

The impacts of work self-efficacy and person-organization fit on employee withdrawal behaviours and job embeddedness under the pay for performance system: An empirical study

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ABSTRACT

The impacts of work self-efficacy and person-organization fit on employee withdrawal behaviours and job embeddedness under the pay for performance system: An empirical study

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Purpose - This study aims to investigate sales agents' job embeddedness and withdrawal behaviour by using the Conservation of Resources (COR) as an overarching theoretical framework. It seeks to contribute to better the framework of this model by considering work self-efficacy and person-organization fit as predictors of sales agents' job embeddedness and withdrawal behaviour under pay for performance system. In particular, it is hypothesized that both work self-efficacy and person-organization fit are negatively correlated with withdrawal behaviours, which include turnover, absenteeism and lateness attitude, and are positively associated with job embeddedness under the pay for performance system. **Design/methodology/approach** - An online survey was conducted with a total of 105 sales agents in the USA (42 women). **Findings** - The research reveals findings in favour of the hypotheses that work self-efficacy and person-organization fit are both negatively associated with and significant predictors of turnover intention. However, they are positively and significantly correlated with lateness attitude, which is the opposite of what was hypothesized. Self-efficacy is the only variable that is negatively and significantly related to absenteeism, while the person-organization fit is the only variable positively and significantly related with job embeddedness.

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INTRODUCTION

Both the withdrawal behaviour and job embeddedness have long been topics of interest and research in organizational science. The withdrawal behaviour, which can refer to employee lateness, absenteeism or their intention to leave work, is defined as employees' negligent attitudes and behaviours at their workplace (Turan, 2015). According to Turan (2015), these behaviours have been studied in depth as they represent an extra cost for organizations, which can lead to financial loss.

On the other hand, job embeddedness refers to understanding employees' links to their peers, their perceived fit with the environment, the fallout if they quit their jobs, and the factors that oblige employees to remain at their current workplace (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). Organizations place a substantial emphasis on job embeddedness because of the strategic value of intellectual capital and the costs associated with replacing valuable employees. In addition, by focusing on job embeddedness, organizations can enhance their understanding on how to minimize employees' intention to leave their current organization (Mitchell et al., 2001; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007).

Over the past five decades, employee turnover intentions, absenteeism, lateness and actual turnover have attained an enormous theoretical and empirical interest (e.g., Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Steel, 2002). Building on Rosch (2001) and Mathis and Jackson (2003), Podsakoff et al. (2007) state that studying these domains can benefit organizations immensely as expenditures related with employee turnover cost U.S. businesses billions of dollars each year. In addition, even small companies can save millions of dollars annually through the practices that promote retention. Furthermore, according to O'Brien-Pallas et al. (2008), the moderate rate of turnover in Canadian companies is close to 20% per year and the costs related with high turnover are due to temporary replacements and the productivity decline of newly-hired employees.

On the other hand, the recent studies, including that of Sarikwal and Gupta (2013), suggest that employee retention may have a positive impact in terms of higher organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Employees who stay longer in the company are likely to possess better clarity of what the company's primary goals are. At the same time, low employee turnover would facilitate better financial performance of an organization through reduced cost for hiring, induction and training.

According to Biron and Boon (2013), employee turnover is a serious issue that concerns organizations since employee turnover has a major impact on direct (through recruitment, selection, training, etc.) and indirect (through the reduced productivity and loss of knowledge) costs. Building on Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012), they further explain the importance of turnover given that the average monthly turnover rate in the USA was about three percent in 2011, around 49 percent of which was voluntary. This means an annual rate of about 20 percent voluntary turnover, representing a cost estimated in billions of dollars each year (Biron & Boon, 2013).

Karatepe (2013) also states that job embeddedness is an imperative employee retention strategy in human resource management. According to his paper, organizations implement various high-performance work activities and provide their employees with social support at work in order to increase their job embeddedness. His paper also states that such retention strategies connect employees to their companies, which in turn decrease their intention to leave.

As reported by Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, and Holtom (2004), job embeddedness is vital not only for retaining workers and decreasing their withdrawal behaviours, but also for increasing their organizational citizenship and job performance. In the paper, they emphasize that employees increase their performance when they have high job embeddedness and this occurs through motivational effects. As stated in the paper: "Employees with high on-the-job embeddedness will (1) be involved in and tied to projects and people, (2) feel they fit well in their jobs and can apply their skills, and (3) sacrifice valued things if they quit" (Lee et al., 2004, p. 714). These factors are what motivate employees to perform well when they are highly embedded to their

organizations. Moreover, Lee and his colleagues further state that the more employees are embedded in their organizations and feel a strong fit to their jobs and colleagues, the more they will be likely to show citizenship behaviours.

Research has identified various individual factors that can help understand why employees intend to quit, be absent, arrive late or retain their jobs. Accordingly, many researchers have attempted to explain how withdrawal behaviours can be reduced and job embeddedness enhanced at a workplace.

One such factor is work self-efficacy, the notion which comes primarily from social learning theory that was introduced by Bandura (1986). According to his results, self-efficacy is the belief that individuals have competence to successfully carry out a given task. For example, two employees may be given exactly the same task from management to perform. Even though the assigned work is the same in essence, a low-efficacious employee is more likely to perceive the workload intolerable and highly distressing, while an employee with high self-efficacy is expected to find it reasonable and even easy to accomplish. It is in line with Bandura's (1991) claim that people with low self-efficacy can be urged that tasks are harder than they actually are and perceive job expectations as incongruent and ambiguous. Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2014) also emphasize that people with a strong sense of self-efficacy will persist longer to master the challenge of the task. Thus, it is important to attain a competence of self-regulation for the given task to be performed successfully.

There is a lot of research which suggests that perceptions of self-efficacy are positively related to goal setting, learning, effort level, and performance level (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Kim, Mone, & Kim, 2008). Moreover, according to Tims et al. (2014), self-efficacy may boost performance because employees who perceive themselves as highly efficacious will exert the required effort to produce a successful outcome and persist longer despite any obstacles. Cavazotte, Moreno, and Bernardo (2013) also mention that individuals are more involved and persistent to accomplish certain workload when they possess higher self-efficacy. Self-confidence, persistence, and self-belief are what make most of highly self-efficacious employees succeed in any assigned task with greater

performance. Ultimately, they are more inclined to remain in their work place and less interested in quitting (McNatt & Judge, 2008; Lai & Chen, 2012; Wang, Hall, & Rahimi, 2015).

Another factor that can explain why employees are inclined to stay or leave their jobs is their perception of the person-organization fit. This fit is defined as “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both” (Kristof, 1996, p. 4–5). Research on the person-organization fit has also indicated that individuals are more inclined to remain in their workplace when the fit between them and their organization increases (Memon, Salleh, Baharom, & Harun, 2014; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). These studies have also established a negative association between the P-O fit and turnover intention.

Thus, based on existing research, there is a pretty clear understanding of the critical role that work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit play in employees’ withdrawal behaviour or job retention. However, previous research falls short of evidence on how these two factors influence the withdrawal behaviour and job embeddedness of employees who get paid on for their performance.

Pay-for-performance is one kind of pay system that has generated a considerable interest among scholars and been used by many organizations (Gerhart & Fang, 2014). Based on a WorldatWork survey with 1001 member companies, Gerhart and Fang (2014) reported that 92% of companies based their decision of a pay increase on their individual employee’s performance. In addition, 84% of the surveyed companies reported using what is known as a variable pay (other than sales commissions), such as merit bonuses, individual incentives, performance sharing, and profit sharing.

Building on Basu et al. (1985) and Joseph and Kalwani (1998), Menguc and Tansu Barker (2003) state that sales organizations are increasingly using performance-based incentive plans as a reward mechanism in order to motivate, direct, and, more importantly, retain a knowledgeable, and competent sales force. As many organizations are confronted with the attrition of their workforce through high turnover, incentive plans

have been used as a part of the organization's investment in human capital (Bartol, 1999).

Even though pay-for-performance plans have invariably been a major component of organizations, it still remains puzzling whether paying for performance leads to better or poorer performance results. A number of studies argue that the pay-for-performance system brings a competitive advantage to organizations, increasing their performance in terms of output quantity in manufacturing firms (Gagné & Forest, 2008). In addition, pay-for-performance systems are known to boost job performance under higher levels of contingent profit-sharing (Han, Bartol, & Kim, 2015).

On the other hand, a number of other researchers have claimed negative effects of such pay system over the years. It is stated that implementing incentive plans, organizations do not always achieve intended financial (e.g., total sale) and non-financial (e.g., job satisfaction) performance results in comparison to the performance of their major rivals (Menguc & Tansu Barker, 2003). For example, Pfeffer (1998) states that: "extrinsic rewards diminish intrinsic motivation" and "large extrinsic rewards can actually decrease performance in tasks that require creativity and innovation" (p. 116).

Kohn (1993) argues that pay-for-performance systems decrease performance because when the manager gives prominence to what profit an employee can acquire for doing a good work, employees will be less interested in the work itself. Shaw, Gupta, and Delery (2002) also cite that pay dispersion is not recommended in most team settings where work is interdependent because of concerns with subsequent jealousy, and decreased cooperation.

