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Mitigating the Effects of Withdrawal Behavior on Organizations

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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2016

Abstract

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MBA, Columbia Southern University, 2005

BS, Columbia Southern University, 2000

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, tardiness, turnover intention, and employee disengagement adversely affect organizations, costing billions of dollars annually. However, there is limited research on the best practices for minimizing the effects of employee withdrawal. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore best practices leaders need to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. The social learning theory (SLT) served as the conceptual framework for this study. Ten participants were interviewed, including 4 healthcare leaders and 6 health service workers from a correctional facility nursing department in the Southeastern United States. Scholars have indicated that correctional healthcare personnel exhibit high levels of employee withdrawal including absenteeism and turnover. Data from semistructured interviews were analyzed and compared with training and disciplinary policy statements for methodological triangulation. Several themes emerged including a need for leadership engagement, staff accountability, and an organizational culture that discourages withdrawal behaviors. The findings may contribute to the body of knowledge regarding best practices that leaders can utilize to diminish adverse effects withdrawal behaviors have on organizations. Information derived from this study might contribute to social change by decreasing the expense of employee withdrawal behaviors on citizens and reallocate taxpayer resources to appropriations necessary for public inpatient mental health treatment facilities.

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Dedication

I dedicate this doctoral study to the love of my life and best friend, my wife, Lora Renee Alexander. You believed in me, supported me, and have always been my biggest cheerleader. To my mother and father, Joyce and James Alexander, who have always supported me and told me that I can accomplish anything. To my supportive children, James-Mikal Alexander, Jazmine Alexander, and especially my youngest child, Joselyn (Cheeks) Alexander, I have always been proud of you and wanted to be the best role model and example for you. To my entire Alexander, McClarty, and Coleman-Bellanger family, I love you, and this is for you all. We did it!

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Employee disengagement can lead to withdrawal behaviors of employees, resulting in absenteeism and a loss of workplace productivity (Carpenter & Berry, 2014). A productive work environment is essential to organizational success (Moon, Quigley, & Marr, 2012). Withdrawal behaviors are potentially devastating for an enterprise (Llies, De Prater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012). In order to be sustainable, organizations competing in competitive markets must maintain economic equilibrium (Gosselin, Lemyre, & Corneil, 2013). An establishment suffers systemically when personnel miss work because of excused or unexcused absences (Gosselin et al., 2013). Moreover, increased efficiency by employees may result in a positive organizational culture (Gosselin et al., 2013). Withdrawal behaviors can lead to inefficient operations, emotional exhaustion, and personnel burnout, adversely affecting the wellbeing of coworkers (Roche & Haar, 2013). When employees are absent from work, efficiency goals are not met, and the organizational culture may suffer.

Employees miss work for a variety of reasons (Llies et al., 2012). However, when employee absenteeism becomes routine, staff productivity and organizational values may be compromised (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). Organizational leadership challenges include the need to develop aptitudes that limit the adverse effects of withdrawal behavior on organizations (Banks, Patel, & Moola, 2012). In this study, I explored the best practices leaders needed to reduce the effects of withdrawal behaviors.

Background of the Problem

There are numerous hours of lost productivity each year adversely affecting organizations and creating a burden on enterprises (Strom, Sears, & Kelly, 2014). The most common forms of employee work disengagement are withdrawal behaviors, which manifest as absenteeism, employee turnover, tardiness, and burnout (Timms, Brough, & Graham, 2012). Organizational leaders depend on a skilled, stable and diverse workforce to remain viable in a competitive marketplace (Banks et al., 2012).

Withdrawal behaviors are challenging for organizational leaders as well as other coworkers (Johnson, Holley, Morgeson, LaBonar, & Stetzer, 2014). Absenteeism disrupts teams, superior-subordinate relationships, and group dynamics. Although the literature regarding workforce absenteeism is capacious, there are significant gaps (Johnson et al., 2014). Literature scarcities include absence management, which is managing absence behavior and the association between employee behavior and key stakeholders (Johnson et al., 2014). Judicious attendance at work with the correct quantity of competent employees in place to meet business requirements is vital for sustainable and scheduled business activities (Torre, Pelagatti, & Solari, 2014). However, whether absences are approved or unauthorized, the likelihood of employee absenteeism is probable, and employers need agendas in place to calculate and govern absences as a daily business function (Torre et al., 2014). Scholars must conduct further research on nonattendance management as executive administrators seek to comprehend withdrawal

behaviors and moderate operational expenses correlated with staff absences (Torre et al., 2014).

Problem Statement

Withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, tardiness, turnover intention, and employee disengagement adversely affect corporations, costing organizations billions of dollars annually (Malik, 2013). Globally, employee withdrawal behaviors consume approximately 15% of an organization's payroll (Faulk & Hicks, 2015). The general business problem was that withdrawal behaviors affect an establishment's profits and throughput. The specific business problem was that some organizational leaders lack best practices needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the best practices leaders need to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. I interviewed leaders and health service workers in a nursing department of a correctional facility in the Southeastern United States. Prisons are public taxpayer-funded enterprises, and employee absenteeism practices cost citizens millions of dollars each year (Kim & Price, 2014). Data from this study may affect social change by providing organizational leaders with the skills needed to mitigate the social impact of withdrawal behaviors. Reducing the effects of employee withdrawal behaviors may benefit society by more efficiently allocating taxpayer revenue versus increasing the tax burden because of the expense of employee turnover.

Nature of the Study

I chose a qualitative methodology for this study. Qualitative researchers interact in the natural environment of the participants under study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). I selected a qualitative method because interacting with the natural environment and describing the phenomena through descriptions and translation of observations was crucial for my study. Quantitative methods require a hypothesis and analyzing variables (Babones, 2015). Since testing a hypothesis was not my objective, choosing a quantitative method was inappropriate. Mixed methods researchers can collect data from qualitative and quantitative research designs simultaneously, resulting in the subjectivity of qualitative research and numerical data for quantitative research (McKim, 2015). Because gathering information from multiple related sources within a case was my goal, as opposed to collecting data consecutively using statistics and texts, the mixed method approach was not appropriate for this study.

I chose the case study design. Case studies are the preferred strategy utilized by researchers when asking how or why questions utilizing observations, interviews, and archival data (Yin, 2014). An ethnographic approach was not appropriate for this study because ethnographic researchers focus on 100% of a population (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011; Koning & Ooi 2013; Lalonde, 2013), and requiring an entire population to answer the research question is unnecessary. Researchers utilize the grounded theory design when seeking to generate a theory (Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012; Standmark, 2015). I did not generate a theory as part of this research. Furthermore, Guenther, Stiles, and

Champion (2012) explained that investigators base phenomenological research on lived experiences. Selecting a phenomenological design was inappropriate for this study because my intent was to focus on the adverse effect withdrawal behaviors had on an organization and not the lived experiences of particular individuals. Since stories about a small number of participants would not address the research question, a narrative design was not applicable to this study.

Research Question

The focus of this qualitative case study was to explore the best practices needed to reduce the adverse effect that withdrawal behaviors have on organizations. Withdrawal behaviors, whether they are blatant or covert, are counterproductive to organizational effectiveness (Thornton, Esper, & Morris, 2013). The central research question that drove this study was: *What best practices are needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations?*

Interview Questions

The interview questions were as follows:

1. Why are employees absent and tardy from your organization?
2. How do organizational policies contribute to absenteeism and tardiness?
3. Why do employees decide to leave your organization?
4. What actions should leaders take to minimize the effects of employee turnover?
5. How do absenteeism and tardiness affect the work environment?

6. How do absenteeism and tardiness affect the delivery of health services?
7. How does organizational culture contribute to absenteeism?
8. How does job satisfaction contribute to tardiness, absenteeism, and employee turnover?
9. What skills do leaders need to reduce tardiness, turnover, and unexcused absences?
10. What more can you add that would be beneficial to this study?

Conceptual Framework

I utilized the social learning theory (SLT) for the conceptual framework of this study. Bandura (1972) developed SLT in 1963, claiming that individuals can acquire new patterns of behavior through direct experiences or by observing others. Bandura argued that the environment influenced the individual, and the person influences the environment. Bandura utilized SLT to explain human behavior in terms of continuous mutual interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1972). Furthermore, Miller and Morris (2014) stated there are three basic concepts in the SLT: (a) people can learn through observation and emulate those observed behaviors; (b) inner psychological states are a critical part of the education process; and (c) individual skill acquisition does not necessarily equate to a change in behavior. Proponents of SLT suggest that individuals are likely to pay attention to the actions of individuals and emulate behaviors from credible and desirable role models such as the leaders of an organization (Miller & Morris, 2014). Moreover, Ahn, Lee, and

Steel (2013) highlighted how the extensiveness of theories such as SLT assist researchers in explaining workers' withdrawal behaviors.

Withdrawal behaviors are learned actions (Islam, Khan, Norulkamar, Ahmad, & Ahmad, 2013). Unexcused absenteeism is a form of withdrawal behavior acquired through observation (Islam et al., 2013). Scholars using SLT argue that employees learn withdrawal behaviors through the monitoring of coworkers and leaders (Miller & Morris, 2014). Researchers using SLT fortify the idea that leaders should become role models of suitable workplace behavior (Ogunfowora, 2014). Moreover, through the strictures of SLT, employees learn acceptable social behaviors by discerning management's dealings with other employees under varying circumstances (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012).

Operational Definitions

Absence culture: An absence culture is a common belief among many employees of organizations that they should have more time off than permitted (Russo, Miraglia, Borgogoni, & Johns, 2013).

Emotional labor: Emotional labor is an employees' self-regulation of feelings and responsive articulations during their communication with customers, patrons, or patients (Nguyen, Groth, & Johnson, 2013).

Group absence norms: Group absence norms are a set of collective principles on what is a satisfactory number of, or rationalization for, an employee's absence within a given work area (Biron & Bamberger, 2012).

Presenteeism: Presenteeism is behavior in which individuals, who come to work although they are psychologically or physically unwell (Collins and Cartwright, 2012).

Social exchange: Social exchange (SE) is the exchange of activity, physical or immaterial, and more or less gratifying or costly, between at least two individuals (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012).

Social learning: Social learning is a process in which individuals observe the conduct of others and the consequences of that conduct, and consequently modify their own behavior (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012).

Tardiness: Tardiness is the act of failing to report for duty or return to duty at the scheduled time (Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012).

Turnover intention: Turnover intention is a measurement of whether a business' or organization's employees plan to leave their positions or whether organizational leaders plan to remove employees from positions. This behavior is also known as intention to leave (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

Withdrawal behaviors: Sliter et al. (2012) define withdrawal behaviors as excused or unexcused physical absence from the workplace, including absence, tardiness, departing early, and intention to avoid or leave that organization.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are truths believed to be factual that are not in reality substantiated (Lips-Wiersma & Mills 2014). Three assumptions guided this research. The first

assumption was that organizational leaders in this study lacked best practices needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Second, I assumed that the participants in the research could articulate their experience of the research phenomena. My third assumption was that all participants were honest and truthful.

Limitations

Henderson (2014) defined limitations as potential weaknesses of the research. Two limitations were identified in this study. The first limitation was that I interviewed only healthcare leaders and health service workers of a nursing department within a state correctional healthcare facility. Therefore, the findings may not apply to other organizations. Second, the use of a qualitative case study design may have limited understanding to one organization as compared to data that I may have gained from other methods and designs.

Delimitations

Delimitations represent the constraints or scope of the research (Barros-Bailey & Saunders, 2012). There are three delimitations. First, the participant sample size was small, and the results may not be generalized to a larger population. Second, the use of interviews as the main instrument for data gathering and the triangulation of an archival document may have excluded useful information that I could have gained through other means. Lastly, I analyzed the findings solely through the lens of SLT.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

The study findings may influence business leaders by identifying best practices needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. The results might assist organization leaders to understand how to lessen the impact of withdrawal behaviors. Scholars argue that there are numerous hours of lost productivity each year affecting organizations and creating a burden on enterprises (Strom et al., 2014). Further, my findings could provide insights to administrators interested in developing skills that are useful in enhancing a productive office environment by encouraging employee engagement in the workplace.

Implications for Social Change

The challenge for organizational leaders when addressing withdrawal behaviors is to develop a system to identify the precursors of an absence culture (Patton & Johns, 2012). Data compiled for this study may provide leaders with solutions and best practices needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Withdrawal behaviors adversely influence organizations and societies by potentially limiting services and goods due to decreased productivity (Carpenter & Berry, 2014; Cocker, Martin, & Sanderson, 2012). Withdrawal behaviors also affect individuals and families due to diminishing financial resources (Goodman & Atkin, 1984; Zhao, Mattila, & Ngan, 2014). Absenteeism can lead to a poor work reputation, adversely reflect on family members and

aggravate familial relationships because of lost income (Allen, Golden, & Shockley, 2015).

Furthermore, taxes fund correctional facility operations, and employee withdrawal cost citizens millions of dollars each year (Kim & Price, 2014). More than 50% of prison offenders have a history of mental health illness, (Felsom, Silver, & Remster, 2012). Reducing the public funding of mental health institutions in the United States, state mental hospital populations decreased from 550,000 psychiatric patients in 1956 to approximately 30,000 in 2012 (Ward & Merlo, 2016). Adopting best practices could positively affect social change by redeploying limited public funding sources often dispersed on recruiting employees towards more mental health treatment facilities while reducing the imprisonment rate of the mentally ill.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

This review of the literature included an exploration of peer-reviewed articles and business books relating to the research problem. The results of this study may contribute to the gap in business practice regarding strategies leaders might implement to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations as identified in the literature. I retrieved articles from Science Direct, Emerald Management Journals, Sage, ABI/Inform Complete, and Business Source Complete/Premier. Keywords included in the literature review search included: *withdrawal behaviors, absenteeism and tardiness, health-related absenteeism, age, economics, turnover intention, culture, leadership, organizational commitment, employee engagement, employee disengagement, emotional labor, job*

insecurity, social learning theory, the transformational leadership theory, and the social exchange theory. The literature review contained information gathered from 154 resources, of which 151 (98.5%) were peer-reviewed articles and 140 (93%) of the total references were published between 2012 and 2015. In addition, the literature review included three seminal books (1.9%), and two government publications (1.3%).

I separated the review of the literature into two principal categories: Withdrawal behaviors and theories. I utilized SLT as the conceptual framework for this study, following the considerations provided by Hancock and Algozzine (2011) and Nawafleh, Francis, and Chapman (2012). Moreover, my study was investigative, interpretive, and exploratory.

Withdrawal Behaviors

A maturing workforce, proliferated globalization, and an increased reliance on intellectual resources make employee retention increasingly critical (Zimmerman, Boswell, Ship, Dunford, & Boudreau, 2012). Although managers seek to foster a productive and satisfied workforce, employees disengage from their work for a variety of reasons (Timms et al., 2012). Llies et al. (2012), Nguyen et al. (2013), and Zimmerman et al. (2012) refer to employee tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover intention as withdrawal behaviors since each behavior represents some substantial removal or withdrawal from the place of work. Woods, Poole, and Zibarras (2012) conceptualized counterproductive behaviors such as absence, lateness, and intention to quit as withdrawal behavior at work. Withdrawal behaviors constitute a significant expense for many organizations (Lobene &

Meade, 2013). Organizational leaders seek to multiply profits and productivity while minimizing organization costs. Withdrawal behaviors decrease earnings and productivity in organizations because staff lose work hours by covering for absent employees, thereby expanding their workload (Lobene & Meade, 2013). Furthermore, personnel who do not report for their apportioned days may place an enterprise at risk of losing profit. Consequently, organizations become short-staffed or have to pay additional employees overtime to fill the vacancy (Frick, Goetzen, & Simmons, 2013). An employee's overtime pay includes additional hours completing a coworker's job in the absence (Biron & Bamberger, 2012). Businesses leaders need productive workers for competitive advantage in a global economy (Zimmerman et al., 2012).

Absenteeism

Absenteeism and deliberate turnover are expensive to businesses, and the deficit of key individuals can adversely affect an enterprises' competitiveness (Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2012; Listl, Galloway, Mossey, & Marcenes, 2015). Absenteeism is a top expense for many organizations (Senel & Senel, 2012). Furthermore, absent employees can affect a business's bottom line (Lobene & Meade, 2013). Company administrators need to formulate plans for arranged absences such as vacation time, medical leave, professional appointments, and retreats to ensure the obligatory assets and skill sets are accessible for enterprise sustainability (Fugate et al., 2012). Employers need individuals who report to work on time and can perform job tasks without restrictions (Knies et al., 2012). Zimmerman et al. (2012) revealed two identifiable elements comprising

absenteeism: the lack of availability or presence of an employee and a social responsibility for an employee to attend work. Zimmerman et al. argued that numerous researchers focus on the first aspect of absenteeism while the second element is a reminder to scholars that absenteeism is also a social behavior that influences others and is subject to societal normative influences. Withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism are a disruptive phenomenon, which increases the stress of the individuals who report to work at the correct time (Frick et al., 2013). Woods et al. (2012) linked employee absence to a variety of predictors including personality attitudes such as commitment and satisfaction, past absence behavior, and demographic factors such as gender and age.

Vishnupriya, Suganya, & Bhuvaneswari (2012) studied employee absence in textile businesses and sought options to improve employee behaviors in an effort to reduce absenteeism. Vishnupriya et al. argued that absenteeism was the most precarious threat to an institution because of decreased productivity. Seventy-two percent of employees interviewed reiterated that most staff missed work because of illness (Vishnupriya et al., 2012). However, Strom et al. (2014) contradicted the conclusions of Vishnupriya et al. in their earlier study, arguing that although sickness absenteeism is a significant dynamic for profit loss, ineffective leadership of the employees was the primary problem. Strom et al. (2014) argued that leaders drive employees to maximize output, contributing to stress-related illnesses. Therefore, management is required to take a proactive approach to improving work conditions and offer enticements to employees who present excessive absenteeism (Strom et al., 2014).

Employees are absent from work for uncontrollable reasons such as sickness and familial deaths (Gosselin et al., 2013). The previously mentioned occurrences are examples of excused absenteeism because the worker did not anticipate or control the events. Employees also exhibit absenteeism because of unauthorized reasons such as fatigue or taking additional days off without prior approval from a leader or supervisor (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). Organizational policies may cover limited authorized absenteeism or mourning with paid time off (Hill, 2013). However, unauthorized absenteeism is a premeditated action (Russo et al., 2013). The intentionally absent employee is a recurrent abuser of time off, and these absences generate differing dynamics in an organization, contributing to concerns such as antagonism and low staff morale (Minor, Wells, Lambert, & Keller, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2013). Absenteeism, whether authorized or unexcused, could result in a decrease in organizational productivity and profit. Employee sickness absenteeism is a leading expense for organizations (Michaels & Greene, 2013).

