

**ASSESSING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
ABSENTEEISM AND COMPANY CULTURE**

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ABBREVIATIONS

EU	: European Union
NGO	: Non-Governmental Organization
BNA	: Bureau of National Affairs
LTA	: Long Term Absence
STA	: Short Term Absence
LTAm	: Long Term Absence of men
STAm	: Short Term Absence of men
LTAw	: Long Term Absence of women
STAw	: Short Term Absence of women
WFC	: Work-Family conflict
HR	: Human Resources
UA	: Uncertainty Avoidance

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İŞE DEVAMSIZLIK İLE KURUM KÜLTÜRÜ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN İNCELENMESİ

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı işe devamsızlık ile kurum kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. İşe devamsızlık batılı toplumlarda uzun zamandır bir araştırma sahası teşkil etmektedir. Yalnızca işçilerin yokluğunun yüksek maliyetlere ve üretkenlikte kayıplara sebep olmasından dolayı değil, işe devamsızlığın, iş yerindeki bazı başka problemleri ifade eden bir gösterge olması sebebiyle de farklı bilim dallarından pek çok araştırmacı bu konuya ışık tutmaya çalışmışlardır. Ancak Türkiye’de bu konu hala karanlıkta kalmış bir konudur. Gerek ölçüm yapmanın ve güvenilir veriler toplamanın zorluğu, gerek çalışanlar ve işyerleri ile iyi bir iletişim ve koordinasyon içinde olma ihtiyacı ve bunlara ilaveten nispeten uzun gözlem süreleri ile problemin çok değişkenli, karmaşık yapısı bu alanda çalışma yapmak isteyenlerin cesaretini kırmaktadır. Ancak yine de bu çalışma işe devamsızlığın bulanık dünyasına naçizane bir giriş, bu sahada ileriye doğru atılmış bir adım olarak düşünülebilir.

Takip eden sayfalarda okuyucu işe devamsızlığın tanım(lar)ını, onu etkileyen faktörleri ve sebep olduğu maliyetleri okuyacaktır. Bunun ardından başka bir fenomen olan kurum kültürü detaylı olarak incelenecek ve çeşitli tanımlar ile kurum kültürünü sınıflamada kullanılan modeller tanıtılacaktır. Literatür taramasının sonunu takiben, bu çalışmada test edilen hipotezler açıklanacaktır. Bu araştırmada işe devamsızlık-kurum kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi irdeleyen dört hipotez, üniversite mezunu beyaz yakalı çalışanlardan oluşan 179 kişilik bir anket çalışması ile test edilmiştir. Dört hipotezden üçü doğrulanmış biri ise ispatlanamamıştır.

Araştırma ortaya koymuştur ki cinsiyet ile işe devamsızlık arasında bir ilişki vardır: kadın çalışanların işe gelmeme eğilimi erkeklere oranla daha yüksektir. Ayrıca yine bulunmuştur ki, her 2 beyaz yakalıdan birinin iş kırma eğilimi yüksektir. Bir diğer önemli sonuç cinsiyet ayrımcılığının erkekler üzerinde bir etkisi olmamasına karşın kadınların işe devamsızlık eğilimini olumsuz etkilediğidir. Yine bu araştırma sonucunda, çalışanlar arasındaki rekabet ve hırs ortamının ve iş yerindeki hiyerarşi ve otoritenin çalışanların işe devamsızlık davranışı üzerine doğrudan bir etkisi olmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

ASSESSING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ABSENTEEISM AND COMPANY CULTURE

SUMMARY

This study aims to assess the relationship between employee absenteeism and company culture. Employee absenteeism has been a research field in most western societies for a long time. Not only because of high costs and productivity losses associated with employees' absence, but also as a result of the fact that absenteeism is an efficient indicator of other problems in the work place, many scientists from various disciplines have spent too much time and effort to shed light on this phenomenon. However, employee absenteeism issue in Turkey is still in the dark. The difficulty of measuring and obtaining reliable data, the need of proper communication and coordination with employees and companies, relatively long observation times and multi-variant structure of the problem discourage those who wish to study in this field. Nevertheless, this study can be considered as an initiative, a step forward in to the fuzzy world of absenteeism.

Through the following pages the reader can find the definition(s) of absenteeism, factors related to it and a highlight on the costs caused by employee absence. After that, another phenomenon, company culture is discussed in detail along with various definitions and models. Following the end of literature search, the hypotheses tested in this study are explained. In this survey, four hypotheses regarding employee absenteeism-company culture relationship have been tested using a sample of 179 questionnaires filled by currently employed white collar college graduates. Three of the hypotheses turned out to be correct while one remained invalidated.

The survey proved that gender is a factor that affects employee absenteeism as women are more prone to be absent in comparison with men. It was also found that 1 out of every 2 white collar employee has a high tendency to be absent. Another significant result is that sexual favoritism within an organization has a negative affect on absence behavior of women employees while having no impact on men. Hierarchy and authority, as well as interpersonal competition among employees, seemed to have no relation with absence tendency of neither men nor women.

1. INTRODUCTION

Each year, The European Union (EU) Parliament approves new laws giving more social rights and providing more financial benefits to workers in order to improve quality of life of its citizens. However, in many countries such regulations result in more ‘day off’s and less productivity. As employee rights become more flexible and tolerant because of new regulations due to European Union membership procedure, employee absenteeism is expected to rise in Turkey as well.

In my opinion, academicians who work in the fields of Industrial Engineering, Management, Industrial Psychology, Law and many more are going to be asked for help on new problems caused by new regulations in the near future. One of the main problems is going to be employee absence. This study aims to provide a ‘beginners’ guide’ to absenteeism phenomenon and it seeks a relationship between company culture and employee absenteeism.

Why company culture? The reason is simple. Suppose that a new regulation saying that employers will have to pay the salary of the employee even for the days s/he is absent is accepted by the parliament. The purpose of such a law would be to emphasize the fact that all workers are indeed humans and humans may need some time-off due to their needs or because of some emergencies. Perfectly acceptable! However, if such a law allows weeks or months (not days!) of paid absence to employees, it is bound to be exploited by many people. Even the idea of ‘not showing up for work but still getting almost the entire daily wage’ sounds very tempting. Then how can companies fight with such a governmental regulation that they have to approve? This is one of the questions that is tried to be responded here. Creating more loyal and work-loving employees can only be achieved by managerial awareness and precautions. How you run your company would determine whether your employees like to be a part of it or they wake up every weekday cursing to their jobs. The atmosphere, the system of understanding and communication within an organization, or in other words, the *culture* of an organization is considered a major factor in avoiding employee absence. It is obvious that, having more satisfied

employees would reduce costs and improve efficiency. Hence, this paper examines the relationship between company culture and employee absenteeism.

Through the literature search, firstly the definition of employee absenteeism will be given followed by sections investigating the factors that affect employee absenteeism and the costs associated with absence. In the following sections, company culture is going to be studied deeply. The definitions, previous models in assessing company culture and the four-dimensional culture model of Hofstede will be presented in detail. After a brief chapter explaining the purpose and scope of this study, the hypotheses to be evaluated are going to be discussed. Following this chapter, the method used in this study and the implementation of the survey will be explained. The findings and the results of hypothesis tests will be the subject of the following part. Finally, a conclusion and further research sections will finalize the paper. The Appendices given at the end of the paper include a sample of the questionnaire used in this study and the results of all analysis conducted in this survey

2. EMPLOYEE ABSENTEEISM

2.1. What is Absenteeism?

Although absenteeism is considered as a major problem by numerous foreign researchers from various fields, the literature on absenteeism in our country is much less than average! Ignoring few MS thesis, and some guideline books published by NGOs, there is almost no significant study in the field of absenteeism in Turkey. However, as put by **Kepir and Pazarcık (1983)**, “increased absenteeism is both an indicator of some other serious problems within the organization and it is also an important reason of efficiency loss”.

In order to investigate this phenomenon, it would be more appropriate to define absenteeism as a beginning. Nevertheless, there is not a single, universal definition of absence throughout the whole literature. Although the term reveals its meaning in a broad sense, there are still some questions that emerge if one wants to make a study on absenteeism. These questions include:

- If an employee comes to work late and/or leaves early, is s/he considered absent?
- If the reason for not coming to work is inevitable, can the employee be accused of being absent?
- Imagine two colleagues working in the same environment, with the same salaries, etc. One of them comes to work at 11.00 and leaves at 16.00 for three days in a row. His colleague does not come to work for 1 whole day. Which one of these employees is *more absent*?

These and many other questions concerned with the underlying philosophy of absence, make it an obligation to look for a comprehensive definition of absence.

Markham (1985) defines absenteeism as not being present when scheduled to work regardless of reason, excluding temporary lay-offs, holidays, and vacations.

Another definition of absence phenomenon is given as:

An absence constitutes a single day of missed work. Some theorists have proposed that absences occur whenever a person chooses to allocate time to activities that compete with scheduled work, either to satisfy the waxing and waning of underlying motivational rhythms or to maximize personal utility. A somewhat more encompassing definition of absence is an individual's lack of physical presence at a given location and time where there is a social expectation for him or her to be there. An absence is a behavioral outcome or state rather than a behavior itself (**Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003**).

Martocchio and Jimeno claim that absenteeism has both positive and negative consequences depending on the personality of individuals. For extrovert persons (e.g. talkative, active, highly social), short-term absences are useful to “recharge their batteries” and manage high stress caused by their jobs. This type of absence is defined as *functional*. On the contrary, for those who are more close to neuroticism (fearful, anxious, depressed, etc.), absenteeism is considered as *dysfunctional*. The person is still unproductive or even less productive than before, after a short period of absence (**Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003**).

According to **Allen (1983)**, the definition of absenteeism is as below: “a worker is defined as absent if he fails to report for a scheduled work period”.

As put by **Harrison and Price (2003)**, “absenteeism is the lack of physical presence at a behavior setting when and where one is expected to be”.

Ose, on the other hand, utilizes a more tangible definition of absence: “absence is defined as the total numbers of absence events in the firms divided by the total number of employees employed” (**Ose, 2005**). The author claims that absence is a good indicator of workers' health and that it can be used to investigate the effect of the working environment on employees.

A much simpler definition is given by **Pizam and Thornburg (2000)** as: “Absenteeism takes place when employees do not report to work and it can take two forms: authorized and unauthorized”.

There are also some assumptions that value absence data as an indicator of future problems. **Kenyon and Dawkins (1989)**, for instance, claim that labour absence is one of the main indicators of deteriorating industrial relations environment since higher absence rates are not surprising before strike activities.

Dalton and Perry (1981) state that absenteeism is a behavior which has potentially critical consequences both for the person and for the organization. According to a

national survey of the BNA -Bureau of National Affairs, US- in 1973, almost 80 percent of responding organizations reported that absenteeism was their most serious disciplinary problem.

As seen from the definitions of various researchers given above, absenteeism is accepted as not being present where the individual is expected to be. Despite the lack of a time criteria (except **Martocchio & Jimeno (2003)**), it is easily observed that almost all absenteeism studies define absence in days rather than hours. Hence, the answer to the question *if an employee comes to work late and/or leaves early, is s/he considered absent?* is given precisely: No. Because these cases are studied separately under the headings “tardiness” and “leaving early” as ‘nonattendance behaviors’. For further details refer to **Boyar et al. (2004)**.

Having made clear the respond to the first, and in a way the third, question, the next step is to find the answer of the second question: *if the reason for not coming to work is inevitable, can the employee be accused of being absent?*

“By absence we mean a call-in for alleged illness or other supposedly justifiable reason (i.e. death in the family), or possibly an unauthorized no-show. These “involuntary absences” generally make up between 40 and 50 percent of all absences, with the remaining absences mainly vacations or voluntarily applied-for leave” (**Berger & Monahan, 1974**). As stated hereby, absence can be allocated into two groups: short-term absence and long-term absence. **Chadwick-Jones (1981)** emphasizes the importance of short-term absences since absences of one or two days’ duration, are more likely to be the expressions of employee’s decision not to attend for work. He claims that it is not possible to check that ‘a slight cold’ or ‘a muscular pain’ is the true case!

A similar conclusion is that of **Scott and Taylor’s (1985)**. They emphasize that short term absences of one or two days are likely to be at an employee’s discretion and are subject to employee abuse while long term absences are generally caused by reasons outside of employee’s control or will.

Looking from this point of view, many researchers classify absence into two groups: ‘voluntary absence’ and ‘involuntary absence’. Voluntary absenteeism is caused and determined by the employee himself. It lasts no more than 3 days in a row and it is mostly not certified. Involuntary absence, on the other hand, is caused by outer

factors that the employee can not control (sickness, accidents, funerals, military or governmental obligations etc.) and such absence lasts longer than 3 days.

Since the causes are different, voluntary and involuntary absenteeism can be investigated separately. Despite the existence of numerous exceptions, it can be claimed that voluntary absenteeism is a research field of psychology, management and in a manner of industrial relations whereas involuntary absence makes up the main concern of medicine, rehabilitation, ergonomics, nursing, public and industrial health specialists. Economists, however, are interested in almost equally in both types of absenteeism since they are more interested in effects rather than causes.

As well as having different reasons, voluntary and involuntary absences may have varying relations with other factors that affect absenteeism. A good example to that is the study of **Sagie (1998)**. The study examines whether voluntary absences are related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction more than involuntary absences. Depending on a survey among 140 workers of an Israeli municipality, the author concludes that organizational commitment (attachment to the overall organization rather than some part of it, stable over time, less seriously affected by transitory events) and job satisfaction (attachment to position and/or department, highly affected by job considerations and off-the-job satisfaction) are positively related to each other as well as being negatively related to voluntary absence. However, neither organizational commitment nor job satisfaction is related in any way to duration of involuntary absence.

Such a diversity brings out the need to define different measures to evaluate absenteeism. In a recent study, **Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer and Schaufeli (2003)** conduct a research among 214 employees in the Netherlands in order to determine the interaction of job demands (organizational problems, work pressure, poor environmental conditions etc.) and job resources (pay, career opportunities, job security etc.) with absenteeism. To evaluate absenteeism they utilize two common measures: *absence frequency* (the number of spells an individual has been absent during a particular period regardless of its length) and *absence duration*; the total length of time an individual has been absent. (For results of this study see Section 2.3 Factors That Affect Employee Absenteeism). They claim that absence frequency is an indicator of “voluntary absenteeism” whereas absence duration is considered as a sign of “involuntary absenteeism” (**Bakker et al., 2003**). Since absence frequency

gives more weight to short-term absences than to long-term absences, it can be said that “job satisfaction will be more strongly associated with absence frequency than with absence duration” (**Scott & Taylor, 1985**).

As put by **Steel (2003)**, time-lost measures (absence duration) express absenteeism as a sum of units of time (e.g., hours or days) away from work and these measures assign weight to absence events based on their durations. This is why this type of measure would assign a higher value to a person with a single 20-day absence than it would to an employee with five 1-day absences. Use of absence frequency, on the other hand, would assign a higher absence value to the individual with many absences. They ignore the durations of absence episodes. Thus, it can be easily concluded that voluntary absences such as “skip days” or “attitude-adjustment days” are more likely to be expressed via absence frequency since such a day-off would be less weighted by a time-lost measure than it would be by absence frequency measures. In contrast, time lost measures can be accepted as indicators of involuntary absence (**Steel, 2003**).

The difficulty in analyzing absenteeism is emerged from the fact that it is actually “a variety of behaviors with different causes masquerading as a unitary phenomenon” (**Johns, 2003**). **Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer and Schaufeli (2003)** notice that “absenteeism is not a unitary concept since different processes seem to cause different aspects of absenteeism”. As quite well put by **Johns (2003)**, at the microlevel, censoring of absenteeism data can pose problems, while at the macrolevel, the very meaning of absence can change over time since social conditions change. Moreover, it is not always that clear whether absenteeism is an antecedent or a consequence of other variables, such as job satisfaction or performance.

In order to better understand the complexity of absenteeism, it would be useful to make an overview of the development of absenteeism literature through the years.

The review of what is known about absenteeism demonstrates that the early studies of two industrial health specialists (**Vernon and Bedford, 1928**, and **Vernon et al., 1931**) seem to be the first significant researches in this filed. The authors used data from a large number of British coalminers of ten collieries, located close to each other in the Nottinghamshire coalfield. Using simple regression analysis, applied to a

group data, Vernon and Bedford investigate the relationship between conditions of work (thickness of seam, temperature, humidity and airflow) and three different classes of absence: sickness absence, absence due to accidents, and a residual class labeled 'voluntary'. They find that total absenteeism increases with the depth of the workings and that absence from sickness increases greatly with underground temperature.

However, despite Vernon and Bedford's work, interest in absenteeism has been largely confined to the last two decades. Most of the literature has been devoted to empirical (with some experimental) studies of the problem as a psychological phenomenon, with the occasional contribution by economists (**Barmby et al., 1991**). "Psychologists have traditionally characterized absenteeism as a withdrawal response from a negative work environment. Recently, however, researchers have begun to view absenteeism more in the context of the conventional economic labor market model and have included wages and/or fringe benefits as explanatory variables" (**Dunn & Youngblood, 1986**).

Until late 1970s, absenteeism literature felt the lack of a reliable and comprehensive theory. The framework needed was developed by **Steers and Rhodes (1978)**. Based on 104 empirical studies, the authors concluded that attendance to work is directly influenced by two factors: motivation to attend and the ability to attend. Motivation is largely influenced by job satisfaction. Many latter studies have been based on this theoretical framework. This is the reason why there are many studies that investigate the relation between job satisfaction and absenteeism especially between 1970s and 1980s.

However, by the end of 1980s, as the researches have indicated the importance of social, psychological and economic factors, the Steer & Rhodes framework was proved insufficient to examine absenteeism phenomenon. A latter study by the authors developed a new model but this time they included organizational practices, absence culture and employee attitudes, values and goals as predictors of absenteeism (**Kaiser, 1998**).

But it was not until 1985 that a conceptual framework, which defines the formation of work group norms and their effects on employee absence, was developed. **Nicholson and Jones (1985)** defined a typology of four different *absence cultures*

(the set of shared understandings about absence legitimacy and the established ‘custom and practice’ of employee absence behavior and its control). Those four cultures were determined by levels of two dimensions as being high or low. The first dimension was (psychological) trust between organization and employee. The second dimension was cultural salience, the degree to which distinct beliefs about absence, assumptions about employment, and conceptions of self-control exist within a work unit. In other words, highly salient absence cultures are more likely to be homogeneous and directly impactful on the individual and they generally involve obvious norms regarding attendance behavior.

These four cultures are:

- i) The Dependant Culture: characterized by deviant (abnormal) absence (associated with guilt) as implied by high trust and low salience.
- ii) The Moral Culture: characterized by constructive absence as implied by high trust and high salience.
- iii) The Fragmented Culture: characterized by calculative absence (the individual maintenance of equity of economic exchange) as implied by low trust and low salience.
- iv) The Conflictual Culture: characterized by defiant (bold) absence (associated with collective alienation of workers) as implied by high trust and low salience.

The results of two other studies confirm the importance of absence cultures; **Martocchio (1994)** and **Harrison and Scheffer (1994)**. Martocchio had made a study on 264 clerical workers of the same firm in five locations. Having created measures of absence by aggregating individual beliefs about the costs and benefits of absence, the author had proved that absence culture explains a significant portion of the variance in absence behavior of individuals. Harrison and Scheffer, on the other hand, made a research on U.S government employees based on self-reports of absence behavior and perceived norms of absenteeism. They finally state that future absenteeism could be predicted by perceived absenteeism norms (**Kaiser, 1998**).

Though verified by some such latter studies, this typology was not largely accepted in the absenteeism literature. However, the conclusions of Nicholson and Jones are not very different from those of others.

Although most of the researches on absenteeism and related subjects are empirical, there are few theoretical studies aiming to develop mathematical models that can be used to predict or evaluate employee absenteeism data (**Arbous & Sichel, 1954; Allen, 1983; Audas & Goddard, 2001; Ose, 2005; Kenyon & Dawkins, 1989**). However, none of these models proved to be worthy of application and they failed to model absence phenomenon in a realistic way.

Kaiser (1998), states that absenteeism literature exhibits three fundamental approaches to research in which absenteeism is assumed to be either (1) individual, (2) social or (3) economic behavior. These approaches have their own contributions and limitations. However, as put by many previous and latter studies, absenteeism should be investigated as a result of integrated effects of those different approaches. In other words, absenteeism research should be based on an interdisciplinary perspective including disciplines such as industrial psychology, organizational behavior, social psychology and economics.

Once it is made clear that absence behavior is a complex issue with various determinants including psychosocial, individual and economic factors, the problem is how one should decide which approach would be the most appropriate in an absenteeism study? Which of the three branches, or maybe another fourth, is the most important? The answer may be found in the statement of Kaiser: “the relative weights we ought to attach to individual, social, and economic determinants depend upon the situations in which absence is observed and what a researcher is trying to explain” (**Kaiser, 1998**).

Among the alternatives, the individual approach to absenteeism problem has the longest history and has generated the most voluminous literature. The distinguishing feature of this approach is that it focuses upon individual motivations to be absent which belong to one of the three following categories: (1) personal characteristics (personality, values and attitudes toward work, health status etc.), (2) individual responses to stimuli in the work environment (e.g., job content, working conditions), and (3) individual responses to stimuli in the nonwork environment (family and life circumstances, value of nonwork uses of time, etc.).

The social psychological approach, on the other hand, recognizes that different absence decisions will be made in different circumstances. This approach is based on

the assumptions that workers respond to (1) observations of both the status and behavior of other workers, (within and without the organization) and to (2) their feelings about equity and fairness. The distinguishing features of the social psychological approach are: *absence decisions are made within an absence culture* (i.e., constructive, calculative, defiant, or conflictual) and that the individual motivation to be absent is interdependently determined (**Kaiser, 1998**).

However, as put by Kaiser, “*individual differences and absence culture* must jointly explain absence behavior since the two approaches provide complementary explanations of why absence behavior varies across work units”.

The third approach, economic approach, and its methods consider absenteeism as an economic variable and this approach aims to define the variables in correlation with absence behavior and the magnitude of their effects. Mostly based on a cost/benefit analysis, the economic approach handles the problem based on criteria of both the employer and the employee. This approach generally concludes that, though being an undesired event, absence to a certain degree should be accepted since it is not possible to have zero absence. However, the economic studies on absence are mostly in purpose of determining the costs associated with absenteeism and the acceptable costs for both employees and employers. Another conclusion, reached by most economists is that: “the benefits and costs associated with absence are dictated by market forces” (**Kaiser, 1998**).