What makes the pay-for-performance plan different from other plans is that sales agents under such a plan have to exert a greater amount of effort to be paid more. However, it is always uncertain what constitutes the additional compensation since the benefit is only received if performance goals are met (Cloutier, Morin, & Renaud, 2013). Moreover, with this pay system, rewards are not stable; they must be re-earned each period (Kuhn & Yockey, 2003) and sales agents are likely to find it hard to cope with heavier workload involved. Sales people under pay for performance plan have to deal with pay iniquity when they compare their income with others' income, variable pay that

they receive based on their performance, failure to achieve the expected pay, and fear of being incapable to keep up with other high performers to receive high income on a daily basis. All of these can lead to burnout, dissatisfaction, or even depression (Kohn, 1993; Menguc & Tansu Barker, 2003). Therefore, sales agents need certain personal resources to cope with such threatening conditions which pay-for-performance plan offers.

Work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit are two individual factors that may help sales agents in dealing with the above-mentioned conditions, eventually resulting in decreased withdrawal behaviour and increased job embeddedness. According to Mulki, Lassk, and Jaramillo (2008), different salespeople perceive the stress of workload differently. It means that individuals may conceive the same condition (e.g., pay iniquity, failure to achieve an expected pay) as highly stressful while others regard it as less distressing. Thus, self-efficacy may enhance a salesperson's ability to manage the increased workload and stressful situations (Mulki et al., 2008). It can also help them execute courses of action required to overcome the threatening conditions of pay-for-performance systems and accomplish the designated performance targets. Moreover, if there is a fit in the values, goals and culture between sales agents and their organizations, the sales agents may benefit from the pay-for-performance plan since it is what suits them best (Yaniv & Farkas, 2005). As a result, these two individual factors can play an important role for people in sales under the pay-for-performance system.

The pervasive usage of the pay-for-performance system in most organizations around the world, as well as, its drawbacks that lead sales agents to increased withdrawal behaviours and decreased job embeddedness necessitate further investigation. Additional research is required to determine whether or not self-efficacy and the person-organization fit increase job embeddedness and decrease withdrawal behaviours under the pay for performance system.

That is why this research aims at measuring the effects of the perceived person-organization fit and work self-efficacy on job embeddedness of salespeople and also, on the withdrawal behaviour under the pay-for-performance system. The aim is to show that salespeople will reduce their withdrawal behaviours and increase their job embeddedness

when they perceive a better fit with their organization and have increased levels of work self-efficacy when paid in line with their performance. Therefore, the essential question that is sought to be answered in this study is:

- How do work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit influence job embeddedness and the withdrawal behaviour under the pay for performance system?

This study has both practical and theoretical implications. On the one hand, it further explores the relationship between two independent constructs - the perceived person-organization fit and work self-efficacy. Additionally, it looks at the influence of these two independent constructs - the perceived person-organization fit and work self-efficacy - on two dependent constructs - withdrawal behaviour and job embeddedness. This study will contribute to our understanding of how salespeople display less of withdrawal behaviours and more of job embeddedness when they perceive more person-organization fit and have higher work-self efficacy under pay-for-performance plans.

On the other hand, many companies with pay-for-performance systems will benefit from the findings of this study. This study will enable them to target the perceived person-organization fit of salespeople and their work self-efficacy in order to decrease withdrawal behaviours and increase their job embeddedness. In doing so, companies will benefit by significantly reducing their intangible costs caused by declining employee morale, customer dissatisfaction and tangible costs of hiring new workers and training them. As mentioned earlier, withdrawal behaviours usually result in high costs to employers because of significant time and money demanded to refill positions (e.g., in recruitment, selection, and training; Hom & Griffeth, 1995).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Work self-efficacy

According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy is “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types

of performances” (p. 391). Building on Bandura (1991), Kim et al. (2008) also regard self-efficacy as how competent an individual believes he or she is in achieving a given task or a set of functions involved in performing a job in the work place.

(1) Importance of Work self-efficacy

Mulki et al. (2008), suggest that highly self-efficacious employees are less likely to get overburdened. They address any tough tasks at work as challenges to be mastered. According to Stajkovic and Luthans (2001), weighing, evaluating, and integrating information about their perceived competences make it possible for individuals to envision how much effort must be initiated. These authors state: “Expectations of personal efficacy determine whether an employee’s coping behaviour will be initiated, how much task-related effort will be expended, and how long that effort will be sustained despite disconfirming evidence” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001, p. 66). Those who perceive high self-efficacy will demonstrate sufficient effort to produce a successful outcome while others with low self-efficacy fail at the task because of less effort exerted (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001). Shoji et al. (2016), consider burnout as an example of stress-related conditions. Building on Luszczynska and Schwarzer (2005), they assume that low self-efficacious employees tend to think pessimistically about their future accomplishments and personal development. As such, self-efficacy may act as a resource to inhibit negative outcomes of strain and help workers recover from burnout. Building on Jimmieson, Terry, and Callan, (2004), they further propose that work self-efficacy make it easy for employees to adapt to any change in their workplace. According to Lai and Chen (2012), work self-efficacy is a key mechanism to prompt employees to outperform others, set higher standards, and expect a greater outcome.

Building on Cox (1978), Mulki et al. (2008) denied the source of pressure to be the primary cause of stress. It is the individuals’ perception of the pressure that forms stress. This means that individuals may have identical jobs and work in an identical environment, but at the same time perceive a different level of stress. Building on Bandura (1997), Mulki et al. (2008) consider self-efficacy as a cognitive regulator of

anxiety level that impacts the way individuals perceive stress. They further argue that individuals with high work self-efficacy determine possible ways to exercise perceptual control over potential threats and consequently become less stressful. Consequently, individuals with high self-efficacy will overcome all the hardship, stress, and burnout they encounter in their work place and decrease their intention to quit their jobs.

(2) Role of Work self-efficacy in Salespeople's performance

Self-efficacious salespeople often accomplish higher performances as they are capable of coping with obstacles related to their tasks (Dixon & Schertzer, 2005). They can also handle demanding situations that occur while interacting with customers (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). Salespeople can manage work overload better because higher levels of self-efficacy help them enhance their ability to exercise control over the situation (Bandura, 1991). In addition, people who have a strong sense of self-efficacy will persist longer on a given task to master the challenge at hand (Tims et al., 2014). According to Pettijohn, Schaefer, and Burnett (2014), self-efficacy is what leads to salesperson's three desired behaviours/outcomes: customer-orientation, customer satisfaction and sales performance.

Dixon and Schertzer's (2005) study shows that self-efficacious salespeople tend to accept responsibility when they fail. They are more likely to attribute their failure to temporary and controllable reasons such as exerting insufficient effort or using an incorrect selling strategy. Because high self-efficacious employees usually outperform their colleagues with low self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), they assume to obtain higher compensation compatible with their performance (Kim et al., 2008). They are willing to remain in their current job longer as long as they get rewarded with desired compensation under the pay-for-performance system.

Person-Organization Fit as a part of Person-Environment Fit

Person-organization fit has been chosen as one of the most commonly used forms of

Person-Environment fit. Building on Schneider (2001), Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson (2005) defined person-environment fit as compatibility between an individual and a work environment when they have similar characteristics.

According to Kristof (1996), the interaction between individuals and their work environment forms different levels of person-environment fit such as person-vocation fit, person-job fit, person-organization fit, person-group fit. Building on Holland (1977), Kristof (1996) define person-vocation fit as a similarity between an individual's personality and the personality of vocational environment. Kristof (1996) also defines person-job fit as a fit between individual competences and job demands or individual desire and job attributes. Building on Judge and Ferris (1992), Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) state that person-group fit focuses on the compatibility between individuals and their work groups.

Person-organization fit, which is another form of person-environment fit, has been chosen as a primary focus of this study. Person-organization fit has always received a great interest by scholars in human resource management field. Kristof-Brown (2000) identifies person-organization fit as an important domain of person-environment fit to a hiring decision. What makes this form of fit different from others is that it is compatibility between an individual and the entire organization. However, this compatibility has been conceptualized in different ways by most researchers. In order to shed some light on these multiple conceptualizations, Kristof (1996) made two distinctions. Building on Muchinsky and Monahan (1987), she refers the first distinction to supplementary and complementary fit. According to her, supplementary fit exists as a result of similar characteristics between individuals and an environment they work. Cable and Edwards (2004) also claim that supplementary fit exists on condition that organizations recruit individuals with the skills already used in the workplace broadly. However, complementary fit occurs when an individual's characteristics complete with what is missing in the organization. Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) also emphasize in their study that complementary fit occurs once "the weaknesses or needs of the environment are offset by the strengths of the individual, and vice-versa" (p. 271).

Building on Edwards (1991), Kristof (1996) refers the second distinction on person-organization fit between needs-supplies and demands-abilities. She proposes that person-organization fit in terms of needs-supplies perspective can occur if an organization provides individuals with what they desire or need. On the other hand, she explains demands-abilities perspective by suggesting that fit exists when workers have skills that can satisfy organizational demands.

Many researchers, including Judge and Bretz (1992), operationalize the person-organization fit as value congruence between individual values and organizational values. Building on Judge and Bretz (1992), Yaniv and Farkas (2005) examined person-organization fit in four perspectives. The first is the match between individual knowledge, skills and abilities (i.e., KSAs) and job requirements. The second definition of person-organization fit is the congruence between individual needs and organizational structures. According to the third perspective, person-organization fit refers to the match between an individual's values and the organization's culture and values. Finally, the fourth definition is the fit between an individual's personality and the organization's image. Building on Posner (1992), Kristof (1996) also states that the congruence between a person and organizational values is the most commonly used operationalization of person-organization fit.