Organizational leaders must utilize the complete potential of human assets available if businesses are to be sustainable (Ardichvili, 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Montiel & Delgado-Ceballos, 2014; Shrivastava & Kennelly, 2013). Continual escalating pressure to expand throughput and efficiency denotes that organizational administration cannot afford to misappropriate human resources caused by excessive voluntary absenteeism. Nguyen et al. (2013) maintained in a study on withdrawal behaviors that employees occasionally utilize voluntary absenteeism to escape perceived demoralizing

work conditions as a form of protest. Until the 1980s, distinct dynamics such as job gratification, organizational commitment, and pay disproportion were motives for absenteeism (Miles, Schaufeli, & Bos, 2011). Subsequently, the primary emphasis in absenteeism inquiry has shifted toward studying the effect of group and cultural etiquettes on absence behavior (Miles et al., 2011). A fundamental concern in absence culture investigation is the group norm of how employees recognize certain relatively legitimate occurrences as unobjectionable causes for absence (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). Nguyen et al., (2013) linked employee absenteeism to job influences such as workload, job control, collaboration at work, and impartiality perceptions. Additionally, employee commitment and cultural influences might affect absenteeism levels by reducing the incidents of withdrawal behaviors (Miles et al., 2011; Raina & Roebuck, 2014).

Flint, Haley, and McNally (2013) maintained that some absenteeism levels reflect the SE within an organization and that at some level, management authorizes the behavior. The behavior in this context implies that employees understand that absences should fall within set limits and, therefore, employees' decisions to be absent conform to a normative frequency level (Melsom, 2014). However, Fugate et al. (2012) argued that absenteeism is a manifestation of negative SE in which employees fail to show up for work to make up for perceived workload stresses.

Sickness Absenteeism

The high extensiveness of illness absence in nations with substantial welfare arrangements has produced deliberations on structures that affect workers' choices about

calling out sick from work (Morken, Haukenes, & Magnussen, 2012)**.** Morken et al. (2012) associated frequent social, psychological and physical dynamics with illness absenteeism and stated literary sources concerning the absenteeism decision process is rare. Absence because of illness apparently is a choice that employees make within a particular cultural and societal framework (Morken et al., 2012). Morken et al. found that problems in workplace relations or arduous work conditions influenced the decision of calling out sick from work.

Chronic disease concerns are a primary reason for employee absenteeism in enterprises (Knies et al., 2012). The typical employee takes up to five sick leave days annually (Senel & Senel, 2012). According to Srivastava (2012), sickness absence accounts for the preponderance of organizational expense. Stress in the work environment can contribute to the number of sick days employees annually utilize (Knies et al., 2012). Stress from internal and external influences can also adversely affect the performance of staff members (Astvik & Melin, 2012). Mental illnesses correlated with work stress produced employee health-connected absences (Tabaj, Pastirk, Bitenc, & Masten, 2015). Moreover, personnel may take days off to restore their psychological state. Employees who are absent because of mental health concerns add stress to their coworkers (Hon & Chan, 2013). Colleagues may need to complete the missing employee's job responsibilities. Moreover, health related stress issues might become reoccurring cycles (Riaz & Khan, 2012). Illness absenteeism adversely affects earnings, financial loss, and efficiency in an enterprise (Vishnupriya et al., 2012).

Organizational stress exists in a multitude of work environments. In manual labor industries, the stress levels of employees are greater because there is a correlation between higher productivity and increased profits and leaders drive employee production throughout the enterprise (Beheshtifar & Nazarian, 2013). Often, manual labor jobs allow minimal time for breaks and require excessive physical productivity (Beheshtifar & Nazarian, 2013). Personnel facing employee understaffing at the beginning of the work period might demonstrate escalated stress levels throughout their shift (Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013; Gabriel, Diefendorff, & Erickson, 2011). Khanna and Maini (2013) claimed that workers desire an agency that has suitable benefits and an environment that minimizes stress. Employee stress because of job demands contributes to individual health issues (Pasca & Wagner, 2012).

Darr and Johns (2008) examined health connected absence utilizing employees as independent variables. Darr and Johns applied a mediation model to demonstrate that health associated matters could facilitate workplace stress and absenteeism. Darr and Johns proposed that mental illnesses contributed to physical disorders, thus increasing employee absenteeism. However, Khanna and Maini (2013) asserted that work stress was a primary reason for employee absence. Utilizing a comprehensive meta-analysis of 100 banking personnel, Khanna and Maini discovered empirical evidence that office stress and absenteeism correlated with mental and physical ailments. Khanna and Maini attributed organizational unproductivity and profit loss to illnesses caused by office stress.

Chronic illnesses are a principal reason for employee absenteeism (Gilbreath, 2012). Occupation stress on personnel with predisposed chronic diseases cause companies to lose productivity and earnings. According to Gilbreath (2012), employees who suffer from major chronic diseases are more probable to exhibit increased absenteeism.

Financial Cost to Employers

Unplanned employee absence is an unprompted event that has adverse outcomes (Scuffham, Vecchio & Whiteford, 2013; Skrepnek, Nevins, & Sullivan, 2012). The primary goals of organizational leaders are to increase profits and reduce overhead spending (Strom et al., 2014). Illness absenteeism is a substantial expenditure to organizations (Skrepnek et al., 2012). Sickness absenteeism has cost U.S. institutions approximately $120 billion dollars in overall expenses and this dollar amount has persisted over the past decade (Biron & Bamberger, 2012; Gosselin et al., 2013). Scuffham et al. (2013) noted that significant illness absence accounted for millions of dollars in total costs to enterprises. Chronic medical issues such as reactive airway disease, super morbid obesity, and allergic reactions are characteristic for employees (Krein, Abdul-Wahab, Kadri, & Richardson, 2015). When employees are sick, they may compromise organizational productivity (Black, 2012).

Turnover Intention

Employee turnover, incorporating the costs of separation, vacancy, replacement, and preparation, ranges between 30% and 200% of the lost workers' income (Bryant &

Allen, 2013). Furthermore, Bryant and Allen (2013) estimated the cost of employee turnover as between 50 to 200% of an employees' first-year salary. Companies in the United States incur costs in excess of 100 billion dollars each year because of withdrawal behaviors (Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). The intention to leave a present place of employment is a prevalent phenomenon, particularly among knowledgeable personnel (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). Gosh, Satyawadi, Joshi, and Shadman (2013) classified employee turnover into two groupings: Involuntary and voluntary. Involuntary turnover denotes the termination of employees while voluntary turnover ensues when employees give notice to resign (Gosh et al., 2013). Voluntary turnover frequently results in departing employees working for opposing organizations (Gosh et al., 2013). Bryant and Allen (2013) connected three categories of predictors to turnover: (a) the withdrawal progression, (b) critical job outlooks, and (c) the work atmosphere. Moreover, the predictors with the most resilient relationships to employee turnover are turnover intentions and job search (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Bryant and Allen (2013) maintained that although some individuals quit their employment abruptly, most employees first go through psychological withdrawal. Individuals may (a) experience thoughts of resigning, (b) search for options, (c) weigh possible options against their existing job, (d) develop plans to resign, or (e) intend to resign as soon as a viable option is presented.

There are three elements in the turnover intention process: (a) thoughts of quitting a job, (b) the plan to explore alternative job options, and (c) the intention to resign (Rahman & Nas, 2013). Rahman and Nas (2013) maintained that there are numerous

influences affecting an employee's intention to leave including management and job satisfaction. Gosh et al. (2013) also revealed various factors influencing turnover could be categorized as (a) organization-wide, (b) proximate work environment related, (c) occupation related, or (d) personal. Depending on who leaves, turnover can either be dysfunctional, such as when top performers depart, or functional, as when employers terminate substandard employees (Gosh et al., 2013). Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) defined employee intention to resign as a cognizant and calculated desire to leave the company within the immediate future. Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) regarded intention to leave as the final part of a progression in the withdrawal decision process.

Research by Elmore (2012) revealed that there is a mutual relationship between sickness absenteeism and employee turnover rates. Organizations with high employee turnover associated with sickness absenteeism have a reduction in productivity (Llies et al., 2012). Mayfield and Borstorff (2012) scrutinized the case of an employee at who worked at an institution for nearly 20 years and missed work because of illness. The employee had numerous occurrences of absenteeism, and organizational leaders expended all possibilities, using alternative workplace resolutions to prevent the employee from incessantly missing work. The employee's absenteeism cost the organization productivity and earnings because coworkers had to fill the inflating overhead costs. Furthermore, employers desire to hire and keep top employees who could manage job responsibilities (Strom et al., 2014). Recruitment and retention expenses are excessive when high turnover ratios continuously force an organization to hire new

employees (Mahal, 2012). Furthermore, a continual need to employ substantial numbers of personnel may adversely influence hiring quality employees, thereby diminishing organizational effectiveness (Moors, Malley, & Stewart, 2014). Business leaders are motivated to engage more actively in the retention of existing employees to remain viable in retaining and attracting employees and avoid the disadvantages of turnover (Lobene & Meade, 2013). Elements that affect retention include (a) financial gain and employee compensations, (b) job enhancement, (c) training and education opportunities, (d) work setting, and (e) work-life stability (Gosh et al., 2013; Miles et al., 2011).

Withdrawal Behavior Challenges

The challenge with addressing withdrawal behaviors is that this is a global phenomenon adversely affecting a variety of enterprises across multiple cultures (Addae, Johns, & Boies, 2013). Addae et al. (2013) maintained that because of globalization, researchers exhibited an increased curiosity in cross-cultural comprehension on the perceptions and behaviors of absenteeism. In certain countries, organizations protect employers against financial loss because of sickness absenteeism. In Sweden, Huzell and Larsson (2011) illustrated that employers fully insure employees against earning losses due to illness and absenteeism because of sickness. However, since the worker's health is not easily verifiable, leaders consider sickness absenteeism as a proxy for employee shirking (Moll, Eakin, Franche, & Strike, 2013; Torre et al., 2014). Employee absence endures as a complex occurrence caused by multiple influences (Sørup & Jacobsen, 2013). Having a smaller number of employees to treat an increasing patient load will

naturally result in substandard service levels, increased patient wait times and canceled operations (Sørup & Jacobsen, 2013). However, with a decreased number of employees various hospital staff have also obtained decreased waiting times, lower death rates, and higher patient contentment in the short term (Sørup & Jacobsen, 2013).

Organizational Culture

One of many challenges that leaders encounter within an organizational environment centers on how withdrawal behaviors of employees affects the culture of the enterprise (Johnson et al., 2014). Withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, tardiness, departing work early, or intention to quit hamper the daily operations of businesses (Llies et al., 2012). An absence culture exemplifies a set of shared comprehensions about absence acceptability and the recognized customs and habits of employee absence and control (Patton & Johns, 2012). Absence cultures frequently encompass attentiveness to the attendance conduct of others, self-awareness of one's absenteeism, and some level of conformity about the appropriate level of absence (Patton & Johns, 2012). Empirically, this mutual conceptualization of absence conduct has received support, predominantly relating to workgroup standards and leaders attitudes regarding absenteeism (Patton & Johns, 2012; Biron & Bambeger, 2012).

Voluntary absenteeism is an intricate and multifactorial occurrence for which there is no single explanation and no simple solutions (Nguyen et al., 2013). Regulating employee absenteeism is essential to all employers seeking to ensure organizational survival (Nguyen et al., 2013). Employee withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism,

tardiness, and employee turnover costs companies billions of dollars each fiscal year (Malik, 2014). In the United States, the typical employee is away from the workplace 2% of the planned work time, amounting to nearly 400 million lost work days per year (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). The average monthly turnover rate in 2011 was approximately 3%, of which approximately 49% was voluntary (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Organizational leaders have introduced a number of policies to diminish temporary absence including (a) return to work interviews, (b) home visits, and (c) the obligation for employees to keep management cognizant about absences (Collins & Cartwright, 2012). However, Collins and Cartwright (2012) illustrated how organizational procedures introduced to moderate short-term absence can have unintentional outcomes and encourage both presenteeism and absenteeism. Policies intended to mitigate absenteeism such as decreasing sick pay may eventually escalate presenteeism (Collins & Cartwright, 2012). Gawlicky, McKown, Talbert, Brandt, and Bullington (2012), Heponiemi, Kouvonen, Sinervo, and Elovaini. (2013) and Moqbe, Nevo and Kock (2013) argued that presenteeism is a risk to employee productivity and organizational safety. Baker-McClear et al. (2010) claimed that as early as 1978, researchers expressed concerns regarding the effect of attending work when ill. Moreover, Patton and Johns (2012) suggested that some absenteeism is unavoidable to an organization while over-reliance on absence data as a determination of output can be counterproductive, with unfavorable consequences for organizations and employees alike.

Given the costs involved, mitigating the effects of absenteeism is operationally critical for leaders and the sustainability of their organizations (Malik, 2013). As a result, absenteeism has been the topic of multiple studies since the 1960s (Frooman, Mendelson, & Murphy, 2012). Frooman et al. (2012) argued that researchers have concentrated on worker characteristics such as race, attitudes such as job fulfillment, and personality traits such as Machiavellianism in order to discover and mitigate common causes of employee absence behaviors. To fully understand organizational leadership contributions to withdrawal behaviors, other investigators focused on leaders, scrutinizing such factors as abusive management practices (Loi, Lam, & Chan, 2012) and general measures of employee satisfaction with supervision (Biron & Bambeger, 2012). Many of the elements of absenteeism such as reduced employee attendance levels due to illnesses are uncontrollable, while others such as promotion opportunities may be partially controllable, and only a few are entirely manageable for managers seeking to reduce absenteeism (Frooman et al., 2012). Leadership style is one such element that is directly within the control of leaders (Frooman et al., 2012).

Leadership

The leadership style of an organization's management team sets the tone for employees to follow (Pauliene, 2012). Authentic leadership and transformational leadership are prevailing topics in modern leadership literature (Ghadi et al., 2013). Authentic leaders build validity through relationships with followers, value follower input, and build authenticity based on ethical organizational foundations (Leory, Anseel,

Gardner, & Sels, 2015). Lam and O'Higgins (2012) identified transformational leadership as one of the most valuable and functional leadership styles. Transformational leadership is the progression through which leaders and followers assist each other in progressing to a higher level of ethics and motivation (Ghadi et al., 2013). According to Ghadi et al. (2013), transformational leaders have an agreement with employees in which the leader participates in the employee's development. Additionally, when the employee engages in the mission of the organization, a potential decrease in the prevalence of withdrawal behaviors exists (Ghadi et al., 2013). Authentic and transformation leadership can lead to a reduction in withdrawal behaviors through improved employer-employee engagement (Ghadi et al., 2013; Johansson et al., 2011).

To contrast authentic leadership, and transformational leadership, Frooman et al. (2012) maintained that passive avoidant and laissez-faire leadership increased the rate of absenteeism. Passive avoidant leaders abdicate responsibility to such an extent that they do not meet the employee's needs (Frooman et al., 2012). Also, passive avoidant leaders do not communicate a vision, provide strategy or inspire employees to strive for corporate ideals (Frooman et al., 2012). Frooman et al. (2012) further claimed that under the passive avoidant leader, employees either have total discretion of individual behavior up to the point that they create a mistake, or the employer neglects the employee with no direction provided. Laissez-faire leadership is the absence of leadership or the avoidance of leadership accountabilities (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). Moreover, laissez-faire leaders neglect to follow up appeals for assistance and avoid articulating honest views on critical

issues (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). In neither passive avoidant nor laissez-faire leadership is the employee truly empowered (Frooman et al., 2012; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). Disengaged managers and disengaged employees' actions demonstrate that there is a relationship between the passive avoidant and laissez-faire styles of leadership and employee withdrawal behaviors (Frooman et al., 2012). Interpersonal associations including social relationships with one another are a fundamental part of organizational life and sustainable achievement (Dasgupta, Suar, & Singh, 2012).

Supervisory communication maneuvers relationships and frames the mindsets and behaviors of employees in the organization (Dasgupta et al., 2012). Communication fulfillment can straightforwardly relate to employee socio-psychological wellbeing thereby decreasing absenteeism. Dasgupta et al. (2012) further emphasized that greater communication contentment leads to a reduction in absenteeism. However, workers' satisfaction with managerial communication improved employees' emotional commitment, employee contentment with leadership communication did not influence job performance, persistence commitment (Frooman et al., 2012). The greater the emotional commitment employees had towards an organization, the greater the potential for reducing absenteeism rates. Employee satisfaction with employer communication increased the commitment of employees and decreased absenteeism (Dasgupta et al., 2012).

Presenteeism

The capability of employers to increase workforce productivity and decrease losses because of absenteeism and presenteeism epitomizes a crucial economic advantage for organizations (Scuffham et al., 2013). Following a worldwide economic depression and economic crisis, a substantial number of organizational leaders reduced human capital and restructured their operations in an attempt to accomplish organizational objectives with fewer assets (Lu, Cooper, & Lin, 2013). Lu et al. (2013) argued that during this time the work environment changed giving rise to the term presenteeism. The term presenteeism was initially used for describing situations where employees came to work ill or injured and performed below peak levels (Garlicky et al., 2012; Heponiemi et al., 2013; Moqbe et al., 2013). The term presenteeism has evolved to include occurrences where employees are physically present in the organization although functionally absent (Garlicky et al., 2012; Heponiemi et al., 2013; Moqbe et al., 2013). Moreover, Moqbe et al. (2013), and Gawlicki et al. (2012) used the term presenteeism to describe employees who engage in non-work related undertakings such as private business for a portion of the workday, making presenteeism similar to withdrawal behaviors and employee disengagement.

Employers consider absenteeism a cost to the organization (Malik, 2013). However, Scuffham et al. (2013) claimed that presenteeism could be costlier than absenteeism. Cooper (2013) argued that in England, presenteeism at approximately £15 billion pounds, or $24 billion U.S. dollars is nearly twice as costly to organizations as

absenteeism. Reilly (2012) also estimated that presenteeism cost U.S. companies over $100 billion each year. Cooper attributed presenteeism to employees being insecure regarding stable employment opportunities. Organizational researchers have sought to plot out personal and organizational contextual links of presenteeism, and have found presenteeism negatively related to employees' health, thus contributing to absenteeism (Astvik & Melin, 2012; Lu, Cooper, & Lin, 2013).

Organizational leaders have employed survey tools such as the work productivity and activity impairment (WPAI) questionnaire to measure presenteeism (Gawlicki et al., 2012) and the effects of overall health and symptom severity on work efficiency to determine how detrimental presenteeism is to organizations (Scuffham et al., 2013). The outcomes of the Scuffham et al. (2013) survey indicated that there is a direct correlation between ill health and decreased work productivity. Gawlicki et al. (2012) and Scuffham et al. (2013) utilized the WPAI algorithm to measure productivity loss resulting from presenteeism. The overall WPAI score was computed by multiplying time spent laboring by the standard output at work which indicated overall productivity lost because of presenteeism (Gawlicki et al., 2012; Scuffham et al., 2013). The results of the Gawlicki et al. (2012) and Scuffham et al. (2013) surveys revealed that presenteeism is disadvantageous to work productivity. Presenteeism, similar to absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviors such as employee disengagement can cost businesses billions of dollars in lost productivity adversely affecting organizational sustainability (Cooper, 2013; Malik, 2013).

