\* Correlations are significant at 0.01 level

The values in the parentheses are cronbach alpha coefficients

## 4.2 Results from the Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As mentioned earlier, many researchers conduct an exploratory factor analysis before reaching the point of trying to confirm a model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 795). In our exploratory factor analysis, we have identified five factors of recognition and one factor of turnover intention. These results led us to develop a measurement model. This is where the confirmatory factor analysis enters the picture. What the confirmatory analysis can do is that it can confirm the measurement model developed using the exploratory factor. Of a primary interest in a measurement model (confirmatory factor analysis) is the extent to which a hypothesized model fits or put differently, adequately describes the sample data. In order to assess the quality of the measurement model, it is necessary to use multiple goodness of-fit indices of differing types (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 752 -758). Here is a short list of fit indices that will be used in our analysis and their expected values:

- **CMIN or chi-square  $\chi^2$ :** This test is a fundamental measure that quantifies the differences between the unrestricted sample covariance matrix and the restricted covariance matrix. The implied null hypothesis is that observed sample and estimated covariance matrices are equal, meaning that the model fits perfectly. To the extent that perfect fit is not the case, the  $\chi^2$  value increases. Typically, we want smaller  $\chi^2$  values and a corresponding larger p-values (more than 0.05) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 746; Byrne, 2001, p. 79). Thus, the higher the probability associated with  $\chi^2$ , the closer the fit between the hypothesized model and the perfect fit (Byrne, 2001, p. 81). Although the  $\chi^2$  test appears intuitively pleasing and can provide a test of statistical significance, some of its mathematical properties can also present unpleasant problems. One of these problems is that this test is sensitive to sample size. As N increases so does the  $\chi^2$  value even if the differences between matrices are identical. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the mathematical properties of this test reduce the fit of the model for things that may not be truly detrimental to its overall validity. For this reason, the  $\chi^2$  test should not be used as sole indicator of the adequacy of the model. In fact, researchers in the past two decades,



developed many alternative measures of fit to correct for the bias against large samples (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 746-747).

- **RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)** : This measure attempts to correct for the tendency of the  $\chi^2$  test to reject models with large samples. It better represents how well a model fits a population, not just a sample used for estimation. Lower RMSEA values indicate a better fit (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 748). Values less than 0.05 indicate good fit and values as high as 0.08 represent reasonable errors of approximation in the population (Byrne, 2001, p. 85).

- **NFI (Normed Fit Index)**: This test is derived from the comparison between a hypothesized model with an independent model. It is a ratio of the difference in the  $\chi^2$  value for the fitted model and a null model divided by the  $\chi^2$  value for the null model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 749; Byrne, 2001, p. 83). Yet, addressing evidence that the NFI has shown a tendency to underestimate fit in small samples, Bentler (1990), cited by Byrne, revised the NFI to take sample size into account and proposed the comparative fit index (CFI). Values from NFI range between 0 and 1, and a value of 0.90 was originally considered representative of a well fitting model. Although a revised cut-off value of close to 0.95 has recently been advised (Byrne, 2001, p. 83).

- **CFI (Comparative Fit Index)** : As mentioned earlier, this test is the improved version of the NFI. The CFI is normed so that the values range between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating better fit. CFI values less than 0.90 are not usually associated with a model that fits well (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 749).

- **TLI ( Tucker-Lewis Index)** : The TLI comes before the CFI and is conceptually close in that it also involves a mathematical comparison of a specified theoretical measurement model and a base line null model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 749). TLI yields values ranging from 0 to 1, with values close to 0.95 for large sample, indicating a good fit (Byrne, 2001, p. 83).

- **GFI (Goodness -of -Fit Index)** : This test measures the relative amount of variance and covariance in the hypothesized model. Essentially, it compares the hypothesized model with no model at all (Byrne, 2001, p. 82). Also, Fan, Thompson and Wang (1999), cited by Byrne, cautioned that GFI values can be overly influenced by sample size (Byrne, 2001, p.

82). The possible range of GFI values is 0 to 1 with higher values indicating a better fit. In the past, GFI values of greater than 0.90 typically were considered good. However, it has been argued that values of greater than 0.95 should be used (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 749).

Although as mentioned earlier, the ultimate goal of a confirmatory factor analysis is to provide an answer as to whether the measurement model is valid, confirmatory factor analysis also offers additional diagnostic information that may suggest modifications for either addressing some unresolved problems or improving the model's test of measurement theory. These include: construct convergent validity, standardized residuals and modification indices (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 795-808). The items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common are known as having convergent validity. The size of the factor loadings is one important consideration of convergent validity. When there is a high convergent validity, high loading would indicate that they converge on some common point. All factor loadings should be significant. However, because a significant loading can still be fairly weak in strength, standardized loadings should be at least 0.5 or higher, and ideally 0.7 or higher. Residuals refer to individual differences between observed and covariance terms and the fitted covariance terms. The standardized residuals are simply the raw residuals divided by the standard error of the residual. So they are not dependant on the actual measurement scale range, which makes them very useful in diagnosing problems with the measurement model. These values can be used to identify item pairs for which the specified measurement model does not accurately recreate the observed covariance between these two items. Typically, standardized residuals less than 2.5 do not suggest a problem. In contrast, residuals greater than 4 suggest a potentially unacceptable degree of error. As for standardized residuals between 2.5 and 4, these deserve attention, but do not necessarily suggest any modifications in the model, if no other problems are associated with those two particular items (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 796-797). At last, modification indices reflect the extent to which the hypothesized model is

appropriately described (Byrne, 2001, p. 90). Modification indices of approximately 4 or greater suggest that the fit could be improved significantly by freeing the corresponding path. However, making model changes based solely on modification indices is not advised because when multiple modifications become necessary, some combination of changes among items may lead to a more improved model than the changes that would result based on the single largest modification index (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 797).

Moreover, reliability is another indicator of convergent validity. High construct reliability indicates that internal consistency exists, meaning that the measures all consistently represent the same latent construct. Generally, a reliability estimate of 0.7 or higher suggests good reliability, and reliability between 0.6 and 0.7 may be acceptable provided that other indicators of a model's construct validity are good (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 778- 779).

The quality of fit of the 6-factor measurement model was evaluated using a first-order confirmatory factor analysis. The overall model  $\chi^2$  is 175.213 with 137 degrees of freedom. The p-value associated with the result 0.015 is significant using a type 1 error rate of 0.05 which normally indicates a poor fit for the data. Yet, the chi-square/df ratio is 1.279 (<3) which demonstrates the capacity of our model to correctly measure the underlying latent factors studied. Also, given the aforementioned problems associated using this test alone, we examined the other fit statistics closely as well. Overall the fit indexes corroborate the conclusion that our measurement model provides a reasonably good fit. The value of RMSEA is 0.036, which is lower than 0.05, indicating a good fit. The value of CFI is 0.991 which is above 0.90, a result that supports our model. The value of NFI is 0.958, which is higher than 0.95, representative of a well fitting model. The value of TLI is 0.988, which is above 0.95, once again indicating a good fit. Finally, the value of GFI is 0.925, which is above the traditionally recommended 0.90 threshold supporting a good fit, and falling only 0.25 short of the newly revised standard of 0.95.

With regards to convergent validity, evidence supports the convergent validity of our model. All factor loadings are significant and none of them is under the preferred threshold of 0.70 with the lowest loading being 0.702 on one of the turnover intention items Q16 ( si on me proposait une offre d'emploi équivalente ailleurs, je quitterais probablement cette organisation) . As far as standardized residuals are concerned, none of them is even close to 2.5, with the largest negative standard residual between Q76 (recognition from coworkers, lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité mes collègues me félicitent) and Q16 of -2.371 (turnover intention), giving us no reason to believe that there may be a problem with our model. In terms of reliability, two of the estimates fall below the less conservative cut-off 0.6. These are Q16 with reliability of 0.493 and Q169 (recognition from the organization, les contributions exceptionnelles des employés sont reconnues par la direction du CSSS) with a reliability of 0.542. As for Q169, it is suspect, but deleting this item is not really an option because it would leave us with fewer than three indicators on this construct. With respect to Q16, it definitely becomes a prime candidate for deletion. In addition, dropping this item is not as problematic because even if we did decide to remove it from the analysis, we will still end up with three indicator items for this construct. Lastly, after examining the modification indexes we can see that the only pertinent paths that deserve our attention are between errors 17 and 18 with a value of 8.214 and the errors 16 and 19 with a value of 7.071. Both Q17 and Q18 will be retained because there is no other evidence that these may be problematic. In reference to Q16, the information is consistent with that already obtained earlier, pointing to the need to delete item 16, in order to improve model fit. The elimination of Q16 from our model resulted in  $\chi^2$  diminishing from 175.13 to 132.327. More importantly, the p-value of 0.208, which is above 0.05, is no longer significant, meaning that the model fits perfectly in the population. The RMSEA went down from 0.036 to 0.022, NFI increased from 0.958 to 0.967; CFI went up from 0.991 to 0.997, TLI climbed from 0.988 to 0.996 and lastly GFI jumped from 0.925 to 0.940. This completes our confirmatory factor analysis. Overall, the fit statistics suggest that an estimated model reproduces the sample covariance matrix well. Moreover, evidence of construct

validity and reliability are present. At the end of this analysis, we are left with a 6-factor model with three items or indicators per variable.

### **4.3 Correlations between Variables in the Study**

In order to get a better understanding of what is happening with the variables in our sample, we have requested SPSS to provide us with a correlation matrix and descriptive statistics of all variables in our study. More specifically, for absenteeism, the control variables that we were interested in were age, gender, tenure, educational level and past absenteeism whereas for turnover the variables that concerned us were age, gender, tenure and educational level. By looking at the correlation matrix ( see table 4.1), we can see that the only control variables that are related to absenteeism are previous absenteeism with a relatively strong positive correlation of 0.586 and educational level with a much weaker negative correlation of -0.143. These results correspond to the findings reported in other empirical studies mentioned earlier. There also seems to exist a weak negative correlation of -0.140 between past absenteeism and educational level. Based on these results, there is no reason to be concerned about multicollinearity between control variables for absenteeism. As for the control variables that are linked to turnover, these are gender with a weak negative correlation of -0.142, age with a weak negative correlation of -0.195, and tenure with a weak negative correlation of -0.161 (see table 4.1). These findings also appear to emulate some of the findings in the studies presented before. In reference to the relationship between control variables, the one relevant correlation found is a relatively strong positive correlation of 0.439 between age and tenure. However, once again, this association is not strong enough to worry about multicollinearity either. As for the independent variables, it is important to remember that these variables were all measured on a scale ranging from 1 to 7, with 4 representing the neutral point meaning that a person does not feel fully recognized for his or her work, but also does not feel completely unappreciated for the work that she or he does. In the case of

turnover intention, that would mean that a person is not sure whether he or she would want to leave the organization. By inspecting the descriptive statistics, we can observe that employees feel that they receive recognition from their supervisors mean 4.68 (over 4) and their work colleagues mean 4.97, and they feel that they get the most appreciation from patients 5.39, and the least appreciation from the organization 3.21. The mean for turnover intention in this sample is 3.48 meaning that overall employees are not particularly eager to leave their workplace. In terms of correlations between our independent variables, we can clearly see that most sources of recognition are positively correlated with each other with a few exceptions. For example, recognition from patients is not correlated with recognition from supervisor or recognition from the organization. Nevertheless, none of these correlations is high enough to cause any concern with the highest correlation of 0.432 between recognition from work colleagues and recognition from supervisor. Concerning the correlations between recognition foci and turnover intentions, most of them were in line with our hypothesis that recognition is negatively associated with turnover intention. In other words, the more one feels recognized, the less one intends to quit. However, one result was contrary to what we have anticipated. The correlation matrix showed that there is no correlation between recognition from patients and turnover intention. At last, in terms of relationships between the dependant variables and other variables in the study, we can observe that none of the recognition foci is related to turnover; turnover intention is significantly and positively associated with turnover 0.265; turnover intention is not linked to absenteeism; only one source of recognition, recognition from the organization, is weakly and negatively correlated with absenteeism -0.145 (see table 4.1). Because after the confirmatory factor analysis, we decided that it was necessary to remove question 16 on turnover intention, we had to test once again for internal consistency with only three questions in the model. The analysis showed that the model composed of 3 questions rather than 4 also had a high reliability coefficient of 0.859. A deletion of any of the questions would not have resulted in a rise of alpha cronbach above 0.859 (see annexe III for more details).

#### 4.4 Hypothesis Testing

As it was explained earlier, we tested our hypotheses with the use of multivariate techniques, namely multiple and logistic regression. These statistical analyses enabled us to determine the relative importance of some of the independent variables in the prediction of dependant measures in addition to providing an assessment of the nature of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependant variables (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 190-191). To assess the significance of multicollinearity, two statistical tests were performed, the first being variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF indicates whether a predictor has a strong linear relationship with the other predictors. Although there are no hard and fast rules about what value of the VIF should be, authors such as Myers, cited by Field, 2005, suggest that a value of 10 is a good value at which to worry (Field, 2005, p. 175). The second statistical test performed is tolerance which is a statistic used to determine the extent to which independent variables are linearly interrelated. It represents the proportion of a variable's variance that cannot be explained by other independent variables in the equation. Values below 0.1 usually indicate serious problems. In other words the higher the correlation of one variable with the other independent variables, the closer the tolerance index is to zero (Tremblay & Chênevert, 2011, p.865). Also, it is worthy of mention that the significance level for accepting direct and indirect, mediation hypotheses, was set at 0.05. In other words, we have accepted p values less than 0.05. Meanwhile, when testing interactions in the post- hoc analysis ,we have accepted p values less than 0.10. In order to avoid multicollinearity issues with the variables in interactions, all the variables were centered. At last, unless specified otherwise, the betas reported in the text are unstandartized betas.

#### 4.4.1 Link between Recognition by the Organization and Turnover Intentions

The aim of our first research hypothesis was to find out whether there was an association between recognition from the organization and turnover intention (see table 4.2). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 1: Recognition from the hospital is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions

As well, it is important to note that although turnover intention and turnover constitute distinct concepts, they do have common correlates, and that is why we have used the same control variables for both turnover intention and turnover. This analysis shows that in agreement with our research hypothesis, recognition from the organization is negatively and significantly associated with turnover intentions. The p value is only slightly higher than the generally accepted threshold of significance of 0.05 ( $\beta = -0.179$ ,  $p = 0.056$ ). Considering the fact that there is a probability of error of 5%, to all intents and purposes, it is possible to conclude our hypothesis was validated. The value of standardized beta of -0.153 indicates that as recognition from the organization increases by one standard deviation (1.36892), turnover intention decreases by -0.153 standard deviations. The standard deviation for turnover intention is 1.58402 and so this constitutes a change of 0.242 in intentions to leave ( $-0.153 * 1.58402$ ). The mean of turnover intention is 3.4840. By deducting 0.242 from the mean, dividing the result by the same mean and then deducting 1 we can obtain the percentage of turnover intention that can be explained by recognition from the organization. This equation gives us  $(3.4840 - 0.242) / 3.4840 - 1 = -0.069$ . What this means is that recognition from the organization accounts for approximately 6.9 % of turnover intention.