(1) Difference between perceived and actual person-organization fit

Edward, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1998) differentiate between objective and subjective person and environment fit. They refer objective person to existing attributes of a person and the subjective person to the person's perception of his or her attributes. Furthermore, they emphasize that the objective environment signifies the physical and social situations which are present independent of the person's perception. However, the subjective environment refers to the person's perception of the situations they come across. According to Edward et al. (1998), the above-described distinction produces four types of analogy between a person and environment constructs. Building on Caplan (1983), French et al. (1974), and Harrison (1978), they describe the four types of

correspondence between person-environment constructs as “(1) objective P-E fit, which refers to the fit between the objective person and the objective environment; (2) subjective P-E fit, or the fit between the subjective person and the subjective environment; (3) contact with reality, meaning the degree to which the subjective environment corresponds to the objective environment; and (4) accuracy of self-assessment representing the match between the objective person and the subjective person”. Even though it is easy and productive to measure an objective fit between a person and the environment, the current study focuses on measuring a subjective fit between a person and the organization. This is mainly because employees decide whether to leave or remain in their organization subjectively, depending on how they perceive to what extent they match with their organization well. The perceived person-organization fit is based on an individual’s perception; in other words, how they subjectively perceive whether there is fit between them and the organizations they work for.

(2) Impact of Person-organization fit on Employee outcomes

Building on Chatman (1989), Yaniv and Farkas (2005) also stated that employees’ satisfaction, commitment, and performance can be predicted based on the fit between their values and an organization’s values. According to Nur Iplik, Can Kilic, and Yalcin (2011), the person-organization fit boosts job commitment, job motivation and job satisfaction, as well as, decreases stress levels. Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013), and Kim, Aryee, Loi, and Kim (2013) also certify that organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance are likely to increase when there is a high person-organization fit. It is believed that person-organization fit predicts employee turnover (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006) and is negatively related to turnover intention (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006).

Yaniv and Farkas also suggested that the organizational characteristics are comprised of culture, climate, values, goals and norms while the personal side consists of values, goals, personality and attitude. When a similarity between the characteristics of both sides occurs, a supplementary fit exists. The person-organization fit theory reckons

that organizational characteristics have a high probability to be congruent with individuals' characteristics (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Ultimately, the fit between the individual and the organization will directly influence employee's behaviour and attitude (Pervin, 1989). For example, if salespeople, who work under the pay-for-performance system, perceive that their goals and values are congruent with goals and values of their company, then they may reduce their withdrawal behaviour because they are happy with what they do.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention will be used to measure the actual turnover. Turnover intention has received a great amount of attention as it is the strength of an individual's perception that he/she does not want to stay with his/her current employer (Acikgoz, Sumer, & Sumer, 2016; Brown, 1996; Mai, Ellis, Christian, & Porter, 2016; Tett & Meyer, 1993). It is usually measured as a dependent variable and indicates the probability that an employee will leave the organization in the foreseeable future.

(1) Causes and Consequences of Turnover Intention

Considerable research has developed various models to determine possible antecedents of voluntary turnover for many years. A general model of employee turnover, proposed by Mobley (1977), is worth mentioning because it primarily focuses on individuals' attitudes and intentions in the turnover process (Sager, Varadarajan, & Futrell, 1988). Mobley (1997) comes up with several intermediary steps between dissatisfaction and actual turnover. In his model, he suggests that employees experience job satisfaction/dissatisfaction once they evaluate their existing job. They begin thinking of quitting when they experience job dissatisfaction. Evaluation of expected utility of search and cost of quitting is the next step which also leads to intention to search for alternatives. Once employees evaluate alternatives, they compare their present job with possible alternatives. The intention to leave their job is the last step prior to actual

quitting. Tett and Meyer (1993) also applied path analysis based on meta-analytic findings, suggesting that both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were negatively related with turnover. Building on Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979), Griffeth et al. (2000) reconfirmed the predictive strength of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search, comparison of alternatives, withdrawal cognitions, and quit intentions as possible determinants of turnover.

According to Pearson (1995), turnover intention is likely to lead to actual turnover, which has significant direct and indirect costs for corporations. The costs are related to the recruiting, selecting, training and development of personnel to replace those who have abandoned the organization. According to Wong, Wong, and Wong, (2015), turnover intention is negatively related to employee performance. Moreover, Siddiqui, Syed, and Hassan (2012) emphasize that the employee turnover rate also has a negative impact on the attitude of the employees who remain with the organization. Employees who are overwhelmed can have a lower morale, and as a result, are likely to be less efficient and less productive. Therefore, it is important to determine antecedents provoking individuals to quit their job with an organization.

(2) Relations between Pay for Performance System and Turnover Intention

The turnover construct has also been widely investigated in sales organizations since the rate of turnover is quite high among salespeople (Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis, & Enis, 1987; Sager et al., 1988). According to Lucas et al. (1987), salesperson's turnover can be highly related to tenure and age. They further imply that managers in sales organizations should conduct procurement and consistent exit-interview to better comprehend the individual circumstances of sales people and the actual reason why sales agents leave. In the study conducted by Sager et al. (1988), satisfaction with promotion is assumed to be a major predictor of turnover. They also posit that there must be obvious alternative paths for career development in sales organizations for salespeople who cannot receive promotion so that individuals can evade frustration.

Building on Powell, Montgomery, and Cosgrove (1994), Shaw and Gupta (2007)

have demonstrated certain reasons to anticipate positive and negative relationships between the spread of compensation and resignations. First, employees can become hateful once they collect information and socially compare their pay within their job class and regard it inadequate. Second, implementation of performance-based commissions could evoke lower-performing employees to search for employment in other companies. Third, employees could accept pay dispersion as a part of internal career-ladder strategy, prompting them to remain in their workplace and reducing turnover. According to tournament theory, the higher the pay dispersion is, the higher total resignations will be. When pay is highly dispersed, poor and average performers are likely to have higher turnover while good performers should have low resignation under the performance-based compensation plan (Rosen, 1986).

Absenteeism

Employee absenteeism has drawn the attention of many researchers because of the inherent high costs it involves (Hacket, 1989). According to Gangai (2014), absenteeism, which is a very common problem, occurs owing to the lack of work commitment in any institution, small or big, private or government. Absenteeism is defined as an employee's absence to work, typically for an excessive and continued period of time that has not been justified (Cohen & Golan, 2007). Such absences are likely to disrupt the work processes, lead to decreased productivity, and increased work load among colleagues (Ybema, Smulders, & Bongers, 2010). According to Navarro and Bass (2006), costs related to absenteeism exhibit 15% of payroll in U.S. organizations.

Johns (1978), who has given enormous contribution to absenteeism research, studied four attitudinal and non-attitudinal predictors of absence which are: personal characteristics, job satisfaction, job content, and leadership style. As a result of his study, sex was the best single predictor of absence among other personal characteristics such as age, tenure, education level, and marital status. Women were found to be more frequently absent from their work than men did. The results also predicted a negative connection between leader consideration and absence. Moreover, he found a negative relationship

between job satisfaction and absence. John (1978) also assumed in his study that less stimulating and challenging jobs lead to more absence in the workplace. Even though a lot of research has focused on how absenteeism is related to job satisfaction (Ybema et al., 2010; Zatzick & Iverson, 2011), job attitude (Breugh, 1981; Newman, 1974; Zaccaro, Craig, & Quinn, 1991), workplace conflict (Liu, Li, Fan, & Nauta, 2015) and many other factors, there needs to be more studies to understand its causes. Ybema et al. (2010), also emphasize that repeated absences can also explain an employee's health and well-being. If an employee gets absent from his/her work continuously, it may mean that he/she needs to recover from increased stress at work. Moreover, if the absence is long-term, it may indicate that the worker has personal problems which may or may not be attributed to his/her work. Darr and Johns (2008) also assumed that work strain can be negatively related to absenteeism with a mediating role of psychological illness and physical illness.

(1) Forms of Absenteeism

Johns (2003) considers absenteeism a difficult construct since it requires diversity of methods. Different methods are needed to explore each of the causes of absenteeism such as job dissatisfaction, psychological disturbance, co-worker collusion, and a sick child. Johns (2003) classifies methodologies variation in absence research into research design, data sources, and how time is incorporated. According to him, design variation can involve surveys, true and quasi-experiments, cross-level designs, within-person design, etc. He also includes organizational records, self-reports, observed reports, and household surveys as an example of data source variation. Variation in terms of how time is incorporated can include history analysis, catastrophe analysis, interrupted time series, and panel analysis.

Absence data accumulated from self-reports are what most researchers refer to when they conduct any study in absence research (Johns, 2003; Johns, 1994; Johns & Miraglia, 2015). According to Johns (2003), researchers are expected to overcome several strains such as ethical limitations, corporate and union paranoia, and some documentation in

order to obtain data from company records. Even though, most research regarding employee absence relies primarily on actual data attained from company files, it is usually difficult to obtain it from company records because it takes more time, legal procedures, and most respondents prefer to keep their anonymity. Moreover, majority companies are not willing to share their absence data with others (Johns, 1994).

Johns (1994) noted that the main reason why majority researchers implement self-report is that respondents can maintain their anonymity or confidentiality. He further states that even if management is willing to cooperate with the researcher to provide access to company's absence records, respondents may reject it. Moreover, he added that another major reason to use self-report is that absence data is not available in some companies due to failing to keep adequate records for attendance management. Building on Arsenault and Dolan (1983), Johns (1994) mentions another possibility that in some companies, absence data can be available but not for all classes of employment. The absence data could be available for nurses, technicians, secretaries but not for executives, managers, and professionals. According to Johns and Miraglia (2015), it is believed that self-report cannot have as high reliability and validity as record-based measures because respondents tend to under-report their absence from their workplace. However, despite its low reliability, it is still implemented more by researchers as it is less expensive, easier and more time-efficient.

