



## PEER INFLUENCE AND GENDER AS PREDICTORS OF ABSENTEEISM AMONG PRIVATE EMPLOYEES

Okonkwo Kizito Ifunanya

Okafor Rachael Amaka

Okonkwo Jane Ogechukwu

Department of Psychology

Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka [ki.okonkwo@unizik.edu.ng](mailto:ki.okonkwo@unizik.edu.ng)

### ABSTRACT

*This study investigated peer influence and gender as predictors of absenteeism among private employees in Awka metropolis. The participants for this study comprise one hundred and eighty (180) employees, 70 males (26.36%) and 110 females (73.64%) selected using convenience sampling techniques. These participants were assessed using Absenteeism Rate Scale (ARS) (Nicholson and Payne, 1987), and the Peer Pressure Inventory (Brow et al., 1986). Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data collected. Result showed that peer influence positively predicts absenteeism among private employees with ( $\beta=.438, p<.05$ ) and Gender significantly predicts absenteeism with ( $\beta=.590, p<.05$ ). Therefore, based on these results, it was recommended that organizations should consider implementing reward programs that recognize and reward employees with good attendance. These incentives could include financial bonuses, additional time off, or public recognition in order to motivate employees to attend work regularly.*

**Keywords:** Peer Influence, Gender and Absenteeism

### Introduction

Absenteeism, a pervasive issue worldwide, has significant implications for individual and organizational productivity, national economic growth, and social development (Harrison, 2019). Absenteeism is defined as the deliberate or involuntary absence from work, excluding authorized leaves (Harrison & Kelly, 2015). According to recent studies, absenteeism affects approximately 40% of Nigerian organizations, resulting in significant economic losses (Ferdinand et al., 2022). Nigeria, with its large and diverse population, is no exception. Absenteeism affects various sectors, including education (Adeyemo, 2020), healthcare (Oyedele, 2019), and the workforce (Ogbonnaya et al., 2022). According to Nelson & Wraiths (2020) studies about 34.6% of Nigerian workers are absent from work at least once a week, 25.6% of students are absent from school at least once a month and 21.1% of healthcare workers are absent from duty at least once a month.

According to Stanley et al. (2021), absenteeism negatively impacts productivity, employee morale, and overall organizational efficiency and several challenges have been associated with absenteeism among private employees in Nigeria. Health issues, both physical and mental, remain one of the primary drivers of absenteeism. Akinwale (2020) highlighted that the prevalence of workplace stress, lack of access to quality healthcare, and poor work-life balance contribute to absenteeism in private firms. Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated health-related absenteeism due to the spread of the virus and its impact on employees' well-being. The Nigerian private sector is notorious for high levels of workplace stress and burnout, particularly in industries such as banking, telecommunications, and manufacturing. Long working hours, unrealistic job expectations, and a lack of adequate recovery time led to employee burnout, which results in absenteeism. Okonjo (2021) reported that burnout, caused by excessive workload and



inadequate recovery time, is a major factor in absenteeism. Employees who are mentally and physically exhausted often take time off to recuperate. Employees who are disengaged or dissatisfied with their jobs are more likely to exhibit higher rates of absenteeism. Adebayo & Oke (2022) asserted that employees in the private sector, particularly those in entry-level positions, often feel undervalued, leading to disengagement and frequent absenteeism. Low job satisfaction due to inadequate rewards, poor working conditions, and limited opportunities for advancement further fuels absenteeism.