#### **4.4.2 Link between Recognition by the Supervisor and Turnover Intentions**

The aim of our second research hypothesis was to find out whether there was an association between recognition from the supervisor and turnover intention (see table 4.2). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following :

Hypothesis 2 : Recognition from the supervisor is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

This analysis shows that consistent with our research hypothesis, recognition from the supervisor is negatively and significantly linked with turnover intentions. ( $\beta = -0.299$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Thus, the second hypothesis is validated. The value of standardized beta of -0.319 indicates that as recognition from the supervisor increases by one standard deviation (1.74055), turnover intention decreases by -0.319 standard deviations. The standard deviation for turnover intention is 1.58402 and so this constitutes a change of 0.505 in intentions to leave ( $-0.319 * 1.58402$ ). The mean of turnover intention is 3.4840. By deducting 0.505 from the mean, dividing the result by the same mean and then deducting 1 we can obtain the percentage of turnover intention that can be explained by recognition from the organization. This equation gives us  $(3.4840 - 0.505 / 3.4840 - 1) = -0.144$ . What this means is that recognition from the supervisor accounts for approximately 14.4 % of turnover intention.

#### **4.4.3 Link between Recognition by the Work Colleagues and Turnover Intentions**

The aim of our third research hypothesis was to find out whether there was an association between recognition from coworkers and turnover intention (see table 4.2). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 3: Recognition from coworkers is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

Contrary to our research hypothesis, this analysis shows that there is no significant relationship between recognition from coworkers and turnover intentions ( $\beta = 0.107$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hence, the third hypothesis is refuted.

#### **4.4.4 Link between Recognition by the Patients and Turnover Intentions**

The aim of our fourth research hypothesis was to find out whether there was an association between recognition from patients and turnover intention (see table 4.2). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 4: Recognition from patients is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

As opposed to our research hypothesis, this analysis shows that there is no significant relationship between recognition from patients and turnover intentions ( $\beta = -0.019$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hence, the fourth hypothesis is invalidated.

#### **4.4.5 Link between Recognition by the Physicians and Turnover Intentions**

The aim of our fifth research hypothesis was to find out whether there was an association between recognition from physicians and turnover intention (see table 4.2). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 5: Recognition from physicians is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.

Contrary to our research hypothesis, this analysis shows that recognition from physicians is not significantly related to turnover intentions. ( $\beta = -0.042$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, the fifth hypothesis is refuted. Amongst the control variables, the only one

that seems to be affecting employees' turnover intention is age ( $\beta = -0.037$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The VIF are all lower than 10 and the tolerance indexes are significantly above 0.1.

Control Variables	$\beta$
Gender	,072
Age	-,218*
Tenure	-,111
<b>Recognition</b>	
Organization	-,153*
Supervisor	-,319*
Coworkers	,089
Physicians	-,043
Patients	-,015

\* $p < 0,05$ , Men=0, women coded as 1. The coefficients in the table are standardized  $\beta$ eta.

**Table 4.2 Results from the multiple regression analysis of recognition on turnover intention**

#### **4.4.6 Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition foci and absenteeism**

The aim of the sixth research hypothesis is to figure out whether turnover intention fully or partially mediates the relationship between absenteeism and recognition foci (see table 4.3). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 6: Turnover intention mediates the relationship between recognition and absenteeism

To test for mediation, we have followed the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny. According to the latter, there are three regression equations that provide tests of the linkages of the meditational model. In order to establish mediation, the following conditions must hold: First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependant variable in the third equation. Under the circumstances where all these conditions hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. It is generally considered that perfect mediation holds when the independent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1177).

Based on this information, as to test our first hypothesis, we first needed to regress turnover intention against recognition foci and this is precisely what we did in our first five hypotheses. In order to meet the second condition for mediation hypothesis, we have regressed recognition from supervisor, organization, coworkers patients and physicians against absenteeism. The analysis shows that neither recognition from the supervisor ( $\beta=-0.020, p>0.05$ ), recognition from the organization ( $\beta=-0.135, p>0.05$ ), recognition from coworkers ( $\beta=0.109, p>0.05$ ), recognition from physicians ( $\beta=-0.009, p>0.05$ ) or recognition from patients ( $\beta=0.075, p>0.05$ ) have an effect on absenteeism. The results from testing this hypothesis are presented in table 4.3. Because the second condition for mediation did not hold, we can conclude that our hypothesis was disapproved. Amongst the control variables, it is previous absenteeism that turned out to be significantly and positively linked with absenteeism ( $\beta=0.691, p<0.05$ ). The VIF are all lower than 10 and the tolerance indexes are significantly above 0.1.

<b>Control Variables</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>
Past Absenteeism	<b>,592*</b>
Educational Level	-,058
<b>Recognition</b>	
Organization	-,061
Supervisor	,012
Coworkers	,050
Physicians	-,005
Patients	0,034
Turnover Intention	0,069

\* $p < 0.05$ , The coefficients in the table are standardized  $\beta$ ta

**Table 4.3 Results from the multiple regression analysis of recognition and absenteeism**

#### **4.4.7 Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition and turnover**

The aim of the seventh research hypothesis is to figure out whether turnover intention fully or partially mediates the relationship between recognition and turnover (see table 4.4). The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 7: Turnover intention mediates the relationship between recognition and turnover.

Because the first condition for mediation was already partially met by the analyses of the tests from the first five hypotheses that showed a negative significant relationship between turnover intention recognition from the organization and recognition from supervisor, we decided to test second condition, namely the relationship between

recognition foci and turnover. The regression of recognition against turnover showed that there is no significant relationship between recognition foci and turnover. There is no significant relationship between recognition from the organization and voluntary turnover ( $\beta = -0.228$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Moreover, there is no significant relationship between recognition from supervisor and voluntary turnover ( $\beta = 0.164$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Furthermore, there is no significant relationship between recognition from work colleagues and voluntary turnover ( $\beta = -0.094$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Similarly, there is no significant relationship between recognition from patients and voluntary turnover ( $\beta = -0.228$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Finally, there is no significant relationship between recognition from physicians and voluntary turnover ( $\beta = 0.176$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Up until now we have verified the first and the second condition for mediation. The last step consists in testing the third condition which is the relationship between turnover intention and voluntary turnover. So we regressed turnover intention against turnover. The analysis shows that turnover intention is significantly and positively linked to voluntary turnover ( $\beta = 0.774$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (see table 4.4). In a logistic regression, the most direct method of assessing the magnitude of the change in probability due to independent variables is to look at the exponentiated coefficients. The exponentiated coefficient minus one equals the percentage change in odds (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006, p. 376). In our case, the exponentiated coefficient  $\text{Exp. } (\beta)$  is 2.167 meaning that an increase by one point of turnover intention increases the odds of leaving by 116.7%. At first glance, it may appear strange to have percentages that exceed 100% change, however it is important to keep in mind that here we are dealing with increasing odds and not with the probabilities themselves. Amongst the control variables gender ( $\beta = -1.984$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and age ( $\beta = -0.082$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) seem to significantly and negatively affect voluntary turnover. If we are to base our decision on whether to reject or to accept this research hypothesis solely on the criteria proposed by Baron and Kenny, 1986, then we can conclude that because the second condition for mediation was not met, our seventh hypothesis is rejected. However, there is some debate concerning the requisite statistical evidence for drawing inferences about mediation. Amongst some of the causes of such controversies, we find the necessity of demonstrating the

significance of the second condition, which is the significance of the relationship between the independent and the dependant variables when considered alone (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006, p.1037). In fact, authors such as MacKinnon and al. 2002, cited by Mathieu and Taylor, have relaxed the precondition, and argued that mediation inferences are justified as long as the first and the third conditions suggested by Baron and Kenny, 1986, are satisfied. In other words, MacKinnon equate mediator variables with indirect effects (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006, p. 1037). If we follow the latter guidelines, it would appear that the mediation hypothesis was partially confirmed because both the first and the third conditions were met. More specifically, it seems that turnover intentions mediate the relationship between recognition from supervisor, recognition from the organization and turnover. However, before making any affirmations or drawing definite conclusions we have estimated the indirect effects of recognition from the organization and recognition from the supervisor using the procedure outlined by Sobel (1987), cited by Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber, 2004,p.63). The Sobel test showed that there is evidence of an existence of partial mediation, but only for the recognition from supervisor. The indirect effects of recognition from supervisor on turnover was 2.23 (SE=0.10)  $p < 0.05$ . As for the indirect effects of recognition from the organization on turnover, the Sobel test yielded 1.57 (SE=0.08)  $p > 0.05$  (see figure 4.1). Therefore, the existence of mediation for recognition from the organization cannot be confirmed. Clearly, these less strict rules for the verification of the mediation hypotheses could also be applied to both hypotheses number 6 and 8, but that would not have changed a thing because for example, in the hypothesis 6, for the mediation hypothesis to hold, there must be a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism and in hypothesis 8, for the mediation hypothesis to hold, there must be a relationship between absenteeism and turnover. The VIF are all lower than 10 and the tolerance indexes are significantly above 0.1.

<b>Control Variables</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>
Gender	-1,984
Age	<b>,082*</b>
Tenure	-,008
<b>Recognition and Turnover Intention</b>	
Organization	-,228
Supervisor	,164
Coworkers	-,094
Physicians	,176
Patients	-,228
Turnover Intention	<b>,774*</b>

\* $p < 0,05$  Men=0, women coded as 1. The coefficients in the table are original or unstandardized betas.

**Table 4.4 Results from logistic regression of turnover against recognition and turnover intention**



<i>Variables</i>	<i>A</i> ( <i>X-M</i> )	<i>Sa</i> ( <i>écart-type</i> )	<i>B</i> ( <i>M-Y</i> )	<i>Sb</i> ( <i>écart-type</i> )	<i>Z</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Recognition Supervisor- Turnover Intention- Turnover	.299	.079	.774	.280	2.23	.025*
Recognition Organization- Turnover Intention- Turnover	.179	.093	.774	.280	1.57	.11

\*p<0.05

**Figure 4.1 Results from Sobel Test**

#### **4.4.8 Mediating role of absenteeism in the link between turnover intention and turnover**

The aim of the eighth research hypothesis is to figure out whether absenteeism fully or partially mediates the relationship between turnover intention and turnover (see table 4.5. The actual hypothesis was formulated as following:

Hypothesis 8: Absenteeism mediates the relationship between turnover intention and turnover.

To test for mediation, we first regressed turnover intention against absenteeism. The analysis shows that turnover intention is not associated with absenteeism ( $\beta = 0.069$ ,

$p > 0.05$ ). The results from testing this hypothesis are presented in table 4.3 p.137 above. Because even the first condition for mediation did not hold, we can conclude that our hypothesis is rejected. The second condition for mediation was already tested in hypothesis 7 (effects of turnover intention on turnover). Although, it is clear that the mediation hypothesis was not supported, we have also tested the third condition by regressing turnover against absenteeism. The analysis shows that absenteeism is not associated with turnover ( $\beta = 0.101$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). The results from testing this hypothesis are presented in table 4.5. Amongst the control variables, age turned out to be significantly and negatively related to turnover ( $\beta = -0.071$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The VIF are all lower than 10 and the tolerance indexes are significantly above 0.1.

Control Variables	$\beta$
Gender	-1,211
Age	-,071*
Tenure	-,058
<b>Future Absenteeism</b>	
Absenteeism	,101

\* $p < 0,05$  Men=0, women coded as 1. The coefficients in the table are original or unstandardized betas.

**Table 4.5 Results from the logistic regression of turnover against absenteeism**

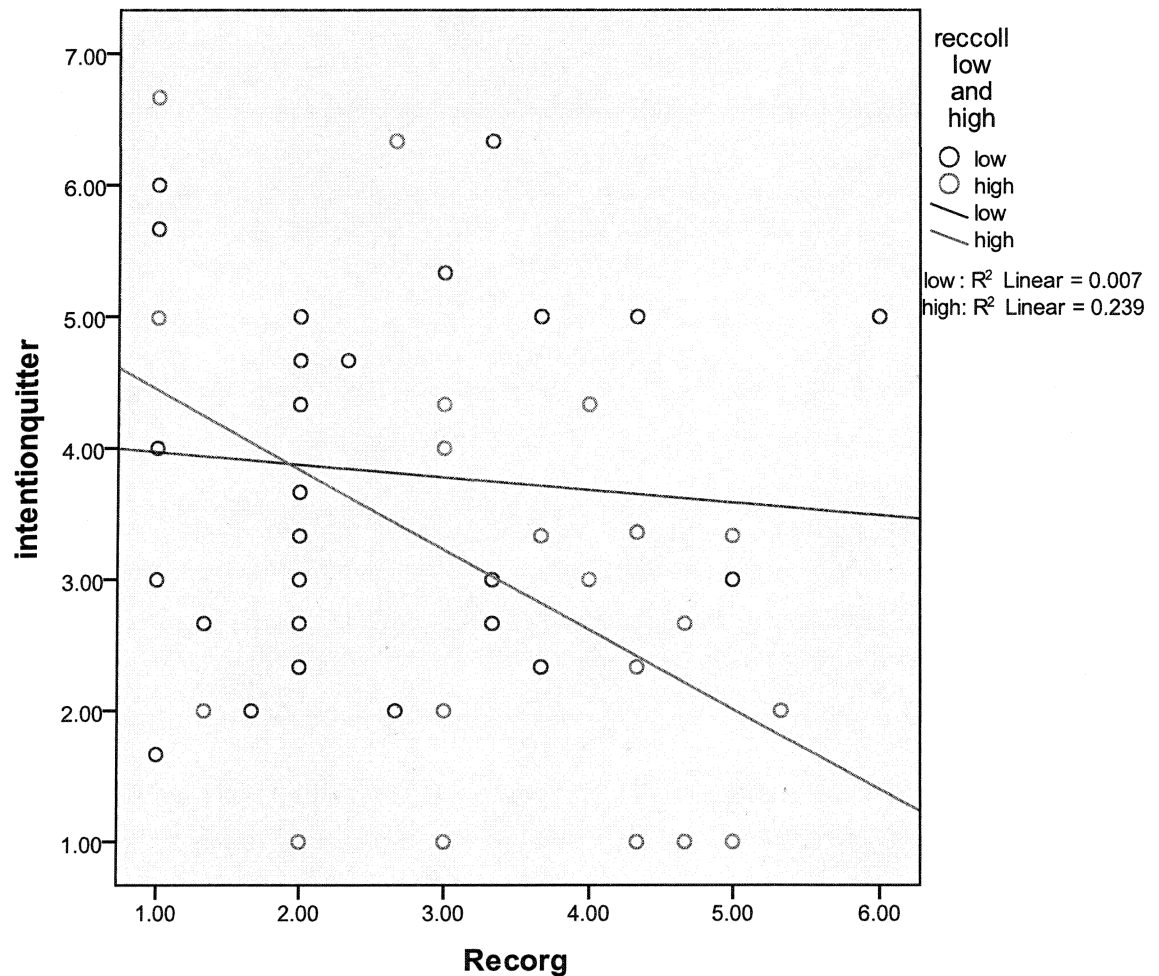
#### **4.4.9 Post-Hoc Analysis: recognition foci acting as moderators in the relationship between turnover intention and other recognition foci?**

