# A TOTAL SMOKING BAN: AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS 

 OF AVERACE MONTHEY SLCK-LEAVE ISE AMONG PUBLIC SERVICE EMPLOYEES BEFORE AND AFTER THE INTRODUCTION OF A NO-SMONANG POLICYCENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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# A Total Smoking Ban: An Exploratory Analysis of Average Monthly Sick-Leave Use among Public Service Employees Before and After the Introduction of a No-smoking Policy 

## BY

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#### Abstract

In a time-series design, sick-leave records of threehundred and nine General Service employees from four Newfoundland government head offices were analyzed over a four-year period to determine if any change in average monthly sick-leave use resulted from the introduction of a no-smoking policy. Using three dependent measures, the total-time index (TTI), frequency index (FI) and short-term index (STI), pre and post measures were assessed for possible changes through the use of ARIMA ( $p, d, q$ ) procedures and ANOVA procedures where applicable. No significant change in absenteejsm regardless of dependent measure, time of policy introduction, or department was found. Differences among dependent measures, the future of absenteeism research and the suitability of sick-leave use as an indicator of employee well-being are discussed.


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It has been suggested that companies and governments in North America spend billions of dollars each year in employee absenteeism; according to some, employee absenteeism in the U.S. has been estimated to cost $\$ 40$ billion a year (Markowich \& Silver, 1989). In Canada, absenteeism is perceived as a growing and costly probjem for Canadian governments and companies. According to a Statistics Canada labour force survey, the work days missed among full-time paid workers for illness or disability and personal or family responsibilities rose by almost a full day, from 8.6 days per worker in 1987 to 9.4 days in 1990 (Akyeampong, 1992). In particular, between 1987 and 1990, time lost due to illness or disability increased by a third of a day to 6.7 days, while time lost on account of personal or family responsibilities rose by an extra half day (Akyeampong, 1992).

During a period when budgetary restraints limit the earnings and development of industry, administrators have been looking toward such employee behaviour as short and long term sick-leave use, and worker's compensation as a method of reducing expendituren and increasing productivity. Generally, such concerns have been met with varıous sickleave policy options and occupational health and safety strategies to limit the financial liability associated with brief and prolonged episodes of employee absenteeism.

## Methods of Reducing Absenteeism

Absence-Control Policies. There are several ways in which employers attempt to reduce or control employee absenteeism. One approach seeks to modify the existing sick-leave policy in order to make it less appealing for employees to take sick-leave (sometimes referred to as positive absence-control programs). For instance, some policies contain components which offer a reward or positive motivation for good attendance such as letters of commendation, employee-payments of a percentage of unused sick leave time, ol some other predetermined amount of money (Markowich et al., 1989). Other absence-control policies are more punitive in nature whereby aversive consequences, such as dismissals or probationary periods, are imposed on employees with poor attendance records. Recently, it seems that many companies and governments are opting for absencecontrol policies that combine features of both disciplinary and positive-reward absence-control programs which are often. referred to as mixed-consequence systems (Markowich et al., 1989). The "paid leave policy" is an example of such a mixed-consequence system. The paid leave system operates by combining all. types of leave (i.e., sick, annual, and family responsibility leave) into one package called "paid leave." While a reward system exist where employees may "cash in" unused paid leave after a specified time period, employees are negatively affected if they are legitimately or
illegitimately sick because, by doing so, they reduce the number of possible days for vacation and family responsibility leave. Such policies have been favourably received by private and public organizations (Markowich et al., 1989; Fowler, 1993).

Researchers have observed components of sick-leave policies such as absence-control strategies to be significantly related to absenteeism rates. For instance, in a study of a public utilities company, Dalton \& Mesch (1991) found that a sick-leave policy exmpting employees who had accrued more than 90 days of sick leave from pay reductions while absent sexved as the strongest predictor of sick-leave use. Mathieu \& Kohler (1992), in their investigation of absenteeism among transit operators, attributed results to the specific structure of sick-leave policies within each transit depot. One of the most recent meta-analyses conducted Farrell \& Stamm (1988) found that organizational-wide factors (such as absence-control policies) are not only significantly related to absenteeism, but are stronger predictors than demographic and psychological factors. Other researchers suggest that the workplace culture (i.e., both formal and informal organizational rules) does much to influence how much sickleave usage is acceptable such that the days lost to sickleave are based upon the amount of paid sick-leave days allowed per year (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, \& Brown, 1982):
a concept sometimes referred to as "Parkinson's Law of sick Leave Abuse" (Kopelman, Schneller, \& Silver, 1981).

However, adopting absence-control policies depends on whether employers perceive the significant proportion of sick-leave use as being illegitimate or legitimate. The dichotomy of legitimate or illegitimate absenteeism has been widely discussed throughout the literature and will receive more attention in this investigation. Comparable terms have been used in the research such as avoidable and unavoidable absenteeism (Dalton et al., 1991), type A and type B absenteeism (Chadwick-Jones, Brown, \& Nicholson, 1973), voluntary and involuntary absenteeism (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982) and imaginary illnesses (Markowich et al, 1989). Of the entire spectrum of absence research, the avoidable/unavoidable absence dichotomy is perceived by many social psychologists as an interesting and worthwhile domain since employee attitudes and decision-making strategies are fundamental to the study of what constitutes avoidable absenteeism. Consequently, absenteeism research is one area in which social scientific theory and research is directly applicable to industrial problems.

The Wellness Program and No-smoking Policies. It iss
logical that the introduction of absence-control policies address concerns over avoidable (type B or imaginary) absenteeism. However, what remains in question is the
proportion of overall absences accounted for by avoidable absenteeism needed to justify the introduction of absencecontrol policies. There is very little research that has attempted to determine the proportion. Nonetheless, Dalton et al. (1991) estimated that $60 \%$ of all absenteeism was avoidable. The researchers also suggested that only $25 \%$ of the employees accounted for this type of absenteeism, a finding which has been previously demonstrated: Garrison \& Muchinsky (1977) found between $18 \%$ and $58 \%$ of the employees were responsible for $90 \%$ of the paid and unpaid absenteeism. However, since Dalton et al. (1991) derived the proportion of avoidable absenteeism by subtracting the employee's reported total absence from the number of sick days officially recorded by human resource clerks, the methodology and findings remain somewhat questionable.