Private sector employees in Nigeria often face inadequate compensation and a lack of comprehensive benefits packages. According to Ogunleye (2023), employees who feel undercompensated or who do not receive adequate benefits are less motivated to attend work regularly. This is particularly evident in low-paying jobs, where employees feel that their effort is not commensurate with their pay, prompting frequent absences as a form of protest or disengagement. Balancing work demands with personal responsibilities is a significant challenge for many employees in Nigeria, especially in private organizations that impose long working hours. Eze & Onuora (2023) found that a poor work-life balance is one of the leading causes of absenteeism in Nigerian private sector organizations. Many employees struggle to meet family obligations, leading to increased stress and absenteeism as they try to cope with competing demands. The rigid nature of work structures in Nigeria's private sector is a key contributor to absenteeism. Despite the global shift towards flexible working arrangements and remote work, many Nigerian private organizations have been slow to adopt these models. Ibrahim (2022) emphasized that the lack of flexibility in work hours, combined with long commuting times due to poor infrastructure, significantly contributes to absenteeism. Employees who face difficulties in attending work physically, especially those in congested cities, are more likely to miss work.

The lack of strict enforcement of labor laws, particularly regarding employee welfare, also contributes to absenteeism. In many private organizations, employees are denied their statutory rights to paid sick leave and annual leave. Olaoye (2022) argued that the weak implementation of labor regulations leads to employee dissatisfaction, increasing the likelihood of absenteeism. Without proper mechanisms to ensure that workers' rights are protected, employees often take unauthorized time off. Poor leadership and ineffective management contribute to absenteeism. Obi & Chukwuma (2023) found that a lack of supportive management practices, such as inadequate communication and ineffective conflict resolution, leads to employee disengagement and absenteeism. Managers who fail to create a supportive work environment or who employ authoritarian leadership styles may drive employees to seek solace in frequent absences. Absenteeism policies in many Nigerian private organizations are either non-existent or inconsistently enforced. Udo & Akintola (2023) pointed out that organizations without clear and fair absenteeism policies often face higher rates of absenteeism, as employees feel there are no repercussions for frequent absences. Inconsistent enforcement of absenteeism policies creates a culture of indifference, where absenteeism becomes normalized within the workforce. Given these alarming trends, this study examines peer influence and gender as key factors that predict absenteeism among private employees.

Given the significant impact of social norms on employee behavior, peer influence has emerged as a key variable in predicting absenteeism among private employees, with research demonstrating that employees who perceive their peers as being absent or tolerant of absenteeism are more likely to exhibit similar behaviors themselves (Tawo et al., 2022; Harrison & Kelly, 2015). Peer influence refers to the impact that individuals within a similar social group, often colleagues in a work environment, have on each other's attitudes, behaviors, and decisions (Kelly, 2015). Peer influence on absenteeism occurs when employees are swayed by their colleagues' attendance habits, either positively or negatively, leading them to adopt similar behaviors. For instance, if an employee observes that their peers frequently take time off without repercussions, they may be more inclined to follow suit. When absenteeism becomes normalized within a workgroup, it creates a challenge for



organizations. Peers may implicitly encourage each other to miss work, especially if the absence of penalties or clear consequences exists (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2019). This phenomenon leads to a cycle where employees feel justified in being absent, ultimately affecting overall productivity.

One significant challenge with peer influence is reduced personal accountability. Employees may feel less responsible for their actions if their peers are also engaging in similar absenteeism behaviors. This group mentality can make it harder for employers to address absenteeism because employees may feel protected by the collective behavior of their peers (Martinez & Ferreira, 2020). Peer influence can contribute to the deterioration of workplace culture. If absenteeism is widespread due to peer influence, it can create an environment where commitment to work is not prioritized. This undermines organizational goals and leads to reduced employee morale, as those who are consistently present may feel frustrated by their colleagues' frequent absences (Wright et al., 2022). In some cases, employees who wish to maintain a strong attendance record may feel pressured by their peers to engage in absenteeism. This negative social pressure can stem from a desire to fit in or not be seen as overly diligent in comparison to others. Social norms within the group may prioritize absenteeism as an acceptable or even desirable behavior, making it difficult for employees to resist (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2020). Another challenge associated with peer influence on absenteeism is the inconsistent enforcement of attendance policies. Employees who observe that their peers are regularly absent without facing consequences may question the fairness of the system. This perception of unequal treatment can diminish trust in the organization and encourage more widespread absenteeism (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2023). Managers may find it difficult to address absenteeism when it is driven by peer influence. In such cases, absenteeism is not an individual issue but a collective one, making it harder to identify the root causes or hold specific employees accountable. Managers may also face resistance when attempting to implement corrective measures, as employees could unite against efforts to curb absenteeism (Hodari & Sturman, 2021).