In our literature review, we have visibly identified the theoretical arguments and the empirical studies that explain why we believe that recognition can affect employee turnover intention. In addition, the results of our research study are clearly pointing in the same direction. Also, on multiple occasions, throughout the body of the text, we reiterated that hardly ever do we find studies that attempt to investigate the relationship between more than two recognition foci at a time and another behavioural outcome, and even less so, studies that would include an interaction between two recognition foci. Actually, to our knowledge, till today, no researcher tested a moderator effect of various sources of recognition. Yet, as demonstrated by different authors, specific recognition foci are highly relevant to the employees' withdrawal process: recognition from supervisor and coworkers (Gostick & Elton, 2001; McCoy, 2011), patients (Ashley, Kernicki, Kirksey & Franklin, 2011), organization in social exchange and justice literature (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007), physicians (Cangelosi, Markham & Bounds, 1998). At the same time, it is only logical to speculate that the presence of two forms of recognition can potentially have an even more significant effect on turnover intention than just one form of recognition. Unfortunately, there is no information that would allow us to decide which two forms of recognition are more likely to have an interaction effect with turnover intention. Therefore, we have conducted a somewhat exploratory analysis as to figure out whether any of the recognition foci act as a moderator between another recognition foci and turnover intention (see table 4.6 ).

a) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the organization and recognition from supervisor has no effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.034$   $p > 0.10$ ).

b) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the organization and recognition from coworkers has a significant negative effect on employees'

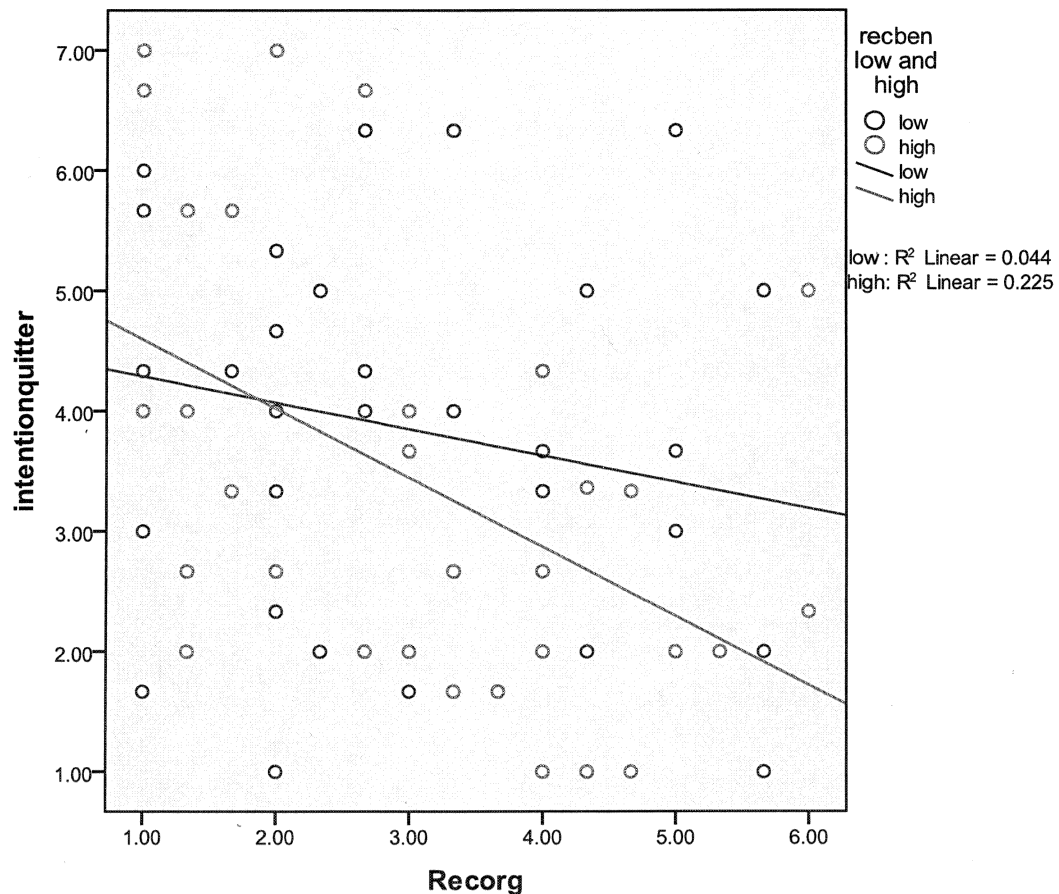
turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.135$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ). Figure 4.2 illustrates an example of these results. When recognition from the organization increases, turnover intention decreases. The latter statement is clearly more accurate when recognition from the organization is accompanied by high recognition from coworkers rather than a low recognition from coworkers. In other words, the regression effect is stronger for high recognition from coworkers than for low recognition from coworkers. This can be seen just by looking at the square roots of the  $R^2$  linear. The square root of the  $R^2$  linear in the high recognition from coworkers group is 0.488, meaning that the correlation between the organization and turnover intention is 0.488 when accompanied by high recognition from coworkers, but when recognition from the organization is accompanied by low recognition from coworkers, the correlation drops to 0.083.



**Figure 4.2 Interaction between recognition from the organization and recognition from coworkers**

Note: The figure was obtained with the simple scatter plot function after splitting the sample by subtracting one standard deviation from the mean for the low recognition and adding one standard deviation to the mean for the high recognition group (in this particular case, low recognition from coworkers is represented by the darker regression line and high recognition from coworkers is represented by the lighter regression line).

c) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the organization and recognition from patients has a significant negative effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.164$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ). Figure 4.3 illustrates an example of these results. When recognition from the organization increases, turnover intention decreases. The latter statement is clearly more accurate when recognition from the organization is accompanied by high recognition from patients rather than low recognition from patients. In other words, the regression effect is stronger for high recognition from patients than for low recognition from patients. This can be seen just by looking at the square roots of the  $R^2$  linear. The square root of the  $R^2$  linear in the high recognition from patients group is 0.474, meaning that the correlation between the organization and turnover intention is 0.474 when accompanied by



**Figure 4.3 Interaction between recognition from the organization and recognition from patients**

high recognition from patients, but when recognition from the organization is accompanied by low recognition from patients, the correlation falls to 0.20.

Note: The figure was obtained with the simple scatter plot function after splitting the sample by subtracting one standard deviation from the mean for the low recognition and adding one standard deviation to the mean for the high recognition group (in this particular case, low recognition from patients is represented by the darker regression line and high recognition from patients is represented by the lighter regression line).

d) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the organization and the recognition from physicians has no effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.070$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

e) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the supervisor and coworkers has no effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.041$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

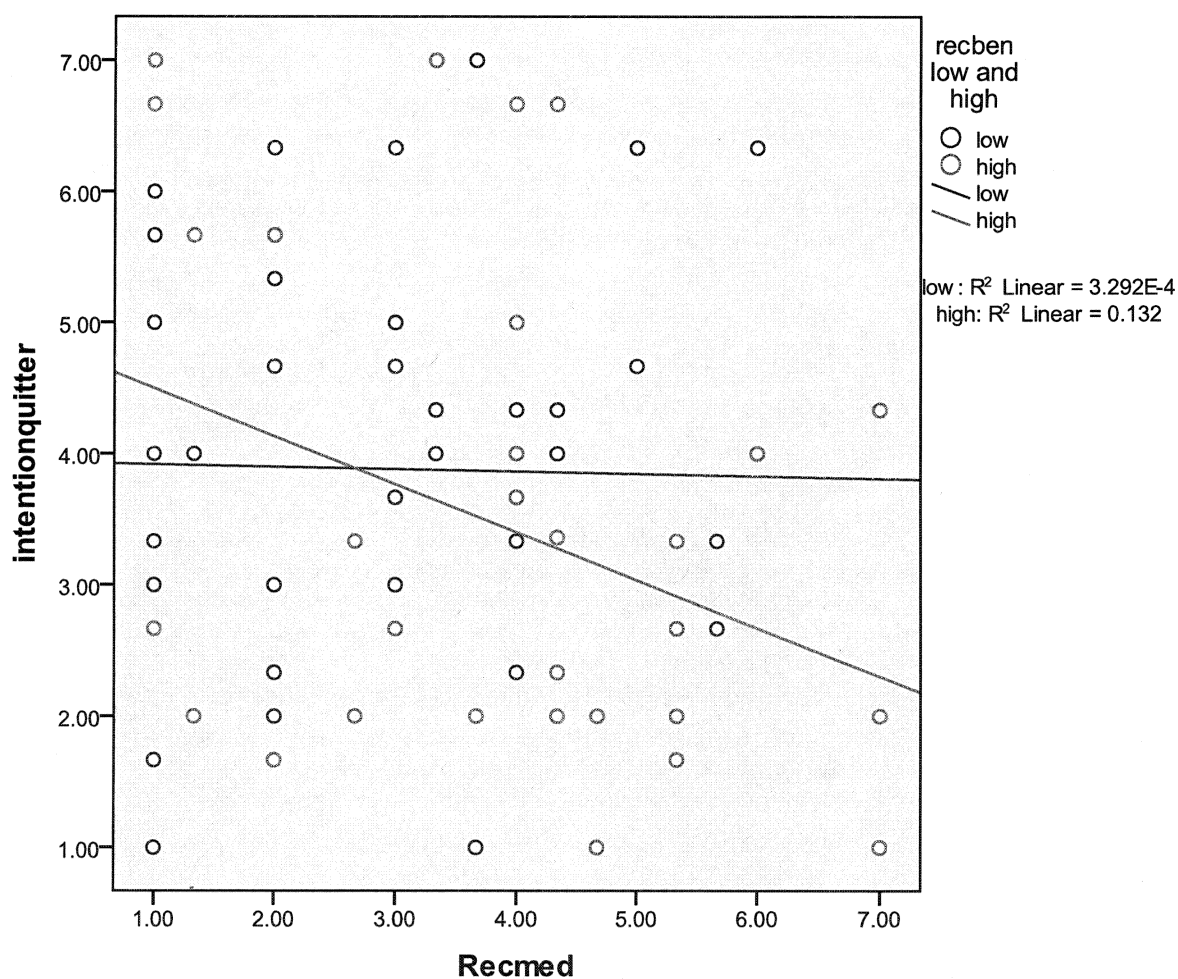
f) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the supervisor and patients has no effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.049$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

g) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from the supervisor and recognition from physicians has no effect employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.056$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

h) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from coworkers and recognition from patients has no effect on employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = 0.011$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

i) The analysis shows that the interaction between recognition from coworkers and recognition from physicians has no effect employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.056$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

j)The analysis shows that there is significant negative interaction between recognition from the patients and physicians and employees' turnover intention ( $\beta = -0.106$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ). Figure 4.4 illustrates an example of these results. When recognition from the physicians increases, turnover intention decreases. This statement is clearly more accurate when recognition from physicians is accompanied by high recognition from patients, but not when it is accompanied by low recognition from patients.



**Figure 4.4 Interaction between recognition from patients and recognition from physicians**



Note: The figure was obtained with the simple scatter plot function after splitting the sample by subtracting one standard deviation from the mean for the low recognition and adding one standard deviation to the mean for the high recognition group (in this particular case, low recognition from patients is represented by the darker regression line and high recognition from patients is represented by the lighter regression line).

Thus, as anticipated, the existence of several interaction effects was confirmed. More specifically, 3 interactions which are : interaction b) between recognition from the organization and recognition from coworkers, c) recognition from the organization and recognition from patients, and lastly j) recognition from patients and recognition from physicians, have a negative significant effect on turnover intention. Once again, we can see that that tolerance indexes range from 0.709 to 0.989, which is more than satisfactory. As for the VIF values, these are also highly satisfactory ranging from 1.011 to 1.410. For the summary of hypotheses see table 4.7.

**Table 4.6 Interaction effects of recognition foci on turnover intention**

<b>Control Variables</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>
Gender	,068
Age	<b>-,205*</b>
Tenure	-,117
<b>Recognition</b>	
Organization	<b>-,176*</b>
Supervisor	<b>-,254*</b>
Coworkers	-,053
Physicians	-,148
Patients	-,024
<b>Interaction Terms</b>	
Rec. Org. x Rec.Sup.	-,052
Rec.Org. x Rec.Cow.	<b>-,164*</b>
Rec.Org. x Rec. Pat.	<b>-,197*</b>
Rec.Org. x Rec.Phys.	-,099
Rec.Sup. x Rec.Cow	-,076
Rec.Sup. x Rec.Pat.	-,079
Rec.Sup. x Rec.Phys.	-,108

Rec.Cow. x Rec.Pat	,015
Rec.Cow. x Rec.Phys.	-,086
Rec.Pat. x Rec.Phys.	<b>-,142*</b>

\* $p < 0,05$  for simple terms Men=0, women coded as 1.

\* $p < 0.10$  for interactions In order to avoid multicollinearity issues with the variables in interactions, all the variables were centered. The coefficients in the table are standardized  $\beta$ eta.

H1 Recognition from the hospital is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions	H2 Recognition from the supervisor is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.	H3 Recognition from coworkers is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.	H4 Recognition from patients is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.	H5 Recognition from physicians is negatively linked with caregivers' turnover intentions.	H6 Turnover Intention mediates the relationship between recognition and absenteeism	H7 Turnover Intention mediates the relationship between recognition and turnover.	H8 Absenteeism mediates the relationship between turnover intention and turnover.	Post - Hoc Analysis: recognition foci moderate the association between other recognition foci and turnover intention
Confirmed	Confirmed	Refuted	Refuted	Refuted	Refuted	Partially confirmed for recognition from supervisor	Refuted	Confirmed for interactions b,c,j

**Table 4.7 Summary of Hypotheses and Results**

This brings to a close the results section. In the next and final chapter, we will return to the results presented. In fact, we will use certain elements gathered during the literature review that may provide potential explanations for some of the results obtained in our data analysis. Then, we will elaborate on a number of theoretical, practical and empirical contributions of our research study. To finish, we will present some of the limitations of our research study, followed by possible avenues for future research.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

In this section, we will interpret the results obtained in our statistical analyses. The main objective of our research study was to answer the following question: *What are the effects of nonmonetary recognition on the turnover intentions, absenteeism and turnover of caregivers in a hospital?* Hence, we wanted to know whether nonmonetary recognition coming from different sources more particularly, organization, supervisors, work colleagues, patients and physicians may affect an attitude such as turnover intention as well as withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover. This study is rather unique in a sense that, to our knowledge, there are no empirical studies that have investigated a direct relationship between recognition and absenteeism, a few studies that investigated a direct relationship between recognition and turnover, and almost no studies that included more than two recognition foci at a time. Also, in this study, we did not limit ourselves in establishing direct relationships between variables. In this research, we have also tested indirect effects by positing mediation hypotheses and conducted post-hoc moderation analysis. In one of these hypotheses, absenteeism was predicted to mediate the relationship between turnover intention and turnover; in another, turnover intention was supposed to mediate the relationship between recognition and turnover; and in another, turnover intention was presumed to mediate the relationship between recognition and absenteeism. The testing of the third mediation hypothesis, allowed us to verify the controversial link between turnover intention and absenteeism. As for the moderation post-hoc analysis, we verified whether any of the interactions between recognition foci moderate the relationship between other recognition foci and turnover intention.

We will begin with treating hypotheses that predicted direct effects followed by hypotheses that predicted indirect effects. For each of the hypotheses, we will attempt

to provide a reasonable explanation for why we believe that they were confirmed or refuted, whether this explanation will be theoretical, empirical or environmental. After that, we will turn to the potential theoretical, practical and empirical contributions of our study and finally we will wrap up with study limits closely followed by possible ideas for future research.

