

Leaveism: Developing the scale and establishing a nomological model

Abstract

Both absenteeism and presenteeism explain employees' attendance behaviour in the workplace. However, there are some unveiled phenomena which are outside the discussion of absenteeism and presenteeism, called 'leaveism'. The current project aims to explore the nature of leaveism in Taiwan to provide fundamental knowledge for future studies. This project examined the antecedents and consequences of leaveism using a three-wave study with monthly intervals. A total of 217 participants were collected. The result showed that workload had a positive relationship with work leaveism resulting in lower mental health, and higher work-family conflict with after-work contact and workaholism controlled. However, attendance control and authoritarian leadership were not related to sickness leaveism and work leaveism. Moreover, job security and boundary control did not moderate the relationship between workload and work leaveism. A supplementary examination found that boundary control had a negative impact on work leaveism.

Introduction

Absence management has been extensively investigated for more than a half century. Employee absenteeism (i.e., being absent when unwell) was frequently mentioned in previous studies (see Muchinsky, 1977). A meta-analysis demonstrated that work strain may lead to employees' absent behaviour via psychological and physical illness (Darr & Johns, 2008). The employee absenteeism and its negative impact on job satisfaction would create a vicious cycle (Ybema, Smulders, & Bongers, 2010). The cost of absence per employee could reach around £500 (CIPD, 2016). Thus, organisations have paid attention to employees' absence. In addition, employee presenteeism (i.e., being present when unwell) has also been extensively examined. Researchers have identified that presenteeism would lead to mental illness, lower work engagement, and even absenteeism (see Johns, 2010; Lohaus & Habermann, 2018). Accordingly, presenteeism leads to more unfavourable

consequences for organisations, highlighting presenteeism's importance in the workplace (Cooper & Dewe, 2008).

Both absenteeism and presenteeism explain employees' attendance behaviour in the workplace. However, some unveiled phenomena are outside the discussion of absenteeism and presenteeism, 'leaveism', sickness absence using annual leave and employees working outside regular working hours (Hesketh & Cooper, 2014). These behaviours can provide another perspective to understand the status of employee wellbeing.

The Rise of Leaveism

The concept of leaveism was introduced by Hesketh and Cooper (2014). Subsequently, The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) conducted a professional serial survey in the United Kingdom and highlighted the influential role of leaveism in absence management. The recent report showed that the majority (69%) of participants had experience of leaveism at work (CIPD, 2020). Another professional organisation pointed out the issue of leaveism in the employee mental health (Deloitte, 2020). The behaviour of leaveism may be due to the strict policies for absence management in organisations which may lead to counterproductive results. Employers may use strong measures such as a sickness quota to manage employees' absence (Hesketh & Cooper, 2014). To not exceed the threshold, employees would use their annual leave instead of sick leave when they are unwell.

Moreover, the advancement of technology makes the boundary between work life and personal life indistinguishable. This leads to a phenomenon that individuals inevitably keep working extra hours at home. In a Google employee survey, the results showed that a considerable amount (69%) of employees had the experience of continuing work when they were home (Brock, 2014). This underlines the importance of leaveism in the workplace.

Setting Research in Taiwan

According to government statistics in Taiwan, 46.3% of employees had working extra hours in the workplace, and the average extra working hours for those were 15.9 hours per month (Ministry of Labor Republic of China, 2019). Almost 40% of employees had experience and spent around 5.7 hours working at home each week (1111 Job Bank, 2019). This shows the occurrence of leaveism in Taiwan.

Under the influence of the Chinese culture, individuals are more likely to keep working after regular working hours in Taiwan because they aim to show their loyalty and diligence (Lu, Cooper, & Lin, 2013). Furthermore, since paternalistic leadership is commonly identified in Taiwanese organisations, supervisors may have authority to control subordinates, and subordinates are difficult to say no to their supervisors (Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004). In order to fulfil the work demand from supervisors, employees might have long working hours or bring work home to demonstrate their obedience. This project argues that the prevalence of leaveism could be high in Taiwanese organisations. Thus, conducting this project in Taiwan is deemed to be appropriate.

Definition of Leaveism

Three practices of leaveism were defined by Hesketh and Cooper (2014). The first leaveism practice is related to the misapplication of annual leave entitlements. This means that employees would take annual leave instead of sick leave when ill. The second leaveism practice is that work occupies off-hour time at home on working days. For example, employees may bring work home that cannot be finished within working hours. The third leaveism practice is working while on holiday or annual leave. This means that work activities intervene on non-work days.