Liu et al. (2015) differentiate between two forms of absence which are: involuntary and voluntary. The former includes absence due to unavoidable reasons, such as sickness, transportation problems, and taking care of family members. Building on Hackett and Guion (1985), they also refer voluntary absence to total voluntary time lost (in terms of days), regardless of the number of absenteeism occurrence.

Most research has focused on two measurements of absence, which are frequency and time loss measures of absenteeism. Johns and Al Hajj (2015) referred time loss measures to the total number of days an employee is absent from work over some time period excluding vacation days, and jury duty. According to them, frequency measures include counting the incidence of absence over the same period of time, irrespective of

the duration of those incidences. Building on Chadwick-Jones, Brown, Nicholson, and Shepard (1971), Johns (1978) suggested that the frequency is a dominant measure of psychological absence because of the fact that long term sickness on the time loss measure has more potential bias. Johns and Hajj (2015) also state that shorter absence is less likely to demand medical proof, while longer absence is more likely to require such evidence.

Lateness Attitude

Lateness to work is a type of withdrawal behaviour that has not been researched as much as absenteeism and turnover (Bardsley & Rhodes, 1996). However, this variable should not be overlooked because of its inherent costs to organizations. These include reduced employee productivity, supervisors' lost time in terms of taking disciplinary measures and rearranging work schedules as well as the negative impact that lateness behaviour has on other workers who must fulfil the late employee's work (Blau, 1994). Building on DeLonzor (2005), Liu et al. (2015) cite that employee lateness has cost U.S. organizations more than three billion dollars a year.

Koslowsky (2000) considers lateness behaviours partially or entirely invisible. He posits that what makes lateness behaviour different from other withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover is that lateness can easily be hidden or may not even be noted in company's files. Unlike lateness, it can surely be visible to supervisors and other co-workers when they become absent or quit their jobs.

According to Foust, Elicker, and Levy (2006), culture, and personality play a significant role to determine people's lateness behaviour. They include that people's attitude towards being late differs greatly depending on what cultural norms they adopt. Building on Blau (1994), they further add that the personality construct necessitates the need for punctuality and for time urgency, influencing on actual behaviour. Koslowsky (2000) also supports that global personality traits, culture, time urgency, attitudes which include both satisfaction with the organization and organizational commitment, commuting experience, work-family conflict impact on employees' lateness behaviour

imperatively.

(1) Types of Lateness Behaviour

Blau (1994) identified three specific types of lateness behaviour: increasing chronic lateness, stable periodic lateness, and unavoidable lateness. Increasing chronic lateness, which is very costly to firms, can stem from low job satisfaction, work commitment, and job involvement. Greater leisure-income trade off, and the conflict between work and family are the factors that can exhibit stable periodic lateness. Blau (1994) also refers to such unavoidable lateness as transportation issues, personnel illnesses or accidents which cannot be avoided.

Although, most of researchers rely on using record-based data of employees' lateness behaviours from company records, self-report measurements are also commonly used in the literature (Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits, 2001). Koslowsky and Dishon-Berkovits (2001) also emphasize that these two measures are quite similar and they can replace each other in most studies. The results of their study predicted that self-reports of lateness were correlated with the information gathered from subjects' files.

Lateness attitude has been used to primarily indicate actual lateness behaviour. Based on the attitude-behaviour theory (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), an employee's attitude towards being late to work can lead to actual lateness behaviour. Lateness attitude is defined as how individuals feel about being late to their work and focuses on effective and cognitive reactions to lateness behaviour (Foust et al., 2006).

Job embeddedness

The concept "job embeddedness", developed by Mitchell et al. (2001), refers to a combination of factors that impacts an employee's decision to retain in or quit their workplace. Building on Mitchell and his colleagues, Allen (2006) mentions different types of links, including cognitive and effective appraisals that generate restraining forces through which employees become embedded to their organizations. Consequently, those

with a higher amount of restraining forces are more tied and less likely to voluntarily quit their workplace. Mitchell and his colleagues (2001) operationalized job embeddedness by dividing it into two sub-factors which are on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness. They refer on-the-job embeddedness to how tied individuals are in the organization they work. They also relate off-the-job embeddedness to how bound people are to the community they live.

This study focuses primarily on on-the-job embeddedness for a couple of reasons. First, the main interest of this study is to reveal how job embeddedness is related to other work-related variables such as work self-efficacy and person-organization fit (Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablinski, 2008). Second, building on Lee et al. (2004), Sekiguchi et al. (2008) posit that on-the-job embeddedness is more related to task performance than off-the-job embeddedness.

Wijayanto and Kimono (2004) examined the relationship between job embeddedness and organizational citizenship behaviour, finding a positive correlation between them. Moreover, Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee and Mitchell (2012) found that both on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness are negatively related to both turnover intention and actual turnover after controlling for job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job alternatives. Burton, Holtom, Sablinski, Mitchell, and Lee (2010) also discovered that on-the-job embeddedness reduces the effects of negative shocks on organizational citizenship and overall job performance. Based on the results of the study by Lee et al. (2004), on-the-job embeddedness significantly predicted organizational citizenship and job performance.

The scope of this study will be directed to how job embeddedness interacts with other work-related variables. According to Lee et al. (2004), the “anti-withdrawal” mechanism is what drives the above mentioned variables to positively influence an employee’s performance. Moreover, Karatepe (2013) has found that employees are less likely to demonstrate their intentions to quit their workplace and feel more embedded when they possess high-performance work practices and work social support. Thus, directing the main attention on to what factors can increase employees’ job

embeddedness should be imperative to researchers.

Pay for Individual Performance Environment

(1) Dimensions of Pay for Performance System

Building on Gerhart and Rynes (2003), Gerhart and Fang (2014) classify pay-for-performance-program into three dimensions. First, results-oriented emphasis (e.g., sales, and profit) or behaviour-oriented performance (e.g., supervisor or customer ratings of behaviours) measures. Second, performance measured at the individual employee or aggregate (e.g., group, unit, and organization) level and third, the degree of incentive intensity.

Their research also elaborates that results-based measures are mostly used for sales occupations, executives, and other positions. Incentive intensity is usually more efficient in executive type jobs and/or in jobs where performance is measured based on results. Merit pay, which focuses on subjective judgments of performance behaviours, is found in some form for most jobs. Gerhart and Fang also state that theories of compensation (e.g., reinforcement, expectancy) generally affirm that incentives which are central to any pay for performance system are key drivers of employee performance and employee attraction/retention.

As both merit-pay (behaviour-based) and variable-pay (results-based) forms of pay-for-performance programs have been widely studied, for my research paper, I will focus on the variable-pay plan. Variable-pay systems are pervasively used by human resource specialists because such pay systems are assumed to bring a competitive advantage to the organization (Lawler, 2000). Many different types of compensation systems, such as bonuses, gain-sharing, and profit-sharing can be considered as the variable pay. The key feature defining the variable pay is that rewards must be earned again over each period, as this pay system is contingent on performance (Kuhn & Yockey, 2003). The role of variable pay is to boost the performance of organizations by motivating employees to exert all their efforts toward achieving the organization's objectives (Cloutier et al.,

2013).

This is quite different from a fixed wage (base pay), which usually depends on the job's value on the labour market (Lawler, 2000). Workers under the variable-pay plan have to exert additional effort to get paid more; however, it is usually uncertain how much the additional compensation is since this pay system relies on the performance goals being reached (Cloutier et al., 2013).

(2) Impact of Pay for Performance System on Employee Outcomes

Building on Lawler (1971), Cloutier and her colleagues (2013) also state that pay-incentive systems do not often lead to the efficiency levels they are intended to produce. Other factors such as: group norms, mistrust of management, inappropriateness of economic incentives, lack of a clear connection between pay and performance, and incongruence with the wider management system should be examined closer. First, workers under such plans may be obligated to exert a greater effort in order to obtain an equivalent pay which fixed-pay workers receive, without having any certainty that they will receive it. The guarantee that fixed pay (base pay) offers for "presence at work" is (partially) removed when it is offered for compensation by variable pay. Second, variable pay may affect satisfaction very negatively when workers give extra efforts without achieving the expected level of performance, thus not receiving any additional compensation (Cloutier et al., 2013).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Research about the relationship between the variables of the study was built under the Conservation of Resources (COR) theoretical framework. The COR theory is always extensively used in the literature of organizational behaviour. One of the main principles of this theory is that individuals are encouraged to protect their current resources and obtain new ones (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). According to the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 307), resources are defined as “. . . those entities that either are centrally valued in their own right, or act as means to obtain centrally valued ends”.

(1) Work Self-efficacy and Person-organization Fit as Personal Resources

COR theory is predicated on the assumption that the resources, which employees possess in their work places, help them cope with job demands, threatening conditions and prevent negative outcomes (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Building on Hobfoll (1989), these authors refer these resources to objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value. According to Halbesleben et al. (2014), empirical studies have discovered that the loss of resources or lack of required resources at work usually leads individuals to burnout, depression, and/or physiological consequences. In this study, threatening conditions are defined as pay inequity, variable pay, failure to get the expected pay, and fear of being unable to keep up with high performers in order to receive high income. Consequently, sales agents are more willing to withdraw from their workplace once they lack the resources required to cope with such threatening conditions.