Given the uncertainty in terms of what constitutes avoidable absenteeism, another feasible approach to absencecontrol focuses on reducing legitimate (unavoidable or type A) absenteeism by introducing policies and strategies aimed at maintaining and enhancing the physical well-being of employees in the workplace. Typically, worksite wellness programs have centered on smoking cessation, back injury prevention, cardiovascular fitness etc. (Tucker, Aldana, \& Friedman, 1991).

As with absence-control programs, wellness programs have also been viewed as worthwhile strategies for reducing
absenteeism due to illness and increasing productivity (Tucker et al., 1990; Hatziandreu, Koplan, Weinstein, Caspersen, \& Warner, 1988; Cox, Shephard, \& Corey, 1981). Despite the fact that it is self-report in nature, such research suggests that enhancing an employee's physical well-being in the workplace is a viable avenue in addressing the costs associated with excessive absenteeism and is one of the arguments used when no-smoking policies and associated cessation programs are introduced to governments and companies. If fact, one recent article published in "Benefits Canada" (a publication not known for its scientific rigor but nonetheless acknowledged by public and private industry) states that "Studies that monitor the exact cost of a smoking-cessation program on a company's bottom line leave little doubt that smokers impact healthcare, absenteeism and productivity" (Harvey, 1994, p. 51) ${ }^{1}$.

The Case for a No-smoking policy. Following the publication of the Royal College of Physicians on Smoking (1962) and the Report of Surgeon General's Advisory Committee on Smoking and Health (1964), research on smoking engulfed various scientific disciplines with assessments of relationships between smoking and physical well-being, mortality and other behavioural factors. Overall, the findings have suggested that higher incidences of morbidity
are reported among cigarette smokers than non-smokers: people who smoke tend to have a greater incidence of ischemic heart disease, lung cancer and other broncopulmonary diseases, peptic ulcers, and a larger proportion of chronic diseases (Athanasou, 1975). The most recent figures suggest that one in four North Americans smoke and in Canada alone, 38,000 deaths per year are attributed to smoking (Harvey, 1994).

Although the case has been strongly stated for the harmful effects of smoking on smokers, convincing evidence also exists for the harmful effects on nonsmokers. According to the Canadian Lung Association (1992), secondhand or side-stream smoke is significantly correlated with an increased incidence of lung cancer since bystanders are exposed to 50 times the amount of carcinogens inhaled by the user. Other studies suggest that exposure to cigarette smoke enhances the risk of sudden infant death syndrome (Bergman \& Wiesner, 1976), elevates the risk of acute illness in chilcren (Cameron \& Robertson, 1973), and adult nonsmokers exposed to suoke display increased anxiety, fatigue and aggression (Jones and Bogat, 1978). Dther research suggests that smokers and their dependents use the healthcare system an estimated six times more than nonsmokers (Harvey, 1994). In the work setting, such findings are critical since employees work in close quarters, daily for hours at a time. Ferguson (1973) suggested that "...the
'Efence smokers cause to non-smokers who must work along side them cannot be costed (p. 64)".

In terms of business and industry, the study of the effects of smoking has had a significant impact in the areas of employee sickness-absenteeism. For instance, in the National Health Survey of the U.S. Publin Service, smokers reported an excess of days lost from work, restricted activity days, and days confined to bed; chronic conditions were also reported by 11\% more of the smokers. Weaver (1973) reported that respiratory illness not only is the leading cause of disability absenteeism, but also the major factor in disability benefit payment. Naus, Engler, Hetychova, \& Vavreckova (1966) found that the prevalence of respiratory disease rises in a group of smokers as compared to a group of non-smokers. Coates, Bower, \& Reinstein (1965) found that employees with chronic cough, wheezing and shortness of breath reported significantly more episodes of respiratory infection and more absences from work because of chest illness during a three year period than those without these symptoms. Parkes (1983) suggested that time lost through sickness, both in total days off and number of absences is greater a ong smokers than nonsmokers. Finally, Weis (1.985) proposed that sick leave has traditionally been a benefit used excessively by smokers whose absenteeism rates are at least $50 \%$ greater than nonsmokers. Based on these findings and suggestions, it is logical to propose a
relationship between sickness absenteeism and smoking where respiratory disease may play a crucial role in an increased usage of sick-leave, and that no-smoking policies are therefore worthwhile strategies.

While there have been many encouraging findings in evaluations of no-smoking policies such as reductions in the reported number of cigarettes consumed per day (Borland, Owen, Hill, \& Schofield, 1991; Biener, Abrams, Follick, \& Dean, 1989; Harvey, 1994), improvements in perceived air quality (Becker, Conner, Waranch, Stillman, Pennington, Lees, \& Dski, 1989), and increases in reported cessation rates (Borland, Chapman, Owen, \& Hill, 1990; Sorsensen, Rigotti, Rosen, Pinney, \& Prible, 1991), there has not been much experiment-based research in terms of effects on absenteeism rates. However, as cited above, there is a wealth of literature proposing a link between smoking behaviour and absenteeism. Therefore, given the relationship between employee smoking and absence due to illness, the main objective of this study is to unobtrusively analyze the absenteeism rates of government workers both before and aftex the introduction of a nosmoking policy in order to determine whether smoking prohibition actually influences absenteeism rates. However, predicting the effects of the policy on absenteeiom rates is difficult since the health effects of smoking cessation or
reduction on employees may take years in which to occur. Therefore, this investigation maintains a purely exploratory approach.

Before aspects of the design and methods are presented, it is useful to discuss various dependent measures, findings, and methods utilized in previous absenteeism research.