According to the driving forces behind these practices, this project suggests that leaveism can at least be dichotomised into two types. One is that individuals use their annual leaves for their sick leaves, called sickness leaveism. Another one is that individuals bring work home and work on leave or holidays, called work leaveism. These behaviours are hidden, and management is difficult to reveal their impact on the organisations.

Researchers have paid their attention to the issue of long working hours and indicated its impact on health and safety (Spurgeon, Harrington, & Cooper, 1997). The behaviour of long working hours usually means employees face the situation where working hours exceed the regular working hours in the workplace. Leaveism has the same feature of long working hours, but employees do their work in the non-work domain (i.e., home). Working in the workplace for long hours, employees aim to fill their job duties in the organisations. Working at home, employees may experience psychological conflict while receiving incompatible role expectations concurrently. They face the family environment at home but deal with working tasks. This creates inter-role conflict which occurs when “role pressures associated with membership in one organisation are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups” (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964, p. 20). In other words, when an employee faces a demand for extra working hours at home, this may bring conflict to their role as a spouse or parent and can impact his/her responsibility for household chores or childcare at home. This feature can clearly differentiate the concept of leaveism from traditional long working hours. The concept of leaveism can provide its uniqueness.

The Scarcity of Research on Leaveism

Two empirical studies have revealed some evidence of the influence of leaveism in the workplace. In an Austrian study with 930 private employees, Gerich (2015) found that leaveism has a higher level of correlation with presenteeism than absenteeism. This highlights the similarity between presenteeism and leaveism as they are associated with the phenomena of hard work in the workplace. The act of presenteeism indicates employees’ visible commitment at work while the act of leaveism demonstrates employees’ invisible commitment at work.

Since Gerich’s study (2015) only focused on the misapplication of annual leave entitlements, Houdmont, Elliott-Davies, and Donnelly (2018) conducted another study to investigate all aspects of leaveism with police forces. The results of their study showed that not only the leaveism of using annual leave to take time off due to health issues was common to report by police staff but also the

leaveism of bringing work home was prevalent in policing. They further identified several demographic characteristics associated with leaveism, such as position rank. A higher position rank reported a higher level of leaveism.

Only one study (Gerich, 2015) indicated that leaveism has a negative effect on employees' subjective health. It still lacks studies to explore the influence of leaveism on individual perspectives. The current project believes that several potential outcomes such as work-family conflict and burnout could be a possible consequence of leaveism.

In sum, since the behaviour of leaveism is usually invisible, organisations might underestimate employees' working hours and health conditions. This distorts the true picture of employee attendance records. Employees' personnel record is a key document for identifying the appropriate candidates for promotion and training. The whitewashed record may mislead human resource professionals to make wrong promotion decisions. The hidden behaviour of leaveism may also cause the employer inability to pay attention to workload issues in the workplace. This may lead employees to face a high level of work-related stress, suffering their health. These negative effects should be considered by employers in order to provide a healthy workplace.

Measurement of Leaveism

Previous studies had assessed leaveism by a frequency scale. Hesketh, Cooper, and Ivy (2014), Hesketh, Cooper, and Ivy (2015), and Gerich (2015) used a single question statement like 'Have you ever taken your annual leave entitlement to have time off when you have in fact been ill or injured?' to measure sickness leaveism. Houdmont et al. (2018) measured sickness leaveism by two items, such as 'In the last 12 months have you used annual leave or rest days to take time off due to your state of physical health?' and 'In the last 12 months have you used annual leave or rest days to take time off when you really should have taken sick leave due to stress, low mood, anxiety, or other problems with your mental health and wellbeing?'. In terms of work leaveism, Houdmont et al. (2018) questioned 'In the last 12 months how often have you taken work home that cannot be

completed in normal working hours?’ and ‘In the last 12 months how often have you worked while on annual leave in order to catch up with work?’ to understand participants’ work leaveism. However, the length of reporting window could be an issue for the existent measures. Most of the studies used a 12-month recall window. A long recall window could increase the possibility of recall error (Clarke, Fiebig, & Gerdtham, 2008). The current study proposes that a shorter recall window, such as six-month. Therefore, this project aims to introduce a psychological measure alternatively to enhance stability and internal consistency.