### **5.1 Direct Effects**

#### **The relationship between recognition from the organization, supervisor and turnover intention**

Consistent with our literature review, the first and the second hypotheses were confirmed. The study results show that there exists a significant negative association between recognition from the organization, recognition from the supervisor and turnover intention. In other words, the more the caregivers feel recognized by the hospital or the supervisor that they work for, the less likely it is that they will exhibit intentions to leave. This conclusion is in line with empirical studies conducted by authors such as Ali and Baloch, 2010; Chew and Chan, 2008 as well as Paré and Tremblay, 2007 that all point to the fact that nonmonetary recognition is negatively and directly related to turnover intention. The finding that recognition from the supervisor and the organization affect turnover intention is hardly astonishing considering the fact that the supervisor is often perceived by the employees as a representative of the organization playing an important role in re-establishing the weakening relationship between the employees and the organization (Doucet, Simard & Tremblay, 2008, p. 626). Likewise, Levinson (1965), cited by Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner, makes a similar point when he claims that organizations are often anthropomorphized by employees (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007, p. 844). This result can also be explained by Blau's theory of social exchange mentioned previously. According to this theory, social exchanges are usually voluntary actions of treatment of the employees, with the expectation that such treatment will be

reciprocated in kind. In the context of our study, what this means is that, on the basis of norms of reciprocity, caregivers that feel recognized by their organization or their supervisor, will pay back by expressing their desire to maintain membership in their organization whereas employees that do not feel appreciated will return the favour by expressing their intentions to leave. It seems only logical that employees that feel that their contributions are valued, and their individual interests are cared for, are more likely to want to stay with their employer.

### **Relationship between recognition from coworkers, patients, physicians and turnover intentions**

Contrary to our literature review, the third, fourth and fifth hypotheses were invalidated. Despite the evidence from some of the empirical studies and theories presented above, the results showed that there is no relationship between recognition from coworkers, patients, physicians and turnover intention. In other words, recognition from the latter foci has no effect on caregivers' turnover intention. Although these results were somewhat unexpected, it is still possible to speculate on some of the reasons that can explain the absence of links between turnover intention and these three recognition foci. For one thing, we have already noted that one major weakness in recognition literature is that there are virtually no studies that attempted to establish a relationship between turnover intention and various recognition foci. In fact, almost all the studies that we managed to find that indicated that there is a negative relationship between nonmonetary recognition and turnover intention, treated recognition in general and not as recognition that can come from different sources, with perhaps the exception of the study carried out by Jourdain and Chênevert in 2010. Thus, it is not implausible that if separated into three distinct constructs, recognition from work colleagues, patients and physicians, individually, really do not have an effect on turnover intentions of caregivers. Naturally, recognition from these three foci may be related to other attitudes and behaviours, but they are not related to intentions to leave. For example, if we were to instead of testing the relationship between some of these three recognition and turnover

intention, to test the relationship between these recognition foci and intention to leave the profession, we could have obtained results that are completely different. In one such study Jourdain and Chênevert showed that recognition from physicians and recognition from patients has a negative effect on depersonalization that had a negative effect on professional commitment which in turn had a negative effect on caregivers' intention to leave the profession (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010). Related to the last point, another reason that can account for the fact that there is no relationship between recognition from coworkers, patients, physicians and turnover intention, is that caregivers find themselves in a capture market meaning that even if they feel that they do not receive much recognition from these three foci, they may not express any intention to leave because their choices of workplaces are limited. Generally, caregivers work in hospitals and in Québec due to the fact that many of the employees in the public sector work in unionized environments, the work conditions vary little from one hospital to another, and hence there is little incentive for the caregivers to change their workplace. Therefore, recognition is more likely to be related to the intention to leave the healthcare profession altogether rather than just leaving a particular workplace. In fact, it is highly unlikely to unearth major differences in recognition coming from coworkers, patients and physicians across hospitals because the dynamics of the interactions between these caregivers are often dictated by the way healthcare profession is practiced. For instance, generally physicians are not known to show high levels of recognition or appreciation to caregivers. Conversely, the same cannot be said about recognition from the organization and supervisor. Depending on the hospital in question there may or may not exist a strong recognition culture and supervisors in different healthcare establishments can definitely maintain distinct relationships with their employees. Some supervisors are more skilled in the practice of recognition than others. As Goddard noted, some managers do not recognize their employees simply because they do not know how (Goddard, 1987, p. 15). Another interesting finding from the testing of the first five hypotheses is that it supplies us with information with regards to the importance of specific recognition foci in predicting withdrawal attitudes and



behaviours. A number of authors proposed different recognition foci as more relevant to withdrawal attitudes and behaviours. For example, McCoy believed that for caregivers, recognition from supervisors and peers has a significant impact on retention (McCoy, 2011, p. 3). As for Lacey, she thought that for caregivers, recognition is the most powerful when it comes from the boss (Lacey, 1994, p. 2). Similarly, Bédard, Giroux and Morin concluded in their research that hierarchical supervisor is the most important source of recognition (Bédard, Giroux & Morin, 2002, p. 24). Finally, according to Kernicki, Kirksey and Franklin, although all employees seek some kind of fulfillment, caregivers in particular appreciate a positive response from patients they care for so tirelessly (Ashley, Kernicki, Kirksey & Franklin, 2011, p. 2). If we look at our results, we can observe that there are only two recognition foci that are linked to turnover intention. These are: recognition from the organization and recognition from supervisor. After inspecting the standardized betas, we can observe that it is recognition from the supervisor that makes a bigger contribution to predicting turnover intention than recognition from the organization. The standardized beta for recognition from the supervisor is -0.319 whereas the standardized beta from recognition from the organization is -0.153. Recognition from the supervisor accounts for approximately 14.4 % of turnover intention whereas recognition from the organization accounts for approximately 6.9 % of turnover intention. The standardized beta values are measured in standard deviation units and so are directly comparable: therefore they provide a good insight into the importance of predictors in the model (Field, 2000, p. 150). The fact that recognition from the supervisor turned out to be the foci that had the most effect on intention to quit is in agreement with authors such as Lacey (1994) and Bédard, Giroux and Morin (2002). In addition, even if studies by Ali and Baloch (2010) and Paré and Tremblay (2007) do not directly focus on any recognition foci in particular, by looking at the items in the recognition scale, they tend to imply recognition from supervisor, for example in Ali and Baloch, one of the items is “ my manager praises me when I do a good job “ and in Paré and Tremblay, one of the items is “ in my work unit, supervisors regularly congratulate employees in recognition of their efforts” (Ali & Baloch, 2010,

p.9; Paré & Tremblay, 2007, p. 8). Concerning recognition from the organization, as mentioned before, this foci was included in the study because it was considered as relevant in the organizational justice and social exchange literatures. The results obtained only reinforce the appropriateness of our decision. However, the fact that recognition from the supervisor turned out to be a more important predictor than recognition from the organization is opposed to a view expressed by Vanderberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (2004). The latter argued that the organizational focus may be viewed by an employee as salient when it comes to predicting turnover behaviour because it is the kind of behaviour for which cognitive deliberations about viability of one's membership in the organization are activated. Vanderberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber asserted that it is likely that the nature of relationships with other foci such as supervisors or work groups will be less relevant for predicting turnover (Vanderberghe, Bentein & Stinglhamber, 2004, p. 55). At last, the fact that both recognition from the supervisor and recognition from the organization are related to turnover intention is consistent with the results of a study by Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) that investigated the effects of organizational focused justice and supervisory focused justice on relevant outcome. Their conclusions were that organizational focused justice and relationships generally predicted relevant organizational outcomes whereas supervisory focused justice and relationships generally predicted both supervisory and organizationally relevant outcomes (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002, p. 925). As it was demonstrated in the literature review, justice and recognition are closely related. Tremblay and Simard noted that when employees perceive that they are being recognized, it is also reasonable to assume that they are more likely to perceive that they are being treated fairly (Tremblay & Simard, 2006, p. 115). Therefore, although our research study did not explore the concept of justice, our results lead to analogous conclusions. Turnover intention is an organizationally relevant outcome, but in our model, it was predicted by both recognition from the supervisor and recognition from the organization.

Furthermore, although in our sample, recognition from patients is relatively high mean 5.3922 out of 7, generally most caregivers do not feel appreciated enough by

their patients. This becomes more and more evident from the increasingly prevalent messages from hospital personnel directed at the public, warning them that the use of any form of violence or verbal abuse will not be tolerated. As for recognition from physicians, in our sample, it is not very high, mean 3.5626 out of 7. This is hardly surprising because, it is known that one of the reasons why recognition is not provided has to do with the fact that it is not perceived as an important part of the job. In other words, physicians do not view recognition as their responsibility. They may not understand why they should recognize caregivers for simply doing their job (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. 38). Finally, in our sample recognition from coworkers is relatively high mean 4.9781, but in general, it does not appear to be the case. For example, a survey (CROP, 1999) of a federal public sector showed that 31% of employees congratulate their coworkers for a job well done, sometimes, rarely or never (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé, 2005, p. 89). In fact, regardless its source, recognition is a rare practice. A research study carried out by St-Onge, Haines and Rousseau showed that the human resource managers, in 312 organizations of 200 plus employees, believe that within their organization, they use three types of recognition practices, with a frequency of around 2 out of 5 with 1 meaning almost never, 5 continuously and 2 occasionally (St-Onge, Haines, Aubin, Rousseau and Lagassé, 2005, p. 94).

## **5.2 Indirect Effects**

### **Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition foci and absenteeism**

In disagreement with our literature review, the sixth hypothesis was rejected, even if some authors such as Laval (2008) and Nelson and Speitzer (2003) seem to believe that there should exist a negative relationship between recognition and absenteeism. In fact, according to the latter, when employees are thanked and valued for the work that they do, they start to look forward to the time that they spend on the job and

consequently absenteeism decreases (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. xxiii). Put differently, the more employees feel that they are being recognized; the less likely it is that they will be absent. Nevertheless, our study clearly demonstrated that such a relationship does not exist. Recognition is not associated with absenteeism. If we try to explain this lack of association between recognition and absenteeism, we can return to the absenteeism models presented in our literature review. By examining closely Steers and Rhode's (1978) and Brook's (1986) model of absenteeism, we can see that none of them explicitly included recognition as one of the factors relevant to absenteeism. We conjectured that recognition is implied by other variables included in the model, but based on the results obtained, seemingly wrongfully so. Another way to explain the absence of the association between recognition and absenteeism is through the use of the Job Demands-Resources Model. According to this model, regardless of the occupation two broad categories of work characteristics, can be distinguished: job demands and job resources (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufelli, 2006, p. 496-497). Demands refer to physical, psychological, social and organizational aspects of the job that require an effort by the employee and include among others : work overload, role stress, reorganization, whereas resources refer to the same aspects as demands, but are intended to facilitate the attainment of work goals, to stimulate personal growth or to reduce job demands and include among others : participation, job control, autonomy, recognition (Jourdain & Chênevert ,2010 ; Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer & Shaufeli, 2003). Another proposition in the JD-R model is that job demands and job resources may evoke two different, and yet related processes. The first one is the energetic process of wearing out in which high job demands exhaust employees mental and physical resources and may therefore lead to burnout, and eventually to ill health and the second one is the motivational process in which job resources foster engagement and concomitant organizational commitment (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer & Shaufeli, 2003, p. 498). In our research study, it appears that resources and more specifically recognition are not that critical to predicting absenteeism. These findings are partially in accordance with the results of the study conducted by Hakanen, Bakker and Shaufeli in 2006, where the latter

discovered the existence of the effects of both resources and demands, but with demands seemingly more prominent than resources (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). What this means is that, in our sample, absenteeism can be better accounted for by the medical and stress models rather than the withdrawal model upon which our study is founded (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson & Brown, 1982; De Boer, Bakker, Syroit & Schaufeli, 2002). The medical model suggests that much absence is due to sickness whereas the stress model maintains that work overload and the perception of injustice causes stress that may lead to professional burnout and possibly absenteeism (Johns, 1997; Chênevert, Banville & Cole, 2006, p. 14). As well, despite the fact that technical, support staff, nursing and the overall healthcare sector tend to have one of the highest absenteeism rates across occupations, in our sample, caregivers were rarely absent mean 2.9 times a year (Statistic Canada, 1991-2001). If we allow ourselves to speculate for why that may be, one sound justification is that mainly it has to do with the rather generous absenteeism policies present at this particular hospital. As mentioned earlier, caregivers that do not take all the absence days to which they are entitled to, receive a check in the end of the year to reward them for their good attendance record. Bearing in mind the fact that registered nurses in Québec, earn on average an annual starting salary of \$44,532, and in this healthcare establishment, they are allowed to just about 10 days off (9.6), by not being absent at all, the caregivers can actually make approximately as much as an extra \$1220 a year that represents roughly 2.7% of their annual income (Maphis, 2010). When looking at it from this perspective, the low absenteeism among caregivers in our sample seems more logical. Also, it is important to note that the fact that there is no relationship between recognition and absenteeism does not automatically mean that turnover intention cannot mediate the relationship between recognition and absenteeism; rather it is the absence of the relationship between turnover intentions and absenteeism that led us to disprove this particular hypothesis. The relationship between the latter variables will be addressed in the following section.

### **Mediating role of turnover intention in the link between recognition and turnover**

Somewhat in agreement with our literature review, our seventh hypothesis was validated. One of the relationships that we verified in this hypothesis is the relationship between turnover intention and turnover. A large majority of empirical studies point out to the existence of a positive association between turnover intention and turnover. In other words, the more the employees express their intent to leave their organization, the more likely it is that they will actually quit. Studies that found such a connection between these two variables include Hom, Katerberg and Hulin, 1979; Kraut, 1975; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Caraher and Buckley, 2008; Taunton, Krampitz and Woods, 1989; Price and Mueller, 1986; Parasuraman, 1989; Sacks, Mudrack and Ashworth, 2011; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Newman, 1974; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, 1979 among others. As well, there is one theory that can explain the relationship between these two variables. This theory is Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action. It emphasizes the fundamental role of intentions in understanding the link between turnover intentions and turnover. This theory suggests that "the best single predictor of an individual's behaviour will be a measure of his intention to perform that behaviour" (Steel & Ovalle, 1984, p. 673). The results of our study show that there exists a positive relationship between turnover intention and turnover which is consistent with aforementioned empirical evidence and theories. Hence, turnover intention turned out to be an important determinant of turnover. Another relationship that needed to be tested as a part of the seventh's hypothesis is the relationship between recognition foci and turnover. There are many authors that associate recognition with turnover and nearly all of them indicate that organizations that recognize and respect their employees tend to retain their employees. Amongst them we find authors such as Luthans, 2000; Ventrice, 2003; Appelbaum and Kamal; 2002 and many others. As far as empirical studies are concerned, these are rarer in occurrence. However, the ones that we were able to uncover appear to confirm the existence of a negative

relationship between recognition and turnover. These include studies by Peterson and Luthans (2006) and Moncarz, Zhao and Kay (2009). Naturally, Blau's theory of social exchange can also be used to account for the relationship between recognition and turnover for the same reasons that they accounted for the relationship between recognition and turnover intentions. Our results defy the theoretical writings and empirical evidence presented because our study failed to establish a link between any of the sources of recognition and turnover. Nonetheless, one explanation for these results can be found in our literature review. As it was the case with absenteeism models, none of the turnover models reviewed, whether Mobley's (1977), Price and Mueller's (1981), Mowday, Porter and Steers (1981) or Hom and Griffeth (1995) included recognition as an important factor in the turnover process. We have speculated that recognition was implied by some of the variables in the model, but once again, based on the results obtained, seemingly wrongfully so. Because of the absence of the relationship between these two variables, if we were to follow the criteria for mediation proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) our mediation hypothesis would have been disapproved. Yet, we have chosen to use the criteria for mediation proposed by MacKinnon and al. 2002, cited by Mathieu and Taylor, 2006 that equate mediator variables with indirect effects, and thus our mediation hypothesis was partially validated (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006, p. 1037). A conclusion that can be made is that recognition from supervisor is not directly related to turnover, but rather, is related to turnover indirectly, through its effect on turnover intention.