Organizational Commitment

Individuals with low levels of organizational commitment are often prepared to change employers at the first opportunity (Islamet al., 2013). For a business to have a continual competitive advantage in the merchandise and labor market, a committed workforce is required. Organizational commitment denotes peoples' feelings about a group (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012; Vujicic, Jovicic, Lalic, Gagic, & Cvejanov, 2014). Organizational commitment is an unwavering attitude, imitating an overall effective response towards the organization closely associated with the attainment of long-term organizational goals (Vujicic et al., 2014). Wood, Van Veldhoven, Croon, and De Menezes (2012) defined organizational commitment as the comparative strength of a person's connection with, and participation in, an organization's mission. Enache, Sallan, Simo, and Fernandez (2013), and Vujicic et al. (2014) defined organizational commitment as a force that unites an individual to a course of action that is of significance to one or more targets. Wood et al. (2012) maintained that dedicated employees demonstrate a strong work ethic with a desire to fulfill the terms of the employment contract. Additional, Vujicic et al. (2014) maintained that such personnel are prepared to intensify their undertakings for the benefit of the organization and demonstrate a robust aspiration to remain working for the organization. The more engaged an employee is to an organization, the greater the likelihood of diminished absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviors, such as turnover intention (Vujicic et al., 2014; Wood et al., 2012).

Schaufeli and Bos (2011) argued that the equilibrium between job assets and job requirements would affect an employee's propensity to be absent. Particularly, if an employee feels that an organization requires a greater expenditure of emotional energy and personal resources than the institution offers the person in return, this could result in withdrawal behavior in the form of absence in order to reestablish this social exchange inequity (Elamin, 2012; Miles et al., 2011). Additionally, Karatepe (2013) explained that employees might not be firmly allied to the organization because of an inability cope with complications surfacing from emotional exhaustion because of the lack of emotional connection with managers and co-workers. Employees may not feel devoted to the institution since they may discover that individual ethics, career objectives, and skills do not translate adequately with the requirements of frontline service occupations and organizational culture (Karatepe, 2013). Under these conditions, Karatepe (2013), and Wood et al. (2012) claimed workers are likely to have decreased job commitment, and consequently, exhibit tardiness, absenteeism, or turnover intentions. Furthermore, Miles et al. (2011) maintained that employees' normative attitudes regarding which extent managers should accept different reasons for being absent related to individual and collective absence levels.

Employee Engagement

Malik (2013) maintained that businesses lose billions of dollars annually because of the disengagement of their personnel. Malik argued that at any moment, 50% to 70% of employees are disengaged in the organization's mission adversely affecting

profitability and withdrawal behaviors. Ghadi et al. (2013) maintained that only 20% of employees actively engage in their work and that the participation levels were progressively diminishing, costing companies billions of dollars in lost production each year. Enterprise revenues in companies with high levels of engagement can be as much as 40% greater than organizations with minimal amounts of engagement (Malik, 2013). Moreover, companies in the United States lose in excess of $300 billion dollars annually because of employee disengagement (Ghadi et al., 2013; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). Increasing the engagement of personnel can improve their work productivity (Malik, 2013). In the health service sector, the behavior of employees and their exchanges with each other have an enormous influence on the quality of services provided, as well as altering the health and wellbeing of individual staff members (Carpenter & Berry, 2014; Pope & Burnes, 2013). In an attempt to motivate staff members to greater levels of achievement, employee engagement has become a topic of interest amongst organizational leaders (Malinen, Wright, & Cammock, 2013). Fearon, McLaughlin, and Morris (2013) defined engagement as a positive work-related mental state reflecting a sincere inclination to invest efforts towards the attainment of organizational objectives. To be engaged in the organization necessitates employees to be psychologically and physically present performing their assignments according to obligatory necessities (Fearon et al., 2013). Team establishment and job satisfaction necessitate engagement of the participant, and the active involvement of the workers in an enterprise is a critical element in any field of the institution (Malik, 2013). Banihani, Lewis, and Sayed (2013)

refer to engagement in the workplace as personal engagement, work engagement, employee engagement, and job engagement. Banihani et al. (2013) presented work engagement as the subjective experience of work and work contexts, and the process employees utilize to present or absent themselves during the performance of duties. Brown and Reilly (2013) and Vincent-Hoper, Muser, and Janneck (2012) linked positive work engagement to (a) job gratification, (b) decreased absenteeism, (c) decreased turnover, (d) increased organizational commitment, and (e) favorable business-unit results such as improved consumer satisfaction and higher profit margins.

Employee Disengagement

Employee disengagement is potentially harmful to an organization. Carpenter and Berry (2014) and Dimitrov (2012) claimed that disenfranchised employees often leave an organization. However, frequently employees not fully committed to an organization's mission retain employment with said organization (Dimitrov, 2012). Employee disengagement can lead to withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, which costs organizations in excess of $40 billion a year (Malik, 2013). However, Dimitrov (2012) estimated the total price of employee disengagement in the United States to be in excess of $400 billion dollars per year (Dimitrov, 2012). Skowronski (2012) correlated workplace boredom with employee disengagement. Employees frequently manage tedium by actively generating interest in employment responsibilities and occupation environments, and at times, these conducts adversely influence job performance operating contrary to institutional goals (Skowronski, 2012). Employees disengage by

attempting to avoid perceived uninteresting work or seek complementary off-task motivation (Skowronski, 2012). Individual employees utilize disengagement strategies by socializing with colleagues, taking impromptu breaks and performing private tasks (Carpenter & Berry, 2014; Skowronski, 2012). Other employees attempt to disengage from assignments by utilizing emotion-focused methods including daydreaming, substance abuse, or withdrawal from work (Skowronski, 2012). Dimitrov (2012) argued that attempting to motivate employees with strictly monetary incentives do not appear to be efficient in addressing work disengagement.

Emotional Labor and Emotional Exhaustion

One significant job issue that has received negligible pragmatic attention about absenteeism is the emotional labor and emotional exhaustion of frontline personnel (Nguyen et al., 2013). Nguyen et al., (2013) maintained that emotional labor is a progressively vital part of many frontline service members' roles and a feature associated with the abrupt rise in service-based occupations in the economy. Roche and Haar (2013) defined emotional exhaustion as a protracted state of physical and emotional diminution as a consequence of excessive job demands, unceasing stresses, and entails being emotionally overextended and fatigued. Emotional exhaustion is one of the early and critical elements in job burnout (Roche & Haar, 2013). Although medical science has advanced rapidly, health systems professionals have failed to consistently provide high-quality care (Humphries et al., 2014). Health professionals confront heavier and

progressively complex assignments while patient-staff ratios remain unchanged with patients suffering repercussions from a lack quality health care (Humphries et al., 2014).

In integrative service occupations, employees must express positive feelings and suppress negative ones during interactions with customers (Walsh & Bartikowski, 2013), as is the case in many customer service jobs. Frontline service employees are critical resources who influence crucial customer outcomes, such as satisfaction and loyalty. As the face of the service firm, Walsh and Bartikowski (2013) maintained that employees must reveal certain positive emotions such as friendliness, and good mood while suppressing others such as anger, and antipathy in daily interactions with customers. Emotional labor induces a process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals (Walsh & Bartikowski, 2013).

Workplace Burnout

Gupta, Paterson, Lysaght and Von Zweck (2012), Roche and Haar (2013), and Campbell, Perry, Maetz, Allen, and Griffeth (2013) argued that job burnout and emotional exhaustion are primary sources of decreased personal and organizational performance. Humphries et al. (2014) recognized the connection between staffing levels, workload, and quality when a nurse is absent, and the workload automatically transfers to another nurse whose workload increases. Moreover, Humphries et al. claimed that nursing staffing levels independently predicted emotional exhaustion. Benligiray and Sonmez (2013) also argued that adverse working conditions contributed to nurses being dissatisfied with their profession, burnout and permanently leaving the profession. Gupta

et al. (2012) conducted a mixed methods study of workplace burnout on occupational therapists and indicated that 34.8% of 63 therapists who participated in the study experienced emotional exhaustion and workplace burnout. Timms et al. (2012) claimed that burnout, as a symptom of psychological wellbeing, influences employees' regular moods. Employee exhaustion and cynicism are precursor symptoms of employee burnout and can have repercussions in terms of workers' negative perceptions of their jobs (Campbell et al., 2013; Timms et al., 2012). Implications for an employee's mental health include (a) decreases in devotion and interest, (b) symptoms which include reduced performance, (c) reduced resourcefulness and creativity, and (d) proliferated turnover and absenteeism (Roche & Haar 2013). Additionally, burnout eventually leads to (a) mental ailments such as depression; (b) physiological health concerns such as cardiovascular disease, headaches, hypertension; and (c) behavioral conditions such as withdrawal and forms of strain (Rubino, Volopone, & Avery, 2013; Timms et al., 2012).

Health and social services systems in Canada and around the world have significantly altered the organization of services and the employee work environment (Chenevert, Jourdain, Cole, & Banville, 2013). To decrease payroll, healthcare leaders have restructured their workforce significantly, which subsequently eliminated a significant proportion of their experienced personnel (Chenevert et al., 2013). Chenevert et al. (2013) maintained that this situation, together with the increasing intricacy of treatments and substantial re-engineering of work practices, has levied a work overload on numerous employees particularly, caregivers. Chenevert et al. argued that this

magnification of work, in the setting of heightened control, has engendered a rise in absenteeism and discontent, and consequently, intention to resign. Campbell et al. (2013) maintained that burnout and the associated results might be avoided or lessened, in part, through an impartial workplace reconciled by greater insights of support from organizations and leaders.

Job Insecurity

Otto, Mohr, Kottwitz, and Korlek (2014) defined job insecurity as the general apprehension regarding the future existence of employment. Otto et al. (2014) argued that if employees attach their future options to their local joblessness rate, trepidation that one might be the next on the list of terminated employees might grow with rising unemployment levels. Job insecurity is an increasing concern due to increased global competition (Kang, Gold, & Kim, 2012; Murphy, Burton, Henegan, & Briscoe, 2013). An employee's view of job insecurity results from concerns, regarding removal from particular job roles, or the assignment of responsibilities or tasks that are less desirable (Kang et al., 2012). Murphy et al. (2013) investigated the effects of job insecurity on fives organizationally significant outcomes: (a) health, (b) job satisfaction, (c) organizational commitment, (d) turnover intention, (e) and performance. Murphy et al. (2013) tested a model in which job insecurity is simultaneously a hindrance and a challenge stressor and discovered that employees perceived job insecurity as a stressful discrepancy. The discrepancies between what employees hope for in an organization, and what their employers offer routinely lead to employee disengagement and a reduction of

job performance. In contrast, Murphy et al. (2013) further noted that job insecurity could also motivate employees to work harder because employees may perceive high performance as a safeguard against job termination. Job stress is a major threat to the quality of work life (QWL) of employees and can cause antagonism, hostility, absenteeism and turnover, as well as decreased productivity (Kim, Han, & Kim, 2015).

Social Learning Theory

The fundamental principle of SLT is that behavior is a result of individual and situation and does not result from either dynamic alone (Hanna, Crittenden, & Crittenden, 2013). Bandura developed SLT while researching methods to abolish or eliminate phobias in patients (Bandura, 2006). Bandura discovered that patients with greater levels of self-worth, or belief in the aptitude to attain specific objectives, responded ablest to exhibiting the manners of non-phobic persons when presented with an article or condition that caused the phobia. This observation guided Bandura to study of the powers of observation and modeling, which are the fundamentals of SLT (Bandura, 2006).

Hanna et al. (2013) argued that there is a process of learning in SLT. Bandura (2006) described a four-step pattern for learning a behavior: (a) a person observes something in the environment, (b) the person recalls what was observed, (c) the person yields a behavior, and (d) then the environment provides a result such as reward or punishment that modifies the likelihood behaviors, such as absenteeism or tardiness will appear again.

There is a constant stream of information flowing verbally and nonverbally between co-workers (Islam et al., 2013). The work environment is a social organization where interpersonal learning occurs, and workplace absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover intention are learned behaviors (Islam et al., 2013). Social learning theorists emphasize that learning occurs within a social context; individuals learn from one another (Bethards, 2014; Hanna et al., 2013). The SLT is appropriate for this study since employees learn behaviors by observing the attitudes and behaviors of others (Islam et al., 2013). Moreover, Russo et al. (2013) emphasized that absenteeism is a form of deviant workplace behavior learned through observation. In fact, Bethards (2014) and Hanna et al. (2013), argued that researchers that utilize SLT assume that individuals learn acceptable and inappropriate ways of behavior through a role-modeling system by observing the behaviors of others. To address absenteeism, Ahn et al. (2013) emphasized that managers have typically used institutional controls such as penalties targeting those individuals who exhibit excessive absenteeism

Bethards (2014) and Russo et al. (2013) argued that learners utilize imaginal and verbal systems to remember the modeled behavior. When utilizing imaginal systems, individuals imagine themselves performing the task at a future time (Bethards, 2014). Bethards argued that people utilize verbal systems to discuss what they have observed and to compare personal discernments with others for accuracy. Moreover, practitioners of SLT consider human behavior in terms of the unremitting mutual interaction between mental, behavioral, and peripheral influences (Ogunfowora, 2014). Employees learn -

withdrawal behaviors by observing their coworkers behaviors and disengagement actions and then decide whether they will reciprocate those behaviors (Islam et al., 2013).

Organizational leaders require employees to conform to workplace performance criteria (Resick, Hargis, Shao, & Dust, 2013). Social learning theoreticians posit that effective strategies to achieve reduced withdrawal behaviors includes (a) providing opportunities for leaders to observe the organization, (b) rewarding desired workplace behaviors such as reporting to work at the scheduled time, and (c) punishing inappropriate behaviors such as unexcused absenteeism (Resick et al., 2013). Social learning theorizers argued that personnel could learn apposite and incongruous workplace social conduct via observing organizational leaders' response to the inappropriate behavior of employees (Jordan, Brown, Treviño, & Finkelstein, 2013).

Researchers can utilize SLT to articulate how learning takes place. People learn by association, and by modeling observed behavior (Ogunfowora, 2014; Park & Shin, 2015). Bandura demonstrated that people learn by observing behavior in the Bobo doll experiment in which adolescent participants watched videos of violent behavior with 88% of the participants demonstrating similar behavior (Bandura & Walters, 1959).

Leaders should notice that employees discover satisfactory social behaviors by discerning leadership's dealings with other employees under different situations (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012). Managers must be unswerving in the anticipations of employee's public behavior and not demonstrate favoritism to staff (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012). The SLT reinforces the concept that leaders should become role

models of appropriate behavior (Ogunfowora, 2014). Leaders can produce social learning prospects through specific rewards or commendation given in open settings, such as staff meetings (Ogunfowora, 2014). Conversely, administrators should penalize inappropriate social behavior, such as persecution, and unauthorized absenteeism equivalently across the organization to construct the correct social environment to modify behavior (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012; Ogunfowora, 2014). Therefore, SLT is applicable as the lens for which I analyzed the results of my findings.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Burns first used the term transformational leadership (TL) in 1978 in a seminal study about leadership (Groves, 2014). Burns coined the phrase transformational leadership in an attempt to explain leader-follower relationships in the political world (Kim & Yoon, 2015). Leaders in the business world then utilized the concept to explain how such relationships contributed to group outcomes in an organizational setting (Wang, James, Deyner, & Bailey, 2014). Khasawneh, Omari, and Abu-Tineh (2012) maintained that proponents of TL study how individual leaders can motivate their supporters and how leaders inspire employees to achieve more than is usually anticipated. This transformation occurred by encouraging higher-level needs such as (a) behaving in ways that make others want to trust, respect and admire them; (b) endowing employees to surpass their self-interests for the betterment of the organization; (c) creating an environment in which supporters are obliged to be more productive; and (d) by giving meaning to organizational life.

Arnold and Loughlin (2013) associated TL with numerous positive individual, group, and organizational outcomes. Individuals who labor with transformational leaders are (a) more dedicated to their work, (b) highly involved, and (c) gratified (Avolio, 2011). Moreover**,** TL can result in a diminution of withdrawal behaviors through improved employer-employee engagement (Ghadi et al., 2013; Johansson et al., 2011). For this study I utilized SLT as the conceptual framework because employees learn withdrawal behaviors within the context of the social work environment (Bethards, 2014; Hanna et al., 2013; Islam et al., 2013), and individuals learn through observing others and mimic those observed behaviors (Resick et al., 2013).

Social Exchange Theory

Wang and Yi (2012) maintained that SE relationships cultivate between two participants through a sequence of shared, experiences. The SET posits that individuals will reciprocate behaviors they perceive to have received from the other parties in a relationship (Paillé, Grima, & Bernardeau, 2013; Wang & Yi, 2012). SET is a recognized theoretical viewpoint on turnover intention and other withdrawal behaviors (Rahman & Nas, 2013). SET gained distinction, as a method of comprehending the employee-organization association (Tuzun &Kalemci, 2012). Moreover, Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) maintained that SET is one of the most persuasive structures for comprehending exchange behavior in organizations.

According to Rahman and Nas (2013), the central principle of SET is that employees carry out social interaction identical to business executives carrying out

economic exchange. Scholars of SET suggested that relationships between employees and the organization could be reciprocal (Malinen et al., 2013). Additionally, proponents of SET suggest that employees are capable of engaging in exchanges with each other, and leaders (Flint et al., 2013). Mukherjee, Renn, Kedia, and Mukherjee (2012) also claimed that in employment, some form of SE is occurring between leaders and employees. Social exchange, whether (a) time, (b) effort, (c) skill, (d) money, (e) security, or (f) congenial friendships are possible and productive for organizational employees (Biron & Bambeger, 2012; Biron & Boon, 2013). Exchanges occur between individuals and work groups, or between work groups and employers, however, this dynamic exchange would not be practical to conceive with a disregard for cultural and social rules (Biron & Bambeger, 2012). Furthermore, Flint et al. (2013) claimed that relationships between staff and employers must exceed superficial interactions as successful long-term relationships depend greatly on positive SE behaviors such as trust and commitment.

Additionally, Bordia, Restubog, Bordia, and Tang (2014) considered the SE between employees and employers as a model for conduct in the work environment with formal and informal factors encompassing the employment contract between managers and personnel. Tenhiala et al., (2013) claimed that formal factors of SE include earnings, hours, disciplinary rules, job duties, and promotion lines. Informal SE factors include leadership styles and peer group relations (Tenhiala et al., 2013). However, Golden and Veiga (2015) emphasized that absences may not enter into the SE at all because some employees, especially those with higher-ranking leaders are rarely absent. Leaders

possess greater control over the distribution of working time and may take unrecorded time off (Golden & Viega, 2015).