2.2. Costs of Absenteeism

Chadwick-Jones (1981) state that “absenteeism or unscheduled absence from work is recognized as a management problem probably in all industrialized countries because of its appearance in industrial budgets as a very large cost item”. Given the fact that absenteeism is in fact a major problem, many researchers aim to determine the costs of absenteeism in order to handle the problem in a more tangible, mathematical way. However, the literature search shows that most of the studies associated with costs of absenteeism have been done in certain countries such as The United States, Canada and Scandinavia. The reasons for this can be various; the climate, international competition, state policies and their costs, the enormous size of labor supply market, etc. Nevertheless, the important point is that absenteeism is a

huge cost item and it causes gain loss not only for the employer but also for the society and the employee himself (See Fig. 2.1)

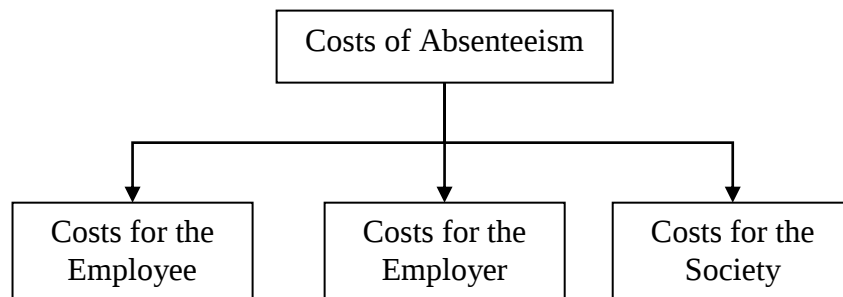


Figure 2.1 Costs of absenteeism

In a study that aims to determine the real cost of absenteeism, **Allen (1983)** explains the costs of absenteeism as:

At first glance the cost of absenteeism would seem to consist of merely the goods and services that would have been produced if the worker had reported – that is, the daily wage. However, the wage overestimates the cost of absenteeism when firms can partially offset the output loss through such adjustments as working employees overtime, reassigning workers from other positions, or hiring temporary replacements. The output loss will not be entirely eliminated because (1) each of these adjustments involve additional costs, and (2) the substitutes are unlikely to be as productive as the absent worker (**Allen, 1983**).

Having emphasized the factors that must be taken into account in evaluating the costs of absenteeism, Allen proposes a mathematical model in order to calculate the costs of absenteeism. Accordingly, he concludes that if the absence rate (3.5% in 1980, in the USA) fell by one day per year per worker - to 3.1% - the increment in labor income could be as high as \$1.1 billion in 1980 (**Allen, 1983**). This enormous total displays clearly the cost of absenteeism for employees. Besides, long lasting absenteeism or frequent short term absences may cause dismissal of the employee and resulting in unemployment and salary loss.

On the other hand, the costs for companies related with absenteeism are also undeniably high. According to Canadian Labour Department the cost of absenteeism for firms range from one to three times the hourly rate of the absent worker, depending on whether employees are paid for days absent, whether absent employees are replaced and who replaces them. Employers reveal that companies may overstaff by as much as ten per cent to avoid problems caused by employee absenteeism.

West & Fasechko (1993), study the absenteeism problem in Canada. They state that in 1990, the average annual day loss due to absenteeism had been 9.4 days. 71 per cent of it was related to illness or disability. However, in order to better explain the problem, the authors compare ‘incidence of absence’ of three major countries; Canada, USA and Japan. Then, they calculate the approximate cost differences between these three countries caused by employee absenteeism and they present the profit gap among them.

Table 2.1 Absentee incident rates and productivity equivalents (**West & Fasechko, 1993**)

Country	Incidence of absence (% of total employment)	Cost of absenteeism per worker	Profit differential (vs. Canada)	Productivity equivalent per worker*
Canada	5.9%	\$2950	\$0	\$0
USA	5.1%	\$2550	\$400	\$8000
Japan	5.0%	\$2500	\$450	\$9000

* Assuming a 5% profit margin.

If employees who earn \$25000 Canadian per year are compared in these three countries, the direct costs of absenteeism is \$1475 for Canada, \$1275 for the US and \$1250 for Japan. When indirect costs are included the numbers are doubled (See Table 2.1). The numbers show that due to higher costs of absenteeism, a Canadian company must produce \$9000 more per worker per year than a Japanese company to produce same five per cent profit, and \$8000 to cope with an American rival.

But the real shocking numbers lie in the costs that governments and/or society has to face. “It has been reported that absences cost the American economy about \$9 billion yearly in lost production and wages” (**Berger & Monahan, 1974**). One estimate indicated that 400 million work days are lost each year in the United States as a result of employee absenteeism. According to the estimates of **Steers and Rhodes (1978)**, the costs of absenteeism - including directs salaries, fringe benefits, temporary replacement costs and administrative costs - might change between a minimum of \$8.5 billion and a maximum of \$20 billion per year (**Dalton & Perry, 1981**). According to the data of 1979, absenteeism is estimated to cause a loss of approximately 57 million working days per month in the United States which

amounts almost \$2 billion of wages and salaries lost monthly (**Dunn & Youngblood, 1986**).

Knutsson and Goine (1998) state that in ten years (from 1980 to 1990) the expenditures for sickness cash benefit in Sweden increased from 12.6 to 35 billion kronor (~7 billion TRY, more than 5 billion USD) and long term sickness absences have been responsible for the major part of the increase.

“The Norwegian sickness benefit system provides 100% of covered earnings, payable from the first day of incapacity for up to 52 weeks. The employer pays the total cost of cash sickness benefit for the first 16 days” (**Ose, 2005**). Economists prove that such high sick benefits generally encourage absenteeism among employees and cause significant increments in absence durations.

Another example to such a case is that of Czech Republic. According to an article in Time magazine published in March 2003, the absenteeism policy of the government cause higher costs for both employers and the state. “At present, a typical worker at the Czech plant earns about €370 a month - but if he calls in ill, he'll get €325 in benefits from the government over the same period. Not surprisingly, absenteeism in the Czech Republic has soared almost 20% since the policy was adopted in 1999. Today, 710 out of every 10,000 workers are absent due to illness on any given workday” (**James, 2003**).

Another significant data presented in the same article is that in 2001, absenteeism caused 176 million days and €17.2 billion loss to Britain.

In 1985 in Australia 31.3 million working days, 2.2% of total working time in that year, were lost due to illness (!) and injury (**Kenyon & Dawkins, 1989**). The authors calculate that a 1% increase in real before-tax average hourly earnings would be expected to reduce absenteeism between 2.04% and 2.98 implying an increment of 2500 to 3700 workers per day in attendance. Such an increment would diminish total yearly absence by 500 to 800 thousand days in 1985 in Australia.

The numbers given above are more than enough to prove that absenteeism is a costly problem that organizations cannot and must not ignore. However, employee absenteeism is a very complex issue that is affected by many factors most of which are hard to predict or control. In order to solve absenteeism problem in an

appropriate way, the first step should be defining the factors that are somehow related to absence behavior.

2.3. Factors That Affect Employee Absenteeism

Naturally, given the demonstrated seriousness of absenteeism, substantial research effort has been dedicated to identifying its associated variables. For instance, recent studies have examined absenteeism in a variety of contexts: employee age and tenure (**Nicholson & Goodge, 1976; Nicholson, Brown & Chadwick-Jones, 1977; Garrison & Muchinsky, 1977**), organization size (**Ingram, 1970**), job satisfaction (**Ilgen & Hollenback, 1977; Nicholson, Wall, & Lischeron, 1977**), turnover (absenteeism as a predictor variable) (**Waters & Roach, 1979**), personality variables (**Benardin, 1977; Garrison & Muchinsky, 1977**) (**Dalton & Perry, 1981**).

As quite well put by Dalton and Perry, the literature search demonstrates the fact that there are numerous studies that investigate the correlation of absenteeism with one or more factors such as unemployment, age, work environment, etc. As mentioned before, absence behavior is a complex issue with various determinants including psychosocial, individual and economic factors. Thus, previous researches on absenteeism are varied accordingly. Many researchers from different fields including management, psychology, industrial health, economics, medicine, ergonomics, etc. have studied absence problem. Some of the most significant of these studies are summarized below to make clear the factors that are proved to be related with absence behavior.

One of the main factors that is proved to effect absence behavior is gender. According to **Allen (1983)**, gender difference does affect absenteeism. His study shows that the mean absence rate for males was 4.0 percent while that of females was 5.5 percent. **Boyar et al. (2004)** also verify that women's absenteeism is more common than that of men's. This conclusion is shared by **Sagie (1998)** who verifies that there exists a gender difference among employees; women having more voluntary absence than men.

Johns investigates the possible reasons of why women are more absent and he concludes that a reason might be the greater involvement of women in childcare responsibilities. Another reason, however, might arise from the tendency for women to hold less interesting and rewarding work. But there exists no strong proof of such a hypothesis in the literature so far (**Johns, 2003**).

Gender difference does not only determine absence performance but it also changes the way that other variables affect absenteeism. In other words, men and women respond differently to stimuli regarding their attendance to work. An increment in the unemployment ratio, for instance, can affect male and female absenteeism in opposite directions.

An important study that enlightens the effects of work environment on absence behavior is that of **Ose's (2005)**. This Norwegian scientist develops a theoretical model in order to explain the impacts of working environment, the physical and psychological conditions of job, on employee absenteeism and then he tests the theoretical model using empirical data. In order to test his model he benefits from quarterly information about average absence days, number of employees, etc. provided by 493 Norwegian manufacturing companies between the years 1990-1998. To collect data on working environment of these firms, he posts questionnaires to those companies' safety delegates, a person elected by employees to safeguard the interests of employees on the matters concerning their work environment. However, what makes this study a significant one is neither its recency nor its large sample size. Ose runs his survey and allocates his data in accordance to two important classifications: the employees according to their sex [m for Men, and w for Women] and absence behavior as long-term absence (LTA) and short-term absence (STA).

His results regarding gender difference and absence classification are given below:

- High levels of noise in the working environment increase STA and LTA for both male and female workers.
- High degree of monotonous work, heavy or frequent lifting and poor work postures (work strain) cause high STA for men (STAm).
- Physical work strain does not affect LTA of women (LTAw) however it is positively related to STAw.
- Layoffs and geographical relocations (moving) increase STAw and LTAw.
- Male absence (STAm & LTAm) is not effected by organizational changes to a wide extent. Major changes such as mergers, relocation, changes in production and layoffs do not affect STAm.

- Overtime per employee is positively related to STAm and STAw.
- Larger firms have a higher absence rate per employee than smaller firms.
- Unemployment rate is negatively related to STAw but is positively related to LTAm.
- Major changes in the production process increase LTAm the year the change took place but the effect is not visible the year after.
- Firms using good lightning equipment have on average, 4.6% lower long term absence for men compared to firms with average equipment.

For a detailed analysis of these results, see **(Ose, 2005)**.

The conclusions given above claim that firms with much noise and high physical strain are likely to suffer from employee absenteeism. In addition, in times of layoffs special attention must be paid to female workers as they have more tendencies to be absent for short terms after layoff periods. Again, another issue regarding female workers is the relocation of the plant since it is supposed to increase long term absence of women workers.

Two researchers from Sweden investigate the occupational differences and effect of unemployment rate on long term absences in two Swedish counties regarding gender difference. Their conclusions are noteworthy in terms of verifying some previous research. According to this study, for instance, blue collars have more absence rates than white collars and older employees have more long term sickness absence rates while short term absence is higher among young employees. They claim that the reason for the difference of absence behavior among young and old workers is due to positive correlation between age and prevalence of chronic diseases. However, the reason for short term absence among young employees is considered to be a result of *other* factors. These other factors may include work environment, psychosocial factors, wages, sickness benefits, risk of unemployment, educational level, gender, absence culture at work and cycles of business activity **(Knutson & Goine, 1998)**.

As seen in the table below (Table 2.2), there is a significant difference among women and men regardless of age. As supported by previous studies, Knutsson and

Goine also provide evidence that female employees are worse performers in terms of absenteeism.

Table 2.2 Long term sickness absence broken down by age and gender (**Knutsson & Goine, 1998**).

	Men		Women	
Age Group	Total No.	Sickness absence % (N)	Total No.	Sickness absence % (N)
16-34	11,343	2.3 (262)	19,237	3.2 (622)
35-44	8,156	2.9 (236)	13,533	4.9 (663)
45-54	7,530	5.2 (392)	11,912	8.0 (958)
55-64	4,735	10.9 (518)*	7,873	12.9 (1,012)*
16-64	31,764	4.4 (1,408)	52,555	6.2 (3,255)

* Mantel-Hacnzal test for trend $p < 0.0001$

Another result provided by them is that unemployment rate shows no significant association with absence among women as opposed to inverse relation between male absence and unemployment. The amount of absent days allocated according to occupations is given in Table 2.3 (for male employees) and in Table 2.4 (for female employees).

Table 2.3 Prevalence of long term sick leave and number of absence days in male occupations (**Knutsson & Goine, 1998**).

Occupation	Sick absence % (N)	Sick absence ^a % (95% CI ^b)	Absence days, median (25-75% percentile)
Engineers	2.2 (138/6,415)	1.9 (1.6-2.3)	285 (116-595)
Salesman (Wholesale)	1.2 (30/2,532)	1.2 (0.8-1.7)	299 (133-540)
Shop assistants	7.6 (134/1,772)	9.1 (7.8-10.5)	323 (125-691)
Working proprietors in agriculture and forestry	3.7 (81/2,201)	2.6 (2.0-3.3)	224 (104-456)
Loggers	6.9 (183/2,644)	6.4 (5.5-7.4)	251 (131-490)
Mechanics	4.0 (63/1,588)	4.7 (3.7-5.9)	276 (126-613)
Repairmen	3.7 (125/3,369)	4.3 (3.6-5.0)	418 (152-740)
Welders	5.2 (107/2,062)	5.6 (4.6-6.7)	403 (155-803)
Electricians	3.8 (91/2,391)	4.3 (3.5-5.2)	347 (119-595)
Carpenters	7.0 (192/2,740)	7.5 (6.6-8.6)	290 (119-525)
Storemen	6.0 (121/2,012)	6.3 (5.3-7.5)	342 (139-743)
Caretakers	6.9 (143/2,068)	6.3 (5.3-7.4)	343 (144-732)
Total	4.4 (1,408/31,764)	4.4 (4.2-4.7)	301 (123-596)

^a Age-adjusted sickness absence

^b 95% confidence interval

Table 2.4 Prevalence of long term sick leave and number of absence days in female occupations (Knutsson & Goine, 1998).

Occupation	Sick absence % (N)	Sick absence ^a % (95% CI ^b)	Absence days, median (25-75% percentile)
Primary education teachers	0.7 (15/2,241)	0.5 (0.2-0.7)	209 (119-266)
Pre-primary education teachers	3.3 (84/2,566)	4.8 (3.4-6.1)	207 (82-594)
Registered nurses	4.1 (132/3,226)	4.1 (3.4-4.8)	297 (100-630)
Assistant nurses	5.7 (498/8,790)	6.2 (5.7-6.8)	366 (116-697)
Childrens nurses	4.8 (226/4,748)	6.0 (5.2-6.9)	340 (138-621)
Home care personnel	9.9 (601/6,060)	9.5 (8.7-10.2)	335 (129-621)
Accountants	1.1 (22/2,026)	1.0 (0.6-1.5)	309 (96-801)
Secretaries	3.3 (73/2,191)	3.4 (2.6-4.2)	448 (154-817)
Clerical and related workers	7.7 (511/6,671)	7.2 (6.6-7.8)	354 (137-672)
Shop assistants	7.5 (419/5,620)	7.3 (6.6-8.0)	377 (139-705)
Kitchen-maids	7.0 (225/3,195)	6.6 (5.7-7.5)	278 (118-559)
Cleaners	8.6 (449/5,221)	8.2 (7.4-8.9)	330 (123-679)
Total	6.2 (3,255/52,555)	6.2 (6.0-6.4)	343 (125-664)

^a Age-adjusted sickness absence

^b 95% confidence interval

But one of the hypothesis remain supportless as they conclude that “the differences in sick leave between occupations could not be explained by age or

unemployment...other factors (work environment, psychosocial factors, wages, etc.) must be looked for as predictors of absence” (**Knutsson & Goine, 1998**).

Another occupational approach suggests that trades people and production workers are more prone to absence, probably because of the dangers of the job as well as low payment and relatively difficult working conditions (**Kenyon & Dawkins, 1989**).

According to another author “the proportion of non-absentees to absentees can vary considerably between occupations and this has implications both for the interpretation and for the statistical treatment of absence figures. For example, absence-free proportions vary from 75 per cent in automated industries to only 10 per cent among bank employees” (**Chadwick-Jones, 1981**).

Using monthly data for 1979-1993, **Audas and Goddard (2001)** investigate the interaction between absenteeism and unemployment in aggregate production. Their analysis based on macro data verify that these two factors are negatively related, meaning absenteeism rates of employees are expected to increase with a reduction in the unemployment ratio.

In another study, **Markham (1985)** investigates the existence of a relationship between unemployment and absenteeism. He runs a survey in three different levels; national, regional and organizational. Similar to the findings of **Behrend (1953)** in which he had surveyed British coal miners, Markham also finds a significant relationship between absenteeism and unemployment at the national and organizational levels and he concludes that national unemployment rate and absenteeism ratio of employees are inversely related. He states that during periods of economic downturn, a worker’s greatest fear is job loss and in order to prevent it, a worker makes extra efforts not to jeopardize employment. In addition, a downturn in the economy generally requires management to cut down on costs. “As a result supervisors may be more aggressive in controlling absenteeism. Conversely, when unemployment is low and the economy booming, job opportunities are more available, and employees usually can obtain work elsewhere” (**Markham, 1985**).

The study of **Boyar et al. (2004)** aims to find the relationship between absenteeism and work-family conflict; the interference of work and family responsibilities causing one of three nonattendance behaviors: absenteeism, leaving work early and tardiness. Neglecting the sections on leaving early and tardiness, their results on

absenteeism can be interpreted as quite interesting. Among 1600 assembly or inspection workers of a furniture manufacturing company in the United States, 432 workers have participated in the survey (69% women, average age 36.9). Their absenteeism criteria was determined according to company attendance records while WFC (work-family conflict) was measured by a questionnaire. The results display that although leaving work early and WFC are positively related, the relation between WFC and absenteeism is just the opposite. For those participants with high WFC rates, absenteeism rates are lower. They conclude that workers would rather leave work early than missing a whole day (Boyar et al., 2004).

Godin and Kittel (2004) have studied the association of psychosocial stress at work with absenteeism in four different companies in Belgium. Though they could not find a direct relation between these two factors, the authors conclude that it might be expected that bad conditions at work would lead to serious health problems thus causing long-term absences of employees (Goddin & Kittel, 2004).

Another remarkable factor that affects employees' absence behavior is the level of employment protection. In Germany, for instance, workers who have been in the public sector for at least 15 years and who are older than 40 years of age cannot be dismissed unless a severe misconduct occurs. This almost 'un-dismissible' level of job protection causes above-average values of employee absenteeism. According to a survey of 6311 participants, 362 of whom satisfy the high level employment protection criteria, (employees of both public and private sectors) it was observed that "among public sector workers, those with extended employment protection took on average 16.1 days of absence compared to 10.1 days among those without protection" (See Figure 2.2) (Riphahn, 2004).

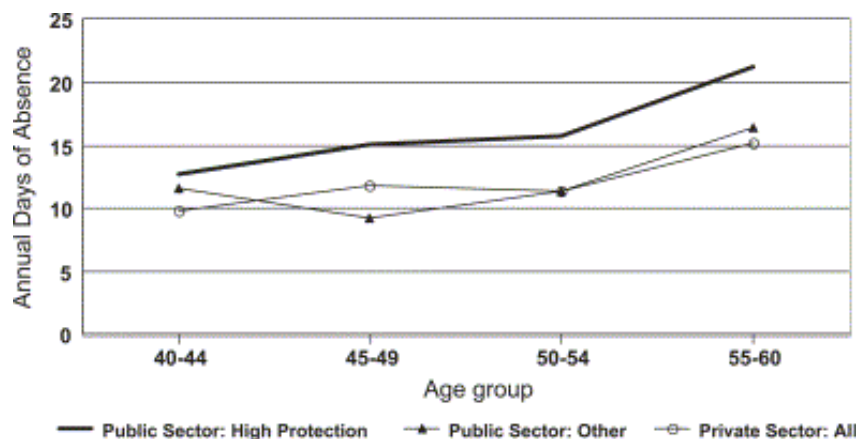


Figure 2.2 Days of absence by type of employment and age group (Riphahn, 2004).

In a latter study among 214 employees of a nutrition production company in Holland, **Bakker et al. (2003)** have found that job demands (referring organizational problems, work pressure, poor environmental conditions etc.) have a positive effect on worker absenteeism (duration) while job resources (pay, career opportunities, job security etc.) display a negative relation with absence frequency of employees. Another result of this study verifies the fact that age is positively related to absence duration. They conclude that “to reduce or prevent absence duration, specific job demands should be reduced or optimized. In order to lower absence frequency and increase commitment, the availability of job resources should be considered” (**Bakker et al., 2003**).

Sagie (1998) seeks a relation between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and absenteeism (voluntary and involuntary). He reaches to interesting conclusions such as “organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as their interaction, were strongly related to the duration of voluntary absence, but not of involuntary absence” and on the other hand, “intention to leave the organization was not related to the absenteeism measures”. He also notices that younger workers report more voluntary absence than older workers.

Harrison and Price (2003) utilize a more common criterion in negotiating absence: *proneness*. Absence proneness is defined as “a stable tendency for individuals to be absent or late, regardless of changes in work conditions” (**Harrison & Price, 2003**). Referring to absence proneness, they claim that the easiest way to predict future absenteeism of an employee is his/her past records of absence. However, regarding the success of previous research, they also remark the fact that “absence culture” can, too, be considered as a factor affecting employees’ absence behaviors. Absence culture, defined as “sets of shared beliefs about the custom, practice, and legitimacy of absence-taking and absence control in a work unit” is given as a mostly unexplored reason of individual absenteeism (**Harrison & Price, 2003**).