### **Mediating role of absenteeism in the link between turnover intention and turnover**

Somewhat contrary to our literature review, the eighth hypothesis was invalidated. In order to test this hypothesis one of the associations that needed to be examined is the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism. In fact, this particular link in this hypothesis is the most contentious. Our literature review showed that there a few authors such as Iverson and Deery (2001) and Taunton, Hope, Wood and Botts (1995) that affirm that turnover intention is positively related to absenteeism, but the

empirical evidence in regards to the relationship between turnover intentions and absenteeism is inconclusive at best. Actually, there are a certain number of studies that fail to establish any meaningful relationship between the two variables. These include studies such as Carraher and Buckley (2008) and Mueller and Price (1986). Conversely, there are also other studies that point to a positive association between turnover intention and absenteeism. Amongst these studies we find Taunton et al. 1989 and Taunton et al. 1995. Moreover, theoretical literature tells us that before leaving their place of employment, individuals often progress through series of stages of behavioural withdrawal (Farrel & Peterson, 1984, p. 682). This view is supported by authors such as Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) and Melbin (1961). When an employee is absent it is as if he/her is quitting for one day. Given this view of “functional equivalence” between absenteeism and turnover, there is one theory that could be used to explain the supposed relationship between these two variables (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). This theory is Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) theory of reasoned action. It supports predicting absenteeism from turnover intention because it predicts actual behaviour from intended behaviour based largely on the level of correspondence between the two (Bowen, 1982, p.207). Our study results show that there is no relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism which is in accordance with empirical evidence provided by studies realized by Carraher and Buckley (2008) and Mueller and Price (1986). For Bowen, there are two conditions that need to be met if we are to find a strong relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism. The first condition is that employees must have control over their absenteeism. According to the Bowen, employees are in control of their absences when the organization they work for does not have strong penalties for being absent such as loss of pay or poor performance review because if it was the case despite the fact that some employees may have intentions to withdraw, they are simply unable to be absent (Bowen, 1982, p. 207). In our study, this first condition is definitely met. In this hospital, absenteeism policies are relatively generous. Full time employees in this hospital are allowed 9.6 sick days paid per year, or put differently 0.80 of a day paid per month. An employee that does not use all of the sick days



allocated receives a check at the end of the year for the days that were not used. In addition, an employee can borrow a certain number of sick days from the upcoming year if all the 9.6 days have already been used. With respect to the second condition, according to Bowen, if we are to find a strong relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, quitting should serve a common purpose for employees. In other words, we should expect a strong correlation between turnover intention and absenteeism when they represent a common withdrawal purpose. Mobley saw this as the most probable when: the consequences of absenteeism and quitting have the same commonality, such as when absenteeism represents avoidance of dissatisfying or stressful job and alternative jobs are available or when an employee is absent to engage in a job search (Mobley, 1982, p. 115). One of the reasons that can account for the failure of our study to find a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism is that perhaps the second condition proposed by Bowen was not met. In other words, it is possible that in our sample, turnover and absenteeism did not serve a common purpose for the caregivers. Turnover intention and absenteeism did not represent a common withdrawal process. Most caregivers were not taking days off because they wanted to escape from a dissatisfying or stressful job, or to search for another job. Naturally, a failure to establish a relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism, on its own, gives sufficient grounds for a rejection of the mediation hypothesis. With regards to the relationship between absenteeism and turnover, again the results were somewhat opposed to our literature review. Continuum theory states that there is a continuum of withdrawal behaviours progressing from absenteeism to turnover (Lyons, 1972, p. 271). According to this view, employees engage in a hierarchically-ordered sequence of withdrawal, where turnover intentions precede temporary withdrawal, absenteeism, and these episodes foreshadow permanent withdrawal turnover (Cohen, 2000, p. 393). A substantial number of studies that include Melbin (1961), Knox (1961), Burke and Wilcox (1972) as well as a more recent meta-analysis by Mitra, Jenkins and Gupta (1992) all seem to provide empirical evidence for an existence of a positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover. In other words, the more employees are absent, the more likely it is that

they will leave their employer. Some authors such as Muchinsky (1977), and Lyons (1972) cited by Gupta and Jenkins, go as far as to declare that there is virtually unanimous support for the existence of positive relationship between absenteeism and turnover and that there is tentative support for the progression notion, particularly at the individual level (Gupta & Jenkins, 1982, p. 396). However, our study results point to the exact opposite. Our findings are that there is no relationship between absenteeism and turnover hence refuting both claims made by Muchinsky and Lyons. One explanation for this result is offered by Clegg (1983). Clegg completely rejects the whole idea of individuals leaving their organization after progressing through series of stages of behavioural withdrawal. For the latter, the generalized notion of withdrawal is misleading. Clegg calls for a redirection of research in this area both through methodological improvements and theoretical innovation. (Clegg, 1983, p. 88). Likewise, another point of view is consistent with the results obtained in our research study. March and Simon (1958) contend that absenteeism and turnover have no underlying relationship with each other. For these authors, there is no consistent association between these two variables and an employee will be absent or terminate a job depending on the perceived consequences for that employee of alternative forms of withdrawal (March & Simon, 1958; Hawk, 1976, p. 293). In addition, Porter and Steers cited twenty two studies that examined the influences on both turnover absences, and only six found significant relationships in the same direction between factors under study and both turnover and absenteeism (Porter & Steers, 1973). In fact, Mobley lists a variety of conditions under which observable relationships between turnover and absenteeism, in a correlational sense, are not to be expected. According to this author, these situations occur when turnover is a function of the positive attraction of an alternative job rather than an escape, avoidance, or withdrawal from an unsatisfying stressful current job; when absenteeism is a function of the need to attend to nonjob role demands, for example, parents or sports; when consequences of quitting relative to the consequences of being absent have little in common; when absenteeism or turnover is constrained, for example, a monetarily enforced absenteeism control policy and no job alternatives, respectively; when

absenteeism or turnover is a spontaneous or impulsive act. In the end, Mobley concluded that only under very limited circumstances absenteeism and turnover represent a common withdrawal process (Mobley, 1982, p. 114).

### **Post-Hoc Analysis: recognition foci acting as moderators in the relationship between turnover intention and other recognition foci?**

Because to our knowledge, till today, there are no studies that attempted to investigate the effects of an interaction between two recognition foci on turnover intention, we had no reason to believe that a combination of any two specific recognition foci is more likely to have an effect on turnover intention than another grouping of two foci. Therefore, we simply based ourselves on the fact that since we already know that some of the individual recognition foci are negatively related to turnover intention it is plausible that together, two recognition foci could also have effect on turnover intention. Our results gave us some interesting insight on the recognition phenomenon. First, we found that although individually recognition from coworkers was not related to turnover intention, together with recognition from the organization, it is negatively related to turnover intention. In other words, the addition of recognition from coworkers to the recognition from the organization decreases turnover intention whilst recognition from coworkers alone does not. In fact, recognition from coworkers moderates negatively the relationship between recognition from the organization and turnover intention. More precisely, when recognition from the organization is accompanied by a high recognition from coworkers the relationship between the interaction of these variables and turnover intention is significant and stronger than the relationship between turnover intention and recognition from the organization alone. Second, the study also revealed that although individually recognition from patients was not related to turnover intention together with recognition from the organization, it is negatively related to turnover intention. In fact, recognition from patients moderates negatively the relationship

between recognition from the organization and turnover intention. More precisely, when recognition from the organization is accompanied by a high recognition from patients, the relationship between the interaction of these variables and turnover intention is significant and stronger than the relationship between turnover intention and recognition from the organization alone. In other words, the addition of recognition from patients to the recognition from the organization decreases turnover intention whilst recognition from patients alone does not. What this shows is that the presence of recognition from patients and coworkers reinforce the effects on organizational recognition on turnover intention. When an organization commits to creating a recognition culture, and is successful at it, the process may start at the top, but then it begins to spread like wildfire throughout the organization, rubbing off coworkers and patients, leading to various beneficial organizational outcomes such as a decrease in turnover intention among caregivers. Third, our study, showed that even if individually neither recognition from physicians nor recognition from patients are related to turnover intention, when combined together, these two recognition foci are negatively related to turnover intention. More precisely, when recognition from physicians is accompanied by a high recognition from patients, the relationship between the interaction of these variables and turnover intention is significant. One of the ways to explain this finding is to think of caregivers as professionals. It is only logical to assume that the latter enjoy receiving positive feedback and praise from their patients. However, this may not be enough for the caregivers to remain with their organization because many times patients are not necessarily qualified to adequately evaluate the caregivers' competency in exercising their jobs and caregivers are aware of that. Patients may notice how attentive or caring the hospital employees are, but they may not know what the actual job of these caregivers really entails. Conversely, a physician is better suited to make an appropriate assessment of caregiver competency and that is why caregivers may only feel completely appreciated when they receive recognition from both patients and physicians. These results justify our decision of including all the five recognition foci in our model because whether alone or in conjunction with other variables, all of the recognition

foci included in our model are linked with turnover intention and thus irrefutably are pertinent to explaining withdrawal phenomenon.

### **5.3 Effects of Control Variables**

As anticipated some of the control variables were related to the dependant variables in our study. For example, prior absenteeism predicted future absenteeism. These findings are in line with results obtained from a number of other studies on absenteeism such as Chênevert, Banville, and Cole, 2006; Cohen and Golan, 2007; Waters and Roach, 1979; Morgan and Herman, 1976; Breugh, 1981 and others. These results can be explained by a well known principle according to which past behaviour is the best predictor of future behaviour. As for the control variables that were expected to be related to turnover intention and turnover, age turned out to be related to turnover intention whereas age and gender were related to turnover. These results appear to corroborate the findings of other empirical studies that indicated that age is inversely related to turnover. The reason for that might be that older individuals might have too much invested in the job situation, whereas younger individuals have too strong of an interest in exploring the existing environment, and learning more about themselves through job trial and error (Federico and al. 1976, p. 565). This result clearly invokes the concept of continuance commitment that usually develops when a person makes investments or side bets, that would be lost if he or she was to quit (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2001, p.316). For example, a person may not want to leave the organization because of various benefits such as vacation days that were accumulated during the years of employment, and older employees usually stay with their organization longer than younger employees. This is why we often find studies that show associations between continuance commitment and tenure that include among others Allen and Meyer (1993); Wahn (1998) as well as associations between age and tenure that include among other Sekscensky (1979); Maguire (1993). Interestingly enough, gender did not have any effect on turnover intention. This finding seems compatible with the one of Weisberg and Kirschenbaum, who also found no difference between males and females in their turnover intention

(Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1993). The studies pertaining to the relationship between age and turnover include: Stone and Athelstan, 1969; Farris, 1971; Robinson, 1972; Federico and al. 1976; Waters and al. 1976, Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Porter, Steers and Boulian, 1974 among others, cited by Muchinsky and Tuttle, and Mobley and al. (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979, p. 50-52; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). As for studies relating gender to turnover, among others, these include studies by Marsh and Mannari (1977), cited by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, and Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993). In both studies the authors observed that female employees had higher turnover than males (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979, p. 496). In our particular study the establishment of this link between gender and turnover is somewhat misleading considering the fact that almost 90 % of our sample is composed of women. Also, if we take into account the relative outdatedness of the studies mentioned above, it is unlikely that these gender differences in turnover would still hold today. The latter statement is particularly true in the province of Quebec where in the last few decades, Quebec government introduced programs such as a long parental leave, one of the most generous in all Canada as well as a unique \$7 day care that certainly helped to alleviate and possibly eradicate turnover differences between males and females (Akerman, 2012). Hence, on the basis of these results, we cannot draw any firm conclusions with regards to the effects of gender on turnover.

## CONCLUSION

The objective of this research study was on the one hand to verify whether there exists a relationship between recognition from the organization, supervisor, coworkers, physicians, patients, and on the other hand, withdrawal attitude and behaviours which include turnover intention, absenteeism and turnover, in an attempt to identify the recognition foci that have the most effect on the employee retention. In order to do so, we performed multiple and logistic regression analyses on 221 caregivers, in a hospital establishment in the Montreal area. The test results showed that the recognition foci that have the most effect on turnover intentions are, in the order of importance; recognition from the supervisor and recognition from the organization (recognition from the supervisor being a more important contributor to turnover intention than recognition from the organization). The other foci did not seem to be linked to turnover intention.

Furthermore, none of the recognition foci were directly associated with either absenteeism or turnover. The only variable that was found to be directly related to turnover was turnover intention. As for the mediation hypotheses, once again only one of them was actually confirmed. Namely: the role of mediator played by turnover intention in the relationship between recognition from the supervisor and turnover.

As well, in regards to possible interaction effects of recognition foci on turnover intention, three of these were validated. More specifically: a joint effect of recognition from coworkers and organization; a joint effect of recognition from organization and patients; and lastly, a joint effect of recognition from physicians and patients.

What makes this study unique is that it is one of the very few studies that applied a multifoci approach to recognition, and to our knowledge, the only study that sought

to investigate interaction effects of two recognition foci on turnover intention. Clearly, due to some of the interesting findings in this research study, other researchers should definitely continue applying the multi-foci approach to recognition, but also to other psychological states.

### **Theoretical Contribution**

Our research makes some important theoretical contributions. Earlier, we mentioned the fact that our study was unique in a sense that to our knowledge, it is one of the only studies that applied a multi-target approach to recognition whilst including more than just two recognition foci at a time. The study clearly shows that the five recognition foci identified, namely: recognition from organization, supervisor, coworkers, physicians and patients are all factorially distinct, representing different constructs that have varying effects on turnover intention. In addition, it is also a rare study that aimed at examining the effects of an interaction between two recognition foci on turnover intention, revealing that such interaction effects visibly exist. These are interactions between recognition from the organization and coworkers, recognition from the organization and patients, and recognition from physicians and patients. As well, we have verified the pertinence of Blau's social exchange theory in explaining the link between recognition and absenteeism, recognition and turnover intention, and recognition and turnover. The findings were that this theory is appropriate to account for the relationship between recognition and turnover intention. More precisely, in our study recognition from the organization and supervisor had an effect on turnover intention whereas recognition from coworkers, patients and physicians had an effect on turnover intention in conjunction with other recognition foci. Hence, it is possible to conclude that for our sample, Blau's theory of social exchange can be used to explain the relationships between recognition and turnover intention, and in the same time, it cannot be used at all, to explain the relationship between recognition and turnover or recognition and absenteeism. Plus, our study allowed us to test the ability of Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned



action to explain the relationship between turnover intention and turnover; turnover intention and absenteeism; and continuum's theory ability to account for the relationship between turnover intention and absenteeism and absenteeism and turnover. In the end, the only theory that was confirmed is Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action in accounting for the link between turnover intention and turnover. Thus, it is possible to conclude that for our sample, Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action can be used to explain the relationship between turnover intention and turnover, and none of the two theories above should be used as an explanation for the possible relationships between turnover intention and absenteeism or absenteeism and turnover.