Positive SE occurs within organizations of mutual dependence, in which employer and employee are dependent on each other for valued outcomes (Mukherjee et al., 2012). When employees perceive SE between themselves and their employers as fair, there is a decrease in absenteeism, tardiness, and increase in employee engagement (Paillé et al., 2013). However, Paillé et al. (2013) argued that when employees believe their employer treats them unfairly, or that SE is inequitable, there is an increase in withdrawal behaviors and employee disengagement.

Mukherjee et al. (2012) maintained that organizational leaders influence the nature of the exchange relationships. Rahman and Hussain (2012) claimed that individuals could observe exchange relationships in various instances, such as business relationships and friendships. If employees find benefits in these exchanges, they are likely to maintain relationships with the exchange partners (Flint et al., 2013). If not, employees are likely to withdraw from future exchanges or leave the organization (Flint et al., 2013).

A relationship exists between increased SE and greater employee involvement in the form of increased commitment, decreased intentions to resign, and improved performance (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). Biron and Boon (2013) maintained that task interdependence reflects reciprocal dependence that emphasizes provisional and, interpersonal transactions, whereby an action by one party leads to a response by another.

According to the tenets of SET, trust is one of the social requirements of the majority of employees (Lambert, Hogan, Barton-Bellessa & Jiang 2012). Individuals earn trust through reciprocal relationships. Moreover, employers cannot demand trust from staff (Lambert et al., 2012). From an SE perspective, employees are likely to reciprocate the leader's support and trust by demonstrating robust commitment, loyalty, trust, and reduced withdrawal behaviors (Biron & Boon, 2013). Azasu (2012) described leader to employee relationships as a sequence of exchanges. However, Kim and Ko (2014) argued when staff believe managers have treated them unfairly, they will likely believe that employers violated SE. If the cost of maintaining a relationship outweighs the benefits, the employee is more likely to withdraw from the relationship in the form of tardiness, turnover intention, decreased commitment and lessened job performance (Zhao et al., 2014).

A primary assumption of SET is that human conduct is a function of reward and retribution, pleasure and discomfort, cost and advantage, obtain and forfeit (Paillé et al., 2013). The viability of SET rests on the deduction that human beings distinguish each other's life circumstances, perceive each other's needs, and in some ways will probably engage in exchange (Zafirovski, 2005). Zafirovski (2005) articulated the following benefits theorist gained by utilizing SET: (a) weigh the benefits and the costs prior to making a decision to engage in exchange, (b) maximizing benefits while minimizing costs in an exchange relationship, and (c) enabling parties in a relationship to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of the exchange relationship to determine the relationship

loyalty and fulfillment level. SET is a scientific theory that has the forecasting power that enables theorist to predict individual behavior, minimize costs and maximize rewards within relationships (Zafirovski, 2005).

Researchers can utilize SET to generate new (theories), therefore, expanding the range of potential knowledge (Paillé et al., 2013; Wang & Yi, 2012). Utilizing SET assists theorist in understanding the cost and rewards of relationships and helps predict how to keep and sustain relationships (Malinen et al., 2013; Wang & Yi, 2012). Researchers employing SET can understand that in relationships, there is an expectation that if individuals contribute benefits to a relationship they expect reciprocal behaviors in order to maintain that relationship (Malinen et al., 2013; Wang & Yi, 2012).

Withdrawal behaviors are costly to organizations (Collins & Cartwright, 2012). The SE perspective provides researchers with a framework to describe absence behaviors (Resick et al., 2013). Although withdrawal behaviors are a manifestation of SET (Biron & Boon, 2013), individuals learn withdrawal behaviors from peers and reciprocate those behaviors (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012; Ogunfowora, 2014).

Transition

Section 1 of this study included an introduction to the foundation for the study relevant to (a) the problem and purpose statements, (b) research question, (c) conceptual framework, (d) operational terms, (e) significance of the study, and (f) review of the literature. My objective in Section 2 was to focus on the (a) role of the researcher, (b) qualitative research design, (c) case study method, (d) population and sampling utilized in

the study, (e) ethical research, (f) validity and reliability, (g) data collection, (h) analysis, and (i) organization. I detailed the presentation of the findings from (a) the research, (b) application to professional practice, (c) implications for social change, (d) recommendations for action, (e) further study, and (f) reflections in Section 3.

Section 2: The Project

In section 2, I focus on the role of the researcher, the qualitative research method, and the case study design. Additionally, I provide a detailed justification for my choice of participants and the process utilized to access the research site. Finally, I provide details on protecting the confidentiality of the participants, ethical considerations, validity and reliability, data collection, analysis, and organization.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the best practices leaders need to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. I interviewed leaders and health service workers in a nursing department of a correctional facility in the Southeastern United States. Prisons are public taxpayer-funded enterprises, and employee absenteeism practices cost citizens millions of dollars each year (Kim & Price, 2014). Data from this study may affect social change by providing organizational leaders with the skills needed to mitigate the social impact of withdrawal behaviors. Reducing the effects of employee withdrawal behaviors may benefit society by more efficiently allocating taxpayer revenue versus increasing the tax burden because of the expense of employee turnover.

Role of the Researcher

I actively engaged in the data collection practice by conducting semistructured interviews with open-ended questions. I also utilized archival data. In case study research, the researcher becomes part of the data collection process (Yin, 2014). Yu,

Abdullah, and Saat (2014) indicated that researchers are heavily involved in data collecting procedures during case studies. Furthermore, Boblin, Ireland, Kirkpatrick, and Robertson (2013) revealed that during case studies, the researcher has an intricate role in collecting data.

I brought 27 years of practitioner experience to this research study working in all levels of leadership within an organization. During my 27-year U.S. Naval and civilian career, my duties included serving as a manager and human resource professional. These positions required observational, interview and active listening skills that are invaluable to my role as a researcher. My employment position was a business officer for the state in which the research site was located. I had no direct personal or professional relationship with the research population. Researchers who have a direct personal or professional relationship with the research population render obtaining a genuine voluntary consent problematic because the participants may feel obligated to participate in the study (Dush, 2012).

One of the primary accountabilities of the researcher is protecting the confidentiality of research participants and any participating organization (Johnson, 2014). I conducted the study after receiving Institutional Review Board (11-05-150346426) approval from Walden University and abiding by the Belmont report protocol. The IRB provides safety mechanisms restricting research conducted on vulnerable populations (Pike, 2012). Researchers following the Belmont Report establish a framework for legal and ethical protections for research participants (Marrone, 2015).

Additionally, I have completed the Protecting Human Research Participants training course (Certificate #1044187).

To strengthen research objectivity, researchers should diminish any personal bias (Krimsky, 2012). To mitigate potential bias, researchers should identify their position honestly and be truthful about their perspectives (Pisarik, Rowell, & Currie, 2012). I did not project bias from the data collected and remained open to findings that were contrary to predetermined ideas regarding the research problem. Yin (2014) maintained that researchers could test possible bias by determining how open they are to findings that contradict their preconceived notions.

Using a case study protocol can guide the researcher in collecting reliable data (Yin, 2014). My selection of the interview protocol (a) assisted me in providing directions in the interview format, (b) compelled me to identify my research audience prior to conducting the case study, (c) enabled a small participant sample size for a case study, and (d) allowed for the researcher to pursue developing themes (Appendix A). Researchers use protocols to gather viable data and to maintain focus on the research problem (Yin, 2014). Gross, Wallace, Blue-Banning, Summers, and Turnbull (2012) insisted that using an interview protocol provided clarity for their interview sessions. Furthermore, Shen-Miller, Forrest, and Burt (2012) argued that using a robust interview protocol allowed scholars to follow emerging themes.

Participants

For consideration as part of the study, all research participants were full time, health care leaders and health service workers in a nursing division at a department of corrections facility in the Southeastern United States. Nursing and health care professions are a dynamic, complex, and stressful occupation (Huang, You, & Tsai, 2012). Additionally, the nursing industry sustains a high level of employee disengagement with as much as a 20% unauthorized absenteeism rate (Huang et al., 2012). Inadequate healthcare staffing leads to stress, burnout, job discontentment, diminished morale, staff illness, escalated absenteeism, turnover, and compromised patient care (Gilmartin, 2013; Maluwa, Andre, Ndebele, & Chilemba, 2012). Moreover, when staff workload and nurse absenteeism rates are elevated, medical errors and patient death rates increased (Kallisch & Xie, 2014).

Utilizing a State Department of Corrections (DOC) public website to locate the contact information for prison administrators of state operated correctional healthcare facilities was instrumental in gaining access to the research site and participants. McGuire et al. (2012) maintained that researchers often use public websites to identify potential research participants. I contacted the prison administrators via e-mail, and explained the purpose of the study (Appendix B). The first prison administrator to respond to my e-mail granting authorization to conduct the study on site was the facility utilized (Appendix C). Once the prison administrator granted me written permission to conduct my study at the correctional facility, I requested that an authorized representative

of the correctional facility send out an e-mail to all department of corrections nursing personnel, including healthcare leaders, inviting them to participate in my study (Appendix D). The authorized representative included my contact information in the email and interested participants communicated with me directly. Once established that the responding participants met the research criteria, the participants received an informed consent form via e-mail from me.

In order to establish a working relationship and build rapport with the participants I discussed my academic career and professional credentials, and reiterated the research question prior to beginning the interview. Researchers should immediately begin building a relationship with the first interaction with the interviewee (Sprecher, Treger, & Wondra, 2012). Pezalla, Pettigrew, and Miller-Day (2012) argued that researchers should reveal their work history as a means of establishing a relationship with the participants. Furthermore, Fletcher (2014) maintained that researchers should share their academic history with the participants to create a conversational space, establish trust, and maintain a bond with the research participant.

Research Method and Design

I conducted a qualitative case study to explore best practices needed by leaders to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Qualitative researchers interact in the natural environment of the participants under study (Drury, Chiang, Esterhuizen, Freshwater, & Taylor, 2014). Moreover, when employing an in-depth

analysis of one or more events, settings, programs, or groups, a case study has preference (Yin, 2014).

Research Method

Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods are the most common research methods (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Yin, 2014). Based on the problem and purpose of this study, qualitative was the appropriate method. The qualitative method allows the researcher to explore contemporary phenomenon within real life contexts, utilizing how or why questions (Yin, 2014). Qualitative researchers conduct research that embraces multiple truths and realities from samples sufficient to confirm themes (Manhas & Oberle, 2015). Moreover, qualitative research is a method used by researchers to comprehend the meaning individuals or groups attribute to a social or human challenge (Waite, 2014).

I posed questions in an attempt to understand general principles from specific concepts that may emerge from this study, as opposed to explaining observed details in the context of predetermined principles or theories as would be found in quantitative research (Cummings, Bridgman, & Brown, 2015). Staller (2012) noted a strong relationship between the researcher and the data collected in qualitative research, which is a substantial departure from quantitative research, in which the investigator does not experience the phenomena. Further, seeking maximum variation of understanding from the data by not controlling for variables as in quantitative research is critical in qualitative research (Babones, 2015; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012). The qualitative method is

adaptable to allow researchers to incorporate unexpected findings, which may aid in understanding the research problem. Qualitative researchers obtain data from terminologies, peer reviewed articles, and websites that lend to rich, exhaustive, and detailed explanations of complex behaviors, methods, relationships, settings, and procedures to understand the business problem (Macfarlane et al., 2015).

Quantitative researchers attempt to eliminate biases by using statistical data-defined variables and precise procedures during data collection (Babones, 2015). Quantitative investigators create hypotheses and test for statistical significance (Reunamo & Pipere, 2012). Furthermore, quantitative research involves the use of numbers, objectivity, and generalizability (Ebinger & Richter, 2015). I did not choose the quantitative approach since exploring participants' perspectives in relation to the research question was not attainable in the quantitative method. Additionally, I did not test a hypothesis.

Mixed methods practitioners seek to converge qualitative and quantitative data (Maxwell, 2015). Mixed methods researchers also corroborate the results of the qualitative phase with the findings of the quantitative segment (Kim, 2015). Furthermore, mixed methods investigators seek to heighten, clarify, and expound results from one research method with the findings from another research method (Muskat, Blackman, & Muskat, 2012; Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). Because I collected data from several related sources within a case, as opposed to gathering information sequentially using statistics and texts, the mixed method approach was not appropriate for this study.

Research Design

The five areas of qualitative design are case study, ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, and narrative (Aborisade, 2013). I used a case study for the research design. Case studies can be a single case or multiple cases bounded by time and place (Yin, 2014). Researchers utilizing case studies draw upon several sources of confirmation such as documents, physical artifacts, archival records, audiovisual materials, interviews and observations (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011; Yin 2014). Moreover, case studies are the preferred strategy utilized by researchers when asking how or why questions (Yin, 2014). A case study is an appropriate design to understand the research problem whether the problem is a person, an organization, process, or system (Petty et al., 2012, Yin, 2014). Researchers utilizing a case study design seek to deepen their understanding by document analysis (Petty et al., 2012).

Ethnographic research is a form of qualitative inquiry utilized to explore social cultures or sub-cultures to describe values, attitudes and behaviors (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012; Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). Scholars utilize the ethnographic design to observe and immerse themselves within a culture and cultivate an understanding of the setting and phenomena being studied (McCurdy & Uldam, 2014; Petty et al., 2012). Additionally, researchers utilizing an ethnographic design research 100% of the population (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). Because I did not need to interview 100% of a population to answer my research question, a case study design was appropriate instead of an ethnographic study.

Petty et al. (2012) asserted that researchers construct grounded theory studies using the data from participants who have experienced the phenomenon under study. The qualitative researcher uses the grounded theory to generate a theory (Standmark, 2015). Grounded theorists focus on a set of propositions that pertain to an exact occurrence, condition, or location (Aborisade, 2013). Furthermore, the assumption of grounded theory is the foundation for suggesting that a theory may support research data (Petty et al., 2012; von Alberti-Alhtaybat & Al-Htaybat, 2012). Grounded theory was inappropriate because I did not develop a theory.

The primary emphasis of a phenomenological researcher is to depict or interpret the participants lived experiences (Maoyh & Onwuegbuzie, 2015). Finlay (2012) argued that phenomenological research comes from the perception of a person who is part of an experience. Furthermore, researchers, utilize the phenomenological designs to comprehend the lived experiences of individuals by exploring the meaning of a phenomenon (Guenther et al., 2012). A phenomenological design was not suitable for this study because I explored an in-depth analysis of the research population's experiences and not the lived experiences of particular individuals.

According to Wattanasuwan (2012), researchers utilize numerous sources of data to articulate the account of participants when using a narrative approach. Researchers use a narrative approach to focus on the research individual life stories of the participants (Wexler et al., 2014). Researchers using a narrative design pay close attention to the accurate portrayal of a participant's story (Young et al., 2015). Furthermore,

Wattanasuwan (2012) maintained that researchers employing a narrative design have the ability to characterize a complete representation of phenomena, as opposed to a fragmented account of a larger picture. A narrative approach was not applicable to my research because I did not explore participant's life stories of a single event or a series of events.

Following the suggestions of Higginbottom, Rivers and Story (2014), I ensured data saturation by continuing to interview research participants until no new themes, or information emerged. Bristowe et al. (2014) suggested that researchers should continue recruiting participant responses until they achieve data saturation. Furthermore, Kwong et al. (2014) maintained that researchers should continue interviewing research participants until they accomplished data saturation. For my study, interviews continued until participants no longer provide any new information.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study consisted of a purposeful sampling of nursing and healthcare professionals in a department of corrections facility in the Southeastern United States. By utilizing purposeful sampling, researchers can understand phenomena by focusing on the unique characteristics of the population and best answer the research question (Kock, Niesz & McCarthy, 2013). Purposeful sampling can ensure that collected data provides various perspectives without judgment (Petty et al., 2012). Furthermore, qualitative researchers often use purposeful sampling processes to select and enlist participants (Koch, Niesz, & McCarthy, 2014).

In case studies, the sample size is dependent on the ability to capture a rich description of the event (Yin, 2014). The case study sample size should remain small, based on choosing a number of participants that can capture the phenomenon, settings, or population (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). For my study, I interviewed four healthcare leaders and six health service workers in the nursing department of a corrections health care facility in the Southeastern United States. Abbott, Fuji, and Galt (2015) advocated using at least 10 participants for a qualitative case study. Hart and Warren (2013) maintained that interviewing at least 10 research participants during a qualitative case study was sufficient to answer the research question. Marcella and Kelly (2015) insisted that questioning nine participants in a qualitative case study case provided adequate information to address the research problem. However, in qualitative case studies, determining an exact sample size is difficult, and researchers typically continue investigating the research problem until no new information emerges (Freedman, Echt, Cooper, Miner, & Parker, 2012).

Bernard (2012) stated that the number of interviewees needed for a qualitative researcher to attain data saturation was a number that the researcher could not quantify. However, there is a higher likelihood of reaching data saturation if the data collection is purposeful (Merwe, 2015). Researchers achieve data saturation when there is enough information to replicate the study, and no new information develops (Walker, 2012). I ensured data saturation by continuing to interview research participants until no new themes emerged.

I based my participant selection criteria on the objectives of my study. Crocker et al. (2015) suggested that researchers should have a robust participant selection criteria protocol established for their research. Moreover, researchers should not include individuals who do not fit the established research criteria as part of their studies (McCormack, Adams, & Anderson, 2012). Ogden (2014) also suggested that researchers should apply participant inclusion and exclusion criteria as part of their research participant protocol.

The health care community sustains high levels of withdrawal behaviors (Huang et al., 2012). Benligiray and Sonmez (2013) claimed that adverse working conditions such as chronically low staffing levels contributed to nursing turnover. Moreover, Kallisch and Xie (2014) maintained that high nurse absenteeism rates could contribute to increased patient safety concerns. Nursing and health care professionals frequently experience high levels of employee withdrawal behaviors such as employee disengagement and absenteeism (Maluwa et al., 2012).

I conducted face-to-face interviews in a private conference room at the correctional health care facility to facilitate participant privacy and confidentiality. Johnson and Esterling (2015) argued that interview settings should protect the privacy of the participants. Harris, Boggiano, Nguyen, and Pham (2013) also indicated that researchers must utilize appropriate interview spaces that will protect the secrecy of the participant's replies. Furthermore, Herring (2013) maintained that utilizing an appropriate

setting for conducting interviews is crucial for eliciting honest replies from the research participants.

Ethical Research

Informed consent is a process a researcher uses to obtain permission from an individual to participate in a research project (Schrems, 2014). The informed consent form for my research study contained detailed information describing the study (Appendix E). Prior to commencing with the study, the participant received a copy of the informed consent form from me via email. By replying to the e-mail with the words, "I Consent" the participant agreed to participate in the study.

Participants could withdraw from the study at any time prior to the data analysis stage without penalty by sending a formal request to me via email. Drake (2013) stated that participants should have the option of withdrawing from research participation at any time. I did not offer any incentives for participation. I will forward the research participants a summary of the findings at the conclusion of the study.