Another significant study that has a large sample size (3895 employees of a Finnish forest industry corporation) is **Vaananen et al. (2003)**. In their study, the authors aim to investigate the effects of job characteristics (autonomy and complexity of the job), physical and psychological symptoms, and social support from coworkers and

supervisors on sickness absenteeism. Despite being a research mostly based on occupational health issues, the hypothesis tested are noteworthy in terms of absenteeism literature. These hypotheses include:

- i) Low job autonomy and low job complexity predict sickness absenteeism.
- ii) Physical and psychological symptoms increase sickness absences.
- iii) Low levels of social support are associated with sickness absence and high levels of social support buffer the negative effects of job characteristics and symptoms on sickness absenteeism.
- iv) Regarding the gender difference in absence behavior, psychosocial factors predict sickness absence in both genders, but some work related predictors have a stronger effect on male employees, and the sources of social support may function differently in men and women **(Vaananen et al., 2003)**.

The study is based on a questionnaire survey on health and work environment and on sickness absence records. The sickness absences of participant employees are followed up for a period of 1 year 9 months from 1 July 1996 to 31 March 1998. Along with the primary etudes, the whole study is reported to take more than 3 years to complete. 30% of the participants are white collars and 10% of those are female. Despite measuring only long (4-21 days) and very long (>21 days) absences, the conclusions are interesting and worth mentioning.

Male employees had 8 days of absence on average while that of female employees is 12 days per year. Yet another result that verifies gender difference and higher female absenteeism. Job autonomy was found to strongly affect long and very long term sickness absence among men. However, for female employees job autonomy was associated only with very long absences. Job complexity, on the other hand, was related only to very long absences among men. It was observed that as job complexity increased, very long sickness absences of men dropped significantly (27%). As expected, physical and psychological symptoms were found to affect all types of absences for both men and women. Another interesting result is that while weak coworker support led to higher absence among men (both long and very long) it had no effect at all on female employees. On the contrary, the effect of supervisor's

support was found to be effective only for women in terms of long and very long sickness absences (**Vaananen et al., 2003**).

Johns (2003), concludes that absenteeism is higher among unionized employees, lower among better-paid employees and lower when unemployment increases. Similarly, according to epidemiological surveys, absenteeism is associated with migraine headaches and depression.

Chadwick-Jones reports that blue-collar employees tend to show higher sickness absences probably caused by worse work environment. However, in case of short-term absences, white-collar employees of a Canadian bank display higher absence values than those of steel workers (**Chadwick-Jones, 1981**).

According to a research among 226 employees (113 *leavers* and 113 *stayers*) of a life insurance company in the United States, absenteeism and voluntary turnover are positively related justifying the withdrawal progress: tardiness, followed by an increased amount of absence and finally departure from the firm (**Morrow et al., 1999**).

Regarding previous studies, Dalton and Perry concentrate their studies on determining the effect of collective bargaining contract policies on absenteeism. “Any organization, public or private, with or without formal contractual relations with organized labor may have absenteeism policy provisions that may affect employee absenteeism” (**Dalton & Perry, 1981**).

Starting from this point of view, they develop a hypothesis implying that the money earned by employees may have two significant effects: the substitution effect and the income effect. The first one states that as income increases employees may tend to be more absent as they can *afford* being absent, they might want to “buy” some spare time. The second one, however, indicates that as the money earned increases, employees will be more likely to attend their jobs and avoid absenteeism, as it will be more costly for them. What determines which effect will be dominant is the contract policy between the organization and the employees. Some companies pay a certain ratio of the normal salary to employees who report sick (sick benefits) thus making it ‘easier’ to skip job. In order to avoid fake sicknesses some organizations employ a doctor within the company or demand a proof of illness.

In conclusion, they prove the existence of a relation between organizational policies and absenteeism. Although some employee absenteeism is unavoidable, it seems that the organizations that pay operators a higher rate and allow sick benefits to accumulate at a faster rate have higher absence rates meaning the substitution effect becoming more dominant **(Dalton & Perry, 1981)**.

In a study among hotel employees (Human Resources Managers) in Central Florida, the underlying causes of employee absenteeism and turnover have been investigated. Despite the low number of participants the results are worth paying attention as they display the factors that effect employee absenteeism (See Table 2.5)

Table 2.5 Relative importance of factors contributing to absenteeism **(Pizam & Thornburg, 2000)**.

Factor	Mean ^b	Standard deviation
Employees' morale	4.4	0.59
Working conditions	4.2	0.61
Satisfaction with pay	4.2	0.74
Level of job stress	3.9	0.63
Adequacy of training	3.8	0.84
Job expectations	3.8	0.69
Level of compensation	3.8	0.70
Employees' education	3.3	0.99
Employees' demographics (sex, age and marital status)	3.3	1.1

^a N =61

^b 1-5 scale; where 1= Not important at all, 5 = Very important
and 3 = Neither important nor unimportant

As seen from the table above, various factors are considerer to affect employee absenteeism in changing magnitudes. According to HR Managers, employees' morale, working conditions and salary satisfaction are considered as most important

factors to prevent absence. However, these hotel managers do not agree with the hypothesis that age, gender and marital status affect absence behavior!

As displayed above, there are numerous factors that determine the absence behavior of employees. The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between employee absenteeism and company culture.

3. COMPANY CULTURE

3.1 The Culture Phenomenon

Organizational culture, or company culture, has been an area of study for many years. Nevertheless there exists no single universal definition of organizational culture. Different authors have suggested different definitions and models to assess company culture accordingly.

Schein (1985) defines culture as

A pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

According to **Hofstede (1991)**, culture is the software of the mind that manages mental programs which make up the patterns of thinking, feeling and acting. It is learned, not inherited and it derives from one's social environment.

Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) view culture as “a system of knowledge of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting” from the cognitive perspective and as “a system of socially transmitted behavior patterns that serve to relate human communities to their ecological settings” from the ecological-adaptationist perspective (**Gordon, 1991**).

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), claim that “culture is a way in which a group of people solves problems and reconciles dilemmas”. Looking through this point of view they define corporate culture as the way in which attitudes are expressed within a specific organization.

As seen above, the definitions are closely related but they are somewhat slightly nuanced. However, the most important point is the interactivity between culture as a general concept and company culture as a branch or a derivative of it. In areas that are mainly interested in organizations (structures, survival, efficiency, etc. of organizations) such as management, industrial psychology, industrial engineering,

and economics, the terms ‘culture’ and ‘company culture’ are highly integrated. One refers to the other in most cases.

Many studies have been done in that field and they are still continued by newer authors who try to bring up better models to further improve our understanding of organizational behavior. Once the ‘human’ aspect of organizations is clearly defined, problems like improving efficiency, performance measurement, budget control, employee absenteeism and many others are, supposedly, going to be solved more accurately and with much more precision.

Some researchers have developed their own models in order to assess cultural values and differences. **Ouchi (1979; 1980)**, for instance, utilizes a classification of three different organizational structures based on control within the organization. His model defines three different types of organizational relationships: Market, Bureaucracy and Clan.

In a market relationship, the transaction takes place between the two parties and is mediated by a price mechanism in which the existence of a competitive market reassures both parties that the terms of exchange are equitable. In a bureaucratic relationship, each party contributes labor to a corporate body which mediates the relationship by placing a value on each contribution and then compensating it fairly. The perception of equity in this case depends upon a social agreement that the bureaucratic hierarchy has the legitimate authority to provide this mediation... However industrial organizations can, in some instances rely to a great extent on socialization as the principal mechanism of control, making up the ‘Clan’ (**Ouchi, 1980**).

These three different types of structures are discriminated in certain aspects. Table 3.1 displays two dimensions that differentiate these three mechanisms.

Table 3.1. Differences between Markets, Bureaucracies and Clans in terms of normative and informational requirements (**Ouchi, 1980**).

Mode of Control	Normative requirements	Informational Requirements
Market	Reciprocity	Prices
Bureaucracy	Reciprocity Legitimate authority	Rules
Clan	Reciprocity Legitimate authority Common values & beliefs	Traditions

Another significant model to distinguish corporate cultures is that of **Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)**. These authors utilize two dimensions to define

different corporate cultures. These dimensions are: Equality vs. Hierarchy and Orientation to the person vs. Orientation to the task. Based on these dimensions, they define four types of corporate cultures:

- i) The family
- ii) The Eiffel Tower
- iii) The Guided Missile
- iv) The Incubator

The Family: It is the type of corporate culture that is both person oriented and hierarchical. In other words, it is a power oriented corporate culture in which the leader is considered as a 'father' who knows what's best for his subordinates. "The idea is always to do more than a contract or an agreement obliges you to do...The more the company does for your family the more your family will wish its breadwinners to do for the company" **Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)**.

The Eiffel Tower: This type of corporate culture is hierarchical too but this time it is task oriented rather than being person oriented. It is narrow at the top and broad at the base. Bureaucracy in this type is depersonalized. What is important is the distribution of roles within the company. It is the role, the status of the boss that makes him rule the others not who he/she is. "Each role at each level is described, rated for its difficulty, complexity and responsibility and has a salary attached to it".

The Guided Missile: It is task oriented and impersonal like the Eiffel Tower but there exists no hierarchy in the Guided Missile corporate culture. This culture generally draws on professionals and is cross-disciplinary. What matters is the completion of a task and until then each and every one is equal since their contribution to the problem is unknown until it is solved. Although there are project leaders and/or coordinators, their job is limited to assure the completion of the task at hand on time, and there is no strict hierarchy among such leaders and employees.

The Incubator: This type of culture also lacks hierarchy but unlike the Guided Missile, it is much more person oriented. Actually, it is totally based on personal desires to succeed. Most new-born, innovative small companies can be interpreted as having an incubator culture since most of them are formed by a group of individuals who share the same ideals and hopes that they can achieve what they have been

dreaming of. In an Incubator, it can be said that there is no structure at all. The aim of the organization is to provide a work space for the individuals to open up their minds and come up with brilliant ideas until they are ready to break the egg. Leadership in this type of culture is achieved, not assigned. The person with the most outstanding ideas takes the lead.

These four culture types and where they stand according to their dimensions are displayed in Figure 3.1 below.

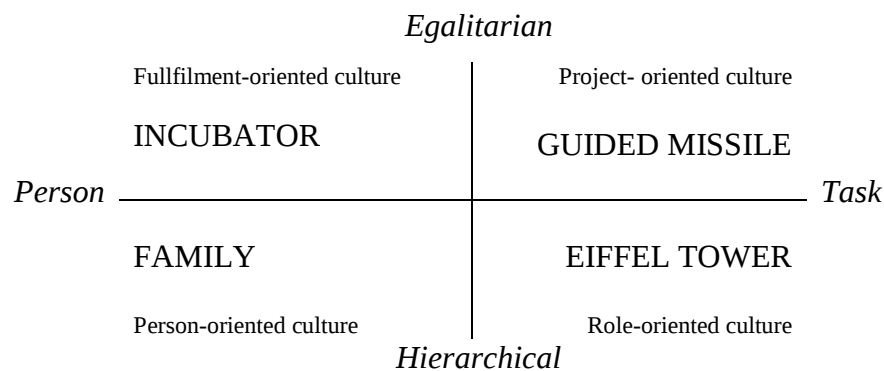


Figure 3.1. Corporate images (**Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998**).

It should be well noted that these corporate culture types are not actual equivalents of different culture types. **Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)** define different dimensions to classify cultural differences such as Universalism-Particularism, Individualism-Communitarianism, neutral-emotional, specific-diffuse, achievement-ascription. Nevertheless, the authors admit that corporate cultures can be easily defined in terms of these cultural dimensions as well. Moreover, they make a classification of nations according to their typical corporate culture type (See Fig.3.2)

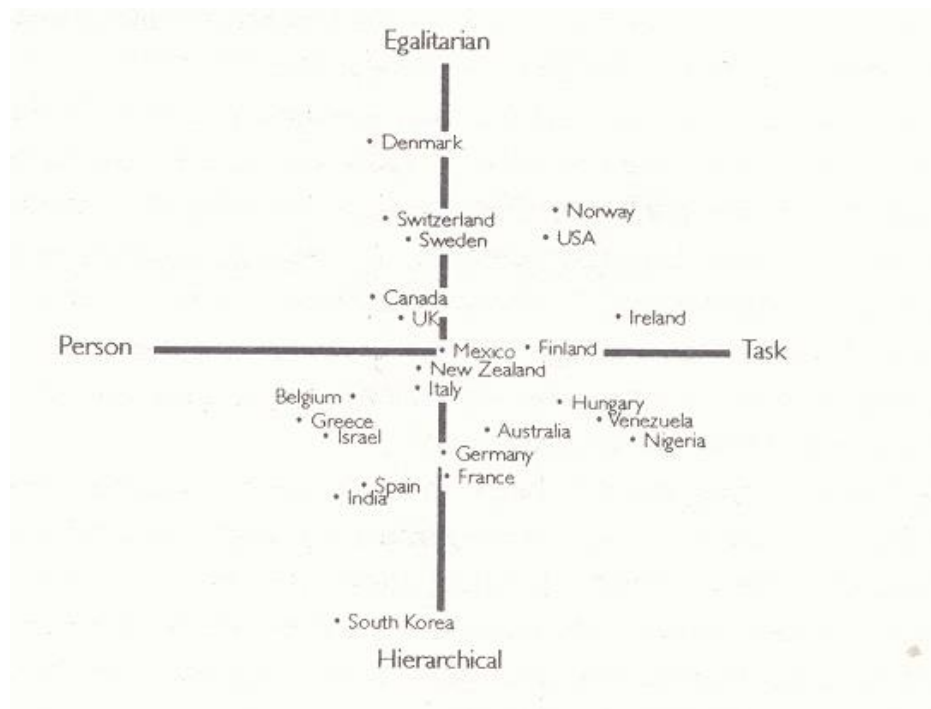


Figure 3.2. National Patterns of corporate culture

The figure above displays the common corporate culture preferences of different nations. However, as put by **Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)** such a classification can be considered as a general pattern among nations. But it would not be surprising at all, to observe different types of company cultures within the same country. In addition, in order to classify ‘corporate cultures’, the authors do not hesitate using ‘cultural’ dimensions as seen below in Table 3.2 Yet another example of how the terms ‘culture’ and ‘company culture’ are so intimate, so closely related that the measures of one can be used to define the other.

Table 3.2. Characteristics of the four corporate cultures (**Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998**).

	<u>Family</u>	<u>Eiffel Tower</u>	<u>Guided Missile</u>	<u>Incubator</u>
Relationship between employees	Diffuse relationships to organic whole to which one is bonded	Specific role in mechanical system of required interactions	Specific tasks in cybernetic system targeted upon shared objectives	Diffuse, spontaneous relationships growing out of shared creative process
Attitude to authority	Status is ascribed to parent figures who are close and powerful	Status is ascribed to superior roles who are distant yet powerful	Status is achieved by project group members who contribute to targeted goal	Status is achieved by individuals exemplifying creativity and growth
Ways of thinking and learning	Intuitive, holistic, lateral and error-correcting	Logical, analytical, vertical and rationally efficient	Problem-centered, professional, practical, cross-disciplinary	Process-oriented, creative, ad hoc, inspirational
Attitudes to people	Family members	Human resources	Specialists and experts	Co-creators
Ways of changing	“Father” changes course	Change rules and procedures	Shift aim as target moves	Improvise and attune
Ways of motivating and rewarding	Intrinsic satisfaction in being loved and respected. Management by subjectives	Promotion to greater position, larger role. Management by job description.	Pay or credit for performance and problems solved. Management by objectives	Participating in the process of creating new realities. Management by enthusiasm
Criticism and conflict resolution	Turn other cheek, save others’ faces, do not lose power game	Criticism is accusation of irrationality unless there are procedures to arbitrate conflicts	Constructive, task-related only, then admit error and correct fast.	Must improve creative idea, not negate it.

3.2 Hofstede's Model of Assessing Culture

As described above, many researchers from various fields developed their own models in order to obtain a tangible and commonly acceptable concept of culture (and company culture). Among these, the model of Hofstede comes up as an outstanding tool to assess cultural differences.

Geert Hofstede, a well known professor of Organizational Anthropology and International Management - having a master's degree in mechanical engineering and a doctorate in social psychology - has worked in industry in various positions for some years. Being the founder and first manager of Personnel Research Department of IBM Europe provided him the opportunity to carry out some large scale empirical studies. Besides having studied issues like budget control or economic performance analysis, the main concern of his studies is to figure out the "human" effect on managerial problems. Therefore, he based his researches on cultural differences among employees of different nations.

Culture, in his perspective, is "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (**Hofstede, 1999**). The main element of culture is, therefore, *values* or in other words the wide tendencies of preferring certain states of affairs over others. It is the perception of good and bad, right and wrong, rational or irrational. Hence, the relationships between members of a society are affected by these values since these values are responsible from making up some part of the collective mental programming. Noticing that organizations are also considered as a part of social life units in daily life, where people sharing (or not sharing!) similar values come together, the conclusions of such a study – which is mainly based on "human" effect – can be interpreted in terms of organizational behavior, or in other words, company culture.

His most astonishing study on cultural differences covers a 116,000 questionnaire-survey that was conducted among employees of an international company in 50 countries! The data collection period lasted four years (1968-1972). The aim of the study was to meet two objectives: "to develop a commonly acceptable, well-defined and empirically based terminology to describe cultures; and to use systematically collected data about a large number of cultures" (**Hofstede, 1983**).

However, as stated by **Sorge (1983)** in his review of Hofstede's book *Culture's Consequences*, "a problem of both conceptualization and practical research method is to decide whether it is possible to define a universal instrument to measure culturally specific values". Hofstede solves this problem through four independent dimensions that he defines. These are:

- i) Individualism versus Collectivism
- ii) Power Distance (large or small)
- iii) Uncertainty Avoidance (strong or weak)
- iv) Masculinity versus Femininity

The author used a scale of 0 to 100 for each dimension and evaluated the nations according to their scores. These dimensions are discussed in more detail in the following section.

3.2.1 Dimensions of Culture

3.2.1.1. Individualism versus Collectivism

The first dimension that Hofstede utilizes to evaluate cultural differences is the individualism scale. The term refers to the perception that one has to look after the interests of him/herself primarily and maybe the interests of his or her immediate family. In individualist communities the ties between individuals are very loose. "Individualist" employees are more intended to work in relatively smaller companies where they can become 'leaders'. Such employees prefer leading rather than following. Individualist behavior is considered to be the result of living in a free environment where the community gives the individuals large amount of freedom. The opposite case is called collectivism. In a collectivist atmosphere, individuals are more intended to be team players. The ties among the individuals are very tight. People are born into groups, collectivities such as a large family, a tribe etc. People are bounded by the rules and traditions of the community they live in (**Hofstede, 1983; Berçin, 2003**).

At the end of his survey, Hofstede managed to classify 50 participating countries according to a 0-100 scale where 100 being the most individualist community and 0 represents the most collectivist. His results are given in Figure 3.3.

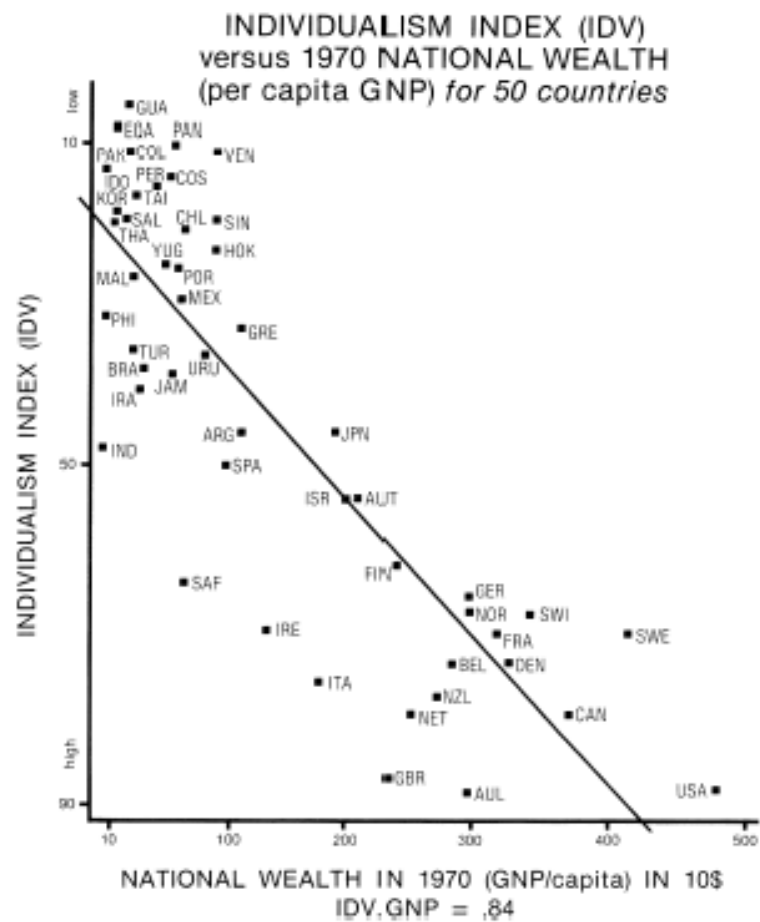


Figure 3.3 The position of 50 countries on their Individualism Index versus their 1970 national wealth (**Hofstede, 1983**).

Table 3.3 Key differences between collectivist and individualist societies (general norm, family, school, and workplace) (**Hofstede, 1991**).

Collectivist	Individualist
* People are born into extended families or other ingroups which continue to protect them in exchange for loyalty	* Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only
* Identity is based in the social network to which one belongs	* Identity is based in the individual
* Children learn in terms of ‘we’	* Children learn to think in terms of ‘I’
* Harmony should always be maintained and direct confrontations avoided	* Speaking one’s mind is a characteristic of an honest person
* High-context communication	* Low-context communication
* Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for self and group	* Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect
* Purpose of education is learning how to do	* Purpose of education is learning how to learn
* Economy based on collective interests	* Economy based on individual interests
* Diplomas provide entry to higher status groups	* Diplomas increase economic worth and/or self-respect
* Relationship employer-employee is perceived in moral terms, like a family link	* Relationship employer-employee is a contract supposed to be based on mutual advantage
* Hiring and promotion decisions take employees’ ingroup into account	* Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules only
* Management is management of groups	* Management is management of individuals
* Relationship prevails over task	* Task prevails over relationship

3.2.1.2. Power Distance

The second dimension, power distance, is the measure of how individuals deal with the fact that people are unequal. While some societies try to minimize the differences (economic, intellectual, etc.) among its participants, some others welcome such an inequality in power and/or wealth. In organizations, “Power Distance is related to the degree of autocratic leadership and the degree of centralization of authority” **(Hofstede, 1983)**. In communities with high power distance, individuals have more respect to authority and hierarchy as well as being unintended to participate effectively to any major decision as they expect an executive or a senior to handle this for them.