### **Empirical Contributions**

Our research makes a number of interesting empirical contributions. The first, being the particular research study design. Most of the research studies commonly found are cross-sectional whereas our study is longitudinal. Goldstein (1986), cited by Peterson and Luthans, advise researchers to always choose the most rigorous design possible and to be aware of its limitations (Peterson & Luthans 2006, p. 281). In this study, we have followed the latter suggestion, in an attempt to minimize the threats to the internal consistency posed by the study's design (Peterson & Luthans 2006, p. 281). Precisely, we used measurement instruments whose psychometric value was previously tested and we have collected objective measures of absenteeism and turnover. As well, we have three time measurements of the same subjects followed for a period of time. Such a solid research design is seldom seen in scientific literature today possibly due to its inherent complexity, lack of resources and time constraints. In addition, our study confirmed several findings on the links between different variables under study. For example, we have confirmed the already well documented existence of positive relationship between turnover intention and turnover. Also, we found that the recognition foci that had a direct negative effect on turnover intention were recognition from the organization and supervisor whereas recognition from work colleagues, patients and physicians alone were not directly

related to turnover intention. As well, we have verified the controversial link between turnover intention and absenteeism. Our study failed to find any links between these two variables. The same goes for the association between absenteeism and turnover. As for the direct links between recognition foci and withdrawal behaviour, none turned out as significant. In other words, neither foci of recognition had a direct effect on either absenteeism or turnover. Concerning the indirect relationships, recognition did have a negative effect on turnover, but via its negative effect on turnover intention. What all of this tells us is that recognition is much more relevant to predicting turnover than absenteeism. Put differently, the withdrawal model is more appropriate for explaining turnover than it is for explaining absenteeism. Absenteeism and turnover seem to be two very different phenomena each with its own antecedents and may require separate investigations. The only variable that was directly associated with absenteeism was previous absenteeism. For the control variables affecting turnover, the research did point to inverse affects of age as well an association with gender, but only the former finding can be considered as credible due to some of the sample characteristics. Also, notable is the negative association between age and turnover intention. Finally, three interactions between recognition foci which include a combination of the recognition from coworkers and organization, organization and patients, and lastly physicians and patients, are related to turnover intention. This finding is intriguing because basically what this signifies is that although recognition from some of the foci does not individually affect caregivers' turnover intention, when accompanied by recognition from another foci, it can and does affect caregivers' turnover intention.

### **Practical Contributions**

Without any doubt our research study can have critical implications for human resource practitioners and hospital administrators. Every year companies spend millions or even billions to replace employees due to turnover (Flores and al. 2009). More particularly, in the healthcare sector, organizations are experiencing some unparalleled shortages of nurses, physicians, specialists and other caregivers

(Angermeier, Dunford, Boss, Boss & Miller, 2009, p. 4). This turnover of caregivers adversely influences the healthcare costs and the quality of care given (Rondeau, Williams & Wagar, 2009, p740). Companies have already lost tons of money in trying to come up with a solution for this costly outcome. Our study points to an inexpensive and a relatively simple manner that may enable human resource practitioners and hospital administrators to face the turnover challenge. What our study results showed is that one of the ways to decrease turnover is to create a recognition culture throughout the organization. In other words, ideally recognition should come from various sources at different hierarchical levels. The more the caregivers feel that their work is appreciated and their contributions are valued the less likely it is that they will express intentions to leave. And turnover intention is one of the best predictors of actual turnover. Thus, we strongly recommend to organizations that are experiencing high turnover rates to conduct a companywide survey in order to assess the extent to which employees in different departments feel recognized by the relevant foci in their surroundings. Are the employees receiving praise for a job well done? Do they get any feedback on their work? Are their efforts and hard work being recognized and rewarded? For example, suppose that for an organization x, the findings are that the recognition ratings are low across the board. If nothing else, one of the things that can be done is that supervisors can be trained to provide recognition to their employees. A training environment allows for discussion dealing with obstacles, and learning from others (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. 70). Much of the work environment hinges on the managers because they are the ones in close contact with employees. The old saying that people leave people not organizations holds true for a reason –because the individual boss greatly influences employees' work environments (IOMA's report, 2004, p. 14). Naturally, recognition training needs to take into consideration the organizational context. For example, we would expect recognition in the healthcare sector to be very different from recognition that we would typically find in a sales department. However, in order for the recognition training to have a meaningful effect on supervisor practices, supervisors also need to be recognized for recognizing others. According to Nelson

and Spitzer, creating a culture of recognition demands that recognition be formalized, but until that happens, it is up to individual managers to do the right thing and recognize the recognizers (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. 70). What is more, nonmonetary recognition fends well with the needs of younger generations. More specifically, for the Y generation which corresponds roughly to those born in the 1980's and 1990's and represent approximately 19% of Canada's workforce, appreciation is an absolute necessity (Belcourt, Bohlander & Snell, 2008, p. 22). Although all employees have a need to be appreciated, for this group, this need is particularly acute. Nelson and Spitzer explain that this is so because unlike older generations, younger people are not driven from within, need reinforcement and prefer short-term tasks with observable results (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p. 356). To conclude, fundamentally, our study serves as a reminder to human resource practitioners and hospital administrator not to underestimate the power of nonmonetary recognition. Often overlooked, simple, but sincere recognition could be an effective weapon in a war against turnover.

### **Study Limitations**

Although this study makes some valuable contributions to the literature, it nonetheless has its limitations. First, this study was conducted only in one hospital which limits the generalizability of the results. Another factor that limits our ability to extrapolate the study results to other organizations is the sample size. Initially, the questionnaires were handed out to 1884 caregivers. Out of these, 545 completed questionnaires were returned back to the researchers, for a response rate of 28.9 %. However, because 14 subjects failed to provide the employee category that they belonged to, and another 143 employees were not in direct contact with patients or physicians this left us with only 388 questionnaires. Yet, even out these questionnaires, only 221 were fully completed. Therefore, after disposing of questionnaires that had missing values, we ended up with a final sample of 221 that represent only 11.7 % of the total population. Even though in terms of sample size needed, for our statistical analysis to provide valid results, 221 subjects seemed

appropriate, it cannot guarantee satisfactory representativeness. Hence, the external validity of our study is certainly questionable (Peterson & Luthans 2006, p. 281). This dilemma of sample size is well known, but unfortunately as researchers we have little or no flexibility to simply increase the sample size as to ensure adequate power (Peterson & Luthans 2006, p. 281). As well, another notable limit of this study is that we have emphasized again and again the value of nonmonetary recognition, claiming that it can potentially lead to outcomes similar to the ones achieved through monetary compensation, but without ever controlling for the latter variable. However, this last point is perhaps not as pertinent in the context of our research study because the healthcare sector in Quebec is highly unionized and therefore there are no significant salary differences that could have been observed. In other words, the employee salaries are made known to the public and are stipulated in the collective agreement.

Moreover, despite the fact that the study design is longitudinal, a part of it is cross-sectional because the independent variables, recognition foci, were measured simultaneously with the mediating variable turnover intention, which brings us to another limit of our study-the problem of common variance. The results for both of the latter variables were in fact obtained with self-report measures from a single source. In addition, it is impossible to infer causality of the observed relationships between variables because the statistical analyses performed did not involve structural equations. Another notable limit in our study is that the measurement of absenteeism was based uniquely on absence frequency and not absence duration. Ideally, we should have used both of the absenteeism measures as it is the case with a number of other studies such as Farrell and Stamm, 1988 or Gellatly, 1995. Albeit, in our defence, there are studies such as the one realized by Falkenburg and Schyns in 2007 that revealed that frequency is a more appropriate assessment of voluntary absence than the duration of absenteeism (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007, p. 720). Likewise, the fact that all absences of five days and less were considered as voluntary represents another limit in our study because we really do not know what the causes of these absences were. It is possible that some of these absences had nothing to do with employee withdrawal, but rather could be attributed to other life circumstances.

Finally, our study portrays a rather restricted view of the withdrawal process, since our model explains only 25, 9 % of variance of turnover, with the remaining 74.1 % accounted by other variables that were not included in our research study.

### **Potential Future Research Avenues**

There could be a number of potential studies that researchers could conduct in order to gain insight into the effects on nonmonetary recognition on withdrawal behaviour, some of which directly derive from our study limitations. For example, our study could be replicated, but this time with a larger sample size, as well as with the use of structural equations in order to make sure that the study results are generalizable, and the links of causality can be established. Also, our study could be carried out in different departments and organizations who present different contexts. For example, this study can be realized in a CLSC or CHSLD where the work environment may be utterly different from what we commonly find in a hospital. As well, other researchers could expand our study to other industries other than healthcare sector to test how far the results can be extrapolated. In addition, our study only addressed the effects of interactions between two recognition foci on turnover intentions whereas future research can explore whether interactions between three recognition foci can affect turnover intention. Although our study focused on the effects of recognition foci on withdrawal behaviours, other studies could examine the effects of other psychological states on turnover intention using the multi-target approach. For example, in one such study, Maertz and al. 2007 found that perceived supervisor support had independent effects on turnover cognitions not mediated through perceived organizational support. Moreover, in this same study a new significant interactive relationship was discovered such as that low perceived supervisor support strengthened the negative relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover, while high perceived supervisor support weakened it (Maertz and al. 2007). Similarly, in another study Costigan and al. 2007 showed that trust of the firm's CEO and top management is more highly correlated with turnover intentions than trust of the supervisor (Costigan and al., 2011). Utilising trust as a predictor variable using a

multi-foci approach represents a particularly attractive research avenue because some of the recent studies seem to point to the fact that trust can only develop when most of the other psychological states are already in place and thus it is situated at a different level in the hierarchy of the withdrawal model than the other psychological states such as justice, empowerment, recognition, support (Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chênevert & Vandenberghe, 2010). Concerning absenteeism, other studies could be conducted as well. For example in one study, instead of using recognition foci, researchers could use other individual attitudes such as satisfaction as a predictor variable. In fact, according to Brook, virtually all major reviews of the absenteeism literature have found consistently significant relationships between job satisfaction and absenteeism (Brooke, 1986, p. 353). Thus, researchers could verify whether individually or as an interaction, satisfaction with the organization, supervisor, work colleagues, patients and physicians have varying effects on employee absenteeism.

Clearly, it would be beneficial if the researchers measured absenteeism using both absence frequency and duration, and somehow managed to obtain the causes behind the employees' absenteeism that go beyond the short term and long term distinction. Moreover, because often times absenteeism is not a variable that is normally distributed, but on the contrary as explained by Hardy, Woods and Wall, citing Hammer and Landau, is generally truncated at zero and positively skewed, future studies could gain from applying a natural log transformation to the absence data as to reduce the aforementioned skewness (Hardy, Woods & Wall, 2003, p.308-309).

Likewise, another promising avenue would be to evaluate the effect of social exchanges from the perspective of supervisors. In our study, we only gathered information at the caregiver level. Possibly, if we were to redo this study, but this time focusing on the responses from the supervisors, the study may have yielded different results. In other words, the effects of recognition on withdrawal behaviour may not be the same for management and rank and file employees. To conclude, other researchers could undertake a qualitative study of recognition. Instead of

administering surveys, they could conduct interviews with caregivers to get a more in depth insight on the caregiver perspective on the topic of recognition.

Ultimately, if we are to take anything away from all these observations, the first lesson would be that for organizations struggling with voluntary turnover, there is simply no excuse for not providing recognition to their employees. Our study offers support for the premise that a presence of a recognition culture can and does make a difference in terms of individual turnover. The more the employees feel recognized by various entities with who they are in contact with, the less likely it is that they will decide to leave. Everyone wants to feel that their contributions are appreciated and their efforts are valued. The message here is not to undermine or diminish the importance of other types of recognition such as monetary rewards, but rather to point out that often overlooked, simple, but sincere recognition can go a long way in helping organizations to reduce voluntary turnover. In the same time, caution is warranted when it comes to the use of recognition. Under no circumstances should poor performers be recognized because such actions would compromise the credibility of the program and whoever put it into place. Recognition should always be earned. In fact, according to Nelson and Spitzer rewarding poor performers is one of the top demotivators that can sabotage a recognition program (Nelson & Spitzer, 2003, p.211). The second lesson is that perhaps researchers need to reconsider their attempts in establishing links between recognition and absenteeism based on the fact that both absenteeism and turnover represent withdrawal phenomena, since absenteeism seems to have its own complex aetiology very much apart from common voluntary turnover predictors. Our findings simply did not support the tradition that views absenteeism and turnover as different responses to the same conditions of work, which has long dominated the literature. On the contrary, the empirical evidence points to the fact that absenteeism and turnover may require different models.

True recognition has the greatest value, yet costs little  
or nothing (Nelson & Spitzer, 2008)





## ANNEXES

### Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

#### CSSS DE L'OUEST-DE-L'ÎLE

#### INSTRUCTIONS

- Veuillez encrer votre réponse à l'aide d'un crayon à l'encre.
- Le mot « organisation » réfère au CSSS de l'Ouest-de-l'Île.
- L'expression « supérieur immédiat » réfère au gestionnaire (administration) de votre unité ou département.
- Veuillez noter que certains énoncés semblent se répéter. Ceci est volontaire.
- L'usage du masculin n'a pour but que d'alléger le texte.