## Theories of Absenteeism

The Withdrawal Theory of Absence. As mentioned above, the challenge of researchers is to differentiace between absences that are legitimate from those that are not. The distinction between the two concepts is by no means definite. For example, some make the distinction by whether the employee produces a medical certificate; those who do not are assumed to be "voluntary" absences (Chadwick-Jones, et al., 1982). The element of choice is inherent in such perceptions of absenteeism categories. However, Steers \& Rhodes (1978) suggest at least three incidences where absenteeism is unavoidable and therefore involuntary; illness and accidents, transportation problems, and family predicaments. Despite this, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) question this distinction since it is possible that some accidents may be "choser" $r$ some illnesses are relative to the individual or psychos " ic in nature. In both cases, absences which are perceived as involuntary may in fact be
voluntary. Although employees may legitimize their absence in the form of a medical certificate, doctor's notes are quite easy to obtain if the employee complains of ailments that are difficult to confirm medically (such as headaches or backaches); physicians more often than not accept the complaint as evidence for the illness (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982).

Since unavoidable and avojdable absenteeism is difficult to distinguish in terms of the medical certificate, most robust theories of absenteeism focus on the employees' need to "withdraw" from the workplace by either a conscious decision or subconscious need (in other words, psychosomatic illnesses).

Hill \& 'rist's (1953) theory of employee withdrawal, one of the earliest in the literature, attempts to explain how seemingly involuntary absences are voluntary. They propose that a portion of voluntary absenteeism occurs when employees encounter conflicts in satisfactions and obligations such that they withdraw from the work situation by means of accidents or unauthorized absences. Once employees become familiar with the organizational culture, the norms of the organization are internalized by employees who become aware of the types and amounts of absences tolerated. According to Hill \& Trist (1953), the employee realizes the amount of absences without permission which is tolerable by the employer and therefore, any absences beyond
the permissible amount occur in the form of minor accidents or ailments. While Hill \& Trist's (1953) theory has been influential, it has been criticized for not emphasizing the group nature of the absence phenomenon (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982). While they do discuss the importance of social norms and internalization, they explain a group-based phenomenon in terms of the individual utilizing uncertificated sickness absence as a means of coping with stress, or "individual internal problems" (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982, p.10).

Social Exchange Theory of Absenteeism. In a variation of the withdrawal perspective of absenteeism, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) propose a theory which emphasizes the social context. The interaction between employees and employers is seen as a social exchange based upon both formal and informal contracts. Such formal contracts are pay levels, rules and policies, hours, job duties etc., while informal contracts contain supervisory styles, peer-group relations, and, relevant for this discussion, absences from work. Absences are a negative exchange in that something is taken away and withheld. In this way, absences are underatood as something that occurs in response to negative working conditions, "absences may be traded against negative factors such as overly rigid working schedules" (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982, p.11).

Consistent with Hill \& Trist's (1953) theory, ChadwickJones et al. (1982) suggest that employees internalize the organizational rules surrounding the frequency and duration of permissible absenteeism and therefore reflect social exchange within an organization. However, among exchanges between individuals and work groups or work groups and management, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) found it inconceivable that there could be an exchange between the individual and the organization without the social conditions and rules. The research performed by ChadwickJones et al. (2982) is consistent with their claim that absences are part of an informal contract between the employee and the organization, given the particular working conditions. In a study of several organizations, they observed distinct absenteeism patterns within each in terms of seasonal fluctuations, total time used per employee and the frequency of absenteeism episodes.

## Types of Absence Measures

The Time-Lost Measure of Absence. As mentioned earlier, researchers suggest that voluntary absences occur even if the employee produces a medical certificate legitimizing the illness (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982). Support for this comes from research demonstrating a change in absenteeism rates corresponding to changes in sick-leave policies (e.g., Dalton, et al, 1991, See above). However,
it is very difficult to determine how much of the voluntary absenteeism disguised as certificated absenteeism exists. Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982; 1973) propose that certain types of absence measurements are better than others for capturing voluntary absences. Accordingly, they believe that voluntary absenteeism is probably missed if both short and long-term absence data are incorporated into one measure. Therefore, absence estimates based on time-lost measures contain more legitimate (or involuntary) cases of absenteeism simply because these estimates are heavily weighted with long-term absences.

The time-lost category of measurements, the most widely used indices of absenteeism (Farrell et al., 1988), are simply "the percentage of possible or bcheduled working time lost due to all types of absences" (Chadwick-Jones et al. 1982, p.55). Most research studying various predictors of absenteeism have correlated personal and psychological factors with time-lost measures (Farrell et al., 1988; Chadwick-Jones et al., 1973). However, since voluntary absences tend to be more short-term in nature, time-lost measures are seen as less sensitive to voluntary absences. Consequently, time-lost measures have been criticized as being biased toward long-term absences and therefore inadequate measures of absenteeism (Garrison et al., 1977). Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) suggest "one man away from work for one month with pneumoconiosis will contribute as much to
the time-lost statistic as ten men who choose to take 2-3 days a month" (p.56). However, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1973) do suggest that while time-lost measures may not be useful for voluntary absences, "they may help research in industrial medicine which is concerned with variation in type A (or unavoidable) sickness absence only" (p. 76). As well, time-lost measures are also useful for investigations into the estimation of financial liability incurred by organizations (Martocchio, 1992).


#### Abstract

The Frequency Index and Short Term Measures of Absence. Instead of the time-lost measures, an alternative used to capture the voluntary absence phenomenon is the frequency index. This index is simply the number of absences occurring in a given time period. While time-lost indices have been recognized as heavily weighted for longterm absences (and thus unavoidable absences), frequency indices have been perceived as a more accurate measure of avoidable absences (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1973). In their research of four clothing manufacturers, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1973) compared three indices (time-lost, frequency index and short-term measures) and concluded that frequency and short-term measures were more accurate in indexing absences which were voluntary in nature than time-lost measures.


Short-term (or attitudinal) indices are derivations of frequency indices which take into account the number of absences less than a given duration (usually two days or less). For example, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1973) designated those absence-episodes which were two days in duration or less as short-term or attitudinal illnesses. Such indices are even more sensitive to voluntary absence than frequency indices (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982).

Given the wide variation in dependent measures of absenteeism, Muchinsky (1977) suggested that absenteeism is "burdened" by the inconsistent use of various absenteeism measures because of the difficulty of comparing between studies. Firthermore, Muchinsky (1977) added that while a few studies have attempted to gauge the reliability of the absenteeism measures they employed, almost none of the articles he reviewed attempted to determine the validity of the measures; "...the methodological hodgepodge surrounding absenteeism indices plagues the evaluation and interpretation of absenteeism research" (p.322). However, Muchinsky (1977) also admitted that it will be extremely difficult to produce a single measure of absenteeism that will encompass the various types of absences.