Glaser and Hecht (2013) also cite that it is possible that some individuals are more threatened than others. Building on COR model, they posit that the assessment of threats and reactions to threats depend on the extent to which individuals believe they can cope with the situation. They further state that having stable individual characteristics is an important factor that affects perceptions of coping ability. These individual resources can

make individuals resilient to the threatening situations in their workplace. Babakus, Yavas, and Karatepe (2008) also suggest that personal resources play an imperative role in coping with threatening job-related issues. According to them, the more resources individuals possess, the less they will intend to quit their jobs and ultimately, will remain in their organizations.

Halbesleben et al. (2014) posit that resources can be anything that individuals perceive as valuable to help them attain their goals. According to COR theory, there are four types of resources such as 1) objects, 2) personal characteristics, 3) conditions, and 4) energies (Hobfoll, 1989). In this study, both work self-efficacy and the perceived person-organization fit are considered personal resources which help sales agents meet their goals in their jobs. These goals include earning high commissions and ensuring high income over a long period given that under the pay-for-performance system, the income of sales agents often fluctuates as a function of their performance.

(2) Self-efficacy, Withdrawal Behaviours, and Job Embeddedness

Self-efficacy, one of the most commonly cited personal resources in literature, has been recognized by Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli (2007) as an essential component of personal resources. Self-efficacy can assist individuals cope with their job demands that necessitate constant physical and/or psychological effort. As self-efficacious employees execute all the actions required to obtain a desired type of performance, they are less likely to experience burnout, depression or dissatisfaction when they encounter higher job demands. They are also less likely to fail in achieving an expected pay or perceive pay inequity in their jobs.

Whenever an employee with high self-efficacy encounters threats related to the pay system, he/she will endure less stress, avoid being late or absent, and consequently, remain in their job. With work self-efficacy, sales agents will believe in themselves to achieve the expected pay and keep up with other high performers. This will help them avoid the formation of turnover intention and being late or absent from their jobs.

Prior research has investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and withdrawal behaviour in various fields. According to the findings of Park and Jung's (2015) study conducted in a wide range of industries, self-efficacy was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention through the mediators of career commitment and organizational commitment. Wang et al. (2015) also studied the effects of self-efficacy on teachers' quitting intention and found a negative correlation between them. Furthermore, McNatt and Judge (2008) did a field experiment with employees in role transition and found that recent insiders' turnover intention decreased with high self-efficacy intervention.

In accordance with the previous research, I assume the present study will find a similar link between work self-efficacy and withdrawal behaviours, as well as, job embeddedness.

Hypothesis 1 (a): work self-efficacy is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 1 (b): work self-efficacy is negatively related to lateness intention.

Hypothesis 1 (c): work self-efficacy is negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 1 (d): work self-efficacy is positively related to job embeddedness.

(3) Person-organization Fit, Withdrawal Behaviours and Job Embeddedness

Halbesleben et al. (2014) also mentioned that resources are finite and employees are supposed to allocate their resources. According to them, it is not necessary to have the most resources to succeed. What is more important is who best allocates those resources to increase the fit with their environment. Thus, individuals must recognize that different resources should be utilized depending on what job they do and which environment they are working in. For example, if the biggest part of their income comes from commissions, then they must comprehend what resources they need to thrive in this work environment.

According to the way Hobfoll (1989) defines resources, anything that holds a value and helps individuals meet a desired goal can be considered a resource (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Thus, the perceived person-organization fit is studied in this paper as another

personal resource that helps sales agents obtain their goals. The person-organization fit has been defined in many ways: as a degree of congruence between individual needs and organizational structures, a match between an individuals' values and organization's culture and values, and a fit between an individual's personality and organizational image, and a match between individual knowledge, skills, and abilities and job requirement (Yaniv & Farkas, 2005). Employees who perceive a fit with their current organization will easily adapt to any condition, avoid quitting and remain in their jobs.

In this study, if the sales agents' individual personality, values, and goals match well with their organization's pay-for-performance system, then they may adapt to any threat of pay inequity, variable pay and low performance. Moreover, the fit between sales agents and their organization may play an essential role to avoid their lateness, absence, turnover intentions and to retain them in their jobs.

The current study investigates the relationship between the person-organization fit with the withdrawal behaviour and job embeddedness under the pay-for-performance system. Sales agents are more likely to experience job strains in the form of a burnout, depression, and dissatisfaction. This occurs as a result of variable pay that they receive based on their performance and pay inequity that they face in their organizations when they compare their income with others (Kohn, 1993; Menguc & Tansu Barker, 2003). Each agent deals with such strains differently depending on the extent they perceive a fit with their jobs. Thus, those sales agents who have a strong fit with their organization in terms of pay system will better overcome the difficulties they face. On the other hand, others who do not fit with their organizations' pay system will tend to withdraw from their companies.

Hypothesis 2 (a): person-organization fit is negatively related to turnover intention.

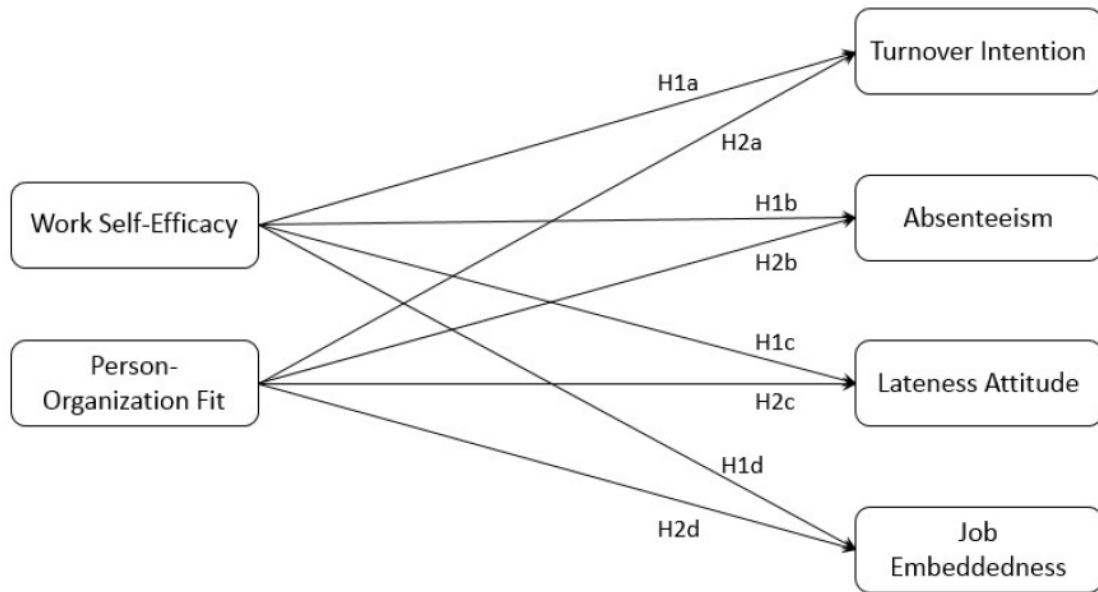
Hypothesis 2 (b): person-organization fit is negatively related to lateness intention.

Hypothesis 2 (c): person-organization fit is negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 2 (d): person-organization fit is positively related to job embeddedness.

Figure 1

Theoretical Model



METHODS

This is a quantitative study involving a cross-sectional research design. The participants, data collection, measures and procedures are described below.

(1) Research Setting

The current research study investigates job embeddedness and the withdrawal behaviours of sales people. More specifically, under the variable-pay system with a focus on commission based pay plans implemented by sales organizations. The reason why commission based plans have been the principal focus is because they are widely used by organizations all over the world, as about 24% of companies use a pure commission-based plan while the rest implements different forms of quotas (Joseph & Kalwani, 1998). Building on 2008 Incentive Practices Research Study by ZS Associates, Chung, Steenburgh, and Sudhir (2013) state that 73%, 85%, and 89% of firms in the pharma/biotech, medical devices, and high-tech industries, respectively, use quota-based compensation.

The reason why sales agents have been chosen as a central focus for this study is because the need for sales people is continuously growing in the workplace. On average, 20 million people have a sales job in the United States (Zoltners, Sinha, & Lorimer, 2008).

(2) Sample and Data Preparation

Participants were any and all salespeople who are fully or partially rewarded based on the pay-for-performance system. The sample pool consisted of 105 participants (N=42 females), comprising sales agents from the USA who were recruited by the Qualtrics panel group through a double opt-in process. The mean age of the sample was 37.33 years (Max=70, Min=18, SD=11.93). Moreover, the mean tenure in the current job was

6.9 years (Max=30, Min=0.4, SD=5.8).

Qualtrics is an online data-gathering platform licensed by John Molson School of Business that allows members to create surveys and stores data in a password-protected server. Qualtrics panel group assists the researchers by providing them with the data needed. Typically, respondents can choose to join a panel through a double opt-in process. Upon registration, they enter some basic data about themselves, including demographic information, hobbies, interests, etc. Whenever a survey is created for an individual who matches the qualifying criteria of the survey through the personal information they have provided, they are notified via email and invited to participate in the survey for a given incentive. They are told that they qualify for a survey, are given a link, and instructed to follow the link if they would like to participate for the given incentive. They are also told the duration of the survey. Incentives are most often given on a point system. Those points can be pooled and later redeemed in the form of gift cards, sky-miles, credit for online games, etc.

Prior to analysis, the data was checked for outliers using standardized z-scores. Any z-scores greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 were to be removed (Field, 2013). All of the z-scores fell within the permitted range except one outlier which was -3.40 and was therefore removed from the dataset.