#### SECTION 1 : ENGAGEMENT ENVERS L'ORGANISATION ET INTENTION DE QUITTER

##### 1.1 Engagement envers l'organisation

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
1. Je suis fier d'appartenir à mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. J'estime mes possibilités de choix trop limitées pour envisager de quitter mon CSSS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. J'ai le sentiment de "faire partie de la famille" dans mon CSSS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Je ne voudrais pas quitter mon organisation parce que j'aurais beaucoup à y perdre (à différents points de vue).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Je me sens affectivement attaché à mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Je reste dans mon organisation parce que je ne vois pas où je pourrais aller ailleurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. J'éprouve vraiment un sentiment d'appartenance à mon CSSS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Je continue à travailler pour cette organisation parce que je ne pense pas qu'une autre pourrait m'offrir les mêmes avantages.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Mon organisation représente beaucoup pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Je n'ai pas d'autres choix que de rester à mon CSSS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Je ressens vraiment les problèmes de mon CSSS comme si c'étaient les miens.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Pour moi personnellement, quitter mon organisation amènerait beaucoup plus d'inconvénients que d'avantages.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

##### 1.2 Intention de quitter

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
13. Je songe souvent à quitter cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Il est possible que je cherche un emploi au sein d'une autre organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Il est probable que je quitte cette organisation d'ici l'an prochain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Si on me proposait une offre d'emploi équivalente ailleurs, je quitterais probablement cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 2 : COMPORTEMENTS DE MOBILISATION

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
17. J'investis plus d'efforts au travail que ce qui est normalement attendu de moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Je prends l'initiative d'essayer de nouvelles façons de faire mon travail afin d'être plus efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Je participe volontairement à diverses activités sociales organisées par mon département ou l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. J'aide un collègue lorsqu'il est débordé de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Je parle en bien de mon organisation à l'extérieur de mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Je m'implique activement dans la vie de mon département.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Je propose de nouvelles méthodes de travail qui sont plus efficaces pour l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Je m'abstiens d'alimenter la conversation lorsque d'autres employés parlent en mal de l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. La manière dont j'accomplis mes tâches dépasse les attentes de l'organisation en termes de performance au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Je défends l'organisation lorsque d'autres employés la critique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. J'aide un collègue lorsqu'il est confronté à un problème au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. J'essaie d'implanter des solutions pour résoudre des problèmes persistants au sein de mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. J'assiste à des réunions qui ne sont pas obligatoires mais qui sont considérées importantes pour l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Je prends le temps d'écouter un collègue lorsqu'il vit une situation difficile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. De ma propre initiative, j'accomplis des tâches qui ne sont pas spécifiées dans ma description de poste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 3 : BIEN-ÊTRE INDIVIDUEL

3.1 Impact de votre santé sur le travail					
32. Votre rendement au travail a-t-il été affecté par des problèmes de santé au cours des <u>deux (2) dernières semaines</u> ? (Cochez la case appropriée).		Non, aucunement → allez à la question 40			
		Oui, à un certain degré → allez à la question 33			
<i>Au cours des <u>deux (2) dernières semaines</u>, je suis allé travailler, mais en raison de mes problèmes de santé...</i>		<i>(presque) jamais</i>	<i>quelques fois</i>	<i>souvent</i>	<i>(presque) toujours</i>
33. J'ai eu des problèmes à me concentrer.		1	2	3	4
34. J'ai dû travailler à un rythme plus lent.		1	2	3	4
35. J'ai ressenti le besoin de m'isoler.		1	2	3	4
36. J'ai eu davantage de difficulté à prendre des décisions.		1	2	3	4
37. J'ai dû reporter à plus tard certaines choses que je devais faire.		1	2	3	4
38. J'ai dû laisser d'autres personnes prendre en charge certaines de mes tâches.		1	2	3	4
39. Combien d'heures <u>supplémentaires</u> aurez-vous dû faire pour rattraper le travail que vous étiez incapable de compléter à l'intérieur de vos heures <u>régulières</u> de travail en raison de problèmes de santé <u>durant les deux dernières semaines</u> ?					
Note: Ne comptez pas les journées où vous étiez absent pour raison de maladie. _____ heures					

## Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

3.2 Impact du travail sur votre santé							
	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
40. Je me sens émotionnellement vidé par mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Je suis devenu moins enthousiaste face au travail que je fais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. Je me sens fatigué lorsque je me lève le matin et que je dois faire face à une autre journée de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. Je suis devenu plus cynique quant à l'utilité du travail que je fais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Je me sens «brûlé» par mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Je suis devenu moins intéressé par mon travail depuis que j'ai accepté cet emploi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. Je me sens épuisé physiquement à la fin de ma journée de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. Je suis rendu à un point tel que je souhaite seulement faire mon travail sans être dérangé.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Travailler toute la journée est très fatigant pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Je doute que mon travail ait du sens, qu'il soit important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Au cours des douze (12) derniers mois...</i>							
	Jamais	Quelques fois par année	Quelques fois par mois	Quelques fois par semaine			
50. J'ai eu des problèmes de sommeil (ex : difficulté à m'endormir; je me réveillais plus tôt que désiré et j'avais du mal à me rendormir).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. J'ai eu des problèmes d'appétit (i.e. diminution ou absence d'appétit).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. J'ai eu des problèmes de santé (ex : problèmes respiratoires, cardiovasculaires, gastro-intestinaux, musculosquelettiques, dermatologiques, maux de tête).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3 Stress au travail							
<i>Au cours des douze (12) derniers mois...</i>							
	Jamais	Quelques fois par année	Quelques fois par mois	Quelques fois par semaine			
53. Combien de fois vous êtes-vous senti nerveux et stressé au travail?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Combien de fois avez-vous eu l'impression que vous ne parviendriez pas à surmonter les difficultés au travail?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Combien de fois avez-vous ressenti de la frustration face aux problèmes quotidiens auxquels vous êtes confrontés au travail?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 4 : CLIMAT SOCIAL

### 4.1 Climat de travail

<i>Dans mon organisation...</i>		Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
56.	Les rapports entre les gens sont hostiles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	Il est fréquent que des manigances se préparent en secret.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	Il y a beaucoup d'antipathie entre les individus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	Les gens se mettent souvent des bâtons dans les roues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 4.2 Support au travail

Les trois derniers énoncés de cette section se rapportent aux médecins. Si vous n'avez aucun contact direct avec les médecins, encerclez NA (Non applicable).

	Non applicable	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
60. Mon organisation s'efforce de faire tout ce qui est en son pouvoir afin de faciliter mon travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Je pourrais compter sur l'aide de mon organisation si j'avais un problème au travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Mon organisation serait disposée à m'écouter si je vivais une situation personnelle difficile.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Mon supérieur immédiat s'efforce de faire tout ce qui est en son pouvoir afin de faciliter mon travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Je pourrais compter sur l'aide de mon supérieur immédiat si j'avais un problème au travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Mon supérieur immédiat serait disposé à m'écouter si je vivais une situation personnelle difficile.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Mes collègues s'efforcent de faire tout ce qui est en leur pouvoir afin de faciliter mon travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Je pourrais compter sur l'aide de mes collègues si j'avais un problème au travail.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Mes collègues seraient disposés à m'écouter si je vivais une situation personnelle difficile.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. Les médecins s'efforcent de faire tout ce qui est en leur pouvoir afin de faciliter mon travail.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70. Je pourrais compter sur l'aide des médecins si j'avais un problème au travail.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71. Les médecins seraient disposés à m'écouter si je vivais une situation personnelle difficile.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

4.3 Reconnaissance au travail		Non applicable	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
Les six derniers énoncés de cette section se rapportent aux médecins et aux bénéficiaires. Si vous n'avez aucun contact direct avec les médecins et/ou les bénéficiaires, encerclez NA (Non applicable).									
72.	Mon supérieur immédiat remarque les efforts que j'investis au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
73.	Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, mon supérieur immédiat me félicite.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
74.	Mon supérieur immédiat me témoigne son appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
75.	Mes collègues remarquent les efforts que j'investis au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
76.	Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, mes collègues me félicitent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
77.	Mes collègues me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
78.	Les médecins remarquent les efforts que j'investis au travail.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79.	Lorsque j'effectue un travail de grande qualité, les médecins me félicitent.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80.	Les médecins me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte dans mon milieu de travail.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81.	Les bénéficiaires remarquent les efforts que j'investis dans mon travail auprès d'eux.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82.	Lorsque je leur rends un service d'une qualité exceptionnelle, les bénéficiaires m'expriment leur gratitude.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83.	Les bénéficiaires me témoignent leur appréciation pour la contribution que j'apporte à leur bien-être.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.4 Justice organisationnelle									
<i>Durant le processus de prise de décision...</i>									
		Très en désaccord	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	
84.	Les gestionnaires s'assurent de recueillir l'information nécessaire pour prendre des décisions justes à l'égard des employés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
85.	Les employés ont la possibilité de donner leur point de vue ou d'exposer leur désaccord vis-à-vis d'une décision prise par les gestionnaires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
86.	Les gestionnaires voient à ce que les personnes qui seront affectées par les décisions soient représentées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
87.	Les gestionnaires s'assurent que les décisions sont prises de la même façon pour tous les employés en s'appuyant sur des standards établis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
88.	Les gestionnaires s'assurent d'entendre les préoccupations des personnes qui seront affectées par une décision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
89.	Les gestionnaires fournissent des explications sensées lorsqu'elle prend des décisions qui affectent les employés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

90. Les demandes de clarification ou d'information additionnelle à propos des décisions prises sont généralement acceptées par les gestionnaires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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## SECTION 5 : STYLE DE LEADERSHIP

*Mon supérieur immédiat ...*

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
91. Est un modèle à suivre pour moi, en termes de conduite morale ou éthique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92. Reconnaît mes réalisations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93. Évite de prendre des décisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94. Ne réagit aux problèmes que s'ils ont des conséquences graves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
95. M'encourage à voir les situations sous un angle différent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96. Est absent lorsqu'on a besoin de lui.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97. Met l'accent sur mes forces plutôt que sur mes faiblesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98. M'aide à développer mon potentiel en agissant auprès de moi en tant que coach.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99. Retarde les réponses à mes requêtes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100. Clarifie ses attentes en terme de performance au travail et comment les employés seront récompensés s'ils atteignent le niveau de performance attendu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101. Apporte son soutien aux employés dans la mesure où ils font des efforts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
102. Récompense mes accomplissements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
103. Me sensibilise à l'importance de la mission organisationnelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
104. M'encourage à exprimer mes idées et mes opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
105. Ne réagit aux problèmes que s'ils surviennent souvent ou persistent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
106. Me stimule à trouver des solutions pour résoudre des situations complexes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
107. Parle avec enthousiasme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
108. Se préoccupe de mes objectifs et m'aide à les atteindre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



## Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

**SECTION 6 : CARACTÉRISTIQUES ET ORGANISATION DU TRAVAIL****6.1 Caractéristiques du travail**

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
109. Le travail que je fais est très important à mes yeux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
110. L'accomplissement de mon travail entraîne d'importantes conséquences pour d'autres personnes (ex : pour mes collègues, mon supérieur, la direction, les bénéficiaires).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
111. Dans mon poste, j'ai beaucoup d'autonomie en regard de la façon de faire mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112. J'ai confiance en ma capacité d'accomplir mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113. Les tâches que j'accomplis ont une grande signification pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114. En raison du travail que j'effectue, j'exerce une grande influence sur mon milieu de travail (ex : sur mes collègues, mon supérieur, la direction, les bénéficiaires).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115. Dans mon poste, je peux décider par moi-même comment accomplir les tâches qui me sont attribuées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116. J'ai la certitude d'avoir les aptitudes nécessaires pour réaliser mes tâches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
117. Dans mon poste, je bénéficie d'une grande liberté d'action quant à la manière d'accomplir mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
118. Le travail que j'effectue fait beaucoup de sens à mes yeux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
119. Je maîtrise les compétences requises pour mon emploi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
120. L'accomplissement de mes tâches me permet d'avoir un impact considérable sur mon environnement de travail (ex : sur mes collègues, mon supérieur, la direction, les bénéficiaires).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
121. La quantité d'information que je dois traiter, à laquelle je dois penser, pour accomplir mes tâches est importante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
122. La quantité d'information que je dois mémoriser pour accomplir mes tâches est importante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
123. Le travail que je fais requiert une grande concentration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124. Dans le cadre de mon travail, je dois accomplir ou coordonner plus d'une activité en même temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
125. Dans le cadre de mon travail, je dois résoudre des problèmes complexes pour lesquels les solutions ne sont pas évidentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
126. Dans le cadre de mon travail, je dois constamment apprendre de nouvelles choses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
127. Mon travail me met dans des situations dérangeantes sur le plan émotionnel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
128. Le travail que je fais exige que je m'investisse sur le plan émotionnel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

129.	Le travail que je fais exige que je cache mes émotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
130.	Le travail que je fais requiert une grande force musculaire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
131.	Le travail que je fais requiert une grande endurance physique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
132.	Le travail que je fais requiert l'adoption de postures ou l'exécution de mouvements inconfortables, fatigants et/ou douloureux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

6.2 Organisation du travail		<div> <div>Très en désaccord</div> <div>En désaccord</div> <div>Plutôt en désaccord</div> <div>Plus ou moins en accord</div> <div>Plutôt en accord</div> <div>En accord</div> <div>Très en accord</div> </div>						
133.	Presque tous les jours, je dois travailler rapidement pour accomplir toutes les tâches qui me sont confiées.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
134.	La qualité de mon travail dépend des efforts de coopération (aide) d'autres employés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
135.	Je sais avec certitude quelles approches, procédures ou méthodes adopter pour accomplir mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
136.	Dans le cadre de mon travail, il m'arrive souvent qu'on m'assigne une tâche sans me donner les ressources nécessaires pour bien l'accomplir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
137.	Un degré élevé de coordination avec d'autres employés est nécessaire pour bien accomplir mes tâches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
138.	Après le travail, je suis souvent trop fatigué pour faire ce que j'aimerais faire à la maison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
139.	Dans mon poste, je dois souvent faire des tâches que je juge non nécessaires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
140.	La plupart des jours, je dois déployer un surplus d'énergie si je veux terminer mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
141.	Dans le cadre de mon travail, j'ai des objectifs clairement définis à atteindre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
142.	Dans mon poste, il m'arrive souvent de recevoir des demandes incompatibles de la part de deux ou plusieurs personnes en même temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
143.	Mes responsabilités au travail sont clairement définies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
144.	Parce que mon emploi est exigeant, je suis souvent irritable à la maison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
145.	Bien souvent, je manque de temps pour accomplir tout ce que j'ai à faire au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
146.	On me demande souvent d'effectuer des tâches qui vont contre mon bon jugement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
147.	Pour accomplir adéquatement mes tâches, je dois consulter ou me référer fréquemment à d'autres employés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
148.	Je sais avec certitude ce qui est attendu de moi en terme de performance au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
149.	Dans le cadre de mes fonctions, je dois travailler régulièrement avec deux ou plusieurs groupes d'individus qui fonctionnent très différemment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
150.	Je me sens débordé et bousculé dans mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
151.	Il m'arrive régulièrement que je dois enfreindre un règlement ou une politique pour réaliser certaines tâches qu'on me confie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
152.	La manière que d'autres employés effectuent leur travail a un impact considérable sur ma propre performance au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

153.	Les membres de ma famille ou mes amis me reprochent d'être trop préoccupé par mon travail lorsque je suis à la maison.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
154.	Je connais avec exactitude le niveau d'autorité que j'ai au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
155.	Mon emploi m'empêche de consacrer le temps souhaité à ma vie personnelle, familiale et/ou sociale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
156.	Je considère que mon environnement physique de travail (propreté, luminosité, odeur, bruit, climat, espace de travail) est adéquat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
157.	Je considère que les ressources matérielles à notre disposition (fournitures, outils, équipements, technologies) répondent à nos besoins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 7 : PRATIQUES DE GESTION DES RESSOURCES HUMAINES

### 7.1 Les pratiques de développement des compétences

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
158. Dans cette organisation, différentes activités de développement professionnel sont offertes aux employés (ex. coaching, formation).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
159. Le développement des compétences des employés à l'extérieur de cette organisation est valorisé (ex. cours d'appoint, certifications scolaires ou professionnelles).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
160. Cette organisation nous fournit les ressources nécessaires afin de se perfectionner (ex. temps, financement, aménagement du travail).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 7.2 Pratiques de partage d'information

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
161. L'organisation sollicite généralement l'opinion des employés lorsqu'il s'agit d'adopter des règles, procédures, méthodes, etc. qui concernent l'organisation de leur travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
162. En général, l'organisation cherche à impliquer ses employés dans la recherche de solutions pour résoudre des problèmes qui affectent directement leur travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
163. L'organisation incite fortement ses employés à lui faire part de nouvelles idées pour améliorer son fonctionnement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
164. L'organisation informe ses employés le plus rapidement possible des décisions qui les affectent ou ont un impact sur le travail qu'ils font.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
165. Les employés sont régulièrement informés des projets majeurs qui concernent l'organisation (ex. restructuration, investissements, nouvelles technologies).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
166. Les employés reçoivent généralement des réponses à leurs suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7.3 Pratiques de reconnaissance							
	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
167. L'organisation félicite généralement les employés qui dépassent les attentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
168. En général, les efforts supplémentaires déployés au travail par les employés sont soulignés par l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
169. Les contributions exceptionnelles des employés sont reconnues par la direction du CSSS (ex : lors de cérémonies ou de réunions, via un journal interne, par lettre de félicitations, par des prix ou cadeaux, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 8 : GESTION DU CHANGEMENT ORGANISATIONNEL

Les énoncés 170 à 179 concernent votre perception à l'égard de la gestion du changement organisationnel. Si vous n'étiez pas à l'emploi du CSSS lors de la fusion des quatre installations, encerclez NA (Non applicable).