On the other hand, gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, and expectations associated with being male or female (Turner, 2018). Gender differences in absenteeism among private employees have been well-documented in literature, and it is a critical variable in predicting patterns of workplace absence. Various studies highlight that societal roles, health-related issues, work-life balance, and organizational policies contribute to this phenomenon (Stephan, 2020). One of the most prominent explanations for gender differences in absenteeism lies in traditional gender roles, particularly in relation to family responsibilities. Women, often expected to handle caregiving duties such as childcare or eldercare, report higher absenteeism rates. According to Aydin & Ozcan (2022), women in private organizations take more leave compared to their male counterparts, largely due to social expectations that tie them to caregiving roles. This gender disparity can be observed especially in countries where workplace flexibility for caregiving is limited. Additionally, Patel et al. (2021) highlighted that in dual-earner households, women are more likely to take responsibility for family emergencies, which leads to increased absenteeism. The imbalance in caregiving duties is exacerbated in cultures where family leave policies are insufficient or unevenly distributed between genders, further raising absenteeism among female employees. Women often face more work-life balance challenges than men, which can contribute to their higher absenteeism. Research by Hwang & Kwon (2023) showed that women struggle more with balancing professional responsibilities and household duties, resulting in increased stress levels and absenteeism. They also find that workplace cultures that do not support flexible working arrangements, such as part-time work or telecommuting, significantly impact women's ability to maintain regular attendance at work. Nie et al. (2022) expanded on this, noting that women often experience role overload when managing both household and work responsibilities. This overload not only leads to absenteeism but also contributes to burnout and long-term health issues, which further exacerbate absence rates. Their study reveals that private organizations lacking family-friendly policies like flexible hours or paid family leave see higher rates



of absenteeism among their female employees compared to men. Women experience unique health issues that can impact absenteeism.

According to Gupta & Shah (2023), gender-specific health problems such as menstrual disorders, pregnancy-related illnesses, and menopause are significant predictors of absenteeism among female employees. Gupta & Shah's study shows that women take more days off due to these health concerns compared to men, even in companies that provide comprehensive healthcare benefits. Similarly, Calleja et al. (2022) emphasized the importance of considering reproductive health when analyzing absenteeism patterns among women. Their research indicated that the lack of organizational support for health-related absences, such as maternity leave or flexible sick days, pushes women to take more unscheduled leave days, further widening the gender gap in absenteeism. Gendered workplace policies also affect absenteeism rates. Martin and Nguyen (2023) argued that gender bias in workplace absenteeism policies disproportionately impacts women. For example, they found that men are more likely to take presentism (showing up to work when unwell) to avoid stigma or punishment, while women are more likely to use sick leave or personal days when faced with health or family issues. Organizations with strict absenteeism policies may thus unintentionally penalize women more than men. Moreover, Lopez & Martinez (2021) indicated that in male-dominated industries, women may feel less secure in taking leave, especially for family or health-related reasons, due to the fear of being seen as less committed to their jobs. This pressure can lead to presentism or increased stress, which eventually contributes to greater absenteeism in the long term.

The interaction between peer influence and gender as predictors of absenteeism among private employees is an area that has garnered increasing attention from researchers and educators. Understanding how these factors intersect can provide valuable insights into the unique challenges and opportunities faced by employees in their pursuit of organization success. In this research, we will explore peer influence and gender as predictors of absenteeism. We will review existing literature on the topic, examine potential mechanisms through which these factors may predict absenteeism and discuss implications for organizational practices.

### Operational Definition of Key Study Variables

**Absenteeism:** Absenteeism refers to the phenomenon of employees failing to report to work or being absent from their duties for a significant amount of time, resulting in reduced productivity and organizational efficiency. It was measured using the Absenteeism Rate Scale (ARS) developed by Nicholson and Payne (1987).