Following this step, the variables were tested for multicollinearity by checking the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). No VIF was found to exceed 5, indicating that there is no threat of multicollinearity (VIF= 1.00).

(3) Procedures

In order to collect the data, email invitations were sent out with a link to the survey (Appendix 2) to participants who were qualified as sales agents, and paid fully or partially based on commission by the Qualtrics panel group. The responses were completely anonymous, and the data was recorded using a random-assigned identification code generated by Qualtrics.

The participants were informed on the cover page of the survey that their

responses would be treated completely confidential, and that they had a chance to refuse or quit the survey at any time without any negative consequence (Appendix 1). They were also provided with the contact information of the researcher and university's Ethics Committee in case they had any questions or complaints.

It is undeniable that, with online data collection, some people may submit invalid responses. Three screening questions (Do you reside in the USA or Canada? Do you work in the sales industry? Is part of your salary based on commission?) were placed at the beginning of the survey to filter out unqualified respondents. In order to get the best data quality possible, some quality checks were introduced so that respondents who enter responses of poor-quality would automatically be thrown out. Thus, force responses were implemented throughout the survey to prevent participants from skipping the questions. Moreover, two attention filters - survey duration checks and speed checks - were also introduced in order to reduce the number of "Straight-liners" and "Speeders". The median time of survey completion was 4 minutes, and speeding check was measured as one-third the median soft launch time. Thus, those individuals who submitted their response in less than four minutes and whose speed was less than one-third the median soft launch time, were automatically excluded from the survey.

(4) Measures

The four-page survey included both 34 items that measure each of the variables of interest and another 6 items to measure pay-for-performance system and demographic information such as age, sex, education level, work experience with the current employer, etc. Apart from three screener questions, a pay-for-performance scale was also used in order to make sure that sales agents were indeed paid partially based on commission.

Pay for performance

Pay-for-individual performance was assessed by using a 6-item scale taken from Fang & Gerhart (2012), such as: "Pay incentives are designed to provide a significant amount of an employee's total earnings in this organization" and "There is a large pay spread between low performers and high performers in a given job". Items were

measured on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree), where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that pay incentives provide bigger amount of their total earning, and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that pay incentives provide bigger amount of their total earning.

The reliability of the scale in this study was $\alpha = .74$, Mean = 3.85, and Standard Deviation = .30

Turnover intention

Turnover intention was assessed by using a 4-item scale taken from Hom, & Griffeth, (1991) such as: “I intend to search for another position so I can leave this job and I plan to leave this job in the near future”. Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that they plan to leave their jobs in the near future, and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that they plan to quit their jobs in the near future.

The reliability of the scale for Turnover in this study was $\alpha = .91$, Mean = 2.11, and Standard Deviation = .27

Job embeddedness

Job embeddedness was assessed by using a 6-item scale taken from Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield (2007) such as: “I feel attached to this organization and I am tightly connected to this organization”. Items were measured on a 5 point Likert scale (e.g., 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) where a 5 score means that respondents strongly agree that they feel attached to their organization, and a 1 score indicates that respondents strongly disagree that they feel connected to their organization.

The reliability of the scale for job embeddedness in this study was $\alpha = .89$, Mean = 3.55, and Standard Deviation = .30

Lateness attitude

Lateness attitude was assessed using 9 items with a five-point Likert response scale (e.g., 1= Strongly disagree to 5= Strongly agree) taken from Foust et al. (2006) such as: “It aggravates me when I am late to work” where a 5 score means that respondents

strongly agree that being late aggravates them, and a 1 score indicates that respondents strongly disagree that being late aggravates them. In this scale items from 7 to 9 were reverse coded such as: “Occasional tardiness for work should be acceptable” where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that occasional tardiness should be acceptable and a 1 score means that respondents disagree that occasional lateness should be acceptable.

The reliability of the scale in this study was $\alpha = .78$, Mean = 3.66, Standard Deviation = .49

Absenteeism

Absence frequency was measured with one item of “In the past 30 days, how many days have you been voluntarily absent from work?” taken from Liu et al. (2015). Absences due to vacation days or holidays, maternity leave, military service, participation in training courses, or long-term absences that encompassed more than three consecutive workdays were excluded. Employees rated their own absence.

Person-organization fit

The person-organization fit was assessed using a 4-item scale taken from Kasimati (2011). Such as: “My values and goals are very similar to the values and goals of my organization” where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that their values and goals are very similar to the values and goals of their organization and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that their values and goals are very similar to the values and goals of their organization. In this scale only one item was reverse coded: “I am not very comfortable within the culture of my organization” where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that they are not very comfortable within the culture of their organization and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that they are not comfortable within the culture of their organizations. Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

The reliability of the scale in this study was $\alpha = .75$, Mean = 4.07, and Standard Deviation = .20

Work self-efficacy

Work self-efficacy were assessed using 10 items taken from Personal Efficacy beliefs scale (Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, & Hooker, 1994) such as: “I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well” where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that they have all the skills to perform their jobs and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that they have all the skills to perform their jobs well. In this 10 item scale, items number 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 were reverse coded such as “There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well” where a 5 score indicates that respondents strongly agree that there are some tasks that they cannot do well, and a 1 score means that respondents strongly disagree that there are some tasks that they cannot do well. Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

The reliability of the scale in this study was $\alpha = .83$, Mean = 3.92, and Standard Deviation = .50.

Table 1

Measures' Descriptive

	Alpha	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work self-efficacy	0.83	3.92	0.50
Person-organization fit	0.75	4.07	2.0
Turnover intention	0.91	2.11	0.27
Lateness attitude	0.78	3.66	0.49
Job embeddedness	0.89	3.55	0.30
Pay for performance	0.74	3.85	0.30

Control variables

I have controlled for the effects of three individual-level variables: Job tenure, reason for working and availability of alternative job opportunity. Job tenure was measured with a question: “How long have you worked with your current employer?”

where responded indicated the year and month they have worked with their current employer. Reason for working was measured with a question: “What is the reason for working?” where a 1-score indicated financial reason, a 2-score indicated personal fulfillment, and 3-score asked to note if there is other reason. Alternative job opportunity was measured with a question: “Do you believe that there are some alternative job opportunities available for you in the market?” where yes was coded as 1 and no was coded as 0.

The organizational tenure is controlled because those who have stayed with the organization longer are more likely to remain than those who are new comers (Macaulay, 2003). Moreover, workers usually remain at work for different reasons, two of which are financial reasons and personal fulfillment. Lastly, it is also possible that employees remain at work simply because there is no other alternative job opportunity in the market for them, and they have to remain in order not to lose their jobs (Gerhart, 1990). Thus, the results of this study will not be affected if job tenure, alternative job opportunity, and reason of working are controlled.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Bivariate Pearson correlation was conducted to determine the relationships between all the variables of the study. Means, standard deviations, estimated reliabilities and correlations between all of the variables are presented in Table 2. As can be seen, all of the measures have acceptable internal reliabilities (above 0.70; Cronbach, 1951).

According to the results from Model 1 (Table 3), the beta coefficients revealed that only job tenure out of the three controlled variables (job tenure, reason for working and availability of alternative job opportunity) has significantly negative impact on turnover intention (beta= $-.20$, $p < .05$). Moreover, the results from Model 2 (Table 3) suggest that both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit significantly and negatively affect turnover intention (beta= $-.36$, $p < .01$ for work self-efficacy; beta= $-.32$, $p < .01$ for person-organization fit) when all the three control variables were taken into

consideration in the regression. Thus, Hypothesis 1(a) and 2(a) are supported.

The results from Model 1 (Table 4) also suggest that none of the control variables has impact on the lateness attitude. However, Model 2 (Table 4) indicates that both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit are significantly and positively associated with lateness attitude (beta= .29, $p<.01$ for work self-efficacy; beta= .25, $p<.01$ for person-organization fit), which is the opposite of Hypothesis 1(b) and 2(b). Thus, Hypothesis 1(b) and 2(b) are not supported.

According to the results from Model 1 (Table 5), none of the control variable is significantly related to absenteeism either. Model 2 (Table 5) shows that only work self-efficacy is significantly and negatively associated with absenteeism (beta= -.24, $p<.05$) while the relationship between person-organization fit and absenteeism was not found to be significant (beta= -.02, $p=.85$). Thus, Hypothesis 1(c) is supported and 2(c) is not supported.

According to the results from Model 1 (Table 6), of the three control variables, only “reason for working” positively and significantly influence job embeddedness (beta= .23, $p<.05$). Moreover, Model 2 (Table 6) suggests that work self-efficacy significantly and negatively affect job embeddedness (beta= -.49, $p<.01$), which is the opposite of what was hypothesized, while the person-organization fit positively and significantly influence job embeddedness (beta= .71, $p<.01$). Thus, hypothesis 1(d) is not supported and hypothesis 2(d) is supported.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Gender	1.4	0.49										
Age	37.37	11.99	-.05	-								
Work self-efficacy	39.14	7.04	.08	.31**	(.83)							
Person-organization fit	16.38	2.86	.24*	.19*	.53**	(.75)						
Turnover intention	8.42	4.20	-.08	-.02	-.54**	-.53**	(.91)					
Lateness attitude	33	6.14	.12	.14	.41**	.35**	-.12	(.78)				
Job embeddedness	21.43	5.47	.21*	.15	-.06	.48**	-.15	.24*	(.89)			
Absenteeism	1.20	4.24	-.04	-.21*	-.27**	-.18	.06	-.22*	-.22*			
Job tenure	6.97	5.85	-.05	.52**	.33**	.31**	-.22*	.18	.17	-.14		
Job alternatives	0.88	0.32	-.14	-.14	-.09	-.09	.04	-.02	-.23*	.02	-.22*	
Reason for working	1.27	0.51	.27**	.12	.1	.42**	-.21*	.01	.26**	-.07	.12	.11

Note. $N=104$. Reliabilities are shown in the diagonal. * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$.