## Correlates of Absenteeism

In terms of the predictor variables studied in absence research, three main categories have been cited. The
category gaining most attention in the literature has been psychological correlates such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, stress, and job involvement. Much of this attention probably stems from the withdrawal interpretation of absenteeism. The category which has also received attention includes personal factors such as the demographic variables, age and tenure. Finally, the category receiving little attention relative to psychological and personal factors consists of organizational-wide variables such as the effects of various type of sick-leave policies and absence control policies (Farrell et al., 1988).

Psychological factors and absenteeism. In terms of relationships between psychological factors and absenteeism, most have focused on worker attitudes or employee satisfaction and absenteeism. Nicholson, Brown, \& ChadwickJones (1976) suggest several reasons why employee absence and job satisfaction have been a popular pair in the research. First of all, they suggest that the concept makes intuitive sense - if people are dissatisfied with their jobs, they will withdraw from the work situation. The term "withdraw" suggests another reason for popularity of the job satisfaction-absence relationship in that it is consistent with the "withdrawal theory" of absenteeism proposed by Hill \& Trist (1953) (and the social exchange theory offered by

Chadwick-Jones et al., 2982). As well, the relationship is common because it provides justification for employers to actively look for ways to improve the quality of the employee work experience. Finally, there appears to be a number of reports demonstrating a relationship between worker attitudes and absenteeism.

While there have been many published articles about the satisfaction-absence relationship and several literature reviews integrating their results, as is typical of absenteeism research, inconsistencies are even inherent in the review articles. Muchinsky (1977), despite being very critical of the inconsistencies among absenteeism investigations, concluded that highly consistent results have been observed in reports relating job satisfaction to absenteeism; in most of the studies, researchers found a significant, negative relationship between the two parameters. He further concluded that this finding was "... highly logical in that withdrawal from work should be related to attitudes towards work" (p. 326).

However, Nicholson et al. (1976) were more critical of the job satisfaction-absenteeism research. In an assessment of many of the same articles cited by Muchinsky (1977), Nicholson et al. (1976) (also reported in Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982) separated them into three groups, "individual correlational" (absence and satisfaction scores are correlated across individuals), "contrasted groups" (groups
or classes of high and low scores are divided and analyzed) or "group correlational" (average absences and satisfaction scores are correlated) (p. 729). Nicholson et al. (1977) found that despite being more rigorous, "individual correlational" studies exhibited as many significant correlations as nonsignificant correlations. Further, "contrast group" studies, despite being unanimous in their findings (i.e., significant, negative relationships), were perceived as difficult to interpret since half presented only descriptive statistics and selective grouping of extreme scores may have yielded artificial differences not based on linear associations between the absences and job satisfaction. Finally, in the "group correlational" category, they suggested that they are improper studies on absenteeism because the authors neglected individual variance by grouping the data.

Consequently, wher Nicholson et al. (1976) carried out a study of 1222 male and female production workers in 16 organizations differing in technologies, they found that no significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and absenteeism in most of the organizations studied. They concluded that the common perception that job satisfaction is a consistent and significant predictor of absenteeism is "empirically unsupportable" (p. 735). Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) state that "it is not possible to establish more than a weak connection between job satisfactions and absences"
(p. 99). Later meta-analyses found similar results reflecting the weak relationship between absences and job satisfaction (Scott \& Taylor, 1985).

Personal Factors and Absenteeism. Personal factors such as the demographic variables, age and tenure, havi also been widely studied (Farrell et al., 1988). While st wier investigating possible gender differences exist (e.g., Pines, Skulkeo, Pollak, Peritz, \& Steif, 1985; Ferris, Bergin, \& Wayne, 1988), none of the existing literature reviews summarizes the findings (Farrell et al., 1988). In terms of research on employee age, the basic suggestion is that we should expect less absenteeism in older employees (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982). Theoretically, some postulate that older workers are more settled into work schedules and routines and may participate less in leisure group activities, have "fewer outside social activities" or "a smaller number of friends" (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982, p. 106). On the other hand, if some forms of absenteeism are seen as a form of reaction to rigid work schedules, younger employees may have a stronger reaction than older employees (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982).

There have been many articles published about employee age and tenure since they have been used to explain additional variance in job satisfaction/absence studies (Staw, 1984). Hacked \& Guion (1985) attributed the weaknear
of job satisfaction and absence relationship to the confounding affects of a consistent negative relationship between age and absenteeism. Muchinsky (1977) reviewed five age/absence and three tenure/absence reports only to conclude that results were highly inconsistent. However, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) reviewed 28 cross-sectional studies and found that age and length of service were strong and negative predictors for absence measures representing short, casual absences (i.e., frequency and short term measures) and that few significant correlations were found between age or length of service when the time-lost measure was used (i,e., the sickness or involuntary measure). Based on these results, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) concluded that young, short-service workers, especially males, have a higher susceptibility to casual absences, while relationships between longer-term absence (time-lost) and age and length are more variable.

Work Environmental and Organizational factors.
Most of the research focusing on work environment and organizational factors has concentrated on organization-size with the most consistent finding being a positive correlation with absence rate (Muchinsky, 1977; Porter \& Steers, 1973). Other less scrutinized variables also demonstrating significant relationships include pay-level, job-autonomy, the effects of incentive pay and disciplinary
systems aimed at controlling absenteeism and task repetitiveness (Farrell \& Stamm, 1982; Muchinsky, 1977; Porter \& Steers, 1973).