Looking through the organizational perspective, in small power distance there is small dependence of subordinates on bosses and a preference for consultation. Large power distance on the other hand means more dependence of subordinates on bosses and a preference for dependence **(Hofstede, 1991)**.

Scores of 50 countries are displayed in Figure 3.4. As seen below, there is a global relationship between power distance and collectivism: Collectivist countries display high power distance whereas individualist countries do not always perform small power distance.

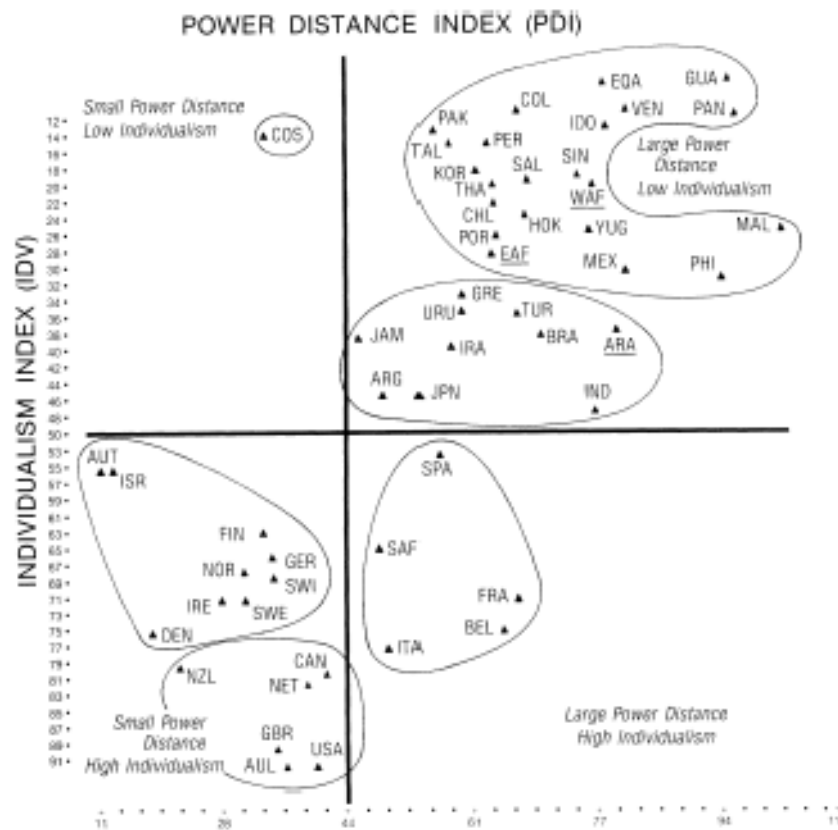


Figure 3.4 The position of 50 countries on the Individualism and Power Distance scales (Hofstede, 1983).

Table 3.4 Key differences between small and large power distance societies (general norm, family, school, and workplace) (**Hofstede, 1991**).

Small Power distance	Large Power Distance
* Inequalities among people should be minimized	* Inequalities among people are both expected and desired
* There should be, and there is to some extent interdependence between less and more powerful people	* Less powerful people should be dependant on the more powerful
* Parents treat children as equals	* Parents teach children obedience
* Childrens treat parents as equals	* Childrens treat parents with respect
* Teachers expect initiatives from students in class	* Teachers are expected to take all initiatives in class
* Teachers are experts who transfer impersonal truth	* Teachers are gurus who transfer personal wisdom
* Students treat teachers as equals	* Students treat teachers with respect
* More educated persons hold less authoritarian values than less educated persons	* Both more and less educated persons show almost equally authoritarian values
* The middle class is large	* The middle class is small
* Powerful people try to look less powerful than they are	* Powerful people try to look as impressive as possible
* Hierarchy in organizations means an inequality of roles, established for convenience	* Hierarchy in organizations reflects the existential inequality between higher-ups and lower-downs
* Decentralization is popular	* Centralization is popular
* Narrow salary range between top and bottom of organization	* Wide salary range between top and bottom of organization
* Subordinates expect to be consulted	* Subordinates expect to be told what to do
* The ideal boss is a resourceful democrat	* The ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or good father
* Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon	* Privileges and status symbols for managers are both expected and popular

3.2.1.3 Uncertainty Avoidance

“Uncertainty Avoidance can be defined as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations” (Hofstede, 1991). Thus it can be concluded that uncertainty avoidance is a measure of the reaction against “unknown”. Any novelty, anything new and risky, briefly any kind of uncertainty is either welcomed (weak uncertainty avoidance) or tried to be avoided (strong uncertainty avoidance). In societies with weak uncertainty avoidance, people feel relatively secure and they can take risks more easily. Individuals tend to be more tolerant against different opinions and behaviors. In communities with strong uncertainty avoidance, on the contrary, people display more anxiety against anything unpredictable. Such societies establish institutions that try to create security and avoid risk (Hofstede, 1983).

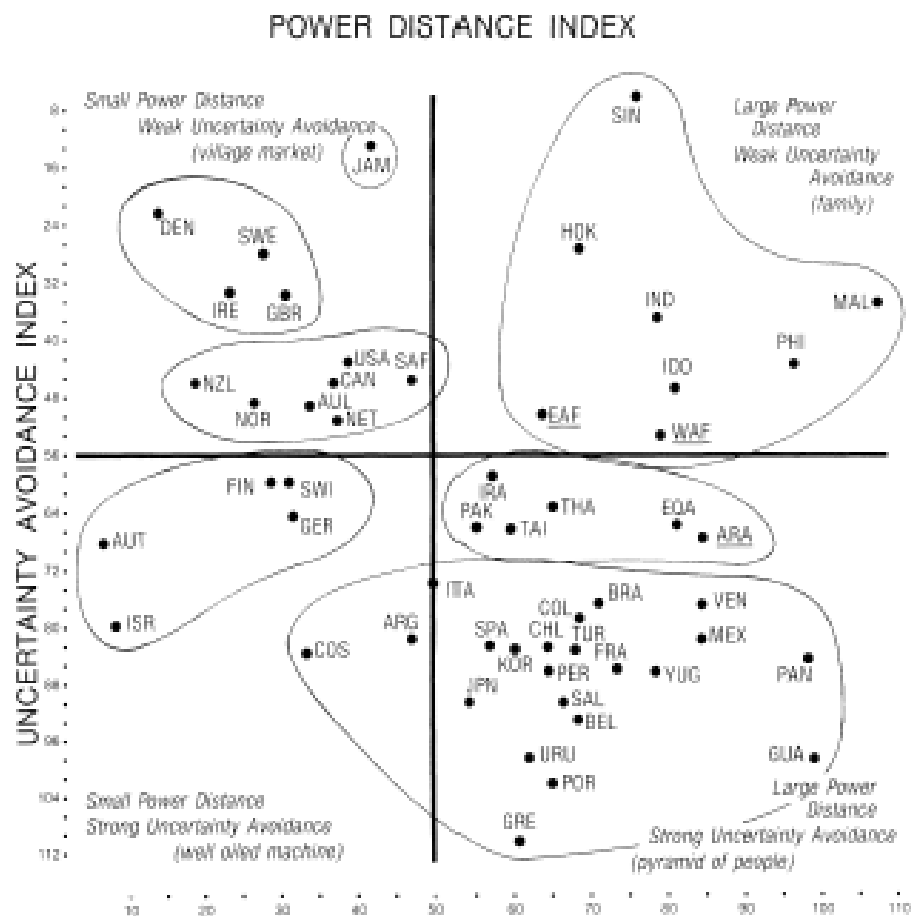


Figure 3.5 The position of 50 countries on the Uncertainty Avoidance and Power Distance scales (Hofstede, 1983).

Table 3.5 Key differences between weak and strong uncertainty avoidance societies (general norm, family, school, and workplace) (**Hofstede, 1991**).

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance
* Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes * Low stress; subjective feeling of well-being * Aggression and emotions should not be shown * Comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks * Lenient rules for children on what is dirty and taboo * What is different, is curious * Students comfortable with open-ended learning situations and concerned with good discussions * Teachers may say ‘I don’t know’ * Tolerance, moderation * Positive attitudes towards young people * There should not be more rules than is strictly necessary * Time is a framework for orientation * Comfortable when feeling lazy; hard working only when needed * Precision and punctuality have to be learned * Tolerance of deviant and innovative ideas and behavior * Motivation by achievement and esteem or belongingness	* The uncertainty inherent in life is felt as a continuous threat which must be fought * High stress; subjective feeling of anxiety * Aggression and emotions may at proper times and places be ventilated * Acceptance of familiar risks; fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks * Tight rules for children on what is dirty and taboo * What is different, is dangerous * Students comfortable in structured learning situations and concerned with the right answers * Teachers supposed to have all answers * Conservatism, extremism, law and order * Negative attitudes towards young people * Emotional needs for rules, even if these will never work * Time is money * Emotional need to be busy; inner urge to work hard * Precision and punctuality come naturally * Suppression of deviant ideas and behavior; resistance to innovation * Motivation by security and esteem or belongingness

3.2.1.4. Masculinity versus Femininity

“The fundamental issue involved is the division of roles between sexes in society...all social role divisions are more or less arbitrary and what is seen as a typical task for men or for women can vary from one society to another. We can classify societies on whether they try to minimize or to maximize the social sex role division” (Hofstede, 1983). Some societies tend to allow both genders to take different roles (feminine societies). Others believe there should be a strong division between what men should do and what women should do. In such a case, men are seen as the dominant “providers” whereas women have more service oriented roles as “care-takers”. Moreover, in such a society individuals are more intended to show off, they care more about performance and making money and they agree that “big is beautiful”. That latter case is named “Masculinity” and the opposite is “Femininity”.

Results of masculinity-femininity classifications are given in Figure 3.6.

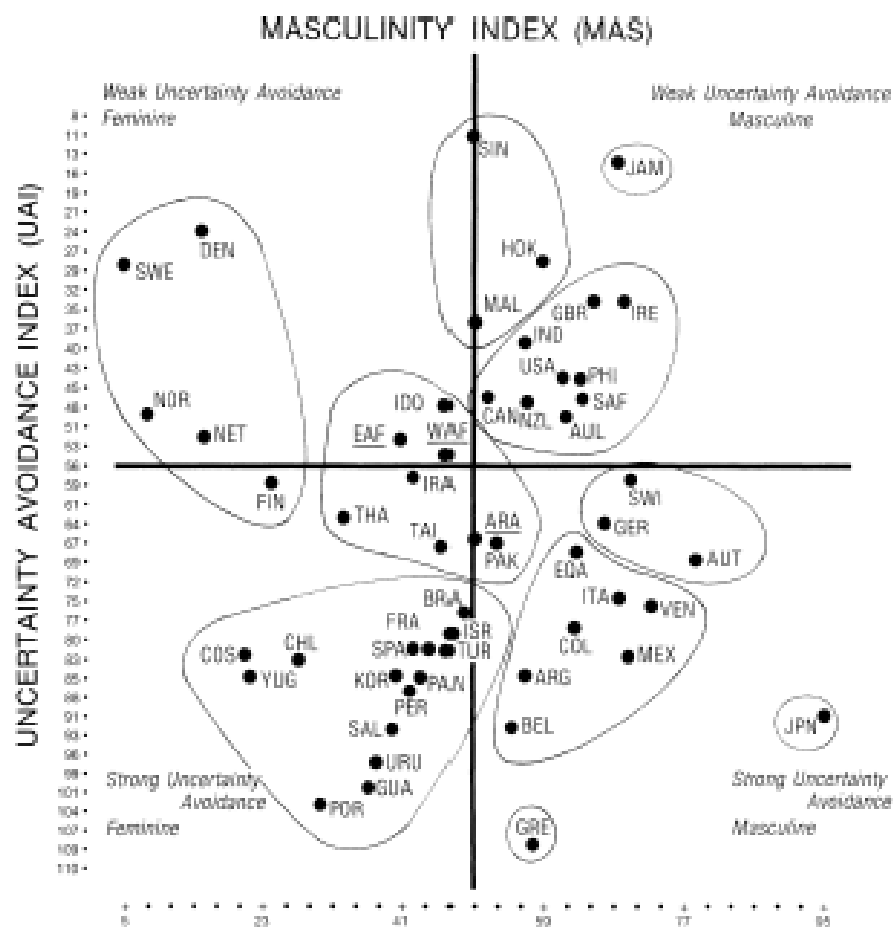


Figure 3.6 The position of 50 countries on the Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity Scales (Hofstede, 1983).

Table 3.6 Key differences between feminine and masculine societies (general norm, family, school, and workplace) (**Hofstede, 1991**).

Feminine	Masculine
* Dominant values in society are caring for others and preservation * People and warm relationships are important * Everybody is supposed to be modest * Both men and women are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships * In the family, both fathers and mothers deal with facts and feelings * Both boys and girls are allowed to cry but neither should fight * Sympathy for the weak * Average student is the norm * Failing in school is a minor accident * Friendliness in teachers appreciated * Boys and girls study same subjects * The needy should be helped * Small and slow are beautiful * Welfare society ideal * Work in order to live * Managers use intuition and strive for consensus * Stress on equality, solidarity, and quality of work life * Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation	* Dominant values in society are material success and progress * Money and things are important * Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious and tough * Women are Supposed to be tender and to take care of relationships * In the family, fathers deal with facts and mothers with feelings * Girls cry, boys don't; boys should fight back when attacked, girls shouldn't fight * Sympathy for the strong * Best student is the norm * Failing in school is a disaster * Brilliance in teachers appreciated * Boys and girls study different subjects * The strong should be supported * Big and fast are beautiful * Performance society ideal * Live in order to work * Managers expected to be decisive and assertive * Stress on equity, competition among colleagues, and performance * Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out

3.2.2. Utilization of These Dimensions in Management Theory

These four dimensions defined by Hofstede are tools to measure cultural differences or in other words “the differences in thinking, feeling and acting of people” (**Hofstede, 1991**). Hence, these dimensions are indicators of various social attitudes and human behaviors in different environments. Social attitudes refer to political view, interpersonal relationships, etc. while environments include schools, family and workplace.

As stated by **Hofstede (1983)**, “activities like ‘management’ and ‘organization’ are culturally dependent because managing and organizing do not consist of making or moving tangible objects, but of manipulating symbols which have meaning to the people who are managed or organized. Because the meaning which we associate with symbols is heavily affected by what we have learned in our family, in our school, in our work environment, and in our society, management and organization are penetrated with culture from the beginning to the end”. Thus it can be easily seen that those dimensions defined by Hofstede are sure to find applications in management theory.

Four dimensions, namely individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity, are also valuable tools that can be used to assess certain aspects of management. These aspects include Leadership, Organizational Structure and Motivation.

Leadership

Having made these definitions, one has to investigate the correspondents of those dimensions as behaviors in both daily and professional lives of an individual. In terms of leadership, for instance, the most relevant dimensions are individualism and power distance. A high individualism score means that the individuals of that society always seek what is good for their self-interests. In such a community, leading is about motivating individuals towards their own benefits which are supposed to be coinciding with those of the nation, society or the organization.

In a collectivist society, on the other hand, leadership is a group phenomenon. People are mostly loyal to their employers provided that employer awards their loyalty by protection.

Power distance dimension, in addition, can easily be considered as a measure of participative leadership. One can truly claim that power distance and the amount of participation are negatively related. In countries with high power distance (many Third World countries and also France and Belgium) employees do not want to participate in major decisions. They expect the managers to lead them autocratically. However if the society displays a collectivist character, participation may increase up to a certain limit. But again it is the leader who keeps the initiative.

Organizational Structure

Looking through organizational perspective, it can be said that “the decisive dimensions of culture are power distance and uncertainty avoidance” (**Hofstede, 1983**). One can define four different types of organizations depending on these two dimensions:

- i) The Pyramid
- ii) The well-oiled machine
- iii) The village market
- iv) The family

The Pyramid: It is a hierarchical organizational structure held together by unity of command and rules. Large power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance.

The Well-oiled Machine: Personal command is not necessary in many cases since rules settle everything. Small power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance.

The Village Market: No decisive hierarchy, flexible rules, and problems are solved via negotiation. Small power distance and weak uncertainty avoidance.

The Family: Undisputed authority of the father-leader but few formal rules. Large power distance and weak uncertainty avoidance.

Each of these organizational structures has its own benefits and pitfalls. However, it is not wrong to claim that the success of U.S, Dutch and Swiss multinational companies may be a result of not having any dominant structure among those given above. These countries are close to the center of the Power Distance - Uncertainty Avoidance graph (**Hofstede, 1983**).

Motivation

The theories and practices of motivation can both be considered as related to the individualism-collectivism dimension in the first place. In an individualist culture, the motivation of employees would be to satisfy their own needs and to acquire the things they consider necessary. Top motivators are “self-respect” and “self-actualization”.

On the contrary, in a collectivist culture the priority of individuals is to fulfill their obligations towards their community which can be their family, their company, or their country. Similarly employees of a collectivist culture would primarily try to satisfy the requirements of their team, department or project group.

Another significant motivator is security which is related to uncertainty avoidance. Strong risk avoiding cultures try to provide security in all means; social security, employment security, etc. Given these opportunities, the society demands loyalty and efficient work from its employees.

“The idea of ‘achievement’ and ‘challenge’ as in U.S. style implies two things: a willingness to some risks (weak uncertainty avoidance) and a need to perform, to assert oneself (masculinity)” **(Hofstede, 1983)**. Hence, one can claim that masculinity is also an indicator of motivation of individuals as it exhibits the extent up to which people are tended to show off. Femininity, therefore, can be interpreted as a measure of another motivator: interpersonal relationships.

Briefly, it can be said that three dimensions, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity are indicators of motivation. However, the question that arises at this point is that: “Can such measures of international culture be used to assess differences among company cultures within the same country?”

3.3. Discussion

As stated earlier, Company Culture is the system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting within an organization (**Allaire & Firsirotu, 1991**). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner define culture as a way in which a group of people solves problems and reconciles dilemmas. As seen from these – and any other- definitions, culture refers to a method by which a certain amount of people deal with daily life issues. Looking through this point of view, one can easily claim that the terms ‘culture’ and ‘company culture’ are not *that* different and in many cases they refer to one another since company culture is accepted as a derivative or a subset of culture. At this very point, the question that comes into minds is that: If they refer to each other in almost all cases, and if they are considered as equivalent terms by many researchers, can the methods of measurement be used commonly as well? Or, in other words, can we use a culture-measuring tool to evaluate company culture too?

It would be the first thing that comes to mind to object such a conclusion as it may sound ‘not satisfying’ or ‘not very scientific’. However, it should be kept in mind that science, especially engineering, is based on research not prejudice. Considering the fact that a research study is a direct result of curiosity and/or need, the first rule of going one step forward is daring to try the novelty.

The author of this paper, in no way, claims that measuring company culture via Hofstede’s four dimensions of culture is totally an adoptable tool to assess company culture. Nevertheless, it is undoubtedly worth trying. The results of this study may or may not justify such a method. But either way, it will be a totally new and significant addition to the literature on absenteeism and company culture.

4. THE PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the relationship between company culture and absenteeism. As seen in Table 4.1, the literature search revealed many related (work conditions, job complexity and job satisfaction) and distinct (unemployment, gender and age) factors that are considered to affect employee absenteeism. Some of these related factors can be either grouped (for example, the effects of salary, relations with supervisors and career opportunities can be investigated under the heading “Job Satisfaction”), or they can be divided into more detailed subtitles such as good or bad work conditions, noise, illumination etc.

Company culture is a term integrating many related absenteeism factors that have been previously studied by other researchers. However, literature search proved that there is no study examining directly the correlation between absenteeism and company culture.

As explained in previous sections, in order to classify different types of company cultures, four different dimensions will be utilized: Masculinity, Individualism, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance.

These terms are defined in a broad perspective by the original founder. However, in this study these terms will be defined in a much narrow sense since as the content grows larger, it becomes much more difficult to assess each and every characteristic, with limited amount of questions in a questionnaire for instance.

The first dimension of company culture, masculinity vs. femininity, is the measure of sexual discrimination or favoritism within an organization. As seen in many eastern cultures - and therefore in many eastern organizations - people may tend to classify sexes and assign different responsibilities to each of them. In many conservative communities, women are considered as ‘loving and caring mothers, kind and fragile lovers’ but no more. Such societies, though not welcoming women work force, tend to provide limited amount of capacity for women who wish to work. By no means, women managers or superiors are appreciated.

Table 4.1 Factors that affect employee absenteeism

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Effect</u>	<u>Reference</u>
Gender	Direct Effect: $Abs_w > Abs_m$	Allen (1983); Boyar et al. (2004); Sagie(1998); Johns (2003);
	Indirect effect: Gender differences effect abs. behavior	Ose (2005); Vaananen et al.(2003); Knutson & Goine (1998)
Bad work conditions (Noise, bad lightning, high physical performance etc.)	Positively related. Bad work environment causes higher amount of absenteeism.	Ose (2005); Chadwick-Jones (1981); Bakker et al. (2003); Vaananen et al.(2003);
Status and job complexity	Blue collars have higher absenteeism rates than white collars. More complex jobs cause lower absence rates	Knutson & Goine (1998); Vaananen et al.(2003); Chadwick-Jones (1981)
Age	Older employees have more long term absence (due to health problems); young employees have more short term absence	Knutson & Goine (1998); Bakker et al. (2003); Sagie (1998)
Unemployment	Negatively related. Low unemployment rate cause higher absence ratios	Knutson & Goine (1998); Audas & Goddard (2001); Markham (1985); Behrend (1953); Johns (2003)
Occupation	Various. The profession cause variations in absence behavior.	Knutson & Goine (1998); Kenyon & Dawkins (1989); Chadwick-Jones (1981)
Family Problems	Work-Family conflict, problems with kids and/or spouse cause increased tardiness or leaving early; but lower absenteeism	Boyar et al. (2004);
Psychosocial stress	No significant relation found but an indirect effect is obvious. Vaananen et al. proved a positive relation	Goddin & Kittel (2004); Bakker et al. (2003); Vaananen et al.(2003)
Employment Protection	Positively related. Less fear of losing job means higher absence. Note that Bakker et al. claim the opposite	Riphahn (2004); Bakker et al. (2003)
Payment / Salary	Negatively related. High salaries cause less absence	Bakker et al. (2003); Johns (2003)
Job satisfaction	Negatively related with voluntary absence.	Sagie (1998);
Intention to leave	Sagie claims no relation, but Morrow et al. prove a positive relation	Sagie (1998); Morrow et al. (1999)
Absence Culture	The reaction against absence in a work place does effect absence rates.	Harrison & Price (2003);
Relations with coworkers and supervisors	Bad relations and low social support increase absence. (For male employees only)	Vaananen et al.(2003);
Unionization and contract policies	Unionization and contracts that tolerate absenteeism lead to higher absence rates	Johns (2003); Dalton & Perry (1981)

Women career path is more limited than that of a man almost in all cases. Such an understanding, or *culture*, inevitably affects organizations that are founded or run in such a society. Gender discrimination becomes a part of the company culture and a daily issue in work life. Hence, in order to classify companies, the existence of sexual favoritism –could be in favor of men or women- is going to be measured via masculinity.