Table 3

Results of Regression Analysis for Turnover

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Job tenure	-.20*	-.00
Reason for working	-.19	-.04
Alternative job possibility	-.03	-.02
Independent Variables		
Work self-efficacy		-.36**
Person-organization fit		-.32**
Overall R ²	.08	.38
Adjusted R ²	.05	.34
Overall F	3.00*	11.85**
Df	3	5
R ² change	.08	.29
F change	3.00	23.12

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 4

Results of Regression Analysis for lateness attitude

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Job tenure	.18	.03
Reason for working	-.02	-.13
Alternative job possibility	.01	.01
Independent Variables		
Work self-efficacy		.29**
Person-organization fit		.25*
Overall R ²	.03	.21
Adjusted R ²	.00	.17
Overall F	1.11	5.23**
Df	3	5
R ² change	.03	.18
F change	1.11	11.08

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 5

Results of Regression Analysis for absenteeism

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Job tenure	-.14	-.04
Reason for working	-.05	-.03
Alternative job possibility	-.02	-.02
Independent Variables		
Work self-efficacy		-.24*
Person-organization fit		-.02
Overall R ²	.02	.08
Adjusted R ²	-.01	.03
Overall F	.74	1.61
Df	3	5
R ² change	.02	.05
F change	.74	2.85

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 6

Results of Regression Analysis for job embeddedness

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Job tenure	.11	.07
Reason for working	.23*	-.02
Alternative job possibility	-.18	-.20**
Independent Variables		
Work self-efficacy		-.48**
Person-organization fit		.71**
Overall R ²	.12	.42
Adjusted R ²	.09	.39
Overall F	4.43**	14.45**
Df	3	5
R ² change	.12	.31
F change	4.43	26.14

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 7

Supported Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Supported	Not Supported
<i>H1(a)</i> : Work self-efficacy is negatively related to turnover intention under the pay for performance system.	✓	
<i>H1(b)</i> : Work self-efficacy is negatively related to lateness attitude under the pay for performance system.		✓
<i>H1(c)</i> : Work self-efficacy is negatively related to absenteeism under the pay for performance system.	✓	
<i>H1(d)</i> : Work self-efficacy is positively related to job embeddedness under the pay for performance system.		✓
<i>H2(a)</i> : Person-organization fit is negatively related to turnover intention under the pay for performance system.	✓	
<i>H2(b)</i> : Person-organization fit is negatively related to lateness attitude under the pay for performance system.		✓
<i>H2(c)</i> : Person-organization fit is negatively related to absenteeism under the pay for performance system.		✓
<i>H2(d)</i> : Person-organization fit is positively related to job embeddedness under the pay for performance system.	✓	

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit with job embeddedness and the withdrawal behaviour. More specifically, this study aimed to test how work self-efficacy and person-organization fit of sales agents influenced their job embeddedness and their withdrawal behaviours under the-pay-for performance system. Withdrawal behaviours included turnover intention, lateness attitude and absenteeism. Linear Regression was applied in SPSS to conduct the analysis.

In accordance with previous research in this area, the results of the present study suggest that both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit indeed significantly and negatively influenced turnover intention ($H1(a)$ & $H2(a)$). The results of this study also allow us to say that of the two independent variables, only work self-efficacy had significant and negative impact on absenteeism ($H1(c)$), while the relationship between person-organization fit and absenteeism was found insignificant ($H2(c)$). Moreover, only the person-organization fit significantly and positively influenced job embeddedness ($H2(d)$), while work self-efficacy had negative and significant impact on job embeddedness ($H1(d)$). Furthermore, both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit positively affected lateness attitude.

The results for *Hypothesis 1(a)* and *2(a)* account for the fact that those sales agents who have work self-efficacy and perceive a fit with their organization will have reduced turnover intention when paid based on their performance. Moreover, the result for $H1(c)$ is also in line with previous research, supporting that sales agents with work self-efficacy will avoid being absent from their jobs when they get paid based on performance.

Unlike the proposed hypothesis ($H1(b)$ & $H2(b)$), the current study revealed a positive and significant relation between the two independent variables and lateness. One possible explanation for this finding is that self-efficacious sales agents find it acceptable to get to work late as long as they manage to get their work finished on time. This is

driven by performance-based pay where their income mostly depends on commission.

According to Wotruba (1989), sales agents (mostly direct salespeople) are considered independent agents who can determine their own specific earnings goal to reach. In other words, they follow the compensation plan to set performance results that are required to acquire those earnings targets. This may be true for all sales forces, including both company employees and agents. These firms usually encourage their salespeople to come up with specific plans and goals to exert all the efforts needed to achieve their desired pay plans (Wotruba, 1989). Since such sales firms give their salespeople more independence and do not control their day-to-day efforts or commitments directly (Wotruba, 1989), it is acceptable both for the company and sales agents to be late for their work as long as their targets of desired performance are met. As was earlier mentioned, the sales agents are usually independent and as such, we can possibly argue that sales people under pay-for-performance plan will have high lateness attitude as long as there is a fit between them and their companies regarding the lateness policy.

Moreover, the results of *H2(d)* are in line with previous research that those sales agents who perceive a fit with their organization will remain with their organization when they get paid on performance. However, *Hypothesis 1(d)*, which assumed that work self-efficacy positively affect job embeddedness, was not supported. The result suggests that work self-efficacy had in fact negative impact on job embeddedness. This could be explained by the fact that sales people who get paid based on their performance are mostly independent agents and they can change organizations with an intention to find better conditions at any time. Self-confidence and belief in their capabilities determine their self-efficacy. According to Kim, Kim, and Lee, (2015), employees with high self-efficacy have a broader job perception and they are in charge of a wider range of tasks within an organization than low-efficacious employees do. As highly self-efficacious employees conduct a variety of tasks and roles, it is likely that they are aware of having alternatives in the job market.

As Gerhart (1990) states, individuals have to consistently develop and display

their human capital in job markets, which are increasingly competitive and hostile. Improving one's general skills, which can be expanded to other jobs or situations, can boost their mobility. Moreover, according to Anderson and Robertson (1995), employees increase their independence in any setting where they have higher customer loyalties than their firms. The relationship these sales agents have with their customers increases their leverage and potential mobility since these sales agents are able to leave the firm while taking the customer base with them (Anderson & Robertson, 1995).

The present study proposes that the work self-efficacy of salespeople and their fit with their organization, under a pay-for-performance system, will reduce their turnover intention but increase their lateness attitude. Meanwhile, only work self-efficacy will reduce their absenteeism and only the person-organization fit will increase their job embeddedness. As mentioned above, since sales agents who get paid based on their performance are considered independent agents, they need to be self-efficacious. They are to believe in their skills to make the required sales in order to earn a high income and perceive a fit with their organizations in terms of their values, career goals, personalities.

In accordance with the COR theory, which the current study is based on, sales agents need personal resources, which are self-efficacy and perceived person-organization fit so as to overcome the threatening condition of pay-for-performance system and reduce their turnover intention. These two independent factors will help them avoid any intention to leave their jobs and remain in their organizations. Once these agents stop believing in their skills to succeed in the company or they do not see anything to tie them with their company, they will be more stressed, dissatisfied and more willing to quit their jobs. Furthermore, as the income of sales agents largely comes from what they sell, they may believe that being late to work is acceptable as long as they have achieved their target with a high selling rate. Another note-worthy fact is that the belief of sales agents in having all the required skills to be successful in a pay-for-performance environment will increase their mobility. They can easily change either their position or job. Close ties with their organizations will make sales agents more willing to remain in their jobs.

Limitations

This study also has several limitations. One of the main limitations of the study is the nature of the sample and data collection. Since the study was conducted through online surveys, it was not possible to classify the exact organizations that the participants belonged to, what kind of commission plans they had and how attentive they were while answering the questions. Future researchers should employ such a sample selection procedure to determine the exact type of commission plans involved and use personal survey methods by visiting companies themselves. There are many factors that contribute to respondents' fatigue and it is quite hard to ensure having the most accurate data available. Visiting companies in person will help to avoid "Straight-liners" and "Speeders" and ensure that respondents read the posed questions diligently, following all the instructions.

Another limitation concerns the cross-sectional nature of the study that makes it difficult to provide causation between the independent variables and dependent variables. This makes it hard to understand how the relationship between the variables evolves as time passes. It is also possible that employees build their high self-efficacy and perceive person-organization fit while remaining at work over time. Therefore, job embeddedness may also increase employees' perception of person-organization fit and self-efficacy. Future research with more specific emphasis on the relationship between job embeddedness and increased perception of person-organization fit and self-efficacy is necessary to conduct a longitudinal study and see how the relations between the variables change over time.

A third limitation is the nature of the measures used to assess the variables of interest. All measures were found to be reliable; however, one should be alert to the over-inflation which may have been caused by respondents' self-reported answers. For example, the absenteeism scale offered one-item question to the participants to rate their own absence since it was not possible to access company logs on absences. Future research may use the absence and lateness data compiled by companies to better evaluate

the amount of time employees are late or absent from their jobs (Blau, 1994; Breugh, 1981; Ybema et al., 2010).