Research Framework of Leaveism

The initial leaveism studies examined the prevalence of leaveism (e.g., Hesketh et al., 2015; Houdmont et al., 2018) and antecedents of leaveism (e.g., Gerich, 2015). These preliminary studies failed to introduce a theoretical model to interpret the mechanism of leaveism. Due to the main cause of leaveism is high workload, which is a stressor at work (CIPD, 2018), the current project applies work-related stress theories to develop a nomological model of leaveism. The job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Bakker Arnold, 2007) provides a platform to investigate the impacts of job characteristics on employees’ mental health. The JD-R model categorises all job characteristics into job demands and job resources. Job demands are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (e.g., exhaustion)” (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001, p. 501). Job resources is defined as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands at the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). This model explains two mechanisms, the health impairment process through job demands and the motivational process through job resources (Bakker Arnold, 2007). The present project focused on the health impairment process since the main cause of leaveism is work overload. In

addition, this project considers the interaction between job demands and personal resources in order to respond to the call from researchers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Antecedents of Leaveism

Hypothesis 1a: Attendance control is positively associated with sickness leaveism.

Hypothesis 1b: Workload is positively associated with work leaveism.

Hypothesis 1c: Authoritarian leadership is positively associated with leaveism.

Consequences of Leaveism

Hypothesis 2: Leaveism is negatively associated with mental health. The relationship between work leaveism and mental health is stronger than sickness leaveism.

Hypothesis 3: Leaveism is positively associated with work-family conflict.

The impact of job resources as moderating roles

Hypothesis 4: Job security moderates the relationship between job demands and leaveism.

The impact of personal resources as moderating roles

Hypothesis 5: Boundary control moderates the relationship between job demands and leaveism.

Potential Control Variables

Two possible control variables, after-work contact and workaholism will be considered in this project.

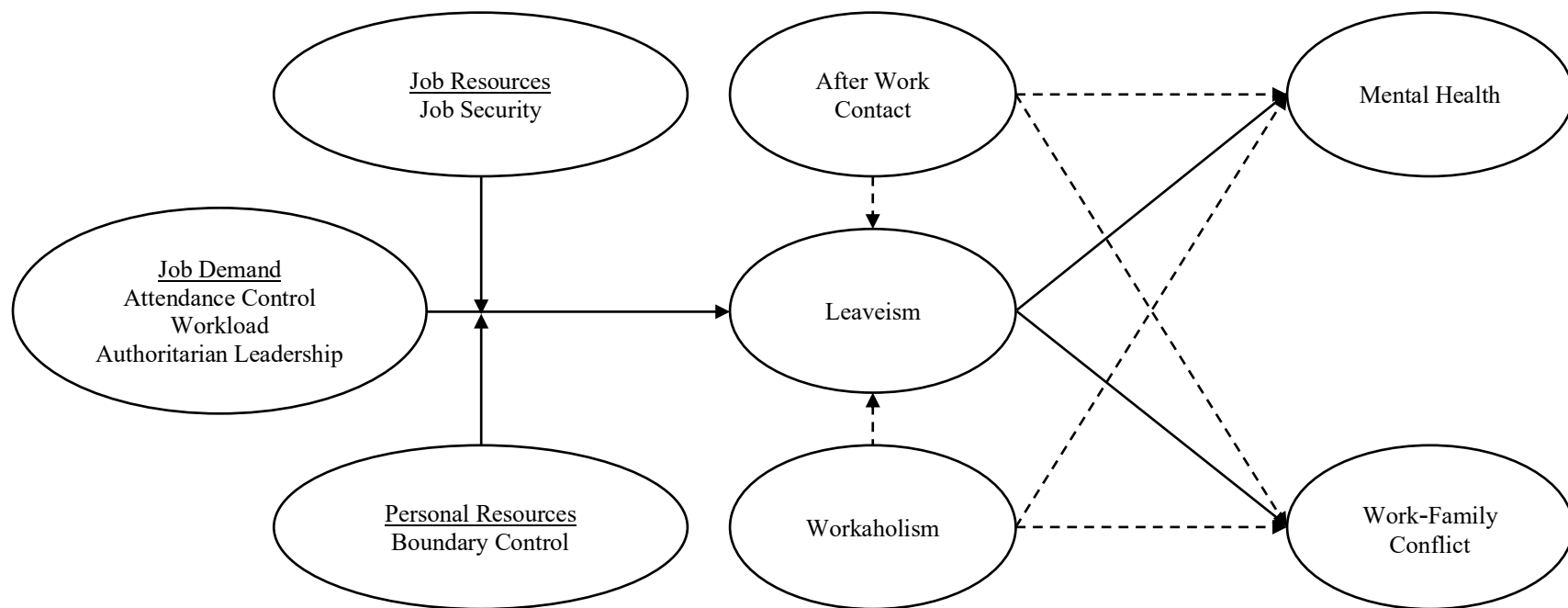


Figure 1. Research Model

Note. Solid lines represent the current research model and dotted lines represent after work contact and workaholism controlled

Method

A quantitative survey was conducted for examining the relationships between leaveism and its correlates in a large sample. According to researchers' suggestions (Hoe, 2008; Kline, 2011), at least 200 participants are needed in order to provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis. Thus, this study aimed to recruit 300 full-time employees from a wide range of industries for analysis.