I protected the confidentiality of the participants by utilizing unique identifiers to identify the participant and the participants' position within the organization. Additionally, the name and location of the participating organization remained anonymous. Welsh, Nelson, Walsh, Palmer, and Vos (2014) maintained that researchers should use unique identifiers to protect the anonymity of their participants.

Throughout the research process, there was no falsification of data, disclosing of confidential information, or allowing of personal matters to become public. Protecting the

participants is crucial in research projects (Johnson, 2014). I complied with all requirements for research per the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The inmates and all vulnerable populations were restricted from targeting as part of my research. All records, audio recordings, and data are on an external hard drive in a locked fire-rated safe, only accessible by me. At the end of 5 years, I will destroy all research data.

Data Collection Instruments

I was the primary data collection instrument in my study. Pezalla et al. (2012) maintained that the researcher as the primary data collection instrument is a widely acknowledged practice in qualitative studies. Mansfield (2013) argued that as the primary data collection instrument, researchers can intermingle with the participants in the environment and communicate their impressions of the observed phenomena. Furthermore, Hedlund, Börjesson, and Österberg (2015) indicated that when researchers are the major data-collecting instruments, they often utilize interviews to gather information.

I collected data with semistructured interviews, using open-ended questions (Appendix A) and archival data. McIntosh and Morse (2015) maintained that qualitative researchers could collect data for their study by employing semistructured interviews using open-ended questions. Affleck and Macdonald (2012) insisted that utilizing a semistructured interview format is crucial for gathering information in qualitative research. Riera et al. (2015) advocated that using semistructured interview, open-ended

questions are beneficial in exploring phenomena in a healthcare setting. Furthermore, Rhee et al. (2012) argued that semistructured interviews are appropriate for eliciting information from a small number of participants. As the principal information gathering instrument, I asked open-ended questions in a semistructured format to elicit responses to address the research question.

In addition to utilizing semistructured interviews, researchers also use open-ended questions to elicit detailed responses from participants (Frank & Davidson 2012). Cole, Chen, Ford, Phillips, and Stevens (2014) stated that using open-ended questions are useful for gathering information for interview questions because research participants have the opportunity to provide comprehensive answers. Moreover, Gastmyer and Pruitt (2014) suggested that utilizing open-ended questions are critical in recording research participant's perceptions of observed phenomena. I used a semistructured interview, open-ended question format to gather data regarding the research problem.

I also incorporated the state government human resources manual, as the archival document, as part of my data collection plan. Case study researchers often utilize archival data for additional information to address the research problem (Krummaker & Vogel, 2012). Sharp et al. (2012) maintained that researchers could use archival data to elicit additional information from participants after the interview sessions. Furthermore, Gawer and Phillips (2013) argued that researchers employing a case study should incorporate archival data into their data collection plan to address their research problem.

I began collecting data after IRB approval from Walden University. All full-time state correctional facility health care leaders and health service workers received a request to participate in the study from the authorized representative (Appendix D). After determining that the participants met the research criteria, the participants received an informed consent form from me via email for review (Appendix E). The participants returned the informed consent form to me via email. Once I received informed consent, the participants and I established a convenient time and date for the interview. Yu et al. (2014) maintained that researchers should have a robust data collection plan. Petty et al. (2012) concluded that a vigorous analysis strategy is critical for conducting an objective study. Furthermore, Bentz, Blumenthal, and Potter (2014) concluded that a stringent data collection plan could save researchers valuable time and preserve the integrity of collected information.

According to Zhou (2013), researchers using data gathering instruments and analysis should ensure that the study has validity and reliability. Utilizing an organized data gathering instrument plan will enhance the researcher's validity and reliability (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). I contributed to the validity and reliability of my research by utilizing member checking. After transcribing the interview, I forwarded the interviewee a summary of my interpretation of the interview transcript via email. The participant determined if the transcript summary was a truthful depiction of the responses to the interview questions. After transcribing the interview, researchers can employ member checking so that the participants can validate the researcher's interpretation of

the responses to the interview questions for accuracy (Vance, 2015). Member checking enables researchers to enhance the validity and reliability of the collected data (Milosevic, Bass, & Combs, 2015). Furthermore, Roche, Vaterlaus, and Young (2015) concluded that researchers utilize member checking to decrease the probability of incorporating incorrect data into the study.

Data Collection Technique

After IRB approval from Walden University, I began the face-to-face interview process with the research participants (Appendix A). During interviews, the participant immerses in the interview process and encouraged through personal participation to expound on answers (Rowley, 2012). The interview process is vital to developing rapport and information exchange between the researcher and the participant (Fogarty, Augoustinos, & Kettler, 2013). Moreover, during the interview the researcher may receive understanding to the responses through the articulated answers and the participant's body language (Irvine, Drew, & Sainsbury, 2012).

Conducting interviews in a face-to-face manner allowed me to build rapport with the participants. Interviews conducted in a face-to-face setting allow the researcher to gain more information by affording the participant privacy (Rowley, 2012). In a face-to-face setting with the interviewer, the research participant is encouraged to share data in an atmosphere where the subject feels secure and relaxed, which may yield unexpected results applicable to a study (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). Furthermore, Ogle, Park, Damhorst, and Bradley (2015) indicated that face-to-face interviews located in a place

with negligible disruptions allow the researcher to develop trust and rapport, improving the quality of the interview responses.

I conducted face-to-face interviews in a private conference room at the correctional health care facility to facilitate participant privacy and confidentiality. Johnson and Esterling (2015) argued that interview settings should protect the discretion of the participants. Harris, Boggiano, Nguyen, and Pham (2013) and Rushing and Powell (2015) also indicated that researchers must utilize appropriate interview spaces that will protect the secrecy of the participant's replies. Furthermore, Herring (2013) maintained that utilizing an appropriate setting for conducting interviews is essential for promoting honest responses from the research participants.

The interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes. Gibson and Teachman (2012) and Gibson et al. (2012) maintained that interviews should not proceed beyond 45 minutes. Barrington and Shakespeare-Finch (2014) argued that interviews normally last 20 to 45 minutes. Furthermore, Gold, Petrilli, Hayes, and Murphy (2014) stated that a single interview session should not last beyond 45 minutes.

Participants received a copy of the interview questions through email correspondence prior to the scheduled interview. Englander (2012) concluded that giving the participants an opportunity to review the questions prior to the interview assists in the process of disclosing detailed descriptions during the meeting. Providing subjects with access to the questions before the interview permits the respondent to process difficult to answer queries and understand the material, allowing them time to ask for clarification

for better final responses (Andersen et al., 2012). Savva (2013) emphasized revealing interview questions to the interviewee prior to the meeting orients participants to questions about their knowledge and serves as a basis of reference. Moreover, the disclosure of the interview questions prior to the meeting initiates a relationship with the participants and offers subjects with an understanding of the research context for better responses (Rizo et al., 2015).

I utilized Audacity® recording software for the interviews. As a contingency plan, I would have utilized WavePad® audio recording software. Neal, Neal, VanDyke, and Kornbluh (2015) advocated using audio recorders during interviews to accurately obtain participant responses. Al-Yateem (2012) concluded that recording interviews aid the researcher in data analysis. Furthermore, Sorrell (2013) argued the recording of interviews assists in the coding and theme identification process. I utilized Microsoft Word® to transcribe the audio recording of the interview.

To enhance objectivity and attempt to mitigate potential bias, researchers should identify their inherent bias forthrightly and be candid about their perspectives (Pisarik et al., 2012). In qualitative studies, Berger (2015) claimed that the researcher cannot exist separately from the research. Ghane, Kolk, and Emmelkamp (2012) argued that in an attempt to form or maintain a desirable bond, participants may regulate their responses in order to become more congruent with the presumed attitudes and beliefs of the interviewer. Therefore, a possible disadvantage of utilizing semistructured interviews is that the participants may become acquainted with the researcher (Ghane et al., 2012).

Therefore, the researcher must be cognizant not to project a personal viewpoint onto the participants (Wolcott, 1999).

Researchers may include archival records as an invaluable technique for data gathering in case study research (Krumaker & Vogel, 2012). Exploring archival data can be an intricate data collecting practice for case study researchers (Green & Gooden, 2014). For case studies, an essential use of documents is for corroboration and augmentation of evidence from other sources (Madhlangobe, Chikasha, Mafa, & Kurasha, 2014). Conversely, using archival research can present certain disadvantages (a) previous research may be unreliable or not collected to the researcher's standards, (b) the researcher has no control over how the data was collected when using archived information and, (c) the data may prove to be incomplete or possibly fail to address certain critical issues (Yin, 2012; Yin, 2014). Utilizing archival records can affect the understanding of the questions researchers attempt to answer and the reliability of their final research results (Yin, 2012). Researchers can diminish some limitations by collecting supplementary data from sources independent of the archival records (Sundstrom, 2012). However, scholars may need to reformulate their research question to take these limitations into account, and to be aware of the restricted generalizability of their research results (Verleye, Gemmel, & Rangarajan, 2014).

Throughout the research process, I took notes in a data log. Researchers use data logs to recognize and appropriately address the challenges associated with the gathering of information (Sandelowski, 2011). Tindall, MacDonald, Carrol, and Moody (2015) also

advocated the use of journaling to gather supplemental data during qualitative research. Furthermore, Lin, Pang, and Chen (2013) maintained that a research journal is compulsory to enhance the conformability of a study.

Using member checking allowed the participants to review my transcript summary to ensure that I had accurately portrayed the responses to the interview questions. When researchers utilize member checking, participants can confirm, clarify, or augment the accuracy of the data captured during the interview process (Milosevic et al., 2015). Elo et al. (2014) maintained that researchers could certify the correctness of their data by utilizing member checking. Vance (2015) indicated that researchers might provide interview summaries to their research participants at the conclusion of the interview sessions to ensure data accuracy. Furthermore, Roche et al. (2015) concluded that utilizing member checking enhances the truthfulness of research data. I ensured the accuracy of the data by using member checking. After transcribing the interview, the interviewee received a summary of my interpretation of the interview transcript via email so that the participant could verify the information was a correct depiction of their interview responses.

Data Organization Technique

I transcribed the interviews in a Microsoft Word® document and then uploaded the information into the HyperResearch™ data analysis software system to efficiently organize the participant responses. HyperResearch™ is a software system that allows a scholar to (a) conduct code-based inquiries, (b) create and exhibit dynamic documents,

(c) store and link archival documents that capture data, and (d) visualize connections between data categories (Resarchware, 2012). Researchers utilize software to keep track of and organize data (Gibson, Webb, & Lehn, 2014). Scholars employ computer programs to assist in coding, categorizing and tracking the interviewee's response to the interview questions (Myers & Lampropoulou, 2013). Furthermore, researchers use computer programs to enhance their ability to transcribe, categorize and organize data (Patterson et al., 2014; Wilkerson, Iantaffi, Grey, Bockting, & Simon Rosser, 2014).

I organized and categorized collected information into best practice themes. The analysis process for identifying key themes requires the organization of data, categorizing information, coding, and the explanation of data (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013). Researchers may use a qualitative method to link key themes that emerge from research into a focused meaning, which occurs when data sets receive structure (Rowley, 2012). Moreover, Cameron, Naglie, Silver, and Gignac (2013) noted that using a conceptual framework to guide data collection and analysis in their qualitative research resulted in the emergence of key themes.

I identified participants with an alphanumeric identifier, associated with the interview sequence. An example of the identifier associated with the first healthcare leader interviewed appeared as HL1. In this study, HL represented healthcare leader, and HW signified health service worker. Assigning an alphanumeric representation ensures the confidentiality of the participants (Sandelowski, 2014). Researchers utilize unique participant identifiers to facilitate data management without excessively exposing the

research subject's identity (Haendel, Vasilevsky, & Wirz, 2012). Furthermore, the protection of a participant's identity is an ethical issue and the responsibility of the researcher (Saunders, Kitzinger, & Kitzinger, 2014).

Researchers who utilize a reflective journal can emphasize active exploration because meticulous note taking can allow scholars to obtain a higher level of intellectual comprehension (Young & MacPhail, 2015). Using reflective journaling also enables scholars to recognize sentiments and feelings that may form biases when addressing the research problem (Cowan, 2014). Furthermore, reflective journal writing is an effective learning technique researchers can use to expand their comprehension of the literature and the research topic (Wyatt & Márquez, 2015). The use of a reflective journal allowed me to organize my thoughts and expand my understanding of the research problem. I utilized a password protected external drive and placed the data in a locked fire-rated safe, only accessible by me. I will destroy all data after 5 years.

Data Analysis

For this qualitative case study, I applied methodological triangulation by using (a) interviews with leaders, (b) interviews with nursing staff and, (c) an archival document to analyze my results. Methodological triangulation involves using multiple methods to gather information (Denzin, 2012). Researchers employing methodological triangulation validate qualitative data by cross verifying concepts and themes from two or more methods (Yin, 2012). Foster et al. (2013) identified methodological triangulation as a form in which researchers utilize multiple data collection methods. Archbold, Dahle, and

Jordan (2014) also maintained that methodological triangulation involves using more than one mode to gather data. Furthermore, Siebens, Miljoen, De Geest, Drew, and Vrints (2012) utilized methodological triangulation during their research that resulted in creating and executing evidence-based practices into daily clinical operating procedures.

Torrance (2012) claimed that interviewing is one form of data collection that researchers utilize in methodological triangulation. Ramthun and Matkin (2014) also stated that in qualitative studies, responses gathered from the interviewees used in methodological triangulation improve the validity of a study. Furthermore, Cooper and Hall (2014) argued that utilizing methodological triangulation enables a researcher to use two or more different collection methods that may yield complementary data sets.

After completing the interviews, I transcribed the interview responses using Microsoft Word®. Next, I summarized my interpretations of the interview responses and forwarded the summary to the participants via email to authenticate the accuracy of the information for member checking. With member checking, research participants can endorse, elucidate, or validate the accuracy of the data (Milosevic et al., 2015). Researchers can use member checking for participant confirmation that the researcher has correctly interpreted the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). When study participants receive a summary of the interview transcripts, they acknowledge and verify their own words, increasing the credibility of the interaction (Houghton et al., 2013).

Using methodological triangulation, I compared the information gathered from the participant interviews with data from an archival document. I utilized the

organization's state government human resources manual as the archival document for this study. Banerjee (2014) stated that among numerous data collections methods, researchers may gather archival documents for use in methodological triangulation. Dhalla and Oliver (2013) argued that researchers use archival records to enhance their triangulation methods. Furthermore, Jackson and Neely (2015) stated that researchers could use an archival document in methodological triangulation to augment the collected data.

I utilized the HyperResearch™ software to analyze the data and aid in the coding and theme development process. HyperResearch™ is a qualitative solution tool used by researchers to code data, and conduct analyses (Researchware, 2012). HyperResearch™ software enables researchers to (a) select text audio, or video data for coding; (b) analyze the subtle interactions between data; (c) automatically code source material based on keywords (d) enter descriptions for each code; and (e) use notes and journal entries as source documents and code them for easy retrieval (Researchware, 2012). The HyperResearch™ software supports case study research designs (Researchware, 2012). Researchers utilize software to analyze and categorize data from interview transcripts (Ewen, 2014). Furthermore, researchers can employ software to efficiently code data from interview transcripts (Trieu, 2014). Researchers routinely use research software to analyze, code and categorize data (Samonis et al., 2014).

I applied a coding process to analyze the data for themes. Coding is the primary process to analyze and organize information into understandable (Fowler, Lloyd,

Cosenza, & Wilson, 2014). Using the coding process enables researchers to collect meaningful segments of textual data (Hickman, Atherly, Lowery, & Alpert, 2015). By coding data, scholars can identify emerging themes from the research data (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman, & Pedersen, 2013). Furthermore, coding is a core activity researchers use in data analysis (Sayed & Nelson, 2015).

During coding, I utilized HyperRESEARCH™ to create a master list for developing descriptive words and category names. Additionally, I added color to the coding process. The color-coding processes permitted me to track and control the data allowing for interpretation. Additionally, employing the color-coding practices provided an enhanced understanding of the analyzed data to ensure that the information was relevant and complemented the qualitative case study. After reviewing and analyzing the data, I color coded the information as blue (critical), green (possibly critical), orange (not critical), and also organized the data looking for relationships among the data segments. Thiem and Dusa (2013) advocated the use of color codes to indicate the transitional stages of the research information in data analysis. Eddy et al. (2015) promoted assigning emerging themes an individual color code during the data analysis stage. Furthermore, Hall et al. (2015) indicated that during the analysis stage, researchers should assign color codes to identify primary participant responses to interview questions.

After completing the analysis of the data, themes and subthemes emerged to assist me in identifying specific employee withdrawal behaviors as related to the business problem. Knox (2014) identified themes during the data analysis stage while researching

the cost-benefit of human resource management within temporary work agencies. The process for identifying key themes requires the organization of data sets, classifying information, coding, and the interpretation of data (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). I divided the withdrawal behavior categories into smaller subgroups, labeled and cataloged the data into respective themes based on the participant's responses. Goodall (2000) suggested that researchers identify themes and patterns after they have transcribed the interviews. Moon, Lee, and Roh (2014) also maintained that after collecting, coding data and transcribing interviews, researchers should identify themes and patterns. Furthermore, Gupta et al. (2013) maintained that after coding the data, researchers should work to identify themes.

Researchers using SLT focus on learning that occurs within a social context, and how individuals learn from one another (Bethards, 2014). Within the context of SLT, employees learn withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and tardiness through observing a model and then replicate the observed behavior (Bethards, 2014). Resick et al. (2013) maintained that individuals learn acceptable and inappropriate ways of behavior through role modeling and by observing the conduct of others. Moreover, the work environment is a social organization where learning occurs; withdrawal behaviors are learned behaviors (Islam et al., 2013).

Cameron, Naglie, Silver, and Gignac (2013) indicated that using a conceptual framework to guide data collection and analysis in their qualitative research resulted in the emergence of key themes. In addition, I conducted a literature review to enhance the

study and the relationship of the conceptual framework. Completing a literature review complements the conceptual framework and development of key themes (Vaismoradi et al., 2011). SLT was the conceptual framework for my study.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability is a process to test the merit of a qualitative study (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012). Elo et al. (2014) maintained that data validity occurs when peers replicate the plausibility, credibility, and trustworthiness of qualitative research findings. Reliable data is information that is consistent, repeatable and reported in detail with multiple peers scrutinizing and debriefing the findings (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012). Additionally, Elo et al. (2014) proposed four criteria for judging the reliability, validity, soundness and trustworthiness of qualitative research, (a) dependability, (b) credibility, (c) transferability, and (d) confirmability.

Reliability

Reliability is pertinent in research studies to ensure the accuracy of data (Sayed & Nelson, 2015). A researcher's reliability pertains to the replicability of the study and can occur through the organization of the research (Morse, 2015). Reliable data is consistent and repeatable (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2012). Moreover, data collected from semistructured interviews provides researchers with consistent documentation processes and techniques (Rhee et al., 2012). To ensure reliability and to validate the study, I gathered multiple sources of data and analyzed the data using HyperResearch™. I based

the reliability of this study on interviews supported by primary peer reviewed material related to the research question.