The fourth limitation is the common method variance since all the study variables are reported by the same individuals. Employees describe their internal states at the same time as they describe their past behaviour linked to those internal states (Lindell, & Whitney, 2001). This ultimately leads to method variance to inflate the relations between these two types of variables synthetically.

Data in most survey studies are likely to be subject to the common method variance when the same individual responds to the questions in a single questionnaire, at the same point in time (Kemery and Dunlap 1986). Future research may employ multiple methods of measurement, such as an analysis of multitrait-multimethod matrices (Millsap, 1990) by means of confirmatory factor analysis in order to solve the problem of common method variance. Applying various measurements at different time period can be a good way to avoid the common method variance. Moreover, interviewing not only employees but also their managers and employers, can be another way to evade the effects of common method variance issue.

Last but not least, the final limitation is the sample size. Power analysis was conducted to see whether or not the sample size is sufficient to conduct the data analysis. In order to reach the power of .95, 113 sample was needed, which was not far from the sample used in this study (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). However, future research should take this issue into consideration and use the sample above 113.

Practical Implications

This study is the first of its kind to examine the impact of work self-efficacy and the perceived person-organization fit on job embeddedness and withdrawal behaviours. The withdrawal behaviours include turnover intention, absenteeism and lateness under the pay-for-performance system. The results of this study, in addition to the previous findings on this topic, have shown that both work self-efficacy and the person-

organization fit are negatively correlated with turnover intention and the relationships is significant.

However, contrary to expectations, work self-efficacy was not found to have a significant predictive power over job embeddedness and the person-organization fit was not found to have a significant correlation with absenteeism. Moreover, there was a positive and significant correlation between lateness intentions with work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit. This can be explained by the fact that self-efficacious sales agents, who perceive a person-organization fit with their organizations, are more independent and find it acceptable to be late as long as they can justify their expectations with desired performance.

The benefits of both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit have been discussed at length in the previous sections of this paper. Moreover, we have also discussed the results of withdrawal behaviours that companies encounter on a daily basis. Using the findings from this study, many companies with a pay-for-performance system will benefit greatly by targeting the perceived person-organization fit of salespeople as well as their work self-efficacy to decrease withdrawal behaviours and increase job embeddedness.

Consequently, organizations will significantly reduce their intangible costs associated with declining employee morale and customer satisfaction. Additionally, they will also benefit from the reduced tangible costs of hiring and training new workers. Withdrawal behaviours usually result in extra costs to employers due to the significant time and money required to refill positions (e.g., in recruitment, selection, and training) (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). These findings suggest that firms should strive to select individuals with high self-efficacy and a strong sense of person-organization fit. Research further suggests that firms should engage in activities that enhance salespeople's self-efficacy and their perceived person-organization fit.

Future Directions

Employee withdrawal behaviours and job embeddedness have been greatly

studied in the literature. However, further studies can be conducted on sales organizations where employees get paid on their performance, more specifically those who get paid on commission. Future studies should focus on other variables that can decrease withdrawal behaviours and increase job embeddedness with some moderators and mediators. Stress or burnout can be a possible moderator between the variables of the current study because stress or burnout plays a fundamental role in employees' decision of withdrawal behaviour. Additionally, both work self-efficacy and person-organization fit are believed to be one of the best predictors of stress or burnout. Moreover, such studies should divide both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit into two groups -one which includes employees with high work self-efficacy and with a high person-organization fit and the other with employees who have low work self-efficacy and perceived person-organization fit. These two groups create 4 combinations such as high self-efficacy x high P-O fit; high self-efficacy x low P-O fit; low self-efficacy x low P-O fit; low self-efficacy x high P-O fit. Each of these combinations may have different effect on employee withdrawal behaviours and job embeddedness. For example, employees with high self-efficacy and high person-organization fit may decrease their withdrawal behaviour and increase their job embeddedness more than those employees with other combinations. By classifying high/low work self-efficacy and person-organization fit into a 2 x 2 matrix, researchers may gain a deeper insight into employee turnover and other withdrawal behaviours (Griffeth, Gaertner, & Sager, 2000).

CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study is to investigate the impact of work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit on employee job embeddedness and withdrawal behaviours. The withdrawal behaviours were identified and operationalized in terms of turnover intention, absenteeism and the lateness attitude. The study seeks to expand the Job Performance literature by examining the impact of work self-efficacy and person-organization fit under the pay-for-performance pay plan.

The results suggest, in accordance with previous research, that there is a significantly negative relationship between work self-efficacy, the person-organization fit and turnover intention. Moreover, work self-efficacy negatively and significantly affects on absenteeism, which met the expectation of *Hypothesis 1(c)*. The person-organization fit positively and significantly influences on job embeddedness, which confirmed *Hypothesis 2(d)* expectations. Results also indicate that both work self-efficacy and the person-organization fit have significant and positive impact on the lateness attitude, which is the opposite of what was hypothesized (*H1(b) & H2(b)*). Surprisingly, work self-efficacy is found to have negative and significant impact on job embeddedness and the person-organization fit is not found to be related to absenteeism.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Cover Letter

Dear Participant,

My name is Elvin Mustafayev and I am a graduate student of Concordia University's John Molson School of Business. I am inviting you to participate in my research study, which is a partial requirement for my degree. The purpose of this study is to investigate what competences can help sales agents who get paid partially on commission, to increase their performance. The attached questionnaire will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. In order to ensure that all information will remain anonymous, please do not include your name. If you choose to participate in this project, please answer all questions as honestly as possible. Participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to participate or discontinue at any time. Your individual responses will be held in the strictest anonymity and will not be revealed to your employers or any other party.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavours. The data collected will provide useful information and allow me to complete my thesis requirement. If you would like to learn more about the final results of the study, or require additional information, please contact me at the number or email listed below.

You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Yu-Ping Chen at yu-ping.chen@concordia.ca

Please note that completion of the questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in this study.

My study has been approved by Concordia's Office of Research and if you have any concerns, you can contact the research office (Certificate number: 30005287) at 514-848-2424, ext. 2910.

Sincerely,

Elvin Mustafayev

Cell phone number: 5148852125

Email: elvin.mustafayev91@gmail.com

Appendix 2: Survey

Study of Pay Plan and Employee Outcome

In this survey, we want to learn about your pay and work outcome. Please answer all questions openly and honestly. This survey will only take you around 15 minutes to finish!

YOUR WORK AND YOUR ORGANIZATION

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about pay system in your company:

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	GENERALLY DISAGREE	NEITHER	GENERALLY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. The firm has a strong commitment to distribute rewards based on contribution to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There is a large pay spread between low performers and high performers in a given job.	1	2	3	4	5
3. An employee's seniority does not enter into pay decision.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The job is a more important factor than an incumbent's ability or performance in the determination of pay rates in this organization. Heavy emphasis is placed on job evaluation procedures to determine pay levels.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Pay incentives are designed to provide a significant amount of an employee's total earnings in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Individual performance is emphasized as a basis for pay rather than group performance.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Think about your ability to do the tasks required by your job. When answering the following questions, answer in reference to your own personal work skills and ability to perform the job:

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	GENERALLY DISAGREE	NEITHER	GENERALLY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
I have confidence in my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5

There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well.	1	2	3	4	5
When my performance is poor, it is due to my lack of ability.	1	2	3	4	5
I doubt my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well.	1	2	3	4	5
Most people in my line of work can do this job better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
I am an expert at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
My future in this job is limited because of my lack of skills.	1	2	3	4	5
I am very proud of my job skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel threatened when others watch me work.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about your organization:

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	GENERALLY DISAGREE	NEITHER	GENERALLY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
• I feel attached to this organization	1	2	3	4	5
• It would be difficult for me to leave this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
• I am too caught up in this organization to leave.	1	2	3	4	5
• I feel tied to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
• I simply could not leave the organization that I work for.	1	2	3	4	5
• I am tightly connected to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
• I often think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5
• I intend to search for another position so I can leave this job.	1	2	3	4	5
• I plan to leave this job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
• I've decided to quit this job.	1	2	3	4	5

4 The following question concerns your “absence frequency” (the number of absence days from work) excluding absences due to vacation days or holidays, maternity leave, military

service, participation in training courses, or long-term absences that encompassed more than three consecutive workdays.

1. In the past 30 days, how many days have you been voluntarily absent from work?

5. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about your attitude to lateness to work:

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	GENERALLY DISAGREE	NEITHER	GENERALLY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. My co-workers let me down when they are late to work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I believe my co-workers should never be late to work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is unfair when my co-workers arrive late to work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is important to me that I be on time to work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It aggravates me when I am late to work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel guilty when I am late for work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tardiness to work should be acceptable as long as the work gets finished.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Occasional tardiness for work should be acceptable.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I find it acceptable to be ten minutes late to work.	1	2	3	4	5

6. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about the fit between you and your company:

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	GENERALLY DISAGREE	NEITHER	GENERALLY AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. My values and goals are very similar to the values and goals of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am not very comfortable within the culture of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
4. What this organization stands for is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What is your gender?
- Male
 - Female

2. How old are you? _____ year _____ month old
3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
High school
College
Bachelor
Graduate School
4. How long have you worked with your current employer? _____ Year _____ Month
5. What is your reason for working?
Financial
Personal fulfillment
Other (please specify) _____
6. Do you believe that there are some alternative job opportunities available for you in the market?
Yes
No
7. What is your email address: _____

Thank you for sharing your opinions with us. If there's anything we didn't cover that you think researchers should know about your work attitude and pay system of your company, please use the space in the box below to share your ideas/suggestions. Your responses are confidential and only researchers have access to your feedback.