Procedures and participants

Several measurements including attendance control, workload, authoritarian leadership, job security, boundary control, mental health, work-family conflict will be used for hypothesis testing in the questionnaire design to establish a nomological network analysis. Furthermore, the control variables such as after-work contact and workaholism were introduced.

In order to avoid common method variance (CMV), a three-wave two-month-lagged research design was conducted (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The antecedents of leaveism, moderators, leaveism, and the consequences of leaveism were collected separately. Authoritarian leadership, workload, job security, job autonomy, boundary control, after-work contact, and workaholism were measured at time 1 (T1). Leaveism was measured at time 2 (T2). Mental health, and work-family conflict were measured at time 3 (T3). According to the required sample size for mediation model suggested by Fritz and MacKinnon (2007), this study expects a mediocre effects of both antecedents on leaveism and leaveism on consequences and a sample size of 196 is needed for Sobel test with .8 power. Regarding the potential issues of invalid samples such as participants failing to complete three-wave data collection, the aim of this study was to collect 300 full-time employees as research participants.

This study distributed 323 questionnaires and collected 281 responses at T1. The following two waves obtained 251 questionnaires at T2 and 243 questionnaires at T3. After matching

questionnaires T1, T2, and T3, the final sample consisted of 217 participants. Within the sample, there were 39.1% males and 60.9% females. The average age of participants was 37.6 years. More than half (54.9%) of the participants were single. The average tenure of participants was 8.48 years and 19.7% were managers at various levels.

Measures

Attendance control. This study used three items to measure the level of attendance control. The questions were ‘The number of sickness absences relates to my performance in the organization’, ‘My employer requests a medical certificate in the case of sickness absence’, and ‘I don’t want to use my sick absence because it affects my income’. Participants provided their responses using a 6-point Likert scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a stricter attendance control. Cronbach’s α for this measure was .67.

Workload. This study used 8 items of the demand component from Health and Safety Executive (HSE) Management Standards Indicator Tool (Cousins et al., 2004). Sample items were ‘I have unachievable deadlines’, and ‘I have to work very intensively’ using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A higher score indicates a higher level of workload. Cronbach’s α for this measure was .90.

Authoritarian leadership. Supervisors’ authoritarian leadership was measured by the 18-item authoritarian leadership subscale (Chou, Chou, Cheng, & Jen, 2010). Participants provided their responses to the questions such as ‘my supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely’ and ‘My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates’ using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A higher score indicates a higher level of authoritarian leadership perceived by participants. Eight items were *Juan-Chiuan* with Cronbach’s α .93 and 10 items were *Shang-Yan* with Cronbach’s α .91.

Leaveism. The current study adapted 4 items provided by Houdmont et al. (2018) and developed 4 items. Three items measured sickness leaveism and five items measured work leaveism. Sample items include “‘In the last 12 months have you used annual leave or rest days to take time off due to your state of physical health?’ and ‘In the last 12 months have you used annual leave or rest days to take time off when you really should have taken sick leave due to stress, low mood’”. Participants responded using a 6-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a higher level of leaveism. Cronbach’s α for sickness leaveism and work leaveism measures were .93 and .92 respectively.

Mental health. This project measured employee mental health using the Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21(DASS-21; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). Participants reported the frequencies of the statements including ‘I found it hard to wind down’ and ‘I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all’ by choosing from 1 (not at all) to 6 (always). All scores were reversely coded. A higher score of DASS-21 indicates a higher level of mental health. Cronbach’s α for this measure was .95.

Work-family conflict. Five work-family conflict scale developed by (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996) was adopted to evaluate employees’ work-family conflict. Sample items were “‘the demands of my work interfere with my home and family life” and “my job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties””. Participants provided their responses using a 6-point Likert scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a higher level of work-family conflict. Cronbach’s α for this measure was .95.

Job security. Following the suggestion by Loi, Ngo, Zhang, and Lau (2011), job security was measured by 5 items with high factor loadings from job security scale used by Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, and Sparrowe (2005). Sample items included ‘my job will be there as long as I want it’ and ‘I will be able to keep my present job as long as I wish’. Participants reported with a 6-point Likert

scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a higher level of job security. Cronbach's α for this measure was .84.