Dependability refers to the constancy of information over time under differing circumstances (Elo et al., 2014). Matamonasa-Bennett (2015) argued that dependability denotes that the research study is replicable. The dependability of a study is high if another academic can adeptly follow the decision path used by the initial investigator (Morse, 2015). Furthermore, Elo et al. (2014) argued that dependability encompasses rich and vivid explanations that highlight relevant themes in the data. I ensured the dependability of my study by utilizing member checking so that the participants could review my transcript summation to ensure that I had accurately portrayed the information conveyed. With member checking, participants can confirm, clarify, or augment the accuracy of the data (Caretta, 2015). The investigator can use member checking by having the participants validate that the researcher has correctly interpreted the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Furthermore, researchers apply member checking to the study so that research participants' can review the summation of the interviews to assure that the participants' responses have an accurate portrayal (Forber-Pratt, 2015).

Elo et al. (2014) defined confirmability as the objectivity, and the potential for congruence between two or more autonomous reviewers regarding data accuracy, significance, or meaning. Confirmability of findings indicates that the data accurately represents the information that the participants provided and the researcher did not invent

the interpretations of the data (Polit & Beck, 2012). Moreover, researchers achieve confirmability when they take steps to validate that the findings that transpire from the research derive from the data and not from personal bias (Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015). Researchers must continuously reexamine the data and compare the interviews to determine whether the data interpretations are accurate (Elo et al., 2014). Scholars may also verify the correctness of their interview data by requesting that the participants review their interview summaries (Polit & Beck, 2012). I addressed confirmability by utilizing member checking. Member checking is one way to assure data confirmability (Polit & Beck, 2012). The participants reviewed my interview summation, to ensure that I had accurately captured the essence of the data conveyed to me.

Validity

A researcher will use validity is to mitigate threats that could potentially affect the outcome of the study (Humphry & Heldsinger, 2014). Researchers employ validity to address relationships between the research results and the research methods (Roulston & Shelton, 2015). Furthermore, Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2012) argued that validity protocols used by researchers to promote accuracy in qualitative studies foster the development of several explanations for why the researched phenomena occurred. Often validity entails triangulation (Yin, 2014). Researchers use triangulation to gather data from more than one source (Hoque, Covaleski, & Gooneratne, 2013; Yin, 2014). Denzin (2012), Foster et al. (2013) and Yin (2014) identified methodological as a form of triangulation that utilizes more than one data collection method. Researchers can collect

data from participant interviews and also review archival information for their methodological triangulation process (Turner, Cardinal, & Burton, 2015). I utilized methodological triangulation to ensure research validity by utilizing (a) interviews with healthcare leaders, (b) interviews with health service workers and, (c) reviewing archival data such as the state government human resources manual.

Polit and Beck (2012) defined credibility as the confidence in how well the researcher addressed the intended focus. Additionally, Matamonasa-Bennett (2015) maintained that credibility refers to the investigator's attempt to demonstrate that the true picture of the studied phenomenon is presented. Credibility is corroborated through the researcher's observations and data analysis (Wolf et al., 2014). From the perspective of establishing credibility, researchers must identify and correctly portray participants partaking in research projects (Elo et al., 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012). The investigator should consider how to gather the most appropriate data for study (Chao, 2014). Furthermore, the strategy to guarantee the trustworthiness of analysis commences by choosing the most appropriate data collection methods to answer the research question (Chao, 2014; Elo et al., 2014). Elo et al. (2014) and Matamonasa-Bennett (2015) maintained that researchers must contemplate how to substantiate the credibility of their research. I confirmed the credibility of my research utilizing methodological triangulation by using (a) semistructured interviews with health care leaders, (b) semistructured interviews with health service workers and, (c) archival datum. Using three different

approaches to collect data assisted me in obtaining information that provided a holistic and credible answer to the research problem.

Elo et al. (2014) and Polit and Beck (2012) maintained that transferability is the extent to which the researchers can extrapolate their results to other scenarios or groups. Matamonasa-Bennett (2015) argued that transferability occurs by providing enough details about the research so that other scholars can determine the applicability of the findings to a related research problem. In addition, at the conclusion of the study researchers may offer suggestions regarding how the transferability of the findings may be applied to alternate locations (Elo et al., 2014). Elo et al. claimed study readers utilize discernment as to whether or not the reported results are transferable to other contexts. Moreover, the researcher should give explicit descriptions of the culture, context, selection, and characteristics of participants (Polit & Beck, 2012). Researchers increase trustworthiness if they present the results in a way that allows the reader to look for alternative explanations (Polit & Beck, 2012). During the course of my research, I (a) transcribed, (b) coded, (c) organized, (d) triangulated the collected data, and (e) presented the findings to my research problem in a replicable fashion. Based on the results of my study I addressed transferability by offering potential topics for future research projects.

I continued interviewing participants until achieving data saturation. Bernard (2012) maintained that the quantity of interviews required for a qualitative study to attain data saturation was a number that the researcher could not enumerate. There is a greater probability of accomplishing data saturation if the data collection is focused (Merwe,

2015). A researcher achieves data saturation when there is sufficient information to reproduce the study, and no new information develops (Walker, 2012). I ensured data saturation by continuing to interview research participants until no new information emerged.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 was a review of the role of the researcher, participants, research method and design, population and sampling, ethical research, data collection, analysis, instruments, techniques, and reliability and validity. In Section 3, I presented the findings and applied the results to the application of professional practice. The study findings addressed a gap in business practice and provided leaders with best practices needed to reduce the effect of withdrawal behaviors. Additionally, I addressed social change implications, and provided recommendations and reflections related to the research problem.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the best practices leaders need to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. I interviewed four healthcare leaders and six health service workers in the nursing department of a state corrections health care facility in the Southeastern United States. Participant interview responses and a state government human resources manual (archival document) provided me with data to address the research question. Several themes emerged. Health care leaders emphasized the necessity for training in areas such as personnel management, leadership, and a need for the capability to streamline the disciplinary process for addressing withdrawal behaviors. Health service workers indicated that job satisfaction, a consistent application of time and attendance policies by leaders, improved communication by leaders, and increased leader engagement with staff were essential to reduce withdrawal behavior occurrences. Ten participants (100%) indicated that leadership, personal accountability, and nurturing professional relationships among the management and staff are indispensable skills needed to diminish the effects of withdrawal behaviors.

Presentation of the Findings

The central research question that directed this study was: What best practices are needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations? I utilized semistructured interviews with open-ended questions (Appendix A) and a state

government human resources manual as the archival document to collect data for this study. I analyzed the data for this study using HyperResearch™. The four themes that emerged from my analysis were (a) a need for leadership engagement with staff for increased employee commitment, (b) the necessity of staff accountability for reporting to work promptly, (c) required leadership training for individuals serving in leadership roles, and (d) a culture change to decrease withdrawal behaviors.

Theme 1: Leadership Engagement

Strom et al. (2014) linked leadership engagement to desired outcomes such as employee commitment, positive health outcomes, increased job performance, lower employee withdrawal behaviors, and increased job satisfaction. Increased leadership engagement is an effective way to enhance the work environment and increase employee output while reducing turnover and absenteeism (Lambert et al., 2012). Additionally, leaders frequently influence staff behavior by acknowledging acceptable actions and correcting unacceptable conduct (Lee & Jensen, 2014). Responses to interview questions 3, 4, 7, and 9 indicated that eight of the research participants (80%) concurred with Lambert et al., stating that leaders should be more engaged with approachable by employees in order to demonstrate an understanding and concern of the working conditions of the front line staff. Moreover, the same eight (80%) participants indicated that leaders, who routinely interact with subordinate work related affairs, should acknowledge those who exceed basic job expectations and counsel those who fail to meet organizational standards. Participant HW2 indicated that employees who have a cordial

working relationship with their leaders are unlikely to be absent or resign from the organization.

Participant HL2 noted that leaders reminding employees that they are making a difference and are valuable assets in caring for the patient population are critical in reducing employee turnover. Participants HL1, and HW1 stressed the importance of senior leaders acknowledging and thanking the staff who report to work on time, thereby recognizing employees whose contributions are vital to the success of the organization. Additionally, participant HW4 stated that certain senior managers consistently conduct health care facility inspections, build rapport by talking to staff, and enhance employee commitment to the organization. Conversely, participants HL1, HL2, and HW1 stated that while one of four health services senior leaders (25%) routinely make rounds, the remaining 75% of senior leadership did not routinely conduct health care facility inspections. Furthermore, participants HL1, HL2, and HW1 equated leaders failing to inspect their areas with leaders being unconcerned about their staff. Mbokazi (2015) stated that the most effective leaders should spend approximately 60% of the workday checking on the wellbeing of the staff and organizational operations, with the remaining 40% of the day performing crucial administrative tasks. Zundel (2012) claimed that leading by maintaining a consistent presence throughout the organization could be instrumental for leaders in creating an environment conducive to knowledge sharing. Additionally, leadership engagement is critical to minimize the probability of employee withdrawal and turnover (Zundel, 2012). Participants HL1, HL2, and HL3 acknowledged

the significance of developing appropriate professional relationships with employees in order to decrease turnover. Moreover, the same aforementioned participants voiced challenges in balancing administrative requirements associated with staff interaction. Lee, Hallinger, and Walker (2012) maintained that when administrative duties extend beyond the basic demands of the job, a leader's ability to interact with staff becomes cumbersome.

Participants HW5 and HW6 stated that with an increasing prison patient population of more than 1,500 offenders, leaders must have enormous administrative responsibilities limiting their interactions with employees, which might contribute to employee turnover. However, HW1 and HW5 voiced that leaders leaving their offices and spending time on the front line with the staff can have a positive impact on employee morale. The findings of Minor et al. (2014) were congruent with the abovementioned observations of the research participants. Minor et al. linked closer relationships between leaders and subordinate staff with better subordinate morale. Additionally, Paillé et al. (2013) stated that employees perceiving that managers support their efforts is crucial for improved workplace morale.

Steele and Plenty (2015) identified leader and subordinate communication as the most critical factor influencing employee withdrawal. Participant HL1 stated that leaders must communicate more effectively with staff members, clearly articulating organizational expectations to increase employee engagement. Participant, HL2 stated that the institutional leaders communicate inconsistently, often not fully explaining the

reasoning behind decisions that affect the employees. Shin, Seo, Shapiro, and Taylor (2015) argued that subordinates' apprehensions about impartial treatment from leaders increase when employees encounter uncertainty and a lack of information sharing. While participant HL1 stated that leaders hold monthly meetings with the staff in order to share critical information, participants HW1, HW4, and HW5 stated that the staff meetings would be more beneficial if there was two-way communication with leaders. In Table 1, I annotate the frequency with which participants refer to leadership engagement.

Table 1

Leadership Engagement (Frequency)

Participant	Interview questions	Total number of references
HL1	3,4,6,7,9,	7
HL2	1,3,4,5,10	11
HL3	4,9,10	6
HW1	1,3,5,9	4
HW2	3,4,6,8,10	5
HW4	4,6,8,10	5
HW5	3,4,9	3
HW6	4,6,7,9	6

Theme 2: Staff Accountability

Jensen and Raver (2012) indicated personnel with high levels of accountability conveyed greater job fulfillment and trust in leaders. Lyons, Schweitzer, and Ng (2015)

argued that employees who demonstrate personal accountability exhibit high performance and low employee withdrawal behaviors. Participant responses to interview questions 1, 2, 5, 7, and 9 revealed that leaders did not consistently hold staff accountable for following time and attendance policies. Seven (70%) of the research participants articulated that a lack of accountability from leaders and staff attributed to and encouraged the majority of unexcused absenteeism and tardiness. Participant HL2 stated work is not a priority for individuals who are continuously absent from work. Furthermore, HL4, HW5, and HW6 noted employees who are consistently late exhibit time management challenges and demonstrate low levels of accountability.

Participants HL1, HL2, HW1, HW2, and HW5, articulated leaders infrequently hold individuals who are tardy, or absent without authorization, accountable. The lack of action by leaders can have an adverse effect on workplace morale, and productivity while encouraging withdrawal behaviors in employees (Paillé et al., 2013). Additionally, HL1 and HW2 observed that when leaders do not hold staff accountable for attendance consistently, other coworkers feel bitterness and begin displaying withdrawal behaviors. Johnson et al. (2014) stated argued that staff perceptions of inequity can lead to resentment, and an increase in employee withdrawal. Participants HL4, HW2, and HW4 reiterated the observation of Johnson et al. stating that a leader who fails to address absenteeism encourages withdrawal behaviors in other employees.

Participants HL1 and HL4 stated that within the state government, holding an individual accountable for attendance is not a linear process. Participants HL2 and HW5

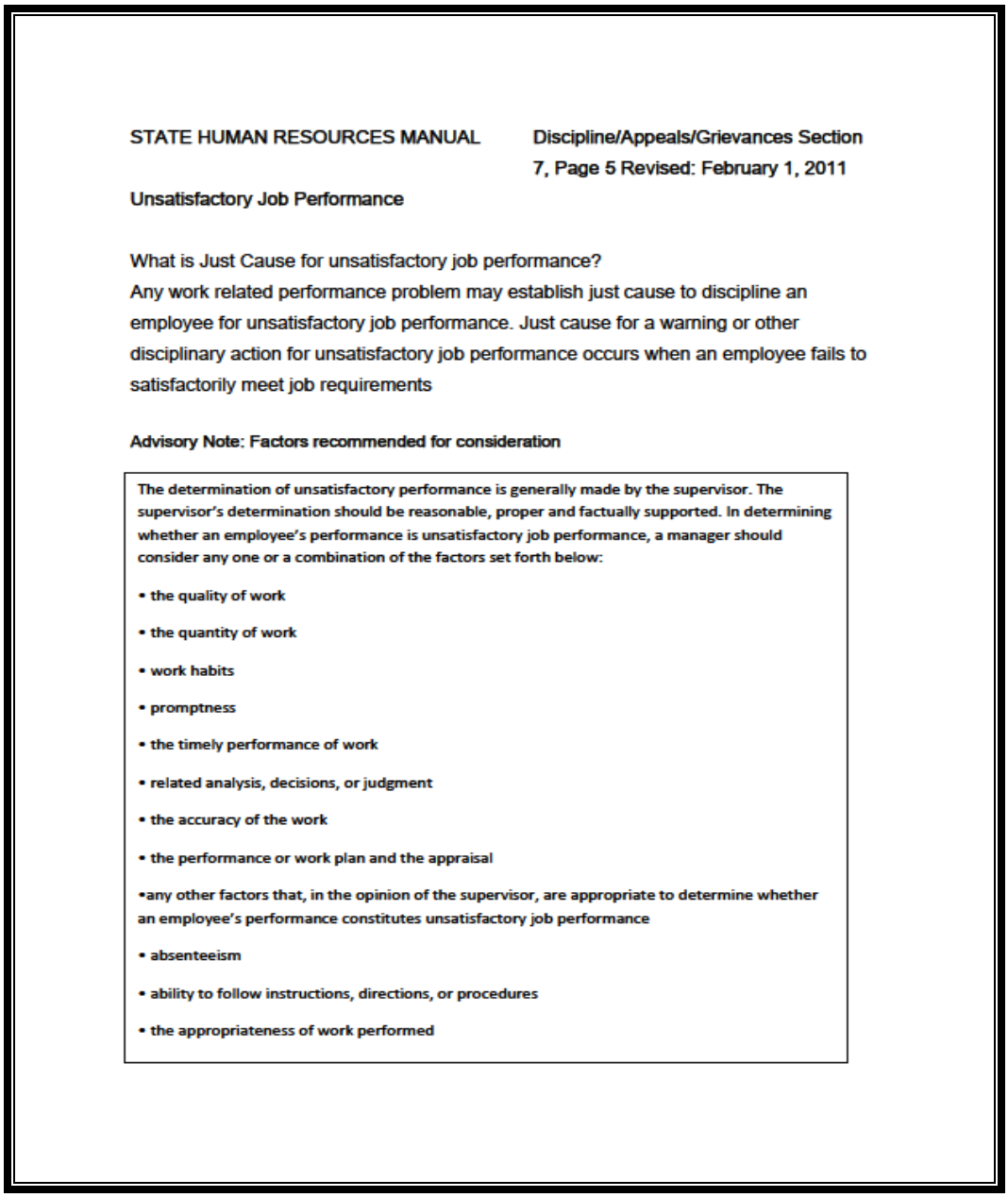
indicated that senior administrators within the participant's state government consider absenteeism and tardiness as an unsatisfactory work performance matter as opposed to unacceptable personal conduct. According to HL4, because absenteeism and tardiness are considered work performance issues and not a personal behavior concern, an employee has multiple chances to correct their unacceptable behavior before receiving discipline. Before leaders can issue corrective action to a person for violating time and attendance policies, the employee and the employee's supervisor must participate in a predisciplinary conference (Figure 3).

Participant HL4 stated that investigating an employee violating the organizational time and attendance policies could take months to adjudicate. Participant HL4 also provided an example of a former employee blatantly violating the time and attendance policies to the point of insubordination; the process to terminate this employee took in excess of 15 months to complete. Participant HL4 also stated that the protracted disciplinary process to terminate the aforementioned employee caused an inordinate amount of harm to organizational morale and the capability of leaders to enforce organizational policies. Chronic unexcused absenteeism can be detrimental to the morale of the staff (Nguyen et al., 2013). Participant HW6 specified unaddressed absenteeism could encourage other employees to begin missing work. Miller and Morris (2014) identified that unexcused absenteeism is a behavior learned through observation.

Participants HL1, HL2, and HL4 stated that the prolonged disciplinary process is mentally exhausting, inefficient, and detrimental to staff. Additionally, HL4 stated that

senior leaders holding leaders accountable for staff actions, yet not granting leaders the authority to take immediate, appropriate corrective actions on staff is not congruent with the health services mission of providing safe and timely patient care. Participants HL2, HL4, HW4, and HW6 indicated that the availability of a streamlined disciplinary process where leaders can quickly address deviant workplace behaviors would improve employee morale by holding individuals accountable.

Per the human resources policy manual (Figures 1, 2, and 3), the disciplinary process for state employees contains multiple phases. According to Figure 1, absenteeism is considered unsatisfactory job performance. Figure 2 contains the types of discipline and the actions that a leader must initiate prior to discipline for unsatisfactory job performance. Figure 3 encompasses the available disciplinary actions for substandard job performance.