Masculine companies are defined as those who display clear favoritism in favor of one sex while feminine companies are those that believe in the equality of both sexes and show no gender favoritism.

Another dimension of company culture is individualism. It is the measure of understanding how much do (or should) people share and whether competition among employees is welcomed or not. In other words, a company that provokes its employees to increase their personal performance regardless of their communication and team work skills or a company that ignores interpersonal relationship abilities while hiring or promoting employees is said to be highly individualist in nature. On the contrary, a collectivist company is an organization in which employees care about each other and believe in the importance of working as a team. Team success is considered more important than individual progress in collectivist organizations.

The third dimension is power distance. It expresses the respect and need to authority and hierarchy within the organization. In an organization with high power distance, employees appreciate superiors who ‘know and lead’, not those who ‘ask and share’.

The last dimension, uncertainty avoidance, is an indicator of taking risks. High uncertainty avoidance means the company does not believe in novelty since it brings many unknowns and thus they avoid anything new and risky. On the contrary, low uncertainty avoidance means the employees and managers believe in entrepreneurship and innovation despite possible problems.

These dimensions are going to be the basis of cultural classification in this study. The organizations examined are going to be allocated depending on their characteristics; i.e. individualist, feminine, strong power distance and high uncertainty avoidance.

Absence behavior of employees is going to be based on *absence proneness* of employees. As defined in previous sections, absence proneness is “a stable tendency for individuals to be absent or late, regardless of changes in work conditions”

(Harrison & Price, 2003). Since obtaining quantitative data is almost impossible in such a study, benefiting absence tendency self reports of employees seems like a logical way of solving this problem.

5. HYPOTHESES

This study aims to test the following hypotheses in order to investigate the relationship between absenteeism and company culture.

Hypothesis 1. Gender affects absence behavior; women are more tended to be absent than men.

The literature search revealed a significant relationship between gender and absenteeism. Many researchers have concluded that absence behavior is different in men and women employees. Hence, in order to test this finding of other researchers, the first hypothesis of this study is that female employees have more absence proneness than that of male employees. Proving such a relationship among the respondents of this study will not only justify previous findings, but it will also test the reliability of this survey. In addition, it will investigate whether absence behavior difference among men and women is affected by being a white or blue collar employee.

Hypothesis 2. Women employees that work in masculine companies have higher absence proneness.

Masculinity vs. femininity, is the measure of sexual discrimination or favoritism within an organization. A masculine character indicates a clear discrimination in favor of either men or women. On the contrary, in a feminine environment being a man or a woman neither provides advantages nor creates any obstacles. Both sexes are considered as equal.

As expected, most common type of sexual discrimination in professional life is against women. Hence, the second hypothesis aims to define whether such a discrimination affects absence behavior of women employees or not. It is claimed that any kind of favoritism against women would cause a decrement in job loyalty and satisfaction, leading to less desire to go to work and more absence proneness.

Hypothesis 3. Individualism and power distance are positively related with absence proneness.

As a culture dimension, individualism is the measure of competition among employees. A company that encourages its employees to increase their personal performance regardless of their communication and team work skills or a company that ignores interpersonal relationship abilities while hiring or promoting employees is said to be highly individualist in nature. Personal success is the main target for employees in Individualist organizations. On the contrary, a collectivist company is an organization in which employees care about each other and believe in the importance of working as a team. Team success is considered more important than individual progress in collectivist organizations.

The author claims that as the individualism increases absence proneness of employees will also increase. Despite factors like competition, fear of staying behind the others, anxiety of lower performance; high level of stress and struggling against others would make employees more intended to be absent. Note that, whether they achieve it or not is not the area of search of this study. But simply, it is expected that higher levels of anxiety and stress in the work place would lead to higher absence proneness regardless of gender.

Power distance, the dimension of hierarchy and authority in the work environment, is also expected to positively affect absence proneness. In other words, as power distance increases absence proneness of employees would also increase. The reasons for making such a hypothesis are similar to those of individualism dimension. Much like interpersonal competition, strict authority is expected to cause psychosocial stress in the work place leading to less job satisfaction and an urge to be ‘away’.

Hypothesis 4. Uncertainty avoidance is not related to absence behavior of employees.

As explained before, Uncertainty Avoidance is the measure of whether the company is likely to take risks or not. High uncertainty avoidance means the company does not believe in novelty and innovation, since it contains so many ‘what if’s. So, they avoid anything new and risky. On the contrary, low uncertainty avoidance means the employees and managers believe in entrepreneurship and innovation despite the fact that some problems may emerge.

Uncertainty avoidance is a useful tool to define certain aspects of an organization. However, it is not likely that any change in risk strategies of a company would affect absence tendencies of its employees. As a result, it is hypothesized that uncertainty avoidance is not related to Absence Proneness of white collar employees regardless of gender.

6. MEASUREMENT METHODOLOGY

There are certain issues that make absenteeism a hard-to-measure factor. Those problems may emerge from reasons such as:

- People routinely underreport their true level of absenteeism
- Organizations may not keep adequate absence records or
- They may decline to share them with outsiders
- Unions are notoriously sensitive to research that focuses on absenteeism
- There might be need to study some specific kind of absence (e.g., absence due to childcare problems) and that sort of data may not be available (**Johns, 2003**).

Given these obstacles and considering the multivariate structure of the absence phenomenon, researchers have been in need of developing unconventional research methods and data sources. It should be noted that “our understanding of absenteeism has profited from the interest of a wide variety of academic disciplines including psychology, sociology, management, medicine, rehabilitation, economics, ergonomics, nursing, law, public health, and industrial relations. Each of these disciplines has its favored methodologies, data sources, and levels of analysis to shed light on absenteeism” (**Johns, 2003**).

In many of those studies, researchers have felt the need of and developed new methodologies. Psychologists, for instance, focused mainly on questionnaires and simulations while industrial relations and management researchers have both used qualitative research methods. Economists, on the other hand, have benefited databases derived from national samples to examine the impact of various factors on absenteeism (**Johns, 2003; Dalton & Perry, 1981**).

These various research designs include surveys, true and quasi-experiments, cross-level designs, within-person designs, contrasting group designs, policy capturing, meta analysis, epidemiology, and qualitative research. In order to obtain relevant and

sufficient amount of data, those researchers have benefited organizational records, self-reports, observer reports, diaries, household surveys (telephone and face-to-face), databases and archives, content analysis of arbitration decisions and magazine advertisements. For detailed explanation of these methods refer to **Johns (2003)**.

As presented earlier, there are certain pitfalls of making a study on absenteeism phenomenon. Obtaining reliable data is one of the major problems in this area. Moreover, if the population is as wide and complicated as it is in this study, obtaining quantitative reliable data becomes almost impossible. This study, for instance, covers more than 15 sectors and 29 different companies. Obtaining absence records of 179 participants requires, first of all, knowing their identity. However, people tend to lie about their real ideas about their companies if they give out their identity. Whether the companies share these records or not is totally another problem.

To cope with such an issue, some researchers based their absence data on self-reports of employees. No matter how suspicious it looks, a great majority of them have reached to the conclusion that self-reports can be used instead of organizational records without any problems (**Johns, 2003; Harrison and Price, 2003; Sagie, 1998, etc.**) As stated by Johns, an advantage of self-reports is that they permit the respondents to be approached in locations other than the workplace, thus relieving the participants of any fear of disciplinary or similar action against him/herself.

A good example of a study that utilizes subjective, self-reported data to measure absence is given in the literature; **Sagie (1998)**. The author makes a study among 140 clerks of an Israeli municipality of a small town. He uses both organizational records and self-reports of employees (via a questionnaire) in order to assess the relation of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and absenteeism. He demands the employers to report the type of their absence, whether voluntary (e.g., vacation, uncertified sickness) or involuntary (e.g., certified sickness, funeral attendance). Interestingly, he concludes “it is noteworthy that high correlations between voluntary absence and involuntary absence were achieved not only by objective data, but also when employee subjective self-reports were used” (**Sagie, 1998**).

Harrison and Price also utilize self-report data –via 2 questionnaires- to determine the effects of social settings on absence behavior of college students and they claim

that self-report data can be used as well, instead of university attendance records (**Harrison and Price, 2003**).

Steel (2003) claims that “absence researchers have devoted considerable time and energy to the development of purified absence measures...Circumstances often dictate that researchers must settle for research situations that are something less than optimal. Samples are frequently not as large as we would like. Host organizations may threaten to opt out of the study if long-term data collection is a component of the research agenda. A practical approach to research policy suggests the following strategy. Researchers should attempt to negotiate the most data-friendly set of circumstances that they can”.

Considering these examples, and looking through this point of view, the author of this paper utilized a questionnaire in order to measure Company culture and Absence Proneness.

6.1 Questionnaire Preparation, Pilot Study and Implementation of the Survey

The questionnaire consisted of 41 questions, which are divided into three sections. The first section contains 16 personal questions including age, marital status, professional experience, and educational background. There are also some questions that aim to define the company that the participant currently works for such as: “the sector of the organization that I work for is:”; “Total number of employees in my organization is:....” etc.

The second section contains 20 questions. These questions aim to measure the *perceived company culture* by the employee in terms of four dimensions: masculinity, individualism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. For each dimension, 5 questions are asked concerning some of the main features of company culture: hiring and promoting policies, interpersonal relations approach and socialization, career planning opportunities etc.

In the third and the last section absence proneness of employees are measured via 5 questions. Unlike questions about company culture, which can be found in various preceding studies in the literature, absence proneness questions had to be prepared from scratch. In order to make a correct, target oriented measurement and to avoid misleading, these questions have been prepared in cooperation with two

Psychologists from Doğuş University Psychology Department (For a sample of the questionnaire, see Appendix-I).

The first two versions have been unsatisfying. The third version of the questionnaire was tested among 16 employees. Some changes were made according to that pilot study and the final version was sent to 60 different companies from 20 sectors.

The sectors were mostly chosen in accordance with previous studies in the literature. However, regarding the uniqueness of this survey and regarding the fact that it is conducted in Turkey, some of the major Turkish sectors (i.e. Automotive, textile, construction industries) have been added to sectors pool. Each sector was thought to be presented by three organizations of different size (one large, one medium and one small size). These companies were determined by the author with the approval of advisor professor.

The questionnaires were sent via e-mail to pre-determined individuals most of which are somehow familiar with the study or those who are among the personal network of the author. Along with the questionnaires a cover letter explaining the purpose of this study was sent. They were requested to run this study among at least ten employees in their department and send back filled out questionnaires by one of the most appropriate way: e-mail, fax or cargo.

The population of this study was white collar college graduates who are currently employed in an organization. The reasons for choosing white collar employees are:

- i) Many previous studies have dealt with blue collar employees. However, the few researchers who investigate absence behavior among white collar employees have reached varying conclusions (for details refer to **Knutson & Goine (1998); Johns (2003)**). Currently, this population lacks sufficient amount of study regarding its absence behavior.
- ii) Most of the previous studies taking blue collar employees as a population have been conducted among workers of one or two major companies. Such an approach would provide only limited and *local* data about absenteeism. Nevertheless, in order to obtain a *wide view* and reach macro scale conclusions, the sample should be enlarged and varied. Hence, it would be much more appropriate to make this survey among limited number of employees from numerous companies; not among numerous

employees of limited number of organizations. However, the pitfall of this approach is that some of the factors that are claimed to affect absence behavior have to be compensated. Choosing a population of college graduate white collars compensates the effects of educational background differences, social status, job descriptions, and up to a certain limit work environment and salary differences.

- iii) Questionnaire surveys, if not conducted personally by the researcher, are poor and inefficient studies. Not only because of low rate of returns but also as a result of missing values in the questionnaires, numerous questionnaires become unusable. In order to prevent such a situation, the questionnaire has to be prepared with extreme attention and the population has to be chosen accordingly. A sample of college graduate white collar employees is considered to be an effective population to increase rate of return and avoid unusable data. Such a population would also understand the importance of such a study. Nevertheless, the rate of return is still too low.

Among those 60 companies only 25 of them replied back. 7 firms sent back 1 or 2 questionnaires. 18 of them replied with more than three. The total number of completed questionnaires was 130. However, this number was considered as ‘insufficient’ to reach to meaningful statistical results. Hence, the author made personal visits to four other organizations: three universities -one private, two public- and a hospital. During these visits, 49 other participants were convinced to fill in the questionnaire. Finally the total size of the sample reached to 179 (See Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Detailed classification of return rates

Survey via E-mail	Total # of organizations	60 (100%)
	Total # of organizations that replied	25 (41,67%)
	Questionnaire per organization ≤ 2	7 (11,67%)
	Questionnaire per organization ≥ 3	18 (30%)
	Number of questionnaires	130
Survey via Visits	Total # of organizations	4 (100%)
	Total # of organizations that replied	4 (100%)
	Number of questionnaires	49
	Total number of questionnaires	179

7. ANALYSIS OF DATA AND RESULTS

7.1 Respondents' Profile

General demographic data of the 179 respondents are given below. As seen from Table 7.1, total number of male respondents is 91 (50,8%) while that of females is 88 (49,2%).

Table 7.1 Gender frequency of participants

GENDER Gender					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Male	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
	2 Female	88	49,2	49,2	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

63 respondents are married (39 Male, 24 Female) while 113 respondents are single (50 male, 63 female). The age of the respondents is displayed in Figure 7.1. As seen from the figure the respondents are mostly under 30. One of the reasons for that is older employees are mostly in managerial positions and they are not likely to respond questionnaires either because of lack of time or because they find it useless.

Table 7.2 Marital Status according to Gender

ARITAL Marital Status * GENDER Gender Crosstabulation

Count		GENDER Gender		Total
		1 Male	2 Female	
MARITAL Marital Status	1 Married	39	24	63
	2 Single	50	63	113
	3 Widowed	2	1	3
Total		91	88	179

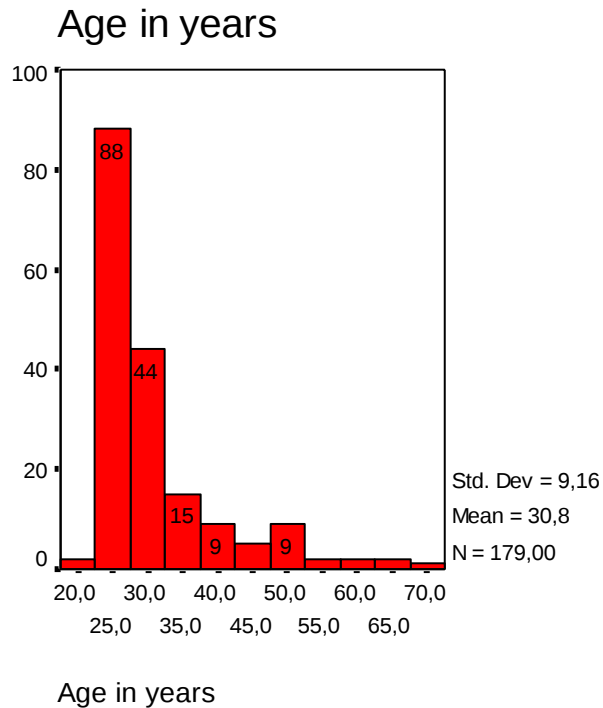


Figure 7.1 Age histogram

The lack of diverseness in age is compensated by the wide variety in educational background of the participants. 179 white collar employees have graduated from 34 different universities. Most frequent 8 of them are displayed in Figure 7.2 below. 81 of them hold a Masters Degree and 20 respondents have a PhD degree (See Table 7.3-5).

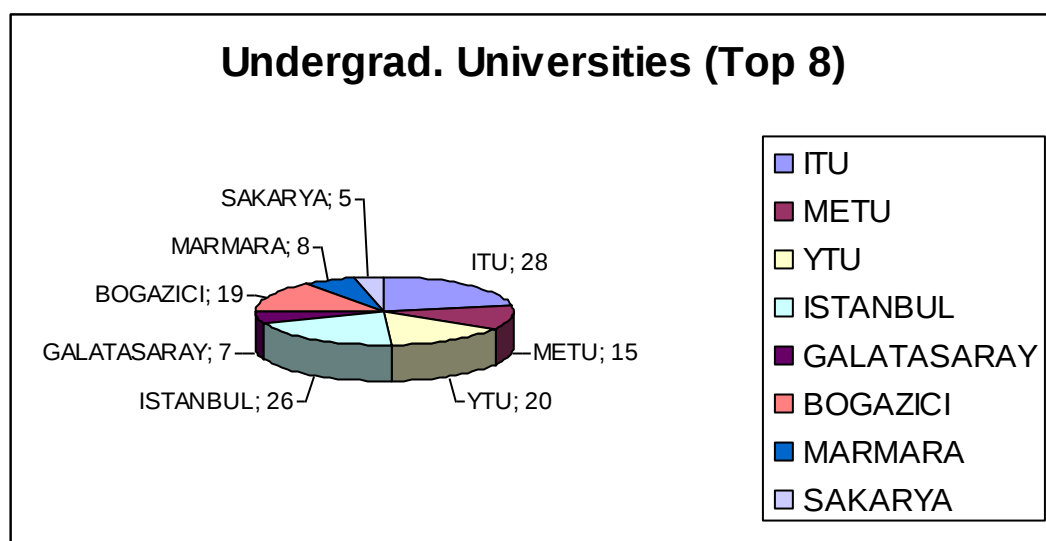


Figure 7.2 Participants Undergraduate Universities (Most frequent 8 Univ.)

Table 7.3 Undergraduate Universities of respondents**UNI1 Licence Degree from**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18.Mar	1	,6	,6	,6
	9 Eylul	4	2,2	2,2	2,8
	Anadolu	2	1,1	1,1	3,9
	Ankara	3	1,7	1,7	5,6
	Bagdat	1	,6	,6	6,1
	Bilgi	1	,6	,6	6,7
	Bogazici	19	10,6	10,6	17,3
	Boston	1	,6	,6	17,9
	Cukurova	1	,6	,6	18,4
	Dogu Akdeniz	1	,6	,6	19,0
	Dogus	5	2,8	2,8	21,8
	Dumlupinar	1	,6	,6	22,3
	Erciyes	2	1,1	1,1	23,5
	Fatih	3	1,7	1,7	25,1
	Gazi	4	2,2	2,2	27,4
	GS	7	3,9	3,9	31,3
	Hacettepe	2	1,1	1,1	32,4
	Istanbul	26	14,5	14,5	46,9
	ITU	28	15,6	15,6	62,6
	Joseph Fourier	1	,6	,6	63,1
	Koc	1	,6	,6	63,7
	Kocaeli	2	1,1	1,1	64,8
	Marmara	8	4,5	4,5	69,3
	METU	15	8,4	8,4	77,7
	Mimar Sinan	1	,6	,6	78,2
	Mugla	1	,6	,6	78,8
	Near East	1	,6	,6	79,3
	Nigde	1	,6	,6	79,9
	Os mangazi	2	1,1	1,1	81,0
	Sakarya	5	2,8	2,8	83,8
	Trakya	3	1,7	1,7	85,5
	Uludag	3	1,7	1,7	87,2
	Yeditepe	3	1,7	1,7	88,8
	YTU	20	11,2	11,2	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Table 7.4 Graduate Universities of respondents**UNI2 Masters Degree from**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	98	54,7	54,7	54,7
Anadolu	1	,6	,6	55,3
Bogazici	16	8,9	8,9	64,2
Dogus	6	3,4	3,4	67,6
East London	1	,6	,6	68,2
GS	3	1,7	1,7	69,8
Istanbul	7	3,9	3,9	73,7
ITU	9	5,0	5,0	78,8
Joseph Fourier	1	,6	,6	79,3
Koc	1	,6	,6	79,9
London City Co	1	,6	,6	80,4
Marmara	12	6,7	6,7	87,2
METU	6	3,4	3,4	90,5
Niğde	2	1,1	1,1	91,6
Sabanci	2	1,1	1,1	92,7
Sakarya	1	,6	,6	93,3
Sheffield	1	,6	,6	93,9
Vienna Tech	2	1,1	1,1	95,0
Wales	1	,6	,6	95,5
West Michigan	1	,6	,6	96,1
YTU	7	3,9	3,9	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

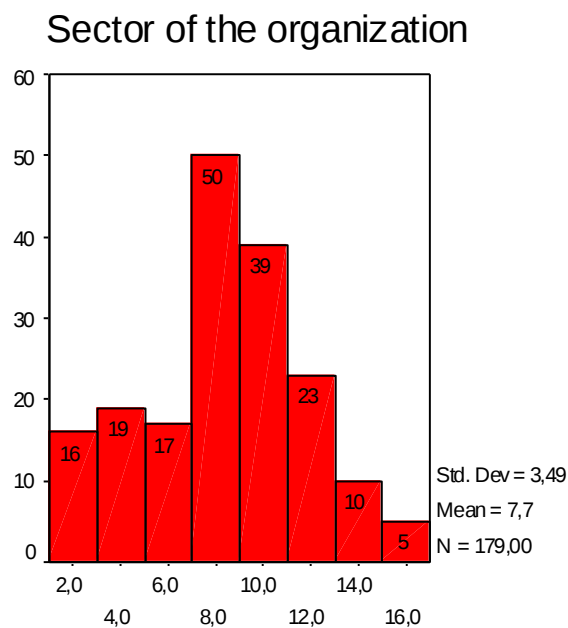
Table 7.5 PhD Universities of respondents**UNI3 PhD from**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	159	88,8	88,8	88,8
Ataturk	1	,6	,6	89,4
Bogazici	1	,6	,6	89,9
Cornell	1	,6	,6	90,5
Istanbul	5	2,8	2,8	93,3
ITU	4	2,2	2,2	95,5
Joseph Fourier	1	,6	,6	96,1
METU	1	,6	,6	96,6
Rens Polytech	1	,6	,6	97,2
Syracuse	1	,6	,6	97,8
Vienna Tech	1	,6	,6	98,3
YTU	3	1,7	1,7	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Sectorial distribution of respondents is given below. As seen in Table 7.6, the sample contains both manufacturing and service sectors. Each sector with more than 3 responses is namely given in the table. Some sectors seem to dominate the results as the return rate is much more than the others in those branches.