Boundary Control. This project employed 3 items from the Work-Life indicator developed by Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, and Hannum (2012). Items included 'I control whether I am able to keep my work and personal life separate', 'I control whether I have clear boundaries between my work and personal life', and 'I control whether I combine my work and personal life activities throughout the day'. Responses were recorded using a 6-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a higher level of boundary control. Cronbach's α for this measure was .92.

After-work contact. The contact outside regular working hours was measured by 3 items (Schieman & Young, 2013). Participants responded with the frequency of the following questions: "You were called about work-related matters when you were not at work", "You read job-related email or text messages when you were not at work" and "You contacted people about work-related matters when you were not at work". Responses were recorded using a 6-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A higher score indicates a higher level of after-work contact. Cronbach's α for this measure was .88.

Workaholism. The 10-item Dutch Workaholism Scale (DUWAS; Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009) was adopted to measure workaholism. Sample items were 'I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock' and 'It's important to me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing' by choosing from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A higher score indicates a higher level of workaholism. Cronbach's α for this measure was .86.

Results

The means, standard deviations, and correlations of the research variables are presented in Table 1. The bivariate correlations indicate that attendance control was not associated with sickness

leaveism ($r = .07, p = .29$) and work leaveism ($r = .09, p = .21$) while workload, *Juan-Chiuan* leadership, and *Shan-Yan* leadership were associated with sickness leaveism ($r = .16, p < .05$; $r = .14, p < .05$; $r = .20, p < .01$ respectively) and work leaveism ($r = .57, p < .001$; $r = .21, p < .01$; $r = .18, p < .01$ respectively). Work leaveism was positively correlated with mental health ($r = -.33, p < .001$) and work-family conflict ($r = .63, p < .001$). However, sickness leaveism was not related to mental health ($r = -.11, p = .12$) and work-family conflict ($r = .10, p = .13$). In addition, competitive presenteeism had a positive influence on mental health issues ($r = .32, p < .001$) and work-family conflict ($r = .31, p < .001$).

Table 1*The Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Coefficients of Constructs*

Variables	Mean	SD	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. AC	3.17	1.19	.66	.40											
2. WK	3.54	1.00	.85	.26***	.65										
3. ALJ	3.02	1.11	.91	.29***	.46***	.77									
4. ALS	3.84	0.88	.87	.19**	.41***	.40***	.70								
5. SL	4.17	1.38	.93	.07	.16*	.14*	.20**	.82							
6. WL	3.57	1.30	.92	.09	.57***	.21**	.18**	.17*	.80						
7. MH	4.37	.84	.91	-.80	-.37***	-.33***	-.06	-.11	-.33***	.77					
8. WF	2.94	1.12	.93	.14*	.61***	.41***	.25***	.10	.63***	-.53***	.81				
9. JS	4.51	.85	.84	-.25***	-.20**	-.25***	.05	-.12	-.06	.23***	-.15*	.65			
10. BC	4.04	1.08	.92	-.04	-.34***	-.14*	-.11	-.04	-.40***	.30***	-.43***	.29***	.79		
11. AW	3.95	1.31	.88	.23***	.46***	-.18**	.22**	.03	.58***	-.08	.44***	-.02	-.32***	.70	
12. WH	3.90	.82	.82	.28***	.53***	.15*	.29***	.05	.55***	-.23***	.40***	-.06	-.37***	.59***	.60

Note. AC, attendance control; WK, workload; ALJ, *Juan-Chiuan* leadership; ALS, *Shan-Yan* leadership; SL, sickness leaveism; WL, work leaveism; MH, mental health; WF, work-family conflict; SEC, job security; BC, boundary control; AW, after-work contact; WH, workaholism. CR, construct reliability.

Bold diagonal coefficients represent the average variance extracted for variables.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Validity issues