STATE HUMAN RESOURCES MANUAL Discipline/Appeals/Grievances Section 7, Page 5 Revised: February 1, 2011

Unsatisfactory Job Performance

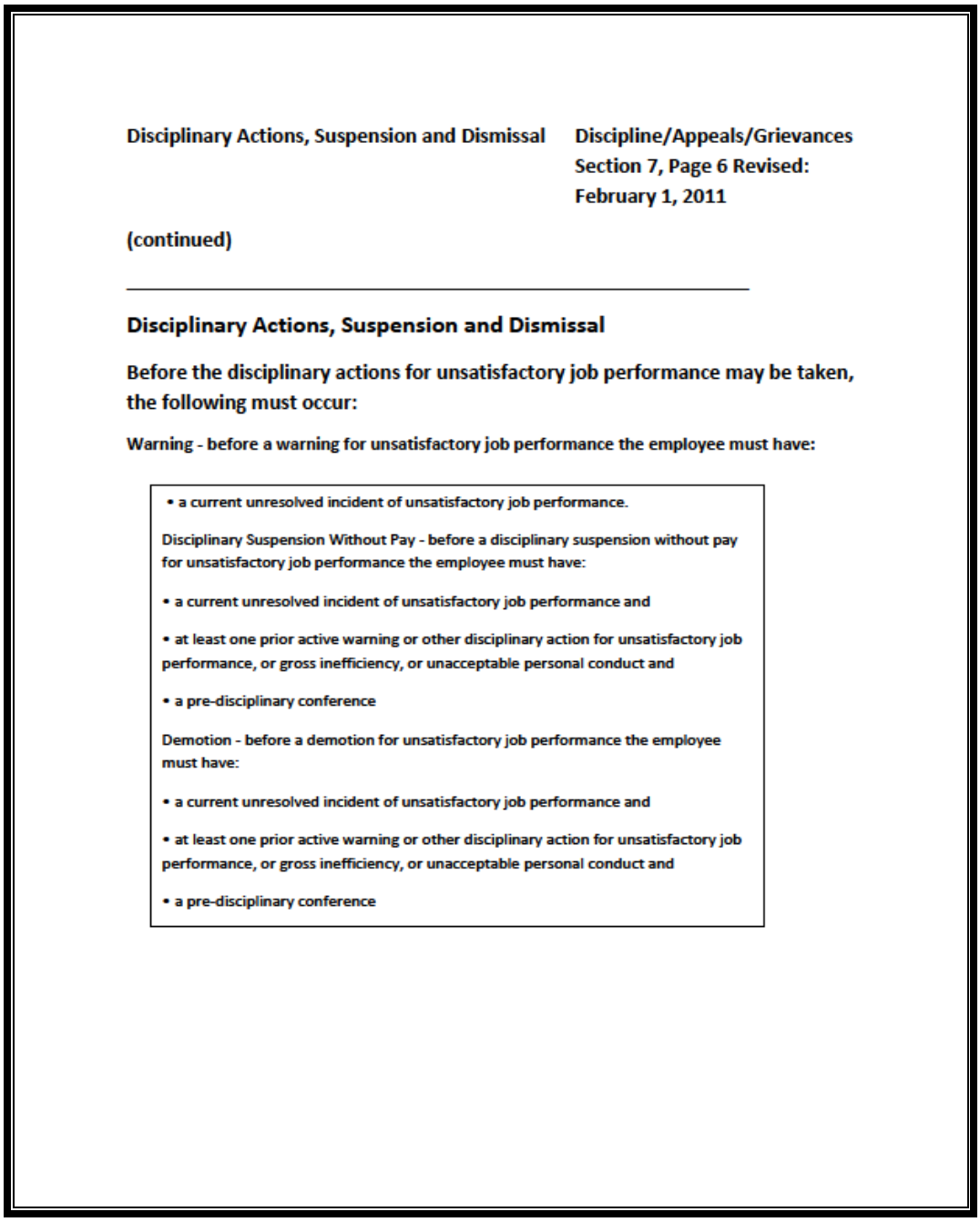
What is Just Cause for unsatisfactory job performance?
Any work related performance problem may establish just cause to discipline an employee for unsatisfactory job performance. Just cause for a warning or other disciplinary action for unsatisfactory job performance occurs when an employee fails to satisfactorily meet job requirements

Advisory Note: Factors recommended for consideration

The determination of unsatisfactory performance is generally made by the supervisor. The supervisor's determination should be reasonable, proper and factually supported. In determining whether an employee's performance is unsatisfactory job performance, a manager should consider any one or a combination of the factors set forth below:

- the quality of work
- the quantity of work
- work habits
- promptness
- the timely performance of work
- related analysis, decisions, or judgment
- the accuracy of the work
- the performance or work plan and the appraisal
- any other factors that, in the opinion of the supervisor, are appropriate to determine whether an employee's performance constitutes unsatisfactory job performance
- absenteeism
- ability to follow instructions, directions, or procedures
- the appropriateness of work performed

Figure 1. Actions considered unsatisfactory job performance



Disciplinary Actions, Suspension and Dismissal **Discipline/Appeals/Grievances**
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(continued)

Disciplinary Actions, Suspension and Dismissal

Before the disciplinary actions for unsatisfactory job performance may be taken, the following must occur:

Warning - before a warning for unsatisfactory job performance the employee must have:

- a current unresolved incident of unsatisfactory job performance.

Disciplinary Suspension Without Pay - before a disciplinary suspension without pay for unsatisfactory job performance the employee must have:

- a current unresolved incident of unsatisfactory job performance and
- at least one prior active warning or other disciplinary action for unsatisfactory job performance, or gross inefficiency, or unacceptable personal conduct and
- a pre-disciplinary conference

Demotion - before a demotion for unsatisfactory job performance the employee must have:

- a current unresolved incident of unsatisfactory job performance and
- at least one prior active warning or other disciplinary action for unsatisfactory job performance, or gross inefficiency, or unacceptable personal conduct and
- a pre-disciplinary conference

Figure 2. Disciplinary actions available for unsatisfactory job performance

STATE HUMAN RESOURCES MANUAL Discipline/Appeals/Grievances Section 7, Page 7
Revised: February 1, 2011 Disciplinary Actions, Suspension and Dismissal (continued)

Disciplinary Actions, Suspension and Dismissal DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS AVAILABLE FOR UNSATISFACTORY JOB PERFORMANCE

Type of Disciplinary Action		Prior Incidents	
Employee has: • a current unresolved incident of unsatisfactory job performance	Employee has: • at least one prior active warning (any type), or • other active disciplinary action (any type)	Employee has: • at least two active warnings (any type), or • two other active disciplinary actions (any type) or • one active warning and one other disciplinary action (any type)	Pre-disciplinary Conference
Warning		Required	
Disciplinary suspensions without pay	Required	Required	Required
Demotion	Required	Required	Required
Dismissal	Required	Required	Required

Figure 3. Disciplinary actions for unsatisfactory job performance

Ten (100%) of the participants maintained that there is a direct correlation between absenteeism and the ability to provide safe, quality healthcare to the patient population. Participants HW2, HW4, HW5, and HW6 specifically stated that an absent employee increases the workload for all staff members, jeopardizing patient care. Gaudine and Thorne (2012) argued that employee withdrawal behaviors are incongruent

with safe patient care practices. In Table 2, I illustrated the frequency participants indicated the necessity of leaders to hold staff accountable.

Table 2

Staff Accountable (Frequency)

Participant	Interview questions	Total number of references
HL1	1,2,5,7,9	12
HL2	2,7,9,10	9
HL4	1,5,7,9	15
HW2	1,2,5,7	7
HW4	1,2,5,9	8
HW5	2,5,9	3
HW6	1,2,5,7,9,10	10

Theme 3: Organizational Leadership Training

Ghislieri and Gatti (2012) maintained that the ability to transform followers into leaders is a critical task for leadership, as this transformation guarantees a training of the next generation of leaders, and organizational continuity. Moreover, Getha-Taylor, Fowles, Silvia, and Merritt (2015) maintained that the need for leadership development is essential for state government public servants; training budgets have not kept pace with demand. Responses to interview questions 1, 4, 7, and 9 indicated that seven (70%) of the participants resonated with Getha-Taylor et al. stating that leaders need training in (a) leading employees including employee engagement, (b) communication, (c) personal and

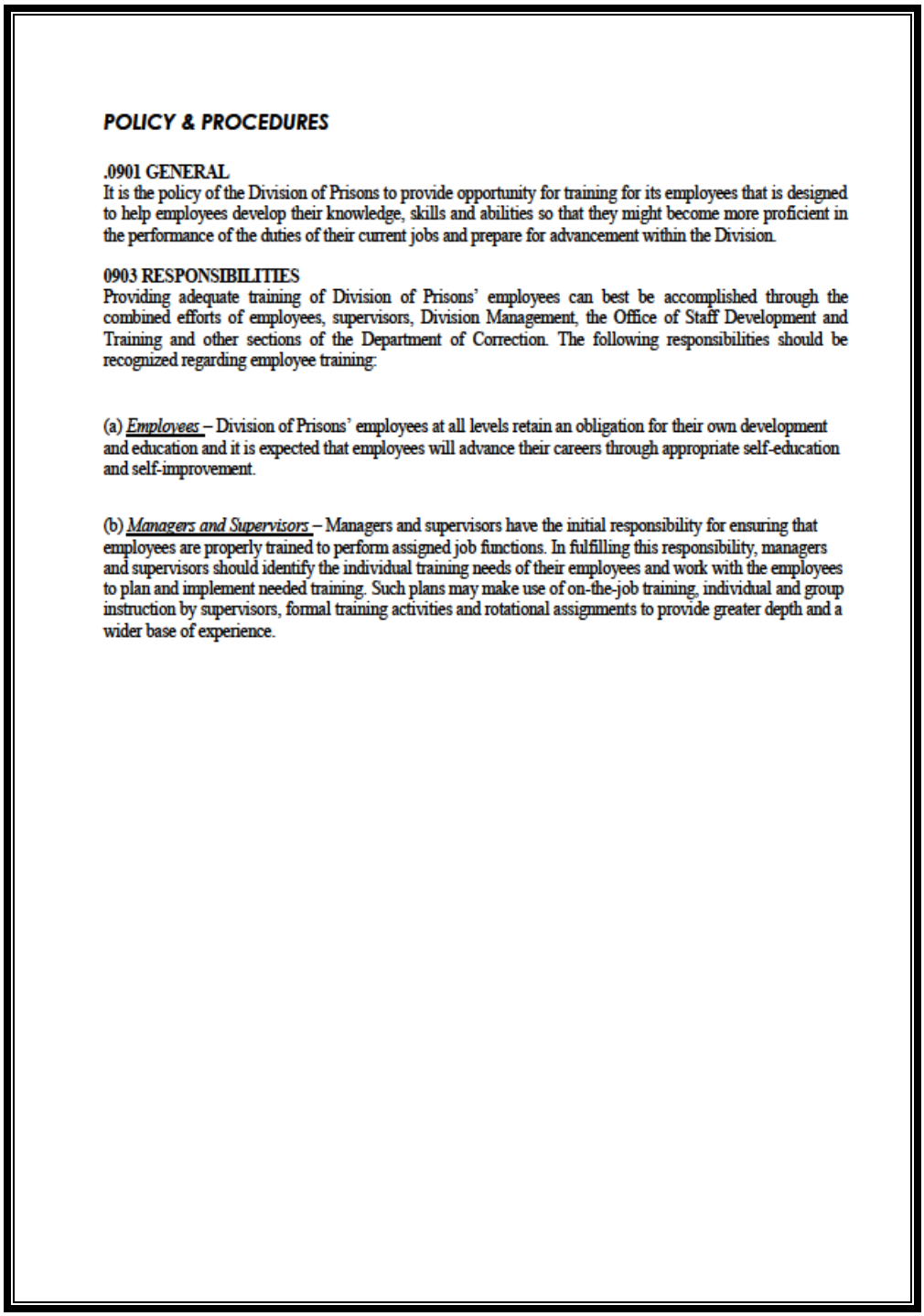
organizational integrity, and (d) critical thinking. Participants HL1, HL2, and HL3 stated they received minimal training after promotion into their current leadership positions. Moreover, the same participants asserted they did not receive any training in (a) leadership, (b) critical thinking, (c) decision making, or (d) effective communications. Participant HL4 maintained some leaders rely on their training and experiences from past employers to navigate through the complexities of managing staff in the correctional health care environment.

Moorosi (2014) indicated that leadership training should start at the beginning of an employee's career. Shuck and Herd (2012) noted that leaders who develop training initiatives directed at cultivating leadership skills are successful at increasing followers' workplace engagement and retention. Seven participants (70%), including four HL and three HW participants, argued that all health services staff, particularly leaders, would benefit from a structured leadership program.

Participants HL4, HW2, and HW6 confirmed that some leaders do not address employee absenteeism and tardiness because they dislike confrontation. Participant HW3 argued that if leaders were more assertive in addressing withdrawal and other deviant workplace behaviors, more employees would conform to organizational expectations. Participants HL1, HL4, HW1, and HW3 acknowledged that some leaders only address workplace problems when enough employees voice complaints or workplace problems adversely affect the institutional operations. Passive avoidant leaders exhibit dysfunctional behaviors and delay in taking corrective action until problems become

serious (Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallman, & Brown 2014). Rose, Shuck, Twyford, and Bergman (2015) argued that dysfunctional leaders adversely affect morale and employee turnover. Moreover, Waddell and Pio (2015) confirmed that in a passive avoidant leadership style, followers experience a deficiency of guidance from their leader. Participant HW2 stated, "employees want structure and discipline from leaders so that staff feel protected and not left out to fend for themselves." Also, HW3 and HW6 noted that when leaders do not address withdrawal behaviors, staff members perceive leaders as disinterested in the welfare of the employees, contributing to absenteeism and turnover.

Participants HL1, HL2, and HL3 argued that leaders should be more proactive in addressing issues with staff. Participant HL4 stated that problematic staff challenges include "when to address issues, and how do leaders have the hard conversations without alienating and demoralizing the staff?" Four of the leaders in the study (100%) acknowledged that a structured leadership program, with specific competencies, would benefit staff and leaders, and likely reduce the probability of employee turnover. Bryant and Allen (2013) confirmed that organizations should provide leadership training to all managers and hold leaders accountable for retention. Per the human resources policy manual (Figure 4), there is no exact training curriculum for leaders or employees beyond basic orientation. In Table 3, I noted the frequency at which participants declared a need for leadership training.



POLICY & PROCEDURES

.0901 GENERAL
It is the policy of the Division of Prisons to provide opportunity for training for its employees that is designed to help employees develop their knowledge, skills and abilities so that they might become more proficient in the performance of the duties of their current jobs and prepare for advancement within the Division.

0903 RESPONSIBILITIES
Providing adequate training of Division of Prisons' employees can best be accomplished through the combined efforts of employees, supervisors, Division Management, the Office of Staff Development and Training and other sections of the Department of Correction. The following responsibilities should be recognized regarding employee training:

(a) *Employees* – Division of Prisons' employees at all levels retain an obligation for their own development and education and it is expected that employees will advance their careers through appropriate self-education and self-improvement.

(b) *Managers and Supervisors* – Managers and supervisors have the initial responsibility for ensuring that employees are properly trained to perform assigned job functions. In fulfilling this responsibility, managers and supervisors should identify the individual training needs of their employees and work with the employees to plan and implement needed training. Such plans may make use of on-the-job training, individual and group instruction by supervisors, formal training activities and rotational assignments to provide greater depth and a wider base of experience.

Figure 4. Training expectations for managers and employees.

Table 3

Organizational Leadership Training (Frequency)

Participant	Interview questions	Total number of references
HL1	7,9,10	8
HL2	7,9,10	12
HL3	1,7,9	5
HL4	1,9,10	11
HW2	4,7,9,10	7
HW3	1,9,10	4
HW6	4,9,10	13

Theme 4: Cultural Change to Decrease Withdrawal Behaviors

Melsom (2015) noted leaders have influential positions in an organization, and their actions in response to absenteeism may influence an absence culture in the workplace. Patton and Johns (2012) maintained a nonattendance culture represents a set of shared understandings about absence legitimacy and the established custom and practice of employee absenteeism. Responses to interview questions 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, and 9 indicated that nine (90%) of the participants agreed that organizational culture contributes to employee withdrawal, adversely affecting workplace morale.

Participants HL1, HL2, HL4, HW2, HW3, and HW5, stated the institution's organizational culture is congruent with leadership condoning unexcused absenteeism, contributing to employee disengagement. Interviewee HW2 expressed that because of the

culture “certain people call out at the same time every month like clockwork and nothing is ever done about the absenteeism.” Participants HL3 and HW2 specified that “people being consistently late but not being punished often result in other employees who normally have great work ethics to be late and absent as well and this can be contributed to the culture of health services.” In a malignant culture, employees will often utilize withdrawal behaviors as an instrument intended to punish organizational leaders in response to perceived unfairness (Albert & Moskowitz, 2014).

Participant HL1 stated that policies are in place to address excessive absenteeism. However, HL1 stated that there is uncertainty among leaders of when to address withdrawal behaviors because there is no consensus among leaders as to when absenteeism becomes excessive. Participant HL4 stated that the “culture of state government” seems to “contribute significantly” to the absence culture because of the cumbersome disciplinary process. Six (60%) of participants claimed to have worked in other organizations outside of state government and the disciplinary process for violating organizational policies was not as burdensome for leaders to apply in non-state government institutions. Interviewees HL1 and HW5 stated that the prison health care organization is a wonderful place to have a career, and the workload is a great deal less than other non-state organizations. However, HL1 explained that “people get tired” and sometimes resign when they are required to consistently complete additional duties because of absent co-workers. Shim, Park, and Eom (2015) expressed that increased job demands such as work overload can lead to increased employee turnover.

Participants HL2, HL4, HW3, and HW5 stated that individuals are absent or tardy for a various number of reasons. Participants HL1 and HW2 stated that employee's absent and tardy issues range from attending to a sick child or parent, to domestic violence. Swanberg, Ojha, and Macke (2012) reasoned there is a correlation between familial issues such as domestic violence, and absenteeism, tardiness, and employee disengagement. Baird, McFerran, and Wright (2014) also maintained that employees who are domestic violence victims might have high levels of absenteeism and tardiness. Participant HL4 and HW2 felt that domestic violence is a legitimate reason to be absent from work. However, participant HL4 and HW2 indicated that the majority of unexcused absenteeism occurs because individuals want to take an extra day away from work. Lambert et al. (2012) linked increased levels of job satisfaction, and organizational commitment to decreased turnover, and lower levels of absenteeism. Srivastava (2012) expressed that increased job satisfaction can decrease the probability of employee turnover.

Participants HL1, HL3, HW5, and HW6 disclosed that leaders failing to address deviant employee behaviors such as excessive absenteeism, or disengagement adversely affect the morale and commitment of the dependable employees. Participant HW3 affirmed that when staff members miss work, the workload on the remaining employees increase substantially, adversely affecting health care quality and patient safety. Moreover, Kalisch and Xie (2014) associated inadequate nursing care with employee withdrawal behaviors. Participants HL1, HW3, and HW4 argued that nursing is

challenging and every action performed on a patient have potential life and death consequences.