In terms of organizational-size, Porter et al. (1973) theorized that the larger an organization, "the lower group cohesiveness, higher taok speciolization and poorer employee communication" (p. 159). As a result, employees find it difficult to reach full expectation in the position and therefore decreased satisfaction and hence an increased desire to withdraw. Porter et al. (1973) further suggested that such a trend would not be as prevalent among whitecollar workers because they typically experience more job autonomy and intrinsic incentives. while this suggestion seems intuitively feasible, there is little research demonstrating a different trend among blue and white collar workers. Nonetheless, Muchinsky (1977) did cite one article (Metzner \& Mann, 1953) demonstrating a difference and the Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) research on absenteeism trends among different industries also showed different absenteeism rates among employees from different occupational groups. From their findings, Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) suggested that different occupational groups seem to develop their own "rules" in terms of the amount and frequency of absenteeism deemed acceptable in the organization and such "absence cultures" serve as important moderating variables between predictors and indices of absenteeism.

In a comprehensive meta-analysis of various correlates of absenteeism, Farrell \& Stamm (1988) categorized 72 studies with respect to the type of dependent measure (timelost or frequency) and predictor type (psychological, demographic, work environment or organization-wide factors). The researchers determined that both organization-wide (pay and absence-control policies) and work-environment (task autonomy) factors were better predictors of absenteeism than demographic and psychological factors. In fact, for both measures of absenteeism (frequency and time-lost), organizational-wide and work environment factors had consistent effects more than twice as often as did the same number of correlates in the denographic and psychological categories. As well, all of the consistent organizationalwide or work environment factors were statistically significant. Based on such research, it seems that work environment and organization-wide variailes are the most promising areas in absence research.

## Objectives of the Present Analysis

On April 1st, 1991, the Government of Newfoundland and Labrador adopted a "Smoke Free Workplace Policy" for government employees. This total smoking ban included offices, hallways, washrooms, cafeterias, etc. According to notices sent to each department, the policy was introduced to "...provide a safe and healthy work environment free from
the harmful effects of tobacco smoke." Government also offered smoking cessation programs for interested employees.

While April, 1991 was the general deadline for each department to implement the policy, several departments had already been smoke-free for as many as three years prior to this date.

In light of this event and previous studies on smoking and absenteeism, the present investigation seeks to explore the dynamics of employee absenteeism before and after the introduction of the no-smoking policy in Newfoundland's public Service. In a time-series design, employee sickleave records art analyzed to see whether there is a change. Since previous research demonstrates a sensitivity difference among various measures in terms of avoidable and unavoidable absence, total-time (also referred to above as the time-lost measure), frequency and short term indices are used.

This study is exploratory in nature and therefore does not make definite predictions with respect to absenteeism rates following the policy introduction. In particular, there is a problem in estimating the time during which involuntary absenteeism will be affected. It seems likely that there will be no immediate impact on involuntary absenteeism because health effects of smoking cessation or reduction may take several years in which to manifest. Consequently, it is probable that no change in the total-
time measure of absenteeism will result during the test period. However, we may predict a change in voluntary illness as indexed by both the frequency and short term measures since the work environment is more comfortable for those who are bothered by tobacco smoke. More specifically, those individuals who have made decisions to withdraw from the workplace due to excessive smoking may reduce their withdrawal behaviour when the environment becomes smoke free.

## METHOD

## Subjects

Three hundred and nine General Service (GS) workers from Newfoundland's Provincial Government were the subjects of this investigation. In order to limit the potential effects of occupational group (an important component of absence behaviour, Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982, 1973), only GS employees were included. This bargaining unit, which comprises more than $50 \%$ of all unionized workers in the Newfoundland Government, has a fairly equal distribution of male and female employees. It represents most officeoriented, non-management workers and abides by the same sick-leave policy which has not been altered since its introduction.

## Employee Location and Departments

The fact that public service workers are distributed throughout the province offered some threat to the interpretation of results. Therefore, only those employees from two buildings in which head offices are located were selected. This was done to minimize the potential effects of distinctive variables operating at different worksites. General Service employees working in head offices were differentiated from those working at other worksites by
spatial-layout drawings created by an architecturalconsulting firm frequently employed by government.

Of the 18 departments (See Table 1), 4 were selected for two reasons. First, there was a three-year difference in policy-introduction time. This strengthens the internal validity of the results by minimizing any threat due to history (Campbell \& Stanley, 1966). Second, these departments were selected because they did not experience significant changes or reorganizations in the past several years. The four departments selected, the dates of the nosmoking policy introduction and the number of employees included are presented in Table 2 . While there has been some staff turnover in recent years, these departments have remained reasonably constant in terms of employee-numbers, physical location and jurisdiction or purpose.

## The Design

As opposed to the correlationa-/self-report approach typically utilized in evaluations of no-smoking policies, the approach employed here is quasi-experimental. Utilizing employee sick-leave records from April, 1989 to March, 1993 for the Departments of Finance and Employment and Labour Relations, and April, 1986 to March 1990, for tha Departments of Education and Social Services, sick-leave use, both before and after the policy introduction, was compared in a time-series analysis.

## Table 1

Departments of the Newfoundland Public Service and those selected for this investigation

| Auditor General | Health |
| :--- | :--- |
| Industry, Trade and Technology | Legislatire |
| Education * | Justice |
| Employment and Labour Relations * | Mines and Energy |
| Environment and Lands | Municipal and |
| Executive Council | Provincial Affairs |
| Finance * | Public Service Comm. |
| Fisheries | Social Services * |
| Forest and Agriculture | Tourism and Culture |
| Work, Service and Transportation |  |

* Selected Departments


## Table 2

Selected departments, dates of policy introduction, and the
number of GS employees included from each

| Department | Policy Introduction Date | Number of Employees |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Education | March, 1988 | * 60 |
| Finance | April, 1991 | ** 98 |
| Social Services | January, 1988 | * 70 |
| Employment \& | April, 1991 | * 81 |

Labour Relations

Total 309

* Total number of GS employees in head office ** Randomly selected from the Dept of Finance

Such a design allows for the observation of seasonal fluctuations in absenteeism and signifies the influence of other significant events occurring during the same time period. It has the added strength of incorporating four groups or departments, experiencing the introduction of the same policy at different times, as control groups (such a design has been termed a "multiple group design with switching replications", Campbell \& Stanley, 1966). Thus, if changes in absenteeism rates occur in more than one department after policy introduction, strong evidence for the policy's effect would be apparent and the threat of history would be weakened (Campbell \& Stanley, 1966). Similarly, if no changes in absenteeism among the departments result, there would be strong evidence of the policies lack of effect on absenteeism.