Table 7.6 Sectors of companies the respondents work for

SECTOR Sector of the organization		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Automotive	13	7,3	7,3	7,3
	2 Automotive (Supplier)	3	1,7	1,7	8,9
	3 Textile	9	5,0	5,0	14,0
	4 Machinery	10	5,6	5,6	19,6
	5 Pharmacology	5	2,8	2,8	22,3
	6 Food	12	6,7	6,7	29,1
	7 Education	44	24,6	24,6	53,6
	8 Retail	6	3,4	3,4	57,0
	9 Construction	32	17,9	17,9	74,9
	10 White goods	7	3,9	3,9	78,8
	11 Banking&Finance	9	5,0	5,0	83,8
	12 Other	14	7,8	7,8	91,6
	13 Logistics	5	2,8	2,8	94,4
	14 Health	5	2,8	2,8	97,2
	15 Insurance	5	2,8	2,8	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	



Sector of the organization

Figure 7.3 Sectors histogram

Table 7.7 Contract type of respondents

CONTR Type of contract					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 1 year contract	43	24,0	24,0	24,0
	2 2-3 years contract	4	2,2	2,2	26,3
	3 Life long employment	108	60,3	60,3	86,6
	4 Hourly paid	2	1,1	1,1	87,7
	5 No official contract	22	12,3	12,3	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Another interesting group of data is the contract type of employees (See Table 7.7). The survey reveals some unexpected results such that 22 white collar employees work without any official contract which means they are not officially employed. 2 employees, on the other hand, are hourly paid. Life long employment implies that employees sign a contract with no time limit, and that they have employment guarantee up to a certain level (For other statistical data see Appendix- II).

Table 7.8 displays the size of the organizations. As seen below, participants' organizations are quite large and thus it can be claimed that these organizations indeed have their own characteristics, their own rules and system of understanding, or in other words their own *culture*.

Table 7.8 Organization sizes

STAFF Total number of staff in the organization					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Between 1-25	23	12,8	12,8	12,8
	2 Between 25-100	29	16,2	16,2	29,1
	3 Between 100-500	48	26,8	26,8	55,9
	4 Between 500-1000	25	14,0	14,0	69,8
	5 More than 1000	54	30,2	30,2	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Demographic data of the respondents is as given above. However, the crucial part of this study is determining the relationship between absenteeism and company culture. The results of hypothesis tests are given in the next section.

7.2 Hypothesis Tests and Results

Hypothesis 1. Gender affects absence behavior; women are more tended to be absent than men.

In order to define the absence behavior of respondents in this study, a string variable (ABSif) was defined. This variable is valued as ‘Low’ or ‘High’ according to the total absence proneness score (the total score of five absence questions in 1-5 scale) of respondents. If the total value of ABS (total score variable) is below 12, the variable ABSif is assigned the value ‘Low’. Otherwise it is assigned ‘High’, indicating the respondent has a relatively high absence proneness.

Table 7.9 displays the frequency of male and female employees’ absence proneness values. Among 91 male respondents, only 43 of them (47%) display high absence proneness. However, the same value for female employees is 54 (61%). As seen in Figure 7.4, there is a significant difference among absence behavior of men and women.

Table 7.9 Absence Proneness of male and female employees

ENDER Gender * ABSIF Absence Pronness (Low/High) Crosstabulation

			ABSIF Absence Pronness (Low/High)		Total
			High	Low	
GENDER Gender	1 Male	Count	43	48	91
		% within GENDER Gender	47,3%	52,7%	100,0%
	2 Female	Count	54	34	88
		% within GENDER Gender	61,4%	38,6%	100,0%
Total		Count	97	82	179
		% within GENDER Gender	54,2%	45,8%	100,0%

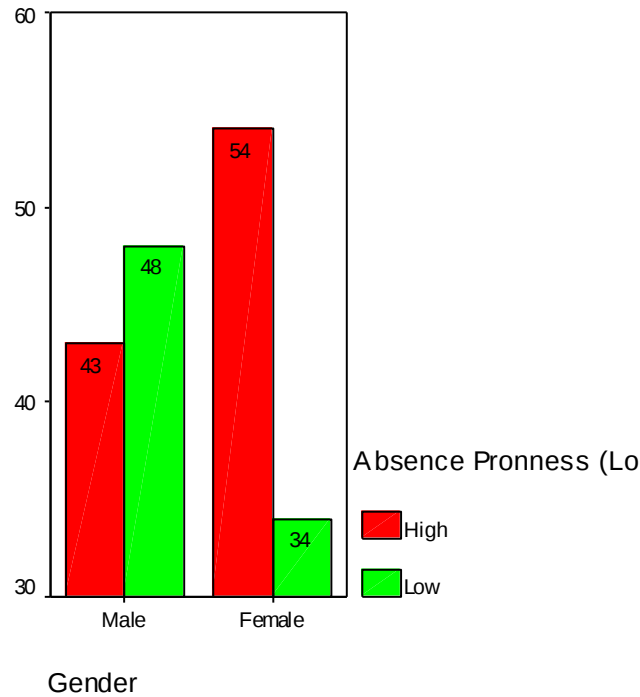


Figure 7.4 Absence Proneness(High / Low) of male and female employees

The distributions of average absence proneness values of both men and women are given in Appendix-II. In order to determine the relationship between Gender and Absence statistically, the following hypothesis test is conducted:

$$H_0 : \mu_{\text{males}} = \mu_{\text{females}} \quad (\mu: \text{average absence proneness score of 5 questions})$$

$$H_1: \mu_{\text{males}} < \mu_{\text{females}}$$

The null hypothesis claims that average absence scores of male and female employees are equal. The alternative hypothesis is that average absence score of females is higher than that of males. If the null hypothesis is rejected then it can be concluded that female employees are worse performers in terms of absenteeism.

In this hypothesis test, MS Excel software is used. The results are given below.

Table 7.10 Hypothesis Test values

	Males	Females
μ	2.265934	2.579545
S	0.75486861	0.937122
S^2	0.569826618	0.878197
n	91	88

t_0 value is then calculated as -2.46083. For 99% confidence interval, $t_{0,001,177} = 2.326$. Since $t_0 < -t_{\alpha, v}$. The null hypothesis is thus rejected. Hence the hypothesis that female employees have more absence proneness than male employees is justified statistically with this study.

Hypothesis 2. Women employees that work in masculine companies have higher absence proneness.

As stated before, 88 of the 179 respondents are women employees. However, the companies that these women work for (or how they see their companies) changes. Table 7.11 displays the frequency of masculinity-gender relation. As seen below, among 88 women, 52 of them find their company as masculine, or in other words, they believe that there exists a discrimination based on gender in their companies. The question is “Does working in a masculine company affect absence behavior of women employees?”

Table 7.11 Gender-Masculinity cross tabulation

GENDER Gender * MASIF Masculinity (Masculine/Feminine) Crosstabulation				
Count				
		MASIF Masculinity (Masculine/Feminine)		Total
		Feminine	Masculin	
GENDER	1 Male	59	32	91
Gender	2 Female	36	52	88
Total		95	84	179

Again a hypothesis test is conducted to evaluate if such a conclusion can be reached. This time the sample is female employees and the hypothesis is:

$H_0 : \mu_{f-fem} = \mu_{f-mas}$ (μ_{f-fem} : average absence proneness score of women who work in feminine organizations)

$H_1 : \mu_{f-fem} < \mu_{f-mas}$ (μ_{f-mas} : average absence proneness score of women who work in masculine organizations)

Table 7.12 Hypothesis Test values

	Feminine	Masculine
μ	1.7	3.188462
S	0.452296	0.658475
S^2	0.204571429	0.433589744
n	36	52

t_0 value is then calculated as -12.5705 . For 99% confidence interval, $t_0 < -t_{0,001,86}$. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected. So it can be said that masculinity of the organizational culture indeed has a negative affect on women's absence.

This result was also evaluated via the SPSS 11.0 software. Firstly a correlation among MEANABS and MEANMAS variables was sought. The results display a high correlation among these two variables (See Table 7.13). To further evaluate the relationship, linear regression analysis was conducted. Not surprisingly the R square value is considerably high and the results are all significant. As seen from the analysis, absenteeism and masculinity are positively related for female employees. In other words, as the masculinity of the organization increases, women become more tended to be absent.

Table 7.13 Correlation between Absence Proneness (MEANABS) and Masculinity (MEANMAS)

Correlations		MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	1	,709**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,	,000
	N	88	88
MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	Pearson Correlation	,709**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,000	,
	N	88	88

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Table 7.14 Model Summary**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,709 ^a	,503	,497	,66481

a. Predictors: (Constant), MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)

Table 7.15 ANOVA Table**ANOVA^b**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38,394	1	38,394	86,869	,000 ^a
	Residual	38,010	86	,442		
	Total	76,403	87			

a. Predictors: (Constant), MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)

b. Dependent Variable: MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)

Table 7.16 Regression coefficients**Coefficients^a**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,806	,203		3,971	,000
	MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	,739	,079	,709	9,320	,000

a. Dependent Variable: MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)

Hypothesis 3. Individualism and power distance are positively related with absence proneness.

When no gender clustering is done, the total sample size is $n = 179$.

Among these 179 respondents, 149 of them find their organizations as collectivist. Only 30 respondents believe that they work in an individualist organizational culture (see Figure 7.5). Unfortunately the sample size for testing the effect of individualism is considerably low. Moreover, Figure 7.6 displays no obvious relation between absence proneness and individualism since absence proneness levels (High/Low) are very close for both types of organizations. Nevertheless, a hypothesis test was conducted anyway.

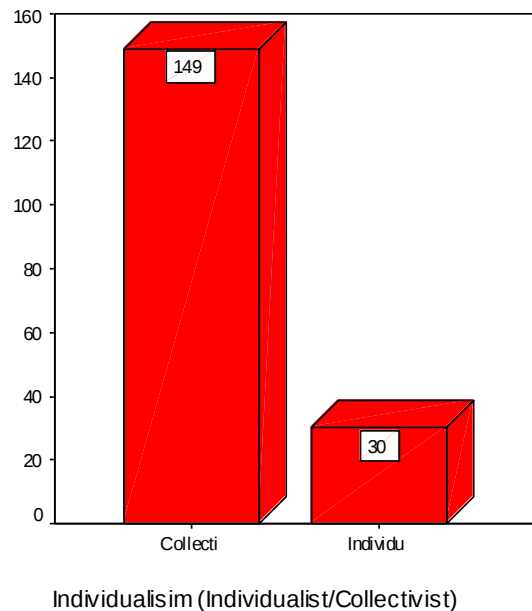


Figure 7.5 Total number of Individualist and Collectivist cultures

Table 7.17 Cross tabulation of Absence Proneness and Individualism (Both genders)

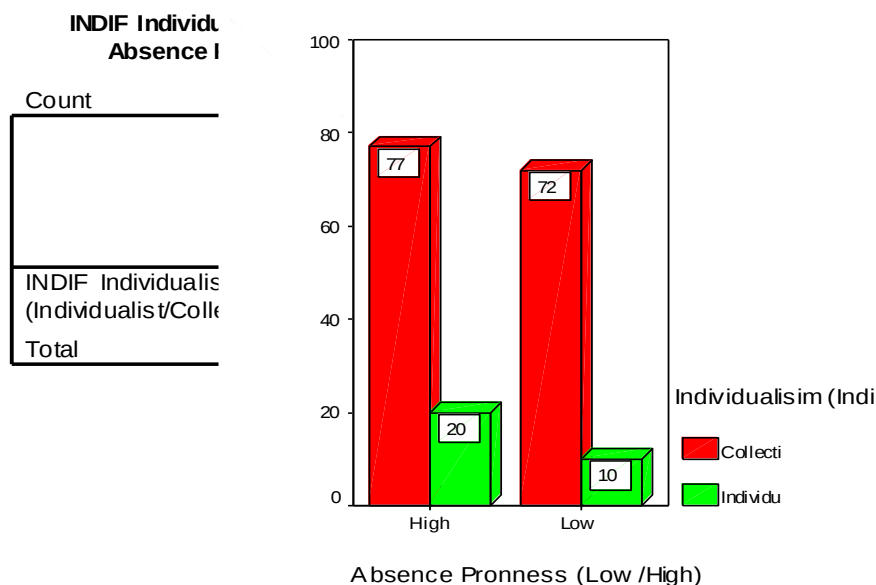


Figure 7.6 Total number of Individualist and Collectivist cultures

Our hypothesis test is as given below:

$H_0 : \mu_{coll} = \mu_{ind}$ (μ_{coll} : average absence proneness score of employees who work in collectivist organizations)

$H_1: \mu_{coll} < \mu_{ind}$ (μ_{ind} : average absence proneness score of employees who work in individualist organizations)

The values for the hypothesis test are calculated via MS Excel software (See Table 7.18)

Table 7.18 Hypothesis Test values

	Collectivist	Individualist
μ	2,248322148	2,466666667
S	0,75396287	0,85392939
S^2	0,56846	0,729195
n	149	30

For the given data above, t_0 value is calculated as 0,4487. $t_0 < -t_{0.05,177}$ rejection criteria cannot be fulfilled. Hence, we accept the null hypothesis and thus conclude that individualism is not a factor that affects employees' absence proneness. In order to ensure this result, an additional correlation analysis was made. The correlation result (including both genders) is given below. As seen from Table 7.19, there is not a significant relationship between Individualism and Absence proneness. However, note that the correlation coefficient has a negative value, indicating a negative relation with MEANABS and MEANIND. Since higher scores of MEANIND variable would mean a more collectivist organizational structure, this – although insignificant- relationship in a way supports our hypothesis. Because this negative relation means that as the organization becomes more collectivist, absence proneness of employees would diminish.

Table 7.19 Correlation between MEANIND and MEANABS (Both genders)

Correlations

			MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	MEANIND Individualism (average)
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation		1	-,105
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,	,081
	N		179	179
MEANIND Individualism (average)	Pearson Correlation		-,105	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,081	,
	N		179	179

Although the results regarding both genders are barely satisfying, a gender clustering was made. Correlations between individualism and male and female absence proneness were separately investigated. As seen below neither men's nor women's absence behavior display a statistically meaningful relationship with individualism.

Table 7.20 Correlation between MEANIND and MEANABS (Men)

Correlations (MALE EMPLOYEES ONLY)

			MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	MEANIND Individualism (average)
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation		1	,018
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,	,433
	N		91	91
MEANIND Individualism (average)	Pearson Correlation		,018	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,433	,
	N		91	91

Table 7.21 Correlation between MEANIND and MEANABS (Women)

Correlations (FEMALE EMPLOYEES ONLY)

			MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	MEANIND Individualism (average)
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation		1	-,159
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,	,069
	N		88	88
MEANIND Individualism (average)	Pearson Correlation		-,159	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,069	,
	N		88	88

However, it is an interesting point that increasing individualism within the organization causes opposite effects among men and women. As seen from Table 7.20 and 7.21, an increment in MEANIND (that is, becoming more collectivist) might be expected to increase absence proneness of men. On the contrary, for females it is just the opposite: as collectivist character of the company increases women's tendency to be absent is expected to fall. Perhaps it would not be wrong to conclude that though women's loyalty to their work increases in such an environment, white collar male employees are more intended to be absent in a collectivist (friendly and family-like) organization. Note that these conclusions are only personal evaluations based on literature survey and hands-on experience during the survey. Statistically these data are not meaningful at all.

The second part of our hypothesis deals with power distance. Logically, increased amount of hierarchy in the organization would cause higher levels of stress and dissatisfaction among employees and managers. Hence, absence proneness of both men and women is expected to increase.

Much like individualism, power distance dimension does not display a beneficial variation too. As seen below, among 179 respondents, only 40 of them (22.3%) claim that they work in a non-hierarchical environment.

Table 7.22 Power Distance Frequencies

PDIF Power Distance (Low/High)					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	P.D. Hig	139	77,7	77,7	77,7
	P.D. Low	40	22,3	22,3	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

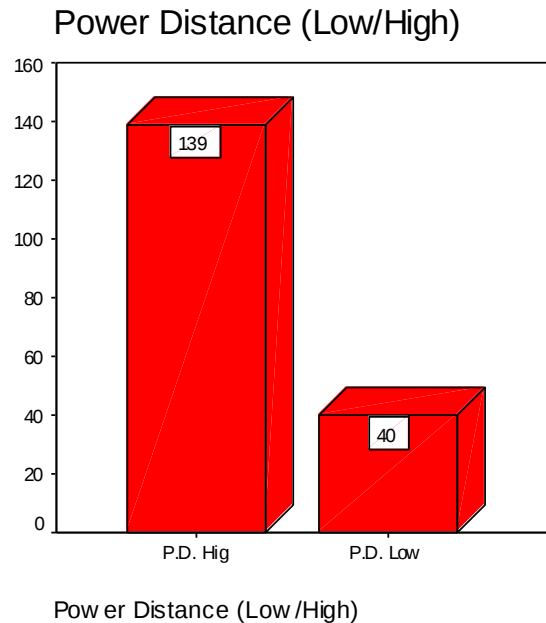


Figure 7.7 Power Distance Bar Chart

The results indicate that Turkish companies are more likely to be collectivist and to have high power distance. But what is sought here is a relationship –if any- among power distance and absence proneness of white collar employees. To investigate it, two different analyses have been made: a hypothesis test and a correlation analysis. The results are given below.

Similar to the previous hypothesis test, the null and the alternative hypotheses are described as:

$H_0 : \mu_{pdlow} = \mu_{pdhigh}$ (μ_{pdhigh} : average absence proneness score of employees who work in a high power distance environment)

$H_1 : \mu_{pdlow} < \mu_{pdhigh}$ (μ_{pdlow} : average absence proneness score of employees who work in a low power distance environment)

Once again, the values for the hypothesis test are calculated via MS Excel software.

Table 7.23 Hypothesis Test values

	PD Low	PD High
μ	2,465	2,233093525
S	0,816983194	0,755500457
S ²	0,66746	0,57078
n	40	139

For the given data above, t_0 value is calculated as 1.608 $< -t_{0.05,177}$. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted and we conclude that power distance is not a factor that affects employees' absence proneness.

Correlation analysis is also in accordance with this conclusion. Unfortunately power distance and absenteeism do not seem correlated. None of the 3 analysis (for both genders, for males only, for females only) provide statistically meaningful results.

Table 7.24 Correlation results between Power Distance and Absence Proneness (both genders)**Correlations**

		MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation	1	-,006
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,	,467
	N	179	179
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	-,006	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,467	,
	N	179	179

Table 7.25 Correlation results between Power Distance and Absence Proneness (Women)**Correlations (Female)**

		MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation	1	,096
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,	,186
	N	88	88
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	,096	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,186	,
	N	88	88

Table 7.26 Correlation results between Power Distance and Absence Proneness (Men)

Correlations (men)

			MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation		1	-,133
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,	,104
	N		91	91
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation		-,133	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,104	,
	N		91	91

Hypothesis 4. Uncertainty avoidance (UA) is not related to absence behavior of employees.

As defined before, the perception and acceptance of risk within an organization is measured via uncertainty avoidance. High uncertainty avoidance would refer to strong fear of unknown and risk while weak UA would mean the organization is innovative and daring to take risks.

The uncertainty avoidance evaluation of respondents is given below.

Table 7.27 Uncertainty Avoidance Frequencies

UAIF Uncertainty Avoidance (Weak/Strong)					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strong U	114	63,7	63,7	63,7
	Weak UA	65	36,3	36,3	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

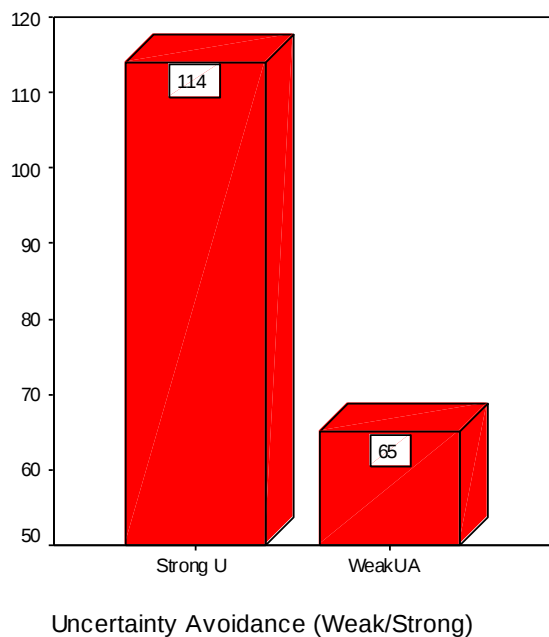


Figure 7.8 Uncertainty Avoidance Bar Chart

As seen above, more than 60% of respondents believe that their company is tended to avoid any risks and uncertainties.

Although uncertainty avoidance is an important cultural dimension to define any entity, it is not expected to affect employee absenteeism in a significant way.

In order to test this hypothesis, a correlation between mean values of uncertainty avoidance and absence proneness was sought. As seen from Table 7.28, such a correlation does not exist. The same result is also verified (naturally) by regression analysis.

Table 7.28 Correlation between Uncertainty Avoidance and Absence Proneness

Correlations			MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation		1	,090
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,	,116
	N		179	179
MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	Pearson Correlation		,090	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,116	,
	N		179	179

Table 7.29 Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,090 ^a	,008	,002	,86039

a. Predictors: (Constant), MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)

Table 7.30 ANOVA Table

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,060	1	1,060	1,432	,233 ^a
	Residual	131,027	177	,740		
	Total	132,088	178			

a. Predictors: (Constant), MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)

b. Dependent Variable: MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)

Table 7.31 Regression coefficients

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	2,210	,187		11,799
	MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	7,476E-02	,062	,090	1,197
					,233

a. Dependent Variable: MEANABS Absence Proneness (average)

These results are in accordance with our hypothesis; uncertainty avoidance is not related to employee absenteeism. Hence, the fourth hypothesis is also verified by the results of the survey.

As seen above three of our four hypotheses have turned out to be correct and they were all verified by this study. According to our 179-respondent questionnaire survey, it is justified that absence behavior is affected by gender; women are more tended to be absent. Women are also much more intended to be absent if they are working in a masculine organization. Or, in other words, if there is sexual discrimination within a company, women are more prone to skip the job. However, sexual favoritism is not a factor that affects male absence behavior among white-collar employees (see Appendix-II for results of correlation analysis regarding male absence proneness and masculinity). Individualism and power distance characteristics of a company, on the other hand, do not seem to be related with absence behavior of employees. This could be interpreted as a result of insufficient sampling and/or abnormal data clusters. Nevertheless, the third hypothesis claiming that individualism and power distance are positively related to absence proneness is not verified statistically by this study. The last hypothesis saying that uncertainty avoidance and absenteeism are not related at all was proved right.