**Peer influence:** Peer influence refers to the ways in which individuals' behaviors and attitudes can be influenced by their peers and the wider social environment. It was measured using the peer pressure inventory developed by Brow et al. (1986).

**Gender:** Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, and expectations associated with being male or female.

### Instruments

#### Absenteeism Rate Scale (ARS)

This scale was developed by Nicholson and Payne (1987) which measures the tendency or behavior of individuals to absent from work or other obligations without a valid reason or justification. The ARS item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale: - 1 (Never) to - 5 (Almost Always). Total score range: 12-60 with higher scores indicate higher levels of absenteeism and vice versa. Some items include: "How many days were you absent from work in the past year?", "How many instances of absenteeism (episodes) did you have in the past year?" "How often were you absent from work without a valid reason?". Test-retest reliability: 0.82. Correlated with other measures of absenteeism ( $r = 0.70$ ). Correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = -0.40$ ). Correlated with job stress ( $r = 0.50$ ). Criterion validity:



Predicted absenteeism rates over a 6-month period ( $R^2 = 0.30$ ) The Cronbach's alpha of the ARS is 0.85 indicating high internal consistency. In Nigeria, Olufemi et al., (2016) validated the absenteeism rating scale among private workers in Ibadan, focusing on occupational stress and its impact on employee productivity reporting a reliability test of .79.

### Peer Pressure Inventory

Developed by Brow et al. (1986). It is a well validated 11 item that measures perception to peer pressure in social activities, misconduct, conformity, involvement with school, work and family using a 5-point likert scale which includes strongly agree- 1, moderately agree- 2, mildly agree- 3, mildly disagree- 4, moderately disagree- 5 and strongly disagree -6. Higher scores on the scales imply higher conformity with pressure from peers and vice versa. Some items includes: "My friends think I should skip school/work sometimes, and I do", "I follow my friends' advice, even if I don't really want to", "My friends pressure me to try drugs, and I give in". The PPI has been shown to have good psychometric properties, including high internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity. The Cronbach alpha for the PPI is 0.94 indicating high internal consistency. For Nigeria use, Olowo & Adewale (2019) validated the Peer pressure inventory among young adults in Lagos, state assessing the relationship between peer influence and substance use. The authors reported a cronbach alpha of .91.

### Design and Statistics

This is a survey study. It adopted predictive design as the design of the study, and multiple regression analysis for data analysis. The statistical tool used for the analyzing of the data is the SPSS version 23.0.

### Results

This result of the statistical analysis of the data obtained in the study is presented in this section.

**Table 1: Correlations among the Variables peer influence, gender, and absenteeism.**

|                | 1      | 2      | 3 |
|----------------|--------|--------|---|
| Peer influence | 1      |        |   |
| Gender         | .684** | 1      |   |
| Absenteeism    | .644*  | .784** | 1 |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The result of correlation showed that correlation between peer influence and absenteeism was positive and significant at  $r = .644$ ,  $P < .05$ . The result of correlation between gender and absenteeism was positive and significant  $r = .784$ ,  $P < .01$ .

**Table 2: Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the predictive impact of peer influence and gender on absenteeism.**

| Model          | Unstandardized Coefficients |            | Standardized Coefficients |        | Sig. |
|----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
|                | B                           | Std. Error | Beta                      | T      |      |
| (Constant)     | 80.769                      | 8.241      |                           | 13.225 | .000 |
| Peer influence | .510                        | .094       | .438                      | 2.223  | .020 |
| Gender         | .342                        | .074       | .590                      | 4.630  | .000 |

**Dependent Variable:** Absenteeism.



The above coefficient table indicates that peer influence positively predicts absenteeism among private employees with ( $\beta=.438, p<.05$ ). The first hypothesis which states that “Peer influence will positively and significantly predict absenteeism among private employees in Awka metropolis” is hereby accepted. From the table above, findings showed that Gender significantly predicts absenteeism with ( $\beta=.590, p<.05$ ). This implies that females which were coded 2 are prone to absenteeism than male coded 1. Based on findings, the second hypothesis which states that “Gender will significantly predict absenteeism among private employees in Awka metropolis” is accepted.