	Non applicable	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
170. J'ai été informé suffisamment à l'avance de la fusion des quatre installations.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
171. J'ai été suffisamment informé des raisons qui ont provoqué la fusion.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
172. J'ai été suffisamment informé des impacts de la fusion sur mon travail.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
173. On m'a donné l'opportunité de faire part de mes préoccupations en regard des changements découlant de la fusion.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
174. J'ai le sentiment que mes commentaires à propos des changements organisationnels en cours ont été pris en considération.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
175. Je me sens impliqué dans l'implantation des changements organisationnels.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
176. J'adhère aux objectifs visés par les changements organisationnels en cours.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
177. Je suis disposé à poursuivre l'effort de mise en œuvre des nouveaux modes de fonctionnement.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
178. Les changements implantés sont bénéfiques car ils permettent d'améliorer l'efficacité de cette organisation.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
179. Je vois des avantages ou bénéfices personnels à la fusion.	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 9 : MISSION, VISION ET VALEURS ORGANISATIONNELLES

### 9.1 Mission

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
180. Je comprends le rôle que je peux jouer dans l'accomplissement de la mission organisationnelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
181. Je me sens interpellé par la mission organisationnelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
182. Je suis stimulé par ce que l'organisation cherche à offrir comme services aux bénéficiaires et à la communauté.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 9.2 Vision

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
183. Les gestionnaires ont une vision claire quant aux buts que nous devons atteindre collectivement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

184. Les gestionnaires savent précisément quelle orientation doit prendre l'organisation pour les prochaines années.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
185. Les gestionnaires partagent la même vision quant au futur souhaité pour l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 9.3 Valeurs organisationnelles

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
186. La qualité des services offerts est une priorité pour mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
187. Mon organisation est très préoccupée par la recherche de moyens d'économiser les ressources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
188. Mon organisation encourage fortement ses employés à faire preuve d'initiative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
189. Il est très important pour mon organisation de maintenir une réputation de qualité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
190. Mon organisation consacre beaucoup d'efforts à améliorer l'efficacité de son fonctionnement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
191. La coopération entre les employés est grandement valorisée par mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
192. Mon organisation encourage fortement les employés qui ont des points de vue différents à s'exprimer ouvertement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
193. Mon organisation reconnaît ouvertement à ses employés leur droit à l'erreur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
194. L'amélioration de la qualité des services offerts est une préoccupation constante pour mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
195. Mon organisation met beaucoup l'accent sur le respect des règles et procédures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
196. Le respect des personnes (courtoisie, considération, justice, franchise, tolérance) est une valeur fondamentale pour mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
197. Mon organisation apprécie grandement la créativité chez ses employés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 9.4 Congruence les valeurs organisationnelles et personnelles

	Très en désaccord	En désaccord	Plutôt en désaccord	Plus ou moins en accord	Plutôt en accord	En accord	Très en accord
198. Mes valeurs personnelles rejoignent parfaitement les valeurs qui sont importantes pour mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
199. Les gestionnaires et moi accordons une importance aux mêmes valeurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
200. Mes valeurs personnelles coïncident précisément avec celles des employés qui travaillent pour le CSSS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION 10 : DONNÉES SOCIO-DÉMOGRAPHIQUES

201. Quel est votre sexe ?	Homme — 1
	Femme — 2
202. Quel est votre âge ?	_____ ans

203. Quel est votre statut civil ?	Vit seul(e) _____ 1
	Marié(e) ou union libre _____ 2
	Monoparentale _____ 3
204. Combien de personnes à charge avez-vous (incluant votre conjoint-e) ?	_____
205. Combien y a-t-il d'enfants de moins de 12 ans parmi ces personnes à charge ?	_____



## Annexe I – Research Questionnaire

206. Quel est le plus haut diplôme que vous avez obtenu ? (Encerlez une seule réponse)	
Un diplôme d'études secondaires ou professionnelles	1
Un diplôme d'études collégiales	2
Un certificat de premier cycle universitaire	3
Un baccalauréat	4
Une maîtrise	5
Un doctorat	6
- Autre :	
207. En moyenne, combien d'heures par semaine travaillez-vous ?	hrs/sem
208. En moyenne, combien d'heures supplémentaires avez-vous faites au cours du dernier mois?	hrs/mois
209. Quel est votre taux de salaire horaire?	\$/hr
210. Estimez-vous avoir atteint le maximum de votre échelle salariale ?	
Oui	1
Non	2
211. Quel est votre statut d'emploi ?	
Employé régulier temps complet	1
Employé régulier temps partiel - Moins de 3 jours/semaine	2
- Plus de 3 jours/semaine	3
Employé sur une liste de rappel	4
212. À quoi votre statut d'emploi actuel est-il attribuable ? (Encerlez une seule réponse)	
À un choix de carrière	1
À l'absence d'opportunité d'emploi	2
À une situation occasionnelle (études, enfants,...)	3
213. Quel est votre horaire de travail ?	
De jour	1
De soir	2
De nuit	3
Rotation	4
214. À quelle catégorie de personnel appartenez-vous?	
1. Personnel en soins infirmiers et cardiorespiratoires (ex : infirmière auxiliaire, infirmière, infirmière bachelière, inhalothérapeute...)	1
2. Personnel paratechnique, service auxiliaire et métier (ex : PAB, IMC, membre du service alimentaire, préposé à l'entretien ménager, buandier, plombier, menuisier, ouvrier de maintenance ...)	2
3. Personnel de bureau (ex : secrétaire, archiviste, commis de bureau, technicien en administration...)	3
4. Techniciens de la santé et des services sociaux (ex : technicien en radiologie, technicien de laboratoire...)	4
5. Professionnels de la santé et des services sociaux (ex : psychologue, éducateur, travailleur social, diététiste, physiothérapeute...)	5
6. Cadres et professionnels (ex : supérieur immédiat, cadre intermédiaire ou supérieur, conseiller...)	6
215. Depuis combien de temps occupez-vous votre poste actuel ?	années complètes + mois
216. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous pour cette organisation ?	années complètes + mois
217. Pour quelle mission d'établissement travaillez-vous généralement ou le plus souvent? (Encerlez une seule réponse)	
CH	1
CLSC	2
CHSLD	3

CONSENTEMENT DE PAIRAGE

L'étape du pairage est importante puisqu'elle nous permettra de faire le lien entre l'évaluation que vous faites de votre contexte de travail et certains indicateurs objectifs de santé tels que les motifs d'absence au travail.

Nous vous assurons qu'aucune personne de votre organisation n'aura accès à vos données. Le pairage des informations recueillies sera exclusivement de la responsabilité de HEC Montréal et ne servira que pour des fins de recherche. Veuillez cocher si vous acceptez ou non que l'équipe de recherche effectue le pairage suivant :

Présence au travail                      OUI \_\_\_\_\_ NON \_\_\_\_\_

**Merci de votre collaboration! L'équipe de recherche HEC Montréal.**

## ANNEXE II

### RELIABILITY OF RECOGNITION QUESTIONS

#### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.885	.883	15

#### Item-Total Statistics

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition Supervisor	(Q72)	60.64	186.703	.604	.805	.875
	(Q73)	60.98	183.407	.636	.884	.874
	(Q74)	60.89	184.207	.635	.869	.874
Recognition Coworkers	(Q75)	60.45	192.354	.618	.802	.875
	(Q76)	60.56	190.323	.637	.830	.874
	(Q77)	60.58	190.968	.616	.833	.875
Recognition Physicians	(Q78)	61.77	185.974	.625	.780	.874
	(Q79)	62.06	185.108	.642	.882	.874
	(Q80)	62.02	186.233	.614	.866	.875
Recognition Patients	(Q81)	60.20	201.402	.385	.862	.884
	(Q82)	60.04	200.717	.401	.831	.884
	(Q83)	60.12	201.485	.370	.906	.885
Recognition Organization	(Q167)	62.24	195.432	.498	.749	.880
	(Q168)	62.39	197.609	.483	.795	.881
	(Q169)	62.30	199.238	.398	.542	.884

#### Scale Statistics

Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
218.703	14.789	15

## Reliability of Recognition from Supervisor

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.960	3

### Item-Total Statistics

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition Supervisor	(Q72)	9.17	12.876	.891	.959
	(Q73)	9.51	11.872	.930	.930
	(Q74)	9.42	12.174	.926	.933

### Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.05	27.152	5.211	3

## Reliability of Recognition from Coworkers

**Case Processing Summary**

Cases		N	%
	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.951	3

**Item-Total Statistics**

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition from Coworkers	(Q75)	9.89	8.399	.885	.938
	(Q76)	10.00	7.926	.900	.926
	(Q77)	10.02	7.837	.908	.920

**Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.95	17.690	4.206	3

## Reliability of Recognition from Physicians

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.955	3

### Item-Total Statistics

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition Physicians	(Q78)	6.95	11.790	.871	.959
	(Q79)	7.24	11.281	.928	.917
	(Q80)	7.20	11.337	.917	.926

### Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
10.70	25.241	5.024	3

## Reliability of Recognition from Organization

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.890	3

**Item-Total Statistics**

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition Organization	(Q167)	6.34	7.375	.797	.832
	(Q168)	6.50	7.519	.865	.776
	(Q169)	6.41	7.863	.699	.918

**Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
9.62	16.176	4.022	3

## Reliability of Recognition from Patients

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.961	3

### Item-Total Statistics

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Recognition Patients	(Q81)	10.88	7.734	.909	.949
	(Q82)	10.71	7.774	.896	.959
	(Q83)	10.80	7.324	.948	.920

### Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
16.19	16.800	4.099	3



## RELIABILITY OF TURNOVER INTENTION: 4 QUESTIONS

### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	221	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	221	100.0

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.867	.867	4

### Item-Total Statistics

		Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Turnover Intention	(Q13)	10.61	21.778	.746	.559	.818
	(Q14)	10.37	21.187	.764	.615	.810
	(Q15)	11.42	22.458	.716	.562	.830
	(Q16)	10.45	22.582	.646	.439	.859

### Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.28	37.449	6.120	4

### ANNEXE III

#### RESULTS FROM THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR RECOGNITION FOCI: ORGANIZATION, SUPERVISORS, WORK COLLEAGUES, PHYSICIANS AND PATIENTS

		Q72	Q74	Q73	Q75	Q76	Q77	Q78	Q79	Q80	Q81	Q82	Q83	Q167	Q168	Q169
Recognition Supervisor	(Q72)	1.000														
	(Q74)	0.870	1.000													
	(Q73)	0.876	0.922	1.000												
Recognition Coworkers	(Q75)	0.372	0.420	0.439	1.000											
	(Q76)	0.354	0.403	0.413	0.853	1.000										
	(Q77)	0.338	0.394	0.415	0.864	0.884	1.000									
Recognition Physicians	(Q78)	0.325	0.325	0.306	0.403	0.418	0.358	1.000								
	(Q79)	0.336	0.338	0.332	0.356	0.403	0.334	0.861	1.000							
	(Q80)	0.293	0.287	0.275	0.358	0.384	0.339	0.847	0.922	1.000						
Recognition Patients	(Q81)	0.143	0.131	0.138	0.247	0.259	0.274	0.174	0.180	0.189	1.000					
	(Q82)	0.131	0.117	0.108	0.226	0.294	0.288	0.231	0.211	0.220	0.852	1.000				
	(Q83)	0.099	0.089	0.080	0.214	0.261	0.261	0.197	0.180	0.201	0.922	0.904	1.000			
Recognition Organisation	(Q167)	0.360	0.393	0.403	0.229	0.237	0.247	0.262	0.317	0.288	0.034	0.042	0.028	1.000		
	(Q168)	0.328	0.349	0.345	0.209	0.196	0.217	0.313	0.332	0.309	-.015	0.027	-.017	0.851	1.000	
	(Q169)	0.195	0.250	0.263	0.144	0.163	0.166	0.257	0.288	0.281	0.044	0.059	-.062	0.634	0.714	1.000

**Correlation Matrix**

**KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.815
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3557.593
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

**Communalities**

		Initial	Extraction
Recognition Supervisor	(Q72)	1.000	.911
	(Q74)	1.000	.933
	(Q73)	1.000	.939
Recognition Coworkers	(Q75)	1.000	.901
	(Q76)	1.000	.914
	(Q77)	1.000	.925
Recognition Physicians	(Q78)	1.000	.887
	(Q79)	1.000	.940
	(Q80)	1.000	.930
Recognition Patients	(Q81)	1.000	.922
	(Q82)	1.000	.908
	(Q83)	1.000	.958
Recognition Organization	(Q167)	1.000	.842
	(Q168)	1.000	.893
	(Q169)	1.000	.755

	Valeurs propres initiales			Rotation de la somme du poids au carré		
	Total	% de variance	% cumulatif	Total	% de variance	% cumulatif
1	5,857	39,046	39,046	5,857	39,046	39,046
2	2,757	18,378	57,424	2,757	18,378	57,424
3	1,870	12,466	69,890	1,870	12,466	69,890
4	1,715	11,434	81,324	1,715	11,434	81,324
5	1,360	9,070	90,393	1,360	9,070	90,393
6	,379	2,527	92,920			
7	,193	1,288	94,208			
8	,176	1,171	95,380			
9	,142	0,949	96,329			
10	,127	0,846	97,175			
11	,112	0,746	97,921			
12	,105	0,702	98,623			
13	,082	0,548	99,171			
14	,066	0,441	99,612			
15	,058	0,388	100,00			

## RESULTS FROM THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR TURNOVER INTENTION

### Correlation matrix

		(Q13)	(Q14)	(Q15)	(Q16)
Correlation	Turnover Intention (Q13)	1.000	.667	.618	.630
	Turnover Intention (Q14)	.667	1.000	.725	.565
	Turnover Intention (Q15)	.618	.725	1.000	.514
	Turnover Intention (Q16)	.630	.565	.514	1.000

### KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.801
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity    Approx. Chi-Square	432.277
df	6
Sig.	.000

### Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Turnover Intention (Q13)	1.000	.746
Turnover Intention (Q14)	1.000	.773
Turnover Intention (Q15)	1.000	.717
Turnover Intention (Q16)	1.000	.628

	Valeurs propres initiales			Rotation de la somme du poids au carré		
	Total	% de variance	% cumulatif	Total	% de variance	% cumulatif
1	2,864	71,59	71,59	2,864	71,59	71,59
2	0,531	13,273	84,683			
3	0,338	8,45	93,313			
4	0,267	6,687	100			

### RELIABILITY OF TURNOVER INTENTION : 3 QUESTIONS

		N	%
Observations	Valide	221	100,0
	Exclus <sup>a</sup>	0	,0
	Total	221	100,0

#### Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Alpha de Cronbach basé sur des éléments normalisés	Nombre d'éléments
,859	,859	3

#### Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Carré de la corrélation multiple	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
Turnover Intention (Q13)	6,77	11,109	,692	,483	,840
Turnover Intention (Q14)	6,54	10,173	,774	,604	,764
Turnover Intention (Q15)	7,59	10,949	,736	,558	,800

#### Statistiques d'échelle

Moyenne	Variance	Ecart-type	Nombre d'éléments
10,45	22,582	4,752	3

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