All the results, including hypothesis tests and other findings, are discussed thoroughly in the following section.

8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of this study was to evaluate the relationship between company culture and employee absenteeism. The literature search revealed that employee absenteeism has been a major managerial problem for both public and private sector organizations for many years. Most western countries (i.e. Canada, The United States, almost all Scandinavian and EU countries) struggle with efficiency loss and increasing costs caused by absenteeism. Most of these problems emerge from governmental regulations and laws that tolerate employee absenteeism. As a potential member of the European Union, Turkey is likely to face such problems in the near future. However, Turkish efforts in this field are considerably low. This paper aims to shed light on this gap and provide a first step regarding employee absenteeism problem.

The survey conducted in this study aimed to provide a wide perspective. Hence, the method used was not a conventional ‘one factory-many workers’ absence evaluation. Instead, the survey was run among many employees of many different companies from various sectors in Turkey. All respondents were college graduate white-collar employees aged between 22 and 68. The reasons for choosing such a population were:

- i) the lack of reliable and consistent studies regarding the absence behavior of white collar employees
- ii) to compensate some factors like salary differences, social status, educational background, work environments
- iii) to improve the efficiency and rate of return of questionnaires and to obtain relatively more reliable data.

However, despite all the efforts the rate of return was still low (~42%). A total of 179 questionnaires were filled from 29 different organizations of 15 different sectors.

The results on the other hand, have been quite remarkable. At the end of the analysis procedure in this study, the following conclusions have been reached:

1. The affect of gender difference on employee absenteeism was once again verified. The previous conclusion of other researches saying that women are worse performers

in terms of absence was also true for this study. More than 60% of women employees displayed high tendency to be absent in comparison to 47% of men. The reasons for such a case could be various. However, the most common explanation of higher women absence is related with females' role within the family and increased amount of responsibilities and expectations after marriage.

2. Sexual favoritism within the organization has a negative effect on women employees while making no difference in absence behavior of men. As the company culture becomes more masculine in nature, female employees become more absence prone. 52 of the 88 women employees claim that they work in a masculine company. Almost all of these women (49 out of 52) have high absence proneness. Statistical analysis proves that masculinity and absence proneness are highly correlated among female employees. However there exists no significant relationship between absence proneness of men and masculinity dimension of the company culture. This result suggests that sexual favoritism may cause serious productivity loss where women work force is employed.

3. Individualism dimension did not display any significant relationship with absence proneness, regardless of gender. It was hypothesized that as the emphasize on personal ambitions and competition among employees increases in an organization, so would stress. High amount of stress would cause dissatisfaction and anxiety in the workplace and hence increase the tendency to be absent. However, the questionnaires do not exhibit such a relationship and they do not prove any statistical relationship between individualism and absence proneness. Although literature search proved that increased amount of psychosocial stress causes less job satisfaction leading to more absenteeism, maybe the view of some industrial psychologists is right: Stress in the work place, up to a certain limit, increases efficiency and job loyalty.

4. Another hypothesis that was rejected at the end of this study was that power distance and absence proneness were positively correlated. Similar to the preceding hypotheses, it was claimed that increased hierarchy and authority within the work place would cause less job satisfaction, especially among white collar employees. However, such a conclusion was also not justified by our survey. Actually, there seems to be no significant relationship between power distance and absenteeism.

5. Uncertainty avoidance characteristic of a company does not seem to affect employees' absence behavior. Being open to risks and innovations or vice versa has no significant effect on employees' absence proneness. This is in accordance with our hypothesis claiming that such a cultural dimension would have no direct effect on absenteeism. Hence the last hypothesis was verified by the statistical data as well.

6. Apart from the hypotheses, this study reveals some features of the Turkish business market. Depending on the data obtained from 29 different organizations (including both public and private companies of various sizes) from 15 sectors (both manufacturing and service) we can conclude that: i) Most companies sign contracts with no time limit at least with white collars (60%); ii) According to personal evaluation of employees, their companies are mostly collectivist (149 out of 179) and they have high power distance at work (139 out of 179). Hence, it can be concluded that Turkish companies care about family-like, close relations among employees but respecting a certain amount of authority and hierarchy. In terms of taking risks Turkish companies seem quite conservative. More than 60% of the respondents claim to work in a strong uncertainty avoidance environment. Sexual favoritism, on the other hand, is not a dominant characteristic of Turkish companies. Actually, more than 50 percent of the companies are feminine in nature; or in other words, there is no obvious sexual favoritism in Turkish organizations.

7. Among 179 respondents the rate of those with high absence proneness was 97 (54%). This number can be interpreted as 1 out of every 2 white collar employees has tendency to be absent. However, it should be noted that what was measured here was the absence tendencies of employees. Their quantitative absence data (company records) is likely to reveal a totally different view. Because of factors like fear of losing their jobs employees would be careful about not being *very* absent. Nevertheless the important point is to determine the factors that make people *want* to be absent. Only then, we can avoid any loss caused by employee absenteeism.

As explained before absenteeism is a costly and hard to solve problem in organizations. Not only because of the various factors that lead to employee absence but also because of the limitations brought by work laws and regulations, companies have to deal with the problem in many aspects simultaneously. In order to minimize employee absenteeism, managers should be aware of factors that provoke it. This study aimed to make an introduction to absence phenomenon and to seek the

relationship between company culture and employee absenteeism. Regarding the fact that Turkish literature is very poor on this issue, and emphasizing that absenteeism is likely to become a more common and costly problem in the near future due to EU procedures, I strongly believe that this paper will provide a basis for those who wish to study in this field.

9. FURTHER RESEARCH

This study was based on a questionnaire survey and it utilized self-report data about absenteeism. For company culture assessment, a quite radical approach was used and Hofstede's well known cultural evaluation dimensions were employed to classify company cultures. As a step forward, this study can be repeated with company records instead of self reports. However, such a study would demand so much time and effort that it would be almost impossible to accomplish with so many respondents. There would be a trade off between number of respondents and the utilization of company records; using real absence data would limit the number of participants considerably. A more logical approach could be to make the same study using another company culture classification model.

Another option could be making a similar survey among blue-collar employees. But in such a case, the population and the sample should be chosen wisely. In order to obtain consistent and reliable results, it would be appropriate to choose one specific sector and/or one major company. Both self-report and company absence records could be used but company records would be more advantageous in such a situation.

Since the factors that affect employee absenteeism are various a similar survey can be done to test the effects of other factors. However, in order to determine the effects of factors like job satisfaction, work environment, family problems etc. a better method would be to run a similar survey among the employees of one major organization, preferably in different departments.

Another significant study would be a survey concerning with the costs of absenteeism; not only in terms of financial assets but also regarding the productivity loss. Measuring the efficiency loss due to employee absenteeism could be another alternative study subject (determining the increment in average process time per client in a bank for instance).

As explained before, absenteeism problem is a wide area of concern for many disciplines and especially in Turkey, this subject still suffers from insufficient

research. Hence, any study in this field would be quite beneficial, not only for academicians and managers but also for the society as a whole.

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APPENDIX-I

* Includes a sample of the questionnaire used in the survey.

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi Endüstri Mühendisliği programında yapılan bir yüksek lisans tezi için yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı kurum kültürü ve organizasyonel yapı ile çalışan psikolojisi ve kurum içi davranış arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesidir. Ekteki ankette bu konuyla ilgili toplam 25 soru bulunmaktadır. Bu soruların cevaplandırılması 10 dakikadan daha kısa sürmektedir. Bu ankette vereceğiniz bütün bilgiler tamamen gizli kalacaktır. *Anketin hiçbir yerinde isminiz, kimliğiniz veya iletişim bilgileriniz sorulmamaktadır.* Araştırmanın objektif olması ve söz konusu master tezinin tamamlanabilmesi için soruları içtenlikle ve sizi tam olarak yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız çok önemlidir.

Yarım kalmış ya da çoğu soruların cevapsız bırakıldığı anketlerden elde edilen veriler kullanılamaz olduğundan, anketi mümkün olduğunca boş bırakmadan tamamlamanız ayrıca önemlidir. Araştırmaya katıldığınız için **çok teşekkür ederiz.**

Araştırmacılar:

Doç. Dr. Cengiz Güngör (gungor@itu.edu.tr)

Emrah Erol (erolemrah@yahoo.com)

Kişisel Bilgiler

Cinsiyet: ☐ E ☐ K

Medeni Hal: ☐ Evli ☐ Bekar ☐ Dul

Yaş:

Çocuk Sayısı:

Eğitim Durumu: ☐ Lisans ☐ Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora

Lisans

Y.Lisans

Doktora

Mezun olduğum okullar:Ünv.Ünv.Ünv.

.....Böl.Böl.Böl.

.....yıldır iş hayatındayım*

Bu, çalıştığıminci şirket

.....yıldır şimdiki işyerimde çalışıyorum*

* Bir yıldan az ise sadece '1' yazınız

Çalıştığım

bölüm/departman:

Ünvanım(Kartım da yazılı olduğu haliyle):.....

Sözleşme tipi : ☐ 1 yıllık sözleşme ☐ 2-3 yıllık sözleşme ☐ Kadrolu

☐ Saat ücretli ☐ Resmi Sözleşmem yok Diğer(Belirtiniz):.....

Çalıştığım kurumun bağlı bulunduğu sektör:

☐ Otomotiv Ana Sanayi ☐ Otomotiv Yan Sanayi ☐ Tekstil ☐ Makine İmalatı ☐ İlaç ☐ Kimya

☐ Eğitim ☐ Danışmanlık ☐ İnşaat ☐ Beyaz Eşya ☐ Gıda Diğer (Belirtiniz):.....

☐ 1 – 25 arası ☐ 25 – 100 arası
☐ 100 – 500 arası ☐ 500 – 1000 arası
☐ 1000'den fazla

Aşağıdaki soruları şu an çalıştığınız kurumu ve bağlı bulunduğunuz departmanı göz önüne alarak ve tamamen kurum içindeki genel fikirleri düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Ölçülmek istenen sizin kişisel yargılarınız değil, bulunduğunuz kurum ve/veya departmandaki eğilimlerdir. Seçeneklerden yalnız birini işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle Yanlış	Yanlış	Emin değilim	Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
<u>Çalıştığım kurumda:</u>					
- Üst pozisyonlarda kadınlardan ziyade erkeklerin olması tercih edilir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Bazı pozisyonlar sadece erkekler içindir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Kadın çalışanlar - erkek rakiplerinden daha iyi olsalar dahi - ancak belli bir yere kadar yükselebilirler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Aynı pozisyona başvuran ve birbirinin aynı niteliklerdeki (yaş, mezun olunan okullar, yabancı dil, tecrübe vb.leri aynı) iki adaydan erkek olan tercih edilir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Bazı pozisyonlar sadece kadınlar içindir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yöneticiler, çalışanlar arasında diyalogun gelişmesini ve çalışanların birbirleriyle iyi anlaşmalarını isterler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Sık sık futbol maçları, geziler, spor turnuvaları, piknikler gibi sosyal aktiviteler düzenlenir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Terfi ettirilmesi düşünülen iki aday arasından, bireysel performansı daha iyi olan değil, iş arkadaşlarıyla ilişkileri daha iyi olan aday terfi ettirilir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yöneticiler, çalışanlar arasında rekabet olmasını istemezler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yeni eleman alımlarında, işe alınacak aday(lar)ın takım çalışmasına yatkın olmasına özellikle dikkat edilir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Çalıştığım kurumda:

Kesinlikle Yanlış

Yanlış

**Emin
değilim**

Doğru

Kesinlikle Doğru

- Yöneticiler, astlarından çok sık fikir almak istemezler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yöneticiler ve çalışanları, işyeri dışında sosyal bir diyaloga girmezler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Astlar, üstlerinin verdikleri kararları tartışamazlar, her istenileni yapmakla yükümlüdürler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yöneticiler iş yerinde disiplin ve hiyerarşinin önemli ve gerekli olduğuna inanırlar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yetki ve sorumlulukların bir veya birkaç elde toplanması istenir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Çalışanlardan mevcut düzeni sürdürmeleri beklenir, yeni fikirlere sıcak bakılmaz	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Yöneticiler, belirsizlikleri sevmez ve risk almaktan kaçınırlar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Büyük ancak tehlikeli sıçrayışlar yaptıktan sonra küçük, garantili adımlarla ilerlemek gerektiğine inanılır	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Kurumun geleceği konusunda gençlerin dinamizmi ve girişkenliğine değil, yaşlı çalışanların tecrübe ve birikimlerine güvenilir	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- Terfilerde öncelik, genç, yenilikçi çalışanlarda değil; kıdemli, bilgi ve tecrübesi fazla olanlardadır	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[illegible]

Bu sayfadaki sorulara tamamen kişisel fikirlerinizi dikkate alarak, kurumunuzdan bağımsız olarak yanıt veriniz. Soruları içtenlikle cevaplamanız çalışmanın objektif sonuçlanabilmesi açısından çok önemlidir.

* Üyesi bulunduğunuz Meclis Alt Komisyonu şöyle bir kanun çıkarmayı tartışmaktadır: “İşçilerin üst üste 2 iş günü veya bir ay içinde 3 iş günü devamsızlık yapmaları, işverene çalışanı tazminatsız işten çıkarma hakkı verir”. Fikriniz sorulduğunda yorumunuz hangisi olur?

- ☐ “Kesinlikle onaylıyorum.”
- ☐ “Yerinde bir kanundur, çıkartalım.”
- ☐ “Ben bu konuda çekimser kalacağım.”
- ☐ “Bu biraz insafsız oldu, yumuşatalım.”
- ☐ “Çok yanlış, 2 gün gelmedi diye insan kovulur mu.”

* Kıvanç büyük bir şirkette mühendis olarak çalışmaktadır. Kurduğu saat çalışmadığı için o sabah geç kalkmıştır. Saatine bakar, düşünür. Geç gidip insanların tepkisini çekmek istemez. İşyerini arar, hasta olduğunu ve işe gelemeyeceğini söyler. Sizce Kıvanç:

- ☐ Sorumsuzca davranmıştır
- ☐ Geç kaldı diye işe gitmemekle hata yapmıştır
- ☐ Kendince doğru olanı yapmıştır ancak bir daha geç kalmamalıdır
- ☐ Doğru şeyi yapmıştır

* Melahat 5 yıldır çalışmaktadır. İş oldukça stresli, patronu ise sert bir adamdır. Tüm bunlara katlanmaya geçecek kadar para kazanmadığını düşünen Melahat, kendince adaleti sağlamak için, çeşitli bahaneler bulup sık sık devamsızlık yapmaktadır. Bir gün patronu masasına gelir ve işten çıkarıldığını söyler. Patron:

- ☐ Doğru olanı yapmıştır, çalışmak istemeyen biri iş yerinde tutulmamalıdır
- ☐ Daha toleranslı olabilir, aşırı tepki vermiştir
- ☐ Haksızdır, suçu kendinde aramalıdır

* Tarcan nişanlıdır ve evlenmesine 2 ay kalmıştır. Nişanlısı Tarcan’dan çeyiz alışverişi ve diğer hazırlıklar için zaman ayırmasını istemektedir. Tarcan bir sabah iş yerini arar ve hasta olduğunu, işe gelemeyeceğini söyler. Tarcan bu davranışında:

- ☐ Kesinlikle haksızdır. Yalan söylemesi iş etiğine ve profesyonelliğe aykırıdır
- ☐ Yanlış davranmıştır. Nişanlısını alışverişi hafta sonu yapmaya ikna edebilirdi
- ☐ Akıllıca davranmıştır. Hem nişanlısını mutlu etmiş hem de işyerinde oluşması muhtemel bir problemi önlemiştir
- ☐ Doğru olanı yapmıştır. Sevdiklerine zaman ayırmak önemlidir

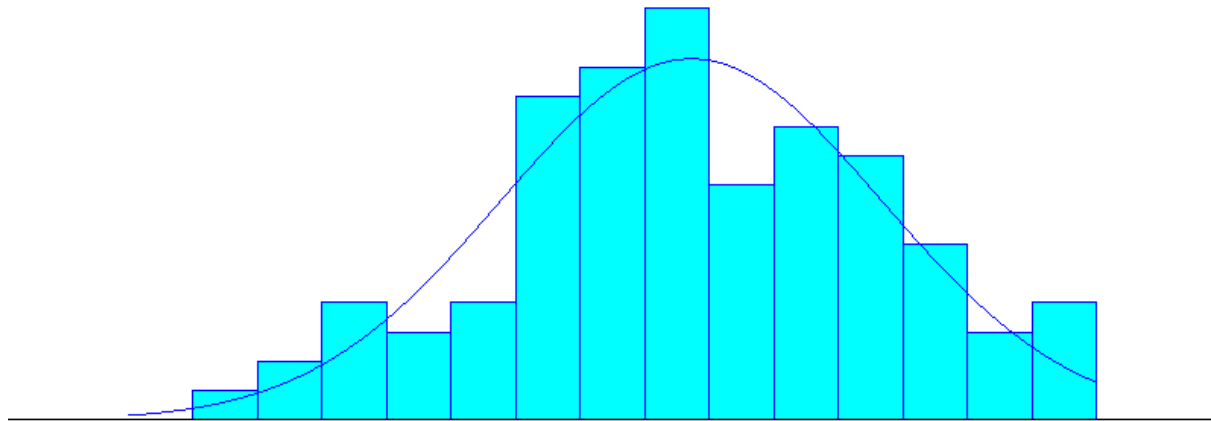
* Sizce aşağıdakilerden hangileri en az 1 gün işe gitmemek için geçerli sebeplerdir? (Birden çok işaretleyebilirsiniz)

- ☐ Fiziksel acı, ağrı (Baş, boyun, bel ağrısı, mide rahatsızlıkları vb.)
- ☐ Psikolojik sıkıntı durumu (Depresyon, aşırı stresten doğan yorgunluk vb.)
- ☐ Evle ilgili problemler (çatının akması, su, elektrik arızaları, tamirat-tadilat, vb.)
- ☐ Banka, devlet dairesi vb. bir yerdeki işleri halletme ihtiyacı
- ☐ Doktor randevusu
- ☐ İş arkadaşlarıyla geçinememek, iş yerinde huzursuzluk
- ☐ Aşırı uykusuzluk, yorgunluk
- ☐ Uzak bir akrabanın vefatı
- ☐ Aile içi problemler
- ☐ Çocukların okulu (Veli toplantısı, öğretmenlerle görüşme, vb.)

ANKETİ TAMAMLAMIŞ BULUNUYORSUNUZ. ZAMAN AYIRDIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜRLER

APPENDIX-II

* Includes the results of all analysis used in the survey.



Distribution Summary

Distribution: Normal
 Expression: $\text{NORM}(2.42, 0.742)$
 Square Error: 0.004881

Chi Square Test

Number of intervals = 7
 Degrees of freedom = 4
 Test Statistic = 2.59
 Corresponding p-value = 0.633

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

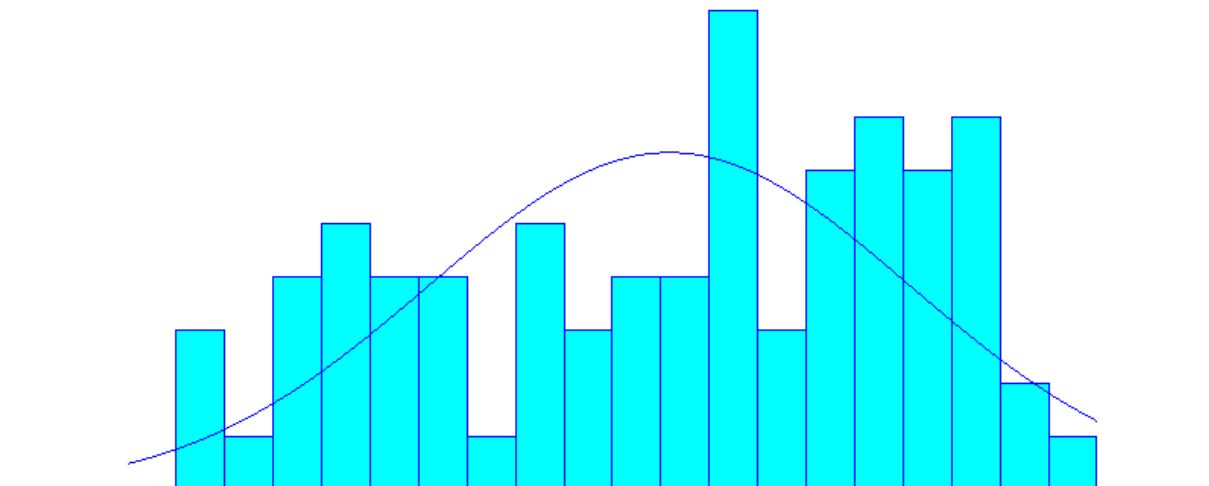
Test Statistic = 0.0684
 Corresponding p-value > 0.15

Data Summary

Number of Data Points = 91
 Min Data Value = 0.574
 Max Data Value = 3.95
 Sample Mean = 2.42
 Sample Std Dev = 0.746

Histogram Summary

Histogram Range = 0.23 to 4
 Number of Intervals = 15



Distribution Summary

Distribution: Normal
 Expression: $\text{NORM}(2.67, 0.745)$
 Square Error: 0.015567

Chi Square Test

Number of intervals = 7
 Degrees of freedom = 4
 Test Statistic = 17.9
 Corresponding p-value < 0.005

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Test Statistic = 0.19
 Corresponding p-value < 0.01

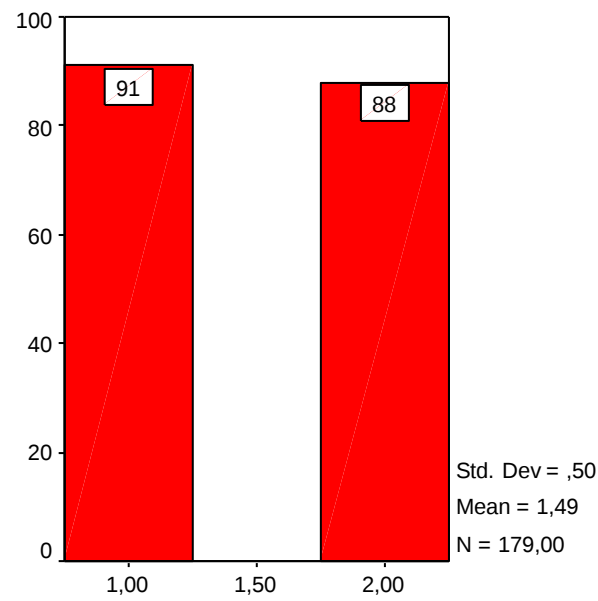
Data Summary

Number of Data Points = 79
 Min Data Value = 1.23
 Max Data Value = 3.92
 Sample Mean = 2.67
 Sample Std Dev = 0.75