### Summary of the Findings

Based on the findings above, the following summary is made:

1. Peer influence positively and significantly predicted absenteeism among private employees.
2. Gender significantly predicted absenteeism among private employees.

### Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has highlighted the significant role of peer influence and gender as predictors of absenteeism among private employees. The findings indicate that both factors contribute notably to absenteeism patterns, with female employees demonstrating higher absenteeism rates than their male counterparts. The impact of peer influence on absenteeism cannot be overstated; it is crucial for organizations to foster a culture that promotes positive peer dynamics and discourages negative behaviors that lead to absenteeism. As observed in this research, the relationship between employees significantly affects their attendance behavior, suggesting that interventions aimed at strengthening workplace relationships can be beneficial in reducing absenteeism rates. Moreover, the findings suggested that gender-specific policies and support systems are essential for addressing the unique circumstances that contribute to absenteeism among female employees. Ultimately, this research contributes to the growing body of literature on absenteeism by emphasizing the interplay between peer influence and gender. It also provides actionable insights for organizations seeking to improve attendance rates. Moving forward, it is imperative for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers to collaborate in developing targeted strategies that consider these predictors, thereby creating a more supportive and inclusive workplace for all employees.

### REFERENCES

- Adebayo, D.O. and Udephe, I.B. (2014). Motivational Factors and Work Commitment among Employees in Private Sector Organisations in Nigeria. *Aurel of Business and Management Studies*, 1(2), 45-53.
- Adegoke, SA. (2018). The Impact of Poor Remuneration on Employees Productivity in Nigeria. *African Journal of Business Management*. 7(35), 34-41.
- Adeniyi, M. et al. (2017). Employee absenteeism and organizational performance in Nigeria. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 33(6), 831-566.
- Adeniyi, M. et al. (2017). Infrastructure and absenteeism in Nigerian organizations. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 23(6). 851-566.
- Adeyeini, S. B., Adayemi, A. B, and Fajunu. S. (2014), Job satisfaction and turnover intention of among Nigerian employees. *Journal of Managemen Hesarch*, 14(2), 1-18.
- Adeyemo, D. (2020), Absenteeism among Nigerian students. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, 9(1), 1-12.
- Adeyemo, D. A and Adeyanju, O. A. (2013) Absenteeism among Nigerian workers: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 32(2), 147-158.
- Adeyemo, D. et al. (2020) Factors influencing employee absenteeism in Nigerian organizations. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 15(9), 1-12.