This research conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to examine whether these variables captured distinct constructs. To assess whether each of the measure items would load significantly onto the constructs with which they were associated, a hypothetical model (12-factor model) comprising attendance control, workload, *Juan-Chiuan* leadership, *Shan-Yan* leadership, sickness leaveism, work leaveism, mental health, work-family conflict, job security, boundary control, after-work contact, and workaholism. The fit indices revealed an adequate model fit ($\chi^2 = 926.86(528)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .93$, $TLI = .92$, $RMSEA = .06$), and the standardised coefficients from items to factors, which ranged from .56 to .99, were all statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Additionally, the research model was compared with various alternative models (see Table 2) including 11-factor model (AC and WK were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 1033.54(539)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .92$, $TLI = .90$, $RMSEA = .07$), 10-factor model (AC and WK were merged into one factor and ALJ and ALS were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 1340.81(549)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .86$, $TLI = .84$, $RMSEA = .08$), 9-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, and ALS were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 1612.34(558)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .82$, $TLI = .79$, $RMSEA = .09$), 8-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, and ALS were merged into one factor and SL and WL were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 2323.69(566)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .70$, $TLI = .66$, $RMSEA = .12$), 7-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, ALS, SL, and WL were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 2685.85(573)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .64$, $TLI = .60$, $RMSEA = .13$), 6-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, ALS, SL, and WL were merged into one factor and MH and WF were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 3017.20(579)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .58$, $TLI = .54$, $RMSEA = .14$), 5-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, ALS, SL, WL, MH, and WF were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 3287.26(584)$, $p < .001$, $CFI = .53$, $TLI = .50$, $RMSEA = .15$), 4-factor model (AC, WK,

ALJ, ALS, SL, WL, MH, and WF were merged into one factor and JS and BC were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 3542.75(588)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .49, TLI = .45, RMSEA = .15), 3-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, ALS, SL, WL, MH, WF, JS, and BC were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 3956.67(591)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .42, TLI = .38, RMSEA = .16), 2-factor model (AC, WK, ALJ, ALS, SL, WL, MH, WF, JS, and BC were merged into one factor and AW and WH were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 4059.64(593)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .40, TLI = .36, RMSEA = .16), and 1-factor model (all variables were merged into one factor; $\chi^2 = 4325.54(594)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .36, TLI = .32, RMSEA = .17). The CFAs revealed that the hypothetical model had a significantly more satisfactory fit than other models and the χ^2 changes between the hypothetical model and comparison models were all significant. Overall, the hypothetical model represented the optimal model fit for the data. Thus, the distinctiveness of the four constructs was supported.

Table 2

Model Comparisons

Model	Factor	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(df)$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Hypothetical	12-factor	926.86(528)		.06	.93	.92
Model 1	11-factor	1033.54(539)	106.68(11)***	.07	.92	.90
Model 2	10-factor	1340.81(549)	307.27(10)***	.08	.86	.84
Model 3	9-factor	1612.34(558)	271.53(9)***	.09	.82	.79
Model 4	8-factor	2323.69(566)	711.35(8)***	.12	.70	.66
Model 5	7-factor	2685.85(573)	362.16(7)***	.13	.64	.60
Model 6	6-factor	3017.20(579)	331.35(6)***	.14	.58	.54
Model 7	5-factor	3287.26(584)	270.06(5)***	.15	.53	.50
Model 8	4-factor	3542.75(588)	255.49(4)***	.15	.49	.45
Model 9	3-factor	3956.67(591)	413.92(3)***	.16	.42	.38
Model 10	2-factor	4059.64(593)	102.97(2)***	.16	.40	.36
Model 11	1-factor	4325.54(594)	265.90(1)***	.17	.36	.32

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Regarding construct validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates and the construct reliabilities (CR) are presented in Table 1. With the exception of AC, the AVE estimates ranged from .60 to .82. The CRs ranged from .82 to .93. All exceeded the rule of thumb of .50 for the AVE and .75 for the CR (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE estimate of AC was slightly low than the criterion, which is included in the further analysis. Overall, the evidence suggested that the eight constructs were unique, and the discriminant validity and convergent validity of the measurement model were supported.

Hypothesis testing

A latent structural equation model was constructed in JASP to test the hypothetical model with measured variables (see Figure 2). The results revealed that the hypothetical model provided a good fit for the data ($\chi^2 = 329.07(191)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .06). When the hypothetical model included the control variables ($\chi^2 = 656.51(342)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .93, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .07), the model fits was lower than the hypothetical model. However, the significant paths remain the same with lower standardized coefficients (see Figure 3).

In terms of antecedents of sickness leaveism, the path from attendance control was not significant ($\beta = .08$, $p = .492$). Thus, *Hypothesis 1a* was supported. The path from workload to work leaveism was significant ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$) and thus *Hypothesis 1b* was supported. However, both *Juan-Chiuan* leadership and *Shan-Yan* leadership did not have significant relationships with sickness leaveism and work leaveism, and thus *Hypothesis 1b* was not supported.

Regarding the consequence of sickness leaveism and work leaveism, only work leaveism had significant impacts on mental health ($\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$) and work-family

conflict ($\beta = .47, p < .001$). Therefore, the results partially supported *Hypothesis 2* and *Hypothesis 3*.