Unfortunately, the archival nature of this design makes it impossible to compare sick-leave use between smoking and non-smoking populations. While this was the original intention, obtaining permission from the unions to survey employees about their smoking status was seen as politically sensitive and therefore discouraged by Treasury Eoard officials. The reason for this concerned the fact that unions were, at that time, bargaining for a new collective agreement including sick-leave benefits. Consequently, it was felt that canvassing unions for permission to survey employees could have jeopardized bargaining and research.

The Dependent Measures
To measure sick-leave usage, three indices were used. The total-time (also referred to as the time-lost measure), frequency and short term indices were employed based on the proposition that each measure is uniquely sensitive to both voluntary and involuntary absenteeism. As discussed above, the total-time index appears to be a more sensitive measure of involuntary or unavoidable absenteeism since it is more biased toward longer-term absences which are typically perceived as legitimate. Conversely, both frequency and short term (or attitudinal) indices are perceived as a more powerful measure of voluntary or avoidable absenteeism since they gauge the number of absence episodes (the short term index being the most sensitive) (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982; Farrell et al., 1988).

All three measures were based upon monthly averages and were calculated as follows:
A. the Total-Time Index (TTI) - the average number of sick-leave days per employee, per month,
B. the Frequency Index (FI) - the average number of sick-leave episodes per employee, pex month, and
C. the Short-Term Index (STI) - the average number of sick-leave episodes where the number of days is two or less, per employee, per month ${ }^{2}$.

The Departments of Social Services, Finance, and Employment and Labour Relations were represented by 48 TTI measures, 48 FI measures, and 48 STI measures, while the Department of Education was represented by $47 \mathrm{TTI}, \mathrm{FI}$ and STI measures.

## The Analysis

The statistical analysis of data was carried out by conducting auto-regressive integrative moving average analyses (ARIMA(p,d,q)) developed by Box \& Jenkins (1976). For each dependent measure, average monthly sick-leavt use was modeled for each government department separately and for all departments combined. In total, 15 autocorrelation functions and partial autocorrelation functions were produced representing the three measures of the four departments plus three additional measures of all departments combined.

Through the process of model identification, we determined whether the scores representing the time-series illustrations of each department were autocorrelated (and therefore required the "intervention" method of data analysis) or not autocorrelated thus permitting the traditional Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures (McCain \& McCleary, 1979).

## RESULTS


#### Abstract

Analyses of the Total-Time Index (TTI) In the analyses to follow, all observations are based on a specific measure of sick-leave usage called the Total Time Index (TTI) representing the average number of monthly sick-leave days taken per employee ${ }^{3}$.


Analysis of TTI Measures for the Department of Social Services. Illustrated in Figure 1 are the monthly TTI's for the Department of Social Services before and after the no-smoking policy was introduced during January, 1988. The average monthly number of days taken by each employee ranged from 0.3 days to 1.5 days (See Appendix A).

In Figure 2, both the ACF and PACF plots are displayed. The ACF appears stationary thus suggesting a zero value for the d component of the ARIMA model. As well, the ACF appears to die out exponentially while the PACF has one lone. spike at the first lag. This suggests an autoregressive process whereby the previous value in a series allows for the prediction the current value. Since this series was identified as an autoregressive process, a value of one was assigned to the $p$ component of the ARIMA model. Based on the ACF and PACF plots, the TTI series of the Department of Social Services was best represented by the ARIMA ( $1,0,0$ ) model.

Average number of days taken per person per month: Department of Social Services


Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | .373 | . 144 | * | *t***** |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | . 117 | . 144 | - | ** * |
| 3 | . 011 | . 144 | * | - |
| 4 | . 021 | . 144 | - | * |
| 5 | . 028 | .144 | * | - |
| 6 | $-.066$ | . 144 | * | - |
| 7 | -. 028 | . 144 | * | * |
| 8 | -. 062 | . 144 | * | * |
| 9 | -. 071 | . 144 | * | , - |
| 10 | . 068 | . 144 | . | * . |
| 11 | . 074 | .144 | . | * . |
| 12 | . 014 | . 144 | * | . |
| 13 | -. 170 | . 144 | - *** | * |
| 14 | -. 097 | . 144 | $* \quad * *$ | * |
| 15 | . 082 | .144 |  | ** |
| 16 | $-.138$ | . 144 | , *** | - |
| 17 | . 023 | . 144 | - ${ }^{*}$ | * . |
| 18 | -. 022 | . 144 | - | * - |
| 19 | . 116 | . 144 | - | ** * |
| 20 | -. 173 | . 144 | - \#\#* | * |
| 21 | -. 069 | .144 | - * | * |
| 22 | -. 042 | . 144 | * * | - |

Figure 2 - TTI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Social Services

Given this proposed model, an estimation of the magnitude of the dependency of adjacent points in the time series was carried out. In this case, the autoregressive correlation coefficient was estimated to be 0.406 ( $t=$ 2.86, $p=.006$ ). Since the autoregressive coefficient did not equal or exceed plus 1 and was significant at the . 001 level, the proposed model was retained.

In the diagnosis stage, the model was tested to determine whether it accounted for the behaviour of the series and left only uncorrelated error unaccounted for. This was achieved by checking the ACF of the residuals to see whether they behaved as a white noise process. As can be seen in Figure 3, there were no spikes beyond the $95 \%$ confidence limits at either lag and all Q-statistics were not significant. Therefore, based on the results of this diagnosis stage, the ARIMA $(1,0,0)$ model was considered acceptable.

## Intervention Analysis of TTI Measures for the

 Department of Social Service. Once an adequate model for the series was identified, we incorporated an intervention term representing the no-smoking policy introduction into the equation. Because we were interested in whether a prolonged change existed in sick-leave behaviour following the policy introduction, we introduced a simple step function by employing dummy variables.

Figure 3 - ACF for residuals of the Dept of Social Services

A value of zero was assigned to the series prior to the policy introduction and a value of one was introduced at the point of policy introduction (January, 1988), and for every point after.