Participants HL1, HL2, HL3, and HL4 acknowledged that leaders are responsible for setting employee expectations and periodically reinforcing those expectations. Lee and Jensen (2014) emphasized that leaders set the tone for employee behavior. Leaders should set a positive tone for the culture of the organization by periodically conducting conferences with each employee in order for leaders and staff members to become mutually acquainted with each other's goals, concerns, interests, and communication preferences (Park, 2012). Using Table 4, I articulated the frequency at which participants revealed the need for a change in culture to promote a decrease in withdrawal behaviors.

Table 4

Cultural Change to Decrease Withdrawal Behaviors (Frequency)

Participant	Interview questions	Total number of references
HL1	2,5,8,10	8
HL2	1,2,7,8	5
HL3	1,2,5,7,10	9
HL4	1,2,5,7,8	11
HW2	5,7,8	3
HW3	1,2,5,8	7
HW4	1,2,5,7	13
HW5	8	3
HW6	1,7,8	5

Findings Related to the Social Learning Theory

Advocates of SLT propose that employees are likely to imitate behaviors from trustworthy and desirable role models such as organizational leaders (Miller & Morris, 2014). According to Bandura (1972), SLT is based on the imitation and modeling of behavior that occurs as a result of observational learning. Ten participants (100%) stated that absenteeism and employee disengagement occurred because employees observed withdrawal behaviors in other employees and repeated those behaviors. Additionally, seven (70%) of the participants indicated that because leaders rarely punished absent and tardy employees; other employees observed the leaders inaction as acceptable behavior. Social learning theorists insist that personnel learn appropriate workplace behaviors by observing organizational leaders' response to inappropriate behavior, such as the unexcused absence of employees (Jordan et al., 2013).

Withdrawal behaviors are learned actions (Islam et al., 2013). Unexcused absenteeism is a form of withdrawal behavior acquired through observation (Islam et al., 2013). Scholars utilizing SLT argue that employees learn withdrawal behaviors through monitoring of co-worker and leader behavior (Miller & Morris, 2014). SLT researchers claim that leaders should become role models of appropriate workplace behavior (Ogunfowora, 2014). Moreover, through the strictures of SLT, employees acquire acceptable and unacceptable social behaviors by discerning management's interactions with other employees under varying circumstances (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2012). Six (60%) of the participants, to include all of the HW staff, observed that when leaders fail

to hold employees accountable for attendance policies, co-workers also display withdrawal behaviors. Additionally, participants HL4, HW2, and HW4 stated that leaders who neglect to address absenteeism encouraged withdrawal behaviors in other employees.

Organizational leaders require employees to adapt to workplace performance standards (Resick et al., 2013). Social learning theoreticians postulate that effective strategies to reduce withdrawal behaviors include (a) providing opportunities for leaders to observe their employees, (b) recompensing desired workplace actions such as reporting to work at the scheduled time, and (c) reprimanding inappropriate behaviors such as unexcused absenteeism (Resick et al., 2013). Social learning theorists argue that personnel can learn apposite and incongruous workplace social conduct via observing organizational leaders' response to the inappropriate behavior of employees (Jordan et al., 2013).

Withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover intention are indications of an employee's unconstructive attitudes toward work and denote an aspiration to leave the organization (Shapira-Lishchinsk & Tsemach, 2014). Additionally, Shapira-Lishchinsk and Tsemach indicated that organizational leaders play a pivotal role in managing employee withdrawal. Therefore, based on my research findings, the success of mitigating the effects of employee withdrawal could depend on a high level of leadership engagement and accountability. Dasgupta et al. (2012) maintained that employees experiencing high levels of interaction from their leaders are less likely to

demonstrate withdrawal behaviors. Increased leadership engagement is an effective way to augment employee output while reducing turnover and absenteeism (Lambert et al., 2012). From the lens of SLT, managing withdrawal behaviors will require a coordinated multifaceted approach, beginning with the engagement of organizational leaders.

Applications to Professional Practice

Identifying the best practices business leaders need to decrease the effects of withdrawal behaviors may be critical to organizational goals of decreasing deviant workplace behaviors. Research findings may assist business leaders in developing programs to address leadership engagement, and cultural and financial implications associated with employee withdrawal. Furthermore, study findings might assist leaders in understanding the application of SLT for enhanced leadership engagement. Responses to interview questions 4, 7, and 9 revealed that nine (90%) of the participants indicated that a leadership development program could provide leaders with best practices needed to reduce the cultural influence of withdrawal behaviors and enhance staff engagement. As organizational staff members adapt to environmental changes while responding to an increased demand for services, training leaders to confront challenges associated with employee withdrawal is critical (Getha-Taylor et al., 2015).

The total cost of employee withdrawal behaviors ranges from 30% to 200% of the absent worker's income (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Furthermore, Bryant and Allen (2013) estimated the cost of employee turnover as high as 200% of an employees' first-year salary. Ghadi et al. (2013) noted that withdrawal behaviors cost organizations in the

United States more than 100 billion dollars annually. Globally, employee withdrawal behaviors consume 15% of an organization's payroll (Faulk & Hicks, 2015). Withdrawal behaviors can lead to inefficient operations, and personnel burnout adversely affects the welfare of co-workers (Roche & Haar, 2013). Moreover, withdrawal behaviors result in organizational productivity and profit loss; increasing personnel engagement could improve work productivity while decreasing withdrawal behaviors (Malik, 2013). Excess monetary expenditures because of continual recruiting, interviewing, hiring and orienting new employees are some of the consequences of employee turnover (Faulk & Hicks, 2015).

Study findings may contribute to a gap in business practice regarding organizational withdrawal behaviors by reinforcing how leaders and employees can reduce the effects of employee withdrawal on organizations. Each leader is responsible for positively reinforcing workplace behaviors consistent with the policies and standards of the organization (Pauliene, 2012). Russo et al. (2013) accentuated that withdrawal behaviors are learned through observation. Within the context of SLT, leaders have a responsibility for correcting those employees whose behaviors are incongruent with the mission of the organization. Since employees learn withdrawal behaviors through observation, leaders can play a critical part in the success of mitigating the effects of withdrawal behavior by demonstrating appropriate behaviors (Bethards, 2014). All 10 (100%) participants maintained that employee disengagement, absenteeism, tardiness,

and employee turnover remedies would require leaders and employees to work collaboratively.

Employees, who demonstrate high personal accountability, often exhibit increased performance and low employee withdrawal (Lyons et al., 2015). Jensen and Raver (2012) maintained that employees with high levels of personal accountability conveyed enhanced job fulfillment and greater trust in leaders. Based on the results of my research, holding individuals accountable for appropriate workplace behaviors is crucial in diminishing the adverse effects of withdrawal behaviors. Leaders require employees to conform to workplace performance criteria (Resick et al., 2013). Employees, including leaders, must be cognizant of the workplace behaviors they demonstrate. When motivated, an employee may be willing to perform at a higher level and influence other employees' work behaviors. Employee appreciation is significant in making the employee feel like a vital part of the organization and could increase accountability for work produced (Fearon et al., 2013). Furthermore, organizational goals that align with personal goals might contribute to the merger of both goals for the employee, as well as the organization. The alignment of leaders' objectives with employee ambitions may yield higher productivity and reduce employee withdrawal. The numerous themes identified in the study indicate there is no single best practice that can mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Optimally addressing the research problem will require a coordinated approach from all employees. Leaders might implement my

study findings as a basis for developing definitive solutions to reducing the effects of employee withdrawal.

Implications for Social Change

The challenge for organizational leaders when addressing withdrawal behaviors is to identify the precursors of absenteeism (Patton & Johns, 2012). Data from this study may provide leaders with resolutions and best practices required to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Withdrawal behaviors adversely influence businesses and society by restricting amenities and commodities due to reduced services (Carpenter & Berry, 2014). Withdrawal behaviors can lead to a deficient employment record, and adversely affect domestic relationships because of lost earnings (Allen, Golden, & Shockley, 2015; Zhao et al., 2014).

Taxpayers fund prison operations including personnel, and employee withdrawal cost citizens millions of dollars each year (Kim & Price, 2014; Savitsky, 2012). Furthermore, more than half of all prison inmates have a history of mental health illness, including 56% of state prisoners, 45% of federal offenders, and 64% of county inmates (Felsom, et al., 2012; Stern, 2014). As a result of U.S. mental health institution defunding, state mental hospital populations decreased from 550,000 psychiatric patients in 1956 to 35,000 in 2012 (Ward & Merlo, 2016). Felsom et al. (2012) maintained that reduced financing of public mental health treatment facilities contributed to growth in the offender population and prison operating expenses. Data from this study may affect social change by reducing the cost of employee withdrawal behaviors on citizens and

reallocate taxpayer funds to increase subsidies needed for public programs such as inpatient mental health treatment programs.

Recommendations for Action

Withdrawal behaviors are counterproductive to organizational effectiveness (Thornton et al., 2013). Although leaders seek to foster a productive and satisfied workforce, employees disengage from their work for a variety of reasons (Timms et al., 2012). Organizational leaders are constantly searching for best practices that minimize the effects of employee withdrawal (Collins & Cartwright, 2012). Based on the research findings, I recommend the following actions:

- Organizational leaders must apply a holistic approach to address employee withdrawal behaviors.
- Leaders should work collaboratively with employees to foster a culture that encourages appropriate workplace behaviors such as employee engagement while discouraging employee withdrawal.
- Leaders need to serve as role models for employees by continuously demonstrating appropriate workplace behaviors.
- Leaders must commit to facilitating an organizational culture conducive to the career development of their staff.
- Leaders need to hold employees accountable for following organizational policies, and equally enforce said policies.

- Leaders should remain accessible to employees by maintaining an open-door policy that fosters mutual communication.

I will distribute my research findings through industry periodicals, academic journals, and conferences focused on government leadership and correctional facility healthcare. The quintessence of academic study is publication; consequently, the distribution of research conclusions is a critical element of the research progression (Saracho, 2013). Moreover, business leaders could integrate my research outcomes into corporate training, employee manuals, and correctional healthcare initiatives. The assimilation of academic study outcomes into institutional policies and periodicals affords contemporary insights and contributes to research efficiency (Aydın, 2012).

Recommendations for Further Research

The discoveries, inferences, and recommendations resulting from my study may contribute to current, and impending research and gaps in business practice concerning best practices leaders need to minimize the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. Globalization, an aging labor force, and an increased reliance on intellectual capital make reducing the impact of withdrawal behaviors critical to any organization (Zimmerman et al., 2012). Leaders establish the climate in the organization for employees to follow (Pauliene, 2012). Furthermore, leadership engagement influences relationships and frames the behaviors of employees in the organization (Dasgupta et al., 2012). Employees emulate the behaviors of their leaders (Pauliene, 2012).

Quantitative researchers should examine the relationship between leadership engagement and the incidence of employee withdrawal to understand causes of withdrawal behaviors (Babones, 2015). Based on Babones (2015) future researchers might use numerical data to test relationship hypotheses and support my qualitative findings. McKim (2015) maintained that quantitative researchers could utilize statistical data to validate the findings of a qualitative study.

There were limitations in this research. First, I interviewed only health care leaders and health service workers of a nursing department within a state correctional healthcare facility. The study findings were specific to one department in one state government institution and may not be applicable to other departments or public or private organizations. Future scholars could replicate this study in county correctional facilities, federal prisons, community transition facilities, or other state prisons. Second, the use of a case study could have limited insights yielded from my study. By only interviewing 10 participants and triangulating the data with a state government human resources manual, findings were limited to a specific sample; the entire state correctional healthcare facility employees in excess of 200 staff members. Moreover, an ethnographic inquiry may expand research findings to a larger population and other organizational cultures. Researchers using an ethnographic design research 100% of the targeted population while immersing themselves in the culture of the research location (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). By studying the outcomes of my research, leaders might develop policies and strategies to mitigate the impact of withdrawal behaviors on organizations.

My study findings demonstrated a need for leaders to be (a) champions of their organizations' mission, (b) decrease withdrawal behaviors by positively engaging employees, and (c) hold staff accountable for demonstrating appropriate workplace behaviors.

Reflections

Using a qualitative case study, I explored best practices leaders need to mitigate the effect of withdrawal behaviors in organizations. The participants in this study elaborated on the challenging nature of working in a prison healthcare facility and the influence of the organization's culture on the pervasiveness of employee withdrawal. All ten (100%) participants agreed that employees and leaders play a critical role in addressing the research problem. The participants emphasized that leaders should hold their employees accountable; staff members are responsible for their actions. The participants were knowledgeable, informative and provided insight into the research topic.

My doctoral study experience enhanced my scholarly knowledge on withdrawal behaviors. The understanding I gained through interacting with the participants will benefit my current and future career development. Using open-ended questions in this study offered me an opportunity for in-depth discussion with participants, which improved my communication and interpersonal skills, and mitigated any potential bias during this research process.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore best practices leaders need to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations. I interviewed leaders and health service workers in the nursing department of a correctional facility in the Southeastern United States. Utilizing open-ended questions and the organization's human resources manual as the archival document, I collected and triangulated data to address the research question. Four themes emerged during data analysis; a need for (a) leadership engagement, (b) staff accountability, (c) needed organizational leadership training, and (d) a cultural change to decrease withdrawal behaviors. Leaders should apply a multidisciplinary approach in addressing employee withdrawal behaviors that include (a) leadership training, (b) personal commitment, (c) effective communication, organizational culture, and (d) personal culpability. Leaders must collaborate with employees to foster a culture that encourages apposite workplace behavior while deterring employee withdrawal. Finally, leaders have a duty to enhance the career development of their staff subsequently creating the next generation of leaders.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Interview: Mitigating the Effects of Withdrawal Behavior on Organizations	
What you will do	**What you will say—script**
• Introduce the interview and set the stage	My name is James Alexander, and I appreciate you taking time out of your schedule to participate in this research project". I am studying the effects of withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness on your organization. My central research question that will drive this study is: What best practices are needed to mitigate the effects of withdrawal behaviors on organizations? There are 10 questions that I will ask you.
• Give the applicant the opportunity to introduce themselves	I have been a student of Walden University for approximately 3.5 years. I have worked with the Department of Public Safety for three years. Prior to this time, I spent 23.5 years in the United States Navy, first as a Combat Medic, Hospital Corpsman for 11 years and then as a Naval Officer for 12 years. I retired in from the Navy in 2012. Just to reiterate, you have consented to become part of this research project by agreeing to be interviewed. Remember, your participation in this project is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time prior to data analysis stage. Do you have any questions about the informed consent form that I previously sent to you or the informed consent process? I will audio record this interview along with taking notes. Your participation along with this interview is a private matter, and I will keep these proceedings confidential. Do you have any questions or concerns about the confidentiality of your participation? Do you have any questions or concerns about anything that I have discussed with you thus far?

	Let's begin with the questions.
• Watch for non-verbal queues • Paraphrase as needed • Ask follow-up probing questions to get more in-depth	1. Why are employees absent and tardy from your organization?
	2. How do organizational policies contribute to absenteeism and tardiness?
	3. Why do employees decide to leave your organization?
	4. What actions should leaders take to minimize employee turnover?
	5. How do absenteeism and tardiness affect the work environment?
	6. How do absenteeism and tardiness affect the delivery of health services?
	7. How does organizational culture contribute to absenteeism?
	8. How does job satisfaction contribute to tardiness, absenteeism and employee turnover?
	9. What skills do leaders need to reduce tardiness, turnover, and unexcused absences?
	10. What more can you add that would be beneficial to this study?
Wrap up interview thanking participant	This concludes our interview session.
Schedule follow-up member checking interview	I will transcribe this interview and provide a summary of your responses to each of the questions to you via email within three business days from today so that you can make certain that I have captured the essence of your responses to the questions. If there are inconsistencies in my transcription and the intended meaning of your responses, we will have a follow-up interview so that you can provide clarification. Thank you for your time and I hope that you have a great rest of the day.

Appendix B: Authorizing Representative Agreement

Walden University

Mitigating the effect of Withdrawal Behavior on Organizations

{Correctional Institutions}
{Correctional Facility Administrators}

{October 1, 2015}

Dear Correctional Facility Administrator,

My name is James Alexander and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am working on completing my Doctor of Business Administration degree with a concentration in leadership. I am conducting a dissertation research study on what best practices organizational leaders need to reduce the effects of withdrawal behaviors such as ***tardiness, absenteeism, burnout, and employee turnover.*** My research will have two parts. The first part of this study will involve interviewing members of ***the nursing staff, including supervisory personnel and administrative support staff.*** The second part involves reviewing any attendance policies that your organization has.

I *respectfully request* permission to utilize your facility as a research site for the sole purpose of interviewing your nursing personnel. Additionally, I *respectfully request* that you forward the attached invitation letter to all of your nursing staff on my behalf. All employees will contact me directly to express interest in participation. All interviews will be conducted as not disrupt their work day or the operations of the facility.

Sincerely,

James Alexander

Appendix C: Letter of Cooperation

[redacted]

November 9, 2015

[redacted]

RE Final Authorization for Research Proposal, Mitigating the Effects of Withdrawal Behaviors on Organizations

This letter is the final authorization from the North Carolina Department of Public Safety (DPS) to conduct the project referenced above. The authorization is valid until the expiration date of approval from the IRB at your governing institution, until 11/6/2016. If the project will continue after this date, you seek renewal by 11/6/2016.

The DPS must review all renewals and amendments to the approved proposal and all revisions to the project (e.g., additional testing, or changes in instrumentation). Please direct these matters to the Research Administrator.

The research sight unit has the responsibility of providing you a place to conduct your interviews as well as providing you documentation on specific time and attendance policies. You are reminded that your project is not to interfere with daily operations of the research cite. Please be advised that the correctional institution has policies in place for your safety. However, beyond this, your safety cannot be guaranteed. If you require assistance or need additional authorization letters, please contact this office at (919-743-3607).

[redacted]

Telephone: (919) 733-4540
Fax: (919) 733-8031

An Equal Opportunity Employer

Appendix D: Study Introduction

Hello,

My name is James Alexander and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am working on completing my Doctor of Business Administration degree with a concentration in leadership. I am conducting a dissertation research study on what best practices managers need to mitigate the effect of withdrawal behaviors.

The nursing staff including all healthcare leaders, and administrative support staff are invited to participate in this study.

I am requesting your participation in a face-to-face interview. I understand that your time is valuable. The questions will take approximately 20 and not exceeding 45 minutes to answer. You participation and experiences will be essential to the research being conducted.

You will receive a copy of your responses and a summary of the results to help you understand how alternative workplace solutions affect organizational activity. All information will be confidential and protected.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact me directly at 910-219-5886 or email at jame.alexander@waldenu.edu and I will email you a consent form. The consent form contains additional information about the study. Following the receipt of an emailed consent form response of 'I Consent', I will contact you to arrange a time and date for the interview.

I look forward talking with your further.

Thank you,

James Alexander