In order to verify the moderation effects, Hypothesis 4 and 5 were tested using Model 1 in the PROCESS macro (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) to examine the magnitude of conditional indirect effects at different levels of job security and boundary control. Since the hypothetical model (Figure 2) and the hypothetical model with control variables (Figure 3) shows a significant relationship between workload to work leaveism, and thus, this study further investigated the moderating roles of job security and boundary control in this relationship. The cross-product terms indicate that the moderating role of job security on the relationships between workload and work leaveism ($\beta = .06, p = .46$) was not significant. Moreover, boundary control was not able to moderate the relationship between workload and work leaveism ($\beta = .07, p = .16$). Thus, *Hypothesis 4* and *Hypothesis 5* was not supported.

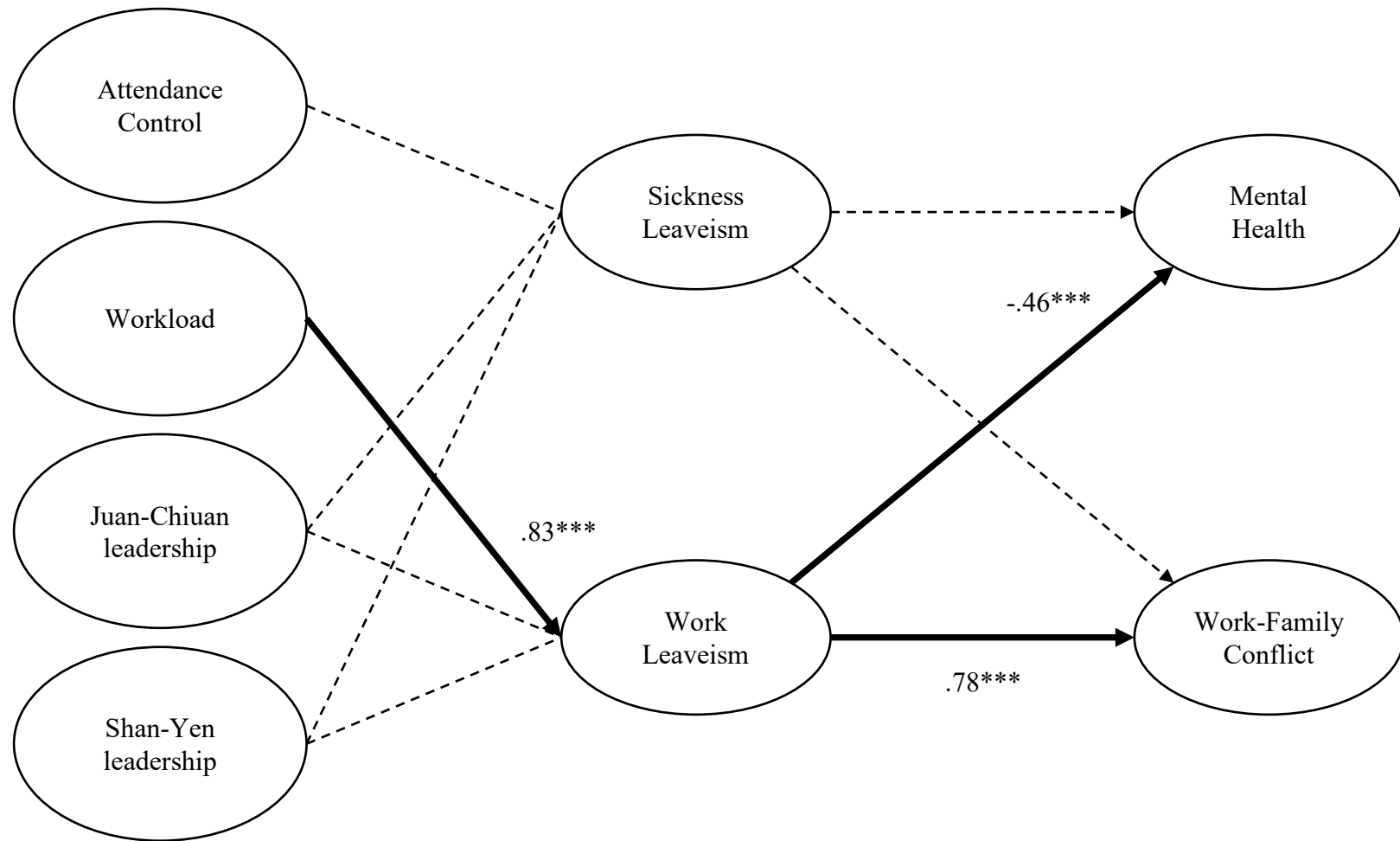


Figure 2. Results of the Hypothetical Model

Note: Dash lines indicate the relationship are not significant.