In general, once an intervention component is introduced, the ARIMA analysis yields a coefficient indicating the direction of the change (if any) and how well the series is explained by the intervention. Gencrally, a negative sign suggests a decreasing trend and a positive sign suggests an increasing trend. In the case of the Social Service time-series data, the coefficient observed was $0.482(p=0.109)$. While the positive coefficient suggested a slight increase in the TTI, it was not significant. Based on this analysis, there was no significant change in sick-leave use for Social Services (as indexed by the TTI) following the introduction of the no-smoking policy.

## Analysis of TTI Measures for the Department of

 Education. Figure 4 illustrates the TTI time-series for the Department of Education before and after the no-smoking policy introduction during March, 1988. As with the Department of Social Services, the TTI for the Department of Education ranged roughly between 0.3 and 1.6 days per month (See Appendix B).


Average number of days taken per person


Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | . 058 | . 146 | . | * |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | . 051 | . 146 | - | * |
| 3 | . 182 | . 146 | . | **** |
| 4 | -. 2228 | . 146 | ,***** |  |
| 5 | -. 039 | . 146 | - * |  |
| 6 | -. 307 | . 146 | * |  |
| 7 | -. 012 | . 146 | - |  |
| 8 | .140 | . 146 | - | *** |
| 9 | . 041 | . 146 | - | * |
| 10 | . 083 | . 146 | - | ** |
| 11 | -. 268 | . 146 | *** |  |
| 12 | -. 030 | . 146 |  |  |
| 13 | -. 044 | . 146 | - * |  |
| 14 | -. 064 | . 146 | - |  |
| 15 | -. 200 | . 146 | - **** |  |
| 16 | -. 072 | . 146 | - |  |
| 17 | -. 091 | . 146 | ** |  |
| 18 | -. 084 | . 146 | ** |  |
| 19 | -. 098 | . 146 | ** |  |
| 20 | . 029 | . 146 | - | * |
| 21 | -. 011 | . 146 | - |  |
| 22 | -. 158 | . 146 | *** |  |

Figure 5 - TTI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Education

However, unlike Social Services, Education's ACF and PACF plots (shown in Figure 5) exhibited no significant correlations among any of its monthly TTI's as demonstrated by the absence of autocorrelation spikes beyond the $95 \%$ confidence limits and no significant Q-statistics at any lag. Based on the appearances of the ACF and PACF, the TTI series did not require differencing (hence a zero d value), and contained no evidence of an autoregressive or moving average component (and hence zero $p$ and $q$ values). As a result, the model was given an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ structure.

Since the TTI values were not significantly correlated at any lag, we compared the scores before the policy introduction with those after by means of ANOVA the assumption of independence was not violated). While some researchers suggest that repeated measures ANOVAs are more appropriate in such cases (at least 50 to 100 cases with uncorrelated errors, McCain \& McCleary, 1979), given that each score in the time-series was uncorrelated, we felt it unnecessary to account for non-significant correlations through repeated measures procedures. Therefore, for all analyses that require ANOVA in this section, all pre and post scores are treated independently.

A comparison of the pre-TTI values ( 24 scores with a mean of 0.7865 days) with the post-TTI values ( 23 scores with a mean of 0.7058 days) indicated no significant difference $(F(1,46)=.84, p=0.365)$.

Autocorrelations

Partial Autocorrelations


Figure 7 - TTI ACF and PACF Eor the Lept of Finance

Hence, no significant change in the average number of sickleave days resulted after the no-smoking policy introduction.

## Analysis of TTI Measures for the Department of

Finance. The time-series plot for the Department of Finance is shown in Figure 6. From April, 1989 to March, 1993, the TTI fluctuated between approximately 0.4 days and 1.5 days per month (see Appendix C). The figure also shows the introduction of the no-smoking policy during April, 1991 (the last deadline given to all remaining provincial departments not yet completely smoke free).

Again, looking at the ACF and PACF illustrations in Figure 7, while there is a slight spike exceeding the $95 \%$ confidence level at $\operatorname{lag} 8$, no significant $Q$-statistics exist among any lag. Therefore, similar to Education, the model identified for the Department of Finance was ARIMA $(0,0,0)$.

Given the independence among TTI points, the TTI values. prior to the introduction of the no-smoking policy (24 scores with a mean of 0.8548 days) were compared to the TTI scores following the no-smoking policy (24 scores with a mean of 0.8885 days) using ANOVA. Based on the analysis of Department of Finance TTI measures, no significant difference was found $(F(1,47)=.28, p=0.602)$.



| 1 | . 341 | . 144 | - | ******* |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | . 096 | . 144 | - | ** |
| 3 | -. 027 | . 144 | - $\quad$ | - |
| 4 | . 058 | . 144 | - | * . |
| 5 | -. 068 | . 144 | - * | * . |
| 6 | . 100 | . 144 | - | ** |
| 7 | . 295 | . 144 | - | ****** |
| 8 | . 084 | . 144 | - | ** |
| 9 | -. 098 | . 144 | * | . |
| 10 | -. 069 | . 144 | * | *** |
| 11 | . 129 | . 144 | - | *** |
| 12 | -. 144 | . 144 | - *** | . |
| 13 | -. 083 | . 144 | - ** | . |
| 14 | . 033 | . 144 |  | * |
| 15 | -. 177 | . 144 | , **** | . |
| 16 | -. 129 | . 114 | - *** | - |
| 17 | . 101 | .144 |  | ** |
| 18 | -. 092 | .144 | - ** | . |
| 19 | -. 171 | . 144 | - *** | - |
| 20 | -. 012 | . 144 |  | - |
| 21 | -. 099 | .144 | * ** | , . |
| 22 | . 040 | . 144 | - | * . |

Figure 9 - TTI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Employment $s$ Labour Relations

Analysis of TTI Measures for the Department of
Employment and Labour Relations. The time-series
illustration for the Department of Employment and Labour Relations is shown in Figure 8. The highest TTI value of the series occurs August, 1990 (1.78 days) and December, 1991 (1.78 days) and the lowest occurs July, 1989 (roughly 0.6 days) (see Appendix D). It also appears that larger, more variable peaks occur in 1990 and 1991 while relatively small ones occur in 1989 and 1992.