- Afolabi, A. et al. (2020). Health-related absenteeism among Nigerian workers. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 32(1), 53-62.
- Afolabi, A. et al. (2020). Peer influence and absenteeism among Nigerian workers. *Journal of Occupational Health* 32(1), 63-72.
- Aydin, O., and Ozcan, G. (2022). Gender differences in absenteeism: The role of family and health responsibilities. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(7), 1452-1465.
- Bakker, A. B., and Demerouti, E. (2022). Job demands-resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 27(3), 398-410.
- Bamberger, P. and Bacharach, S. (2019), Peer effects on employee absenteeism: The role of social networks. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40(2), 123-135.
- Bandura, A. (1977), Social Learning Theory, Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory. Prentice-Hall.
- Bartick, M. R., and Mount, G. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(1). 1-26.
- Bertson, E., Näswall, K., Sverke, M., and Lindfors, P. (2022), Gender Differences in Work Absence: The Role of Job Satisfaction and Stress. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 27(2), 158-169.
- Blok, K., Scheepers, M. J., and Janssen, R. (2022). The Financial Costs of Absenteeism: Implications for Private Organizations. *Employee Relations*, 44(4), 615-630.
- Brass, D. J. (1984). Being in the Right Place: A Structural Analysis of Individual Influence in an Organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29(4), 518-539.
- Brooks, D., and Smith, A. (2022). Mental Health and Workplace Absenteeism: A Growing Concern. *Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 20(3), 289-304.
- Brown, P. Turner, M., and Doyle, J. (2022). Absenteeism and Organizational Commitment: A Case Study of Private Sector Firms. *Human Resource Management Review*, 18(2), 112-126.
- Cheng, W., Liu, J. and Zhang, H. (2023). Workplace Stress and Absenteeism: A Meta-Analysis. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics*, 29(1), 90-101.
- Eagly, A. H., and Karau, S.J. (1991). Gender and the Emergence of Leaders: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(5), 685-710.
- Eisenberger, R., and Stinghamer, F. (2020). Perceived organizational support and absenteeism: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 10(1), 58-78.
- Eze, B., Ogbodo, P., and Oduah, O. (2016). Transportation Challenges in Urban Cities in Nigeria. *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*, 9(5), 89-97.
- Eze, S. et al. (2022). COVID-19 and employee absenteeism in Nigeria: An exploratory study. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 36(2), 147-158.
- Eze, S. et al. (2022). Motivation and absenteeism among Nigerian employees. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(15), 2751-2766.
- Eze, S. et al. (2022). Peer influence and absenteeism among Nigerian employees. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(15), 2767-2782.
- Fapohunda, T.M. (2016). Health and Absenteeism in Nigeria: Challenges and Solutions. *Global Journal of Health Science*, 5(4), 105-114.
- Fisher, C. D. (1988). Social influence and absenteeism. A path analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(5), 731-736.
- Govaerts, K., Van der Heyden, A., and De Witte. H. (2023). Hidden Costs of Absenteeism in the Private Sector. *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(3), 320-336.
- Greenberg, J., and Baron, R. A. (2008). Behavior in Organizations (9th cd.). Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Gupta, S., and Shah, R. (2023), Health-related absenteeism and its gender dimensions: Evidence from private sector organizations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 28(2), 201-212.
- Hansen, T., and McConnell, S. (2022). Job Satisfaction and Workplace Absenteeism: *The Impact of*



- Organizational Factors, Management Research Review*, 47(7), 987-1002.
- Harrison, D. A., and Kelly, E. L. (2015). Consequences of temporary worker absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 359-374.
- Harrison, D. A., and Kelly, E. L. (2015). Consequences of temporary worker absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*: 100(2), 359-374.
- Harrison, D.A., and Kelly, E. L. (2015). Consequences of temporary worker absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*: 100(2), 359-374.
- Harrison, D. A., and Martell, R. F. (2011). Absenteeism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 37(2), 348-376.
- Harrison, D. A., and Martell, R. F. (2019). Absenteeism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 37(2), 348-376,
- Harrison, D. A., and Martell, R. F. (2019). Absenteeism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 37(2), 348-376.
- Harrison, D. A., and Martocchio, J. J. (1998). Time for absenteeism: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(5), 751-763.
- Herzberg, F. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work* (2nd ed.). John Wiley and Sons.
- Hodari, D., and Sturman, M. C. (2021). Managerial challenges in addressing group absenteeism. *Journal of Applied Management*, 39(4), 276-290.
- Holtom, B.C., and Burch, T. C. (2020). The contagious nature of absenteeism: Insights from social learning theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, 63(4), 974-995.
- Hwang, S., and Kwon, Y. (2023). Work-life balance, stress, and absenteeism: Gendered impacts in the private sector. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 38(1), 85-102.
- Johns, G. (2018). The psychology of absenteeism. *i88(5)*, 932-941.
- Johns, G. (2021). Absenteeism at work: A review of the literature and future directions. *Human Resource Management Review*, 31(1), 100744.
- Ames, R., Ward, C., and Mills, L. (2021). Health-Related Absenteeism in the Workforce: Current Trends and Future Directions. *Journal of Health Economics*, 34(51), 512-529.
- Jodge, T. A, and Ilies, R. (2020). Relationship between personality and organizational behavior: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5), 797-807.
- Katz, R. L., and Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizational behavior*. Random House.
- Kaur, N., Gill, S., and Singhal, A. (2022). Interpersonal Conflict and Absenteeism in the Workplace: Exploring the
- Kidwell, R. E., and Bennett, N. (1994). Employee propensity to withhold effort: A conceptual model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(3), 211-227.
- Koopmans, L., Bernaards, C. M., Hildebrandt, V. H, and van Buuren, S. (2019). The relationship between absenteeism and turnover. A longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 24(3), 341-356.
- Martinez, L. F., and Ferreira, A. I. (2020). Social influence on absenteeism in the workplace: A behavioral perspective. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 237.
- Manocchio, J. J. (1994). The effects of absenteeism on employee productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*: 79(5), 703-711.
- Mowday, R. T. and Sutton, R. I. (2019). Organizational behavior: Linking individuals and groups to organizational context. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 507-339.
- NBS (2020). *Labour Force Statistics*. National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria.
- Ngayen, Q., and Nguyen, L. (2023). The role of policy enforcement in reducing absenteeism: A review of organizational practices. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 35(2), 456-470.
- Nicholson, N. (2016). Absenteeism and the nature of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*: 61(5),