$\chi^2 = 329.07(191)$, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .06.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

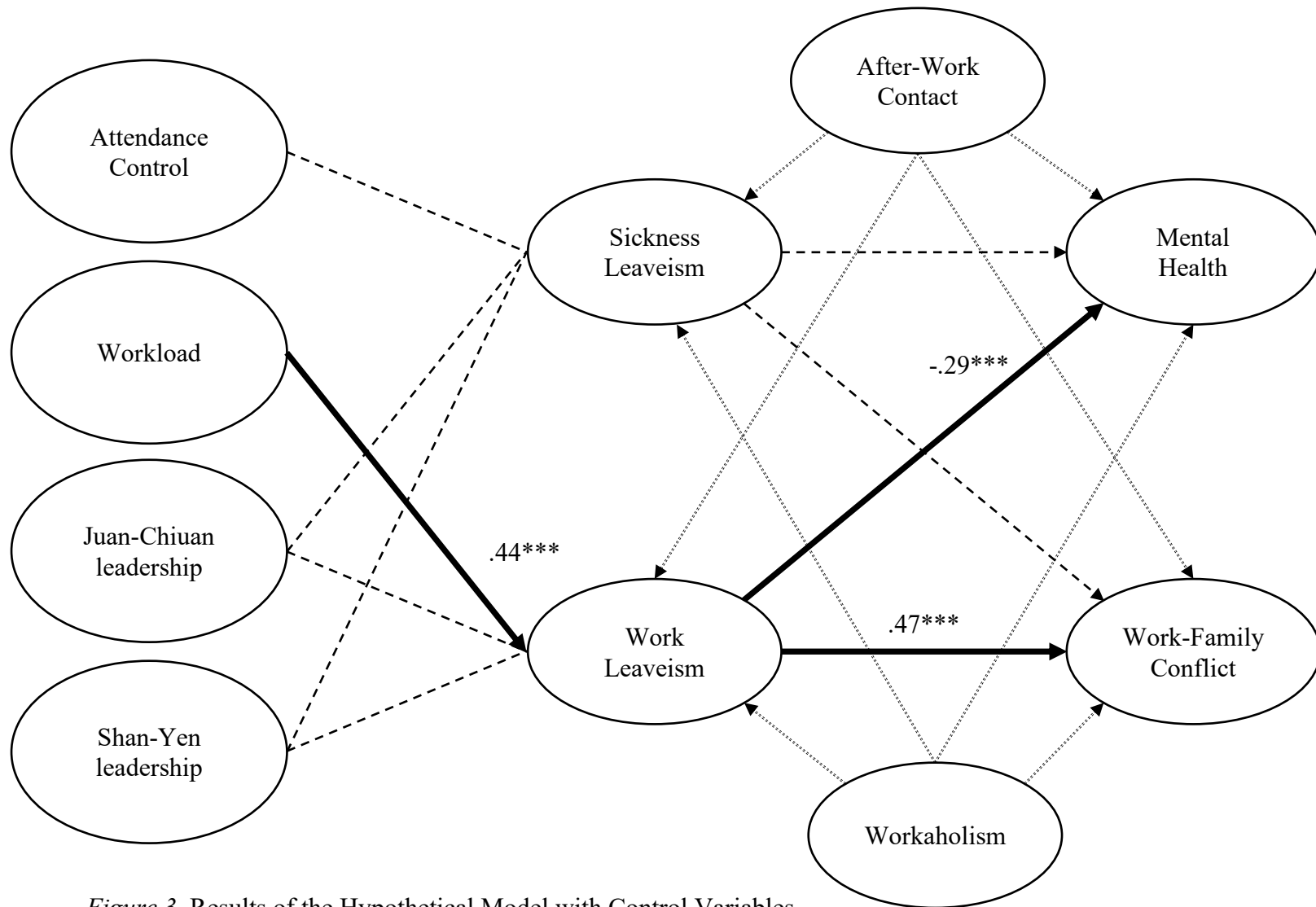


Figure 3. Results of the Hypothetical Model with Control Variables

Note: Dash lines indicate the relationship are not significant. Dotted lines indicate the paths controlled.

$\chi^2 = 656.51$ (217), $p < .001$, CFI = .93, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .07.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

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