Histogram Summary

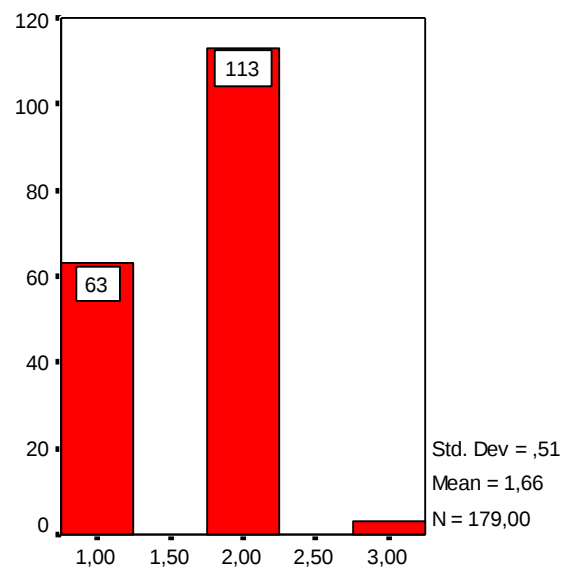
Histogram Range = 0.999 to 4
 Number of Intervals = 20

Gender



Gender

Marital Status



Marital Status

ARITAL Marital Status * GENDER Gender Crosstabulation

Count

		GENDER Gender		Total
		1 Male	2 Female	
MARITAL	1 Married	39	24	63
Marital Status	2 Single	50	63	113
	3 Widowed	2	1	3
Total		91	88	179

Correlations

		GENDER Gender	MARITAL Marital Status	AGE Age in years	MEANMAS Masculinity (average)	MEANIND Individualism (average)	MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
GENDER Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	,143*	-,168*	,184**	-,131*	-,008	-,067	,183**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		,028	,012	,007	,040	,457	,186	,007
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MARITAL Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	,143*	1	-,381**	,093	-,135*	,035	,021	,129*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,028		,000	,108	,035	,323	,391	,043
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
AGE Age in years	Pearson Correlation	-,168*	-,381**	1	-,009	-,024	,112	-,012	-,035
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,012	,000		,454	,377	,068	,438	,319
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MEANMAS Masculinity (average)	Pearson Correlation	,184**	,093	-,009	1	-,021	,149*	,128*	,369**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,007	,108	,454		,388	,024	,043	,000
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MEANIND Individualism (average)	Pearson Correlation	-,131*	-,135*	-,024	-,021	1	-,212**	-,106	-,105
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,040	,035	,377	,388		,002	,079	,081
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation	-,008	,035	,112	,149*	-,212**	1	,403**	-,006
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,457	,323	,068	,024	,002		,000	,467
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	Pearson Correlation	-,067	,021	-,012	,128*	-,106	,403**	1	,090
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,186	,391	,438	,043	,079	,000		,116
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	,183**	,129*	-,035	,369**	-,105	-,006	,090	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,007	,043	,319	,000	,081	,467	,116	
	N	179	179	179	179	179	179	179	179

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

AGE Age in years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	22	2	1,1	1,1	1,1
	23	8	4,5	4,5	5,6
	24	13	7,3	7,3	12,8
	25	36	20,1	20,1	33,0
	26	19	10,6	10,6	43,6
	27	12	6,7	6,7	50,3
	28	14	7,8	7,8	58,1
	29	13	7,3	7,3	65,4
	30	9	5,0	5,0	70,4
	31	5	2,8	2,8	73,2
	32	3	1,7	1,7	74,9
	33	6	3,4	3,4	78,2
	34	5	2,8	2,8	81,0
	35	2	1,1	1,1	82,1
	37	2	1,1	1,1	83,2
	38	2	1,1	1,1	84,4
	39	2	1,1	1,1	85,5
	40	3	1,7	1,7	87,2
	41	1	,6	,6	87,7
	42	1	,6	,6	88,3
	44	1	,6	,6	88,8
	45	1	,6	,6	89,4
	46	1	,6	,6	89,9
	47	2	1,1	1,1	91,1
	48	2	1,1	1,1	92,2
	49	1	,6	,6	92,7
	50	2	1,1	1,1	93,9
	51	2	1,1	1,1	95,0
	52	2	1,1	1,1	96,1
	53	1	,6	,6	96,6
	57	1	,6	,6	97,2
	58	1	,6	,6	97,8
	60	1	,6	,6	98,3
	63	1	,6	,6	98,9
	64	1	,6	,6	99,4
	68	1	,6	,6	100,0
Total		179	100,0	100,0	

CHILD Number of children

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	146	81,6	81,6	81,6
	1	18	10,1	10,1	91,6
	2	9	5,0	5,0	96,6
	3	4	2,2	2,2	98,9
	4	2	1,1	1,1	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

TOTTEN Total number of years in work life

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	31	17,3	17,3	17,3
	2	22	12,3	12,3	29,6
	3	29	16,2	16,2	45,8
	4	12	6,7	6,7	52,5
	5	19	10,6	10,6	63,1
	6	7	3,9	3,9	67,0
	7	6	3,4	3,4	70,4
	8	4	2,2	2,2	72,6
	9	2	1,1	1,1	73,7
	10	10	5,6	5,6	79,3
	12	6	3,4	3,4	82,7
	13	2	1,1	1,1	83,8
	14	1	,6	,6	84,4
	15	3	1,7	1,7	86,0
	16	1	,6	,6	86,6
	17	2	1,1	1,1	87,7
	19	1	,6	,6	88,3
	20	2	1,1	1,1	89,4
	21	1	,6	,6	89,9
	22	1	,6	,6	90,5
	23	4	2,2	2,2	92,7
	25	2	1,1	1,1	93,9
	27	2	1,1	1,1	95,0
	28	3	1,7	1,7	96,6
	30	1	,6	,6	97,2
	35	2	1,1	1,1	98,3
	36	1	,6	,6	98,9
	40	1	,6	,6	99,4
	42	1	,6	,6	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

TENURE Number of years in current organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	62	34,6	34,6	34,6
2	36	20,1	20,1	54,7
3	30	16,8	16,8	71,5
4	9	5,0	5,0	76,5
5	11	6,1	6,1	82,7
6	5	2,8	2,8	85,5
7	8	4,5	4,5	89,9
8	3	1,7	1,7	91,6
9	1	,6	,6	92,2
10	4	2,2	2,2	94,4
11	1	,6	,6	95,0
12	1	,6	,6	95,5
13	2	1,1	1,1	96,6
19	1	,6	,6	97,2
20	1	,6	,6	97,8
23	2	1,1	1,1	98,9
25	1	,6	,6	99,4
28	1	,6	,6	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

TITLE Title

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Architect	11	6,1	6,1	6,1
Asist. Prof.	1	,6	,6	6,7
Asistant Manager	2	1,1	1,1	7,8
Asistant Specialist	21	11,7	11,7	19,6
Assist. Prof.	2	1,1	1,1	20,7
Assoc. Prof.	6	3,4	3,4	24,0
Consultant	1	,6	,6	24,6
Designer	2	1,1	1,1	25,7
Doctor	5	2,8	2,8	28,5
Engineer	26	14,5	14,5	43,0
Manager	20	11,2	11,2	54,2
Prof. Dr.	2	1,1	1,1	55,3
Research Asistant	31	17,3	17,3	72,6
Sales Engineer	3	1,7	1,7	74,3
Secretary	2	1,1	1,1	75,4
Software Engineer	3	1,7	1,7	77,1
Specialist	41	22,9	22,9	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

DEPT Current department of the employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Accounting	4	2,2	2,2	2,2
	Administration	3	1,7	1,7	3,9
	Automation	5	2,8	2,8	6,7
	Call Center	1	,6	,6	7,3
	Cardiology	4	2,2	2,2	9,5
	Chemical Eng.	8	4,5	4,5	14,0
	Communication	1	,6	,6	14,5
	Consulting	1	,6	,6	15,1
	Control	2	1,1	1,1	16,2
	Corporate Banking	3	1,7	1,7	17,9
	Credit Cards	2	1,1	1,1	19,0
	Engineering Fac.	16	8,9	8,9	27,9
	English Literature	2	1,1	1,1	29,1
	Export	9	5,0	5,0	34,1
	Finance& Accounting	1	,6	,6	34,6
	Hospital	1	,6	,6	35,2
	HR	4	2,2	2,2	37,4
	Int. Operations	1	,6	,6	38,0
	IT	9	5,0	5,0	43,0
	Logistics	8	4,5	4,5	47,5
	Management Fac.	4	2,2	2,2	49,7
	Marketing	14	7,8	7,8	57,5
	Mechanical Eng.	1	,6	,6	58,1
	Production	8	4,5	4,5	62,6
	Production Planning	3	1,7	1,7	64,2
	Project	7	3,9	3,9	68,2
	Project Development	15	8,4	8,4	76,5
	Psychology	1	,6	,6	77,1
	Purchasing	10	5,6	5,6	82,7
	Quality	4	2,2	2,2	84,9
	R&D	6	3,4	3,4	88,3
	Sales	10	5,6	5,6	93,9
	Science & Arts Fac.	10	5,6	5,6	99,4
	Technical Aid	1	,6	,6	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Component Matrix^a

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MAS1 Masculin*Feminin 1	,418	-,273	,502	,107	-,153	-,140	,201
MAS2 Masculin*Feminin 2	,400	-9,455E-02	,520	,304	-,151	,192	-,326
MAS3 Masculin*Feminin 3	,461	-,298	,257	4,814E-02	-,198	-,265	,487
MAS4 Masculin*Feminin 4	,474	-,427	,137	,207	-7,567E-02	-,211	,181
MAS5 Masculin*Feminin 5	,412	-3,813E-02	,409	,250	-,148	,135	-,414
IND1 Individualist*Collectivist 1	-,422	-,172	-6,199E-02	,442	9,475E-02	,160	,318
IND2 Individualist*Collectivist 2	-,183	-,143	-,151	,344	,541	9,932E-02	1,525E-02
IND3 Individualist*Collectivist 3	6,848E-04	3,332E-02	2,829E-02	,425	,203	-,402	8,973E-02
IND4 Individualist*Collectivist 4	-6,781E-03	-9,108E-02	,202	,265	,390	-,191	-,193
IND5 Individualist*Collectivist 5	-,199	-1,462E-02	,254	,513	,278	,313	,133
PD1 Power Distance 1	,490	,421	,230	-,168	,250	,106	-,176
PD2 Power Distance 2	,346	,432	,110	-,448	,253	1,803E-02	9,092E-02
PD3 Power Distance 3	,361	,244	,231	-,280	,288	-,356	,158
PD4 Power Distance 4	,274	,334	,317	-,143	,270	,466	,157
PD5 Power Distance 5	,173	,383	,138	-2,101E-02	-,116	,470	,469
UA1 Uncertainty Avoidance 1	,556	,271	-,121	3,818E-02	,430	-,229	-2,608E-02
UA2 Uncertainty Avoidance 2	,494	,499	-,347	,315	-6,752E-03	-8,696E-02	1,044E-03
UA3 Uncertainty Avoidance 3	,365	,514	-,319	,351	-8,550E-02	1,726E-02	3,159E-02
UA4 Uncertainty Avoidance 4	,514	,500	-,236	,186	-,175	-4,128E-02	-8,035E-03
UA5 Uncertainty Avoidance 5	,408	,471	-,200	,259	-,365	1,529E-02	-1,288E-02
ABS1 Absence Pronness 1	,284	-,407	-,431	7,698E-03	,114	,272	4,809E-02
ABS2 Absence Pronness 2	,601	-,480	-,278	-,128	,128	,112	5,558E-02
ABS3 Absence Pronness 3	,527	-,462	-,211	3,631E-02	4,661E-02	,128	-6,077E-02
ABS4 Absence Pronness 4	,557	-,538	-,112	-9,101E-02	5,066E-02	4,449E-02	9,918E-03
ABS5 Absence Pronness 5	,575	-,494	-,165	-9,654E-02	2,338E-02	,172	-,115

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 7 components extracted.

Frequency Tables

ABSIF Absence Pronness (Low/High)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High	97	54,2	54,2	54,2
	Low	82	45,8	45,8	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

MASIF Masculinity (Masculine/Feminine)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Feminine	95	53,1	53,1	53,1
	Masculin	84	46,9	46,9	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

INDIF Individualisim (Individualist/Collectivist)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Collecti	149	83,2	83,2	83,2
	Individu	30	16,8	16,8	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

PDIF Power Distance (Low/High)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	P.D. Hig	139	77,7	77,7	77,7
	P.D. Low	40	22,3	22,3	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

UAIF Uncertainty Avoidance (Weak/Strong)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strong U	114	63,7	63,7	63,7
	Weak UA	65	36,3	36,3	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

SECTOR Sector of the organization (Male employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Automotive	9	5,0	9,9	9,9
	2 Automotive (Supplier)	2	1,1	2,2	12,1
	3 Textile	4	2,2	4,4	16,5
	4 Machinery	8	4,5	8,8	25,3
	5 Pharmacology	2	1,1	2,2	27,5
	6 Food	6	3,4	6,6	34,1
	7 Education	20	11,2	22,0	56,0
	8 Retail	3	1,7	3,3	59,3
	9 Construction	15	8,4	16,5	75,8
	10 White goods	4	2,2	4,4	80,2
	11 Banking&Finance	7	3,9	7,7	87,9
	12 Other	5	2,8	5,5	93,4
	13 Logistics	1	,6	1,1	94,5
	14 Health	3	1,7	3,3	97,8
	15 Insurance	2	1,1	2,2	100,0
	Total	91	50,8	100,0	
Missing	System	88	49,2		
Total		179	100,0		

CONTR Type of contract (male employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 1 year contract	24	13,4	26,4	26,4
	2 2-3 years contract	1	,6	1,1	27,5
	3 Life long employment	59	33,0	64,8	92,3
	4 Hourly paid	1	,6	1,1	93,4
	5 No official contract	6	3,4	6,6	100,0
	Total	91	50,8	100,0	
Missing	System	88	49,2		
Total		179	100,0		

ABSIF Absence Pronness (Low/High) (male employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		88	49,2	49,2	49,2
	High	43	24,0	24,0	73,2
	Low	48	26,8	26,8	100,0
	Total	179	100,0	100,0	

IDIF Individualism (Individualist/Collectivist) (male employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	88	49,2	49,2	49,2
Collecti	81	45,3	45,3	94,4
Individu	10	5,6	5,6	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

PDIF Power Distance (Low/High) (male employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	88	49,2	49,2	49,2
P.D. Hig	72	40,2	40,2	89,4
P.D. Low	19	10,6	10,6	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

UAIF Uncertainty Avoidance (Weak/Strong) (male employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	88	49,2	49,2	49,2
Strong U	64	35,8	35,8	84,9
Weak UA	27	15,1	15,1	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Correlations (male employees only)

		MARITAL Marital Status	AGE Age in years	MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	MEANIND Individualism (avarage)	MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
MARITAL Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	1	-,367**	,067	,031	,011	-,007	,094
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,	,000	,265	,385	,458	,474	,187
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
AGE Age in years	Pearson Correlation	-,367**	1	-,009	-,078	,159	-,041	-,059
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,000	,	,467	,231	,066	,348	,288
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	Pearson Correlation	,067	-,009	1	,104	,242*	,104	-,097
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,265	,467	,	,163	,010	,163	,180
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
MEANIND Individualism (avarage)	Pearson Correlation	,031	-,078	,104	1	-,276**	-,115	,018
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,385	,231	,163	,	,004	,139	,433
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation	,011	,159	,242*	-,276**	1	,273**	-,133
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,458	,066	,010	,004	,	,004	,104
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	Pearson Correlation	-,007	-,041	,104	-,115	,273**	1	-,037
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,474	,348	,163	,139	,004	,	,365
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	,094	-,059	-,097	,018	-,133	-,037	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,187	,288	,180	,433	,104	,365	,
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

MARITAL Marital Status (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Married	24	13,4	27,3	27,3
	2 Single	63	35,2	71,6	98,9
	3 Widowed	1	,6	1,1	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

AGE Age in years (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	22	2	1,1	2,3	2,3
	23	6	3,4	6,8	9,1
	24	7	3,9	8,0	17,0
	25	25	14,0	28,4	45,5
	26	10	5,6	11,4	56,8
	27	6	3,4	6,8	63,6
	28	7	3,9	8,0	71,6
	29	4	2,2	4,5	76,1
	30	1	,6	1,1	77,3
	31	1	,6	1,1	78,4
	33	4	2,2	4,5	83,0
	34	1	,6	1,1	84,1
	37	1	,6	1,1	85,2
	38	1	,6	1,1	86,4
	39	2	1,1	2,3	88,6
	42	1	,6	1,1	89,8
	44	1	,6	1,1	90,9
	46	1	,6	1,1	92,0
	47	2	1,1	2,3	94,3
	48	2	1,1	2,3	96,6
	50	1	,6	1,1	97,7
	51	1	,6	1,1	98,9
	64	1	,6	1,1	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

CHILD Number of children (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	76	42,5	86,4	86,4
	1	7	3,9	8,0	94,3
	2	3	1,7	3,4	97,7
	3	1	,6	1,1	98,9
	4	1	,6	1,1	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

TOTTEN Total number of years in work life (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	8,4	17,0	17,0
	2	13	7,3	14,8	31,8
	3	25	14,0	28,4	60,2
	4	5	2,8	5,7	65,9
	5	7	3,9	8,0	73,9
	6	2	1,1	2,3	76,1
	7	1	,6	1,1	77,3
	9	1	,6	1,1	78,4
	10	3	1,7	3,4	81,8
	12	2	1,1	2,3	84,1
	13	1	,6	1,1	85,2
	15	2	1,1	2,3	87,5
	17	1	,6	1,1	88,6
	19	1	,6	1,1	89,8
	20	2	1,1	2,3	92,0
	21	1	,6	1,1	93,2
	23	1	,6	1,1	94,3
	25	2	1,1	2,3	96,6
	27	1	,6	1,1	97,7
	28	1	,6	1,1	98,9
	40	1	,6	1,1	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

FRMNO The rank of the current organization (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	42	23,5	47,7	47,7
	2	24	13,4	27,3	75,0
	3	14	7,8	15,9	90,9
	4	4	2,2	4,5	95,5
	5	2	1,1	2,3	97,7
	6	1	,6	1,1	98,9
	7	1	,6	1,1	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

CONTR Type of contract (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 1 year contract	19	10,6	21,6	21,6
	2 2-3 years contract	3	1,7	3,4	25,0
	3 Life long employment	49	27,4	55,7	80,7
	4 Hourly paid	1	,6	1,1	81,8
	5 No official contract	16	8,9	18,2	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

SECTOR Sector of the organization (female employees only)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Automotive	4	2,2	4,5	4,5
	2 Automotive (Supplier)	1	,6	1,1	5,7
	3 Textile	5	2,8	5,7	11,4
	4 Machinery	2	1,1	2,3	13,6
	5 Pharmacology	3	1,7	3,4	17,0
	6 Food	6	3,4	6,8	23,9
	7 Education	24	13,4	27,3	51,1
	8 Retail	3	1,7	3,4	54,5
	9 Construction	17	9,5	19,3	73,9
	10 White goods	3	1,7	3,4	77,3
	11 Banking&Finance	2	1,1	2,3	79,5
	12 Other	9	5,0	10,2	89,8
	13 Logistics	4	2,2	4,5	94,3
	14 Health	2	1,1	2,3	96,6
	15 Insurance	3	1,7	3,4	100,0
	Total	88	49,2	100,0	
Missing	System	91	50,8		
Total		179	100,0		

ABSIF Absence Pronness (Low/High) (female employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
High	54	30,2	30,2	81,0
Low	34	19,0	19,0	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

MASIF Masculinity (Masculine/Feminine) (female employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
Feminine	36	20,1	20,1	70,9
Masculin	52	29,1	29,1	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

DIF Individualisim (Individualist/Collectivist) (female employees onl

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
Collecti	68	38,0	38,0	88,8
Individu	20	11,2	11,2	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

PDIF Power Distance (Low/High) (female employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
P.D. Hig	67	37,4	37,4	88,3
P.D. Low	21	11,7	11,7	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

UAIF Uncertainty Avoidance (Weak/Strong) (female employees only)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	91	50,8	50,8	50,8
Strong U	50	27,9	27,9	78,8
Weak UA	38	21,2	21,2	100,0
Total	179	100,0	100,0	

Correlations (female employees only)

		MARITAL Marital Status	AGE Age in years	MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	MEANIND Individualism (avarage)	MEANPD Power Distance (average)	MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)
MARITAL Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	1	-,366**	,071	-,282**	,065	,069	,119
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,	,000	,255	,004	,275	,261	,135
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
AGE Age in years	Pearson Correlation	-,366**	1	,063	-,012	,058	-,005	,051
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,000	,	,280	,455	,296	,482	,318
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
MEANMAS Masculinity (avarage)	Pearson Correlation	,071	,063	1	-,089	,068	,177*	,709**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,255	,280	,	,205	,265	,049	,000
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
MEANIND Individualism (avarage)	Pearson Correlation	-,282**	-,012	-,089	1	-,160	-,117	-,159
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,004	,455	,205	,	,068	,139	,069
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
MEANPD Power Distance (average)	Pearson Correlation	,065	,058	,068	-,160	1	,513**	,096
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,275	,296	,265	,068	,	,000	,186
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
MEANUA Uncertainty Avoidance (average)	Pearson Correlation	,069	-,005	,177*	-,117	,513**	1	,202*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,261	,482	,049	,139	,000	,	,029
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88
MEANABS Absence Pronness (average)	Pearson Correlation	,119	,051	,709**	-,159	,096	,202*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,135	,318	,000	,069	,186	,029	,
	N	88	88	88	88	88	88	88

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

CURRICULUM VITAE

Born in 1980. Graduated from Uskudar Fen High School and studied Mechanical Engineering in ITU between 1997 and 2002. Started his graduate study in Industrial Engineering department same year. Working in Doğuş University as a research assistant for two years. Fluent in English and French.