594-601.

- Nicholson, N., and Payne, R. (1987), Absenteeism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 60(2), 151-166
- Nie, L, Guo, Y., and Lin, Y. (2022). Role overload and absenteeism: Examining the gendered effects of workplace demands. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 107(5), 1207-1218.
- Nwagbara, U. and Brown, K. (2019). Economic Instability and Employee Turnout in Nigeria. *Journal of Business and Economic Development*, 4(2). 112-121.
- Oghonnaya, C. et al. (2022). Employee absenteeism and organizational performance in Nigeria: A systematic review. *Journal of Management Research*, 14(2), 1-18.
- Ogbonnaya, C. et al. (2022). Social norms and absenteeism in Nigerian organizations. *Journal of Management Research*, 14(2). 1-18.
- Oginni, B.O. and Faseyiku, I.O. (2019). Impact of Working Conditions on Employees' Productivity in Nigeria. *International Journal of Research in Management*, 4(3). 54-63.
- Oluwafunmilayo, A. O., and Adeyemi, S. B. (2017). Employee turnover intentions: A study of Nigerian workers. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 23(6), 825-844.
- Oyedele, O. (2019). Peer influence and absenteeism among Nigerian healthcare workers. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 34(3). 259-270.
- Oyedele, O. et al. (2019). Employee motivation and absenteeism in Nigerian organizations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 30(15). 2751-2766.
- Patel, R., Kumar, P., and Verma, S. (2021). Work-family conflict and absenteeism among working women: A gender-based analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 128, 223-230.
- Powell, G. N., and Butterfield, D. A. (1979). The "Good Manager": Masculine or Androgynous? *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(2), 395-403.
- Robbins, S. P., Judge, T.A., and Vohra, N. (2012). *Organizational Behavior* (15th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Rothstein, M. (1993). The impact of absenteeism on organizational performance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 6(2), 147-156.
- Salancik, G. R., and Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23(2), 224-253.
- Tett, R. P., and Jackson, S. E. (2029). Personality and job performance: A meta-analysis *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(5), 703-710,
- Vancouver, J. B., and Schmitt, N. (1991). An exploratory examination of person-organization fit: A behavioral perspective. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(2), 331-352.
- Vancouver, J. B., and Schmitt, N. (1991). An exploratory examination of person-organization fit: A behavioral perspective. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(2), 331-352.
- Wright, T., Nyberg, A., and Ployhart, R. E. (2022). The effects of absenteeism on workplace culture: A multi-level analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 107(S): 812-828.
- Zimmerman, R. D., and Trucillo, D. M. (2018). The impact of personality on employee absenteeism. *Journal of Management*, 34(5), 926-944.