ACF and PACF plots for Employment and Labour Relations are displayed in Figure 9. Despite the ACF spike at lag 7, the exponential decay of spikes in the ACF and the one lone spike in the PACF suggested the existence of a stationary, autoregressive process. The values of 1,0 and 0 were therefore assigned to $p, d$, and $q$ respectively (an ARIMA ( $2,0,0$ ) model).

Given this tentative ARIMA model, the mode) parameters were estimated. In this case, an autoregressive correlation. coefficient was estimated at 0.339 ( $t=2.46, p=.017$ ). fince the absolute value of the coefficient was less than 1 and statistically significant, the model was retained.

Finally, as indicated by the ACF plot of the residuals resulting from the estimation phase (See Figure 10), the ARIMA ( $1,0,0$, ) model was deemed suitable because no ACF spikes occurred beyond the 95\% confidence intervals and significant Q-statistics were absent.


Figure 10 - ACF for the residuals of the Dept of Employment and Labour Relationa

## Intervention Analysis of TTI Measures for the

Department of Employment and Labour Relations. Similar to previous procedures, an intervention was incorporated into the model to determine whether it significantly contributed to the explanation of TTI dynamics. As with the Department of Social Services, a simple step function was introduced. By assigning dumny variables representing the pre and post intervention to the model ( 0 and 1 respectively), a correlation coefficient rating the magnitude of the intervention was observed at $0.16(t=0.471, p=.639)$. Since this coefficient was not significant, there was no change in the average number of monthly sick-leave days following the introduction of the no-smoking policy.

Analysis of TTI Measures for all Departments Combined. In order to assess the combined dynamics of the total average monthly usage of sick-leave, the pre and post-TTI measures were combined for all four departments. Regardless : of the year or month during which no-smoking policies were introduced, data were entered such that the pre-policy months for each department corresponded with one another (e.g., t-24, t-23, ... t-1): the policy introduction stood at time zero. Post-policy months were entered in a similar fashion (e.g., $t+1, t+2, \ldots, t+23$ ). Given this data-entry format, the average number of sick-leave days per person, per month for all departments combined could be determined.


Partial Autocorzelations

| 1 | . 452 | . 144 | - 1 | ***** | , *** |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | -. 004 | . 144 | - * | * | . |
| 3 | . 222 | . 144 | - | **** | . |
| 4 | . 139 | . 144 | - | *** | . |
| 5 | -. 015 | . 144 | - | * | * |
| 6 | -. 092 | . 144 | - ** |  | . |
| 7 | .190 | . 144 | - +1 | $\star \star \star *$ | . |
| 8 | -. 170 | . 144 | - *** |  | . |
| 9 | -. 150 | . 144 | - $\quad$ * ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | * |
| 10 | . 046 | . 144 | . | * | . |
| 11 | . 008 | . 144 | . |  | . |
| 12 | . 102 | . 244 | , | * * | . |
| 13 | . 021 | .144 |  |  | - |
| 14 | -. 244 | . 144 | * ***** |  | - |
| 15 | -. 079 | . 144 | , ** |  | . |
| 16 | .017 | . 144 | - |  | , |
| 17 | .142 | . 145 | . | *** | - |
| 18 | -. 099 | . 144 | ** |  | . |
| 19 | . 011 | . 144 | . * |  | * |
| 20 | -. 108 | . 144 | - $\quad \star \star$ |  | . |
| 21 | -. 113 | .144 | - ** |  | . |
| 22 | . 048 | .144 | , 1 | * | , |

Figure 12 - TTI ACF and PACF for all departments combined

Figure 11 displays the time-series plot for all departments with the policy introduction at time zero. As the figure indicates, TTI values ranged between 0.58 days at T-23 and 1.14 at T-15 (see Appendix E). Through visual inspection, it also appears as though the TTI values are more variable before the policy was introduced.

Continuing with the model identification process, both the ACF and PACF plots are presented in Figure 12. The ACF shows spikes at lags 1 and 4 and then appears to die out exponentially. Given the lone spike at lag 1 of the PACF plot, an ARIMA ( $1,0,0$ ) model was tested. As with the Departments of Social Services and Employment and Labour Relations, the model was identified as an autoregressive process without the need for differencing. Consequently, a value of 1 was assigned to the $p$ component and 0 for the $d$ and q components.

In the parameter estimation phase, the autoregressive correlation coefficient was found to be 0.484 ( $t=3.77, p=$. .0004). Since the coefficient had a value less than 1 and was statistically significant, further support was given to the adequacy of the ARIMA $(1,0,0)$ model.

In the final stage of assessing model suitability, the residuals of the model estimation process were plotted to determine if all that remained was uncorrelated error. As Figure 13 shows, the residuals did behave as white noise as the Q-statistics at every lag were not significant and


Figure 13 - ACF for residuals of all department combined

ACF spikes extended beyond the $95 \%$ confidence limit. As a result, the ARIMA $(1,0,0)$ model was considered an appropriate model for the series.

Intervention Analysis of TTI Measures for all Departments Combined. Similar to the Social Service and Employment and Labour Relations' intervention analyses, we introduced a step function whereby all periods prior to the policy introduction were assigned dummy variable values of 0 while those after were assigned dummy variable values of 1 . By incorporating this intervention component into the model, the analysis of the step function yielded a non-significant step coefficient of $0.044(t=0.283, p=.779)$. Based on this finding, it seems evident for all departments combined that no significant change in the TTI occurred following the introduction of the no-smoking policy.

Analyses of the Frequency Index (EI)
This section focuses on similar analyses for a mea:nre denoting the average number of sick-leave episodes per month, per employee (the Frequency Index (FI)).

Analysis of FI Measures for the Department of Social Services. The FI time-series plot for the Department of Social Services is presented in Figure 14. FI values range between 0.71 episodes during January, 1988 (the policy

Figure 14
Arerage number of sick-leave episodes
per person/month: Dpt of Social Services
Autocorrelations

Partial Autocorrelations


Figure 25 - FI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Social Services
introduction date) and an unusually low value of 0.10 episodes during September, 1986 (See Appendix A). It was later determined that this low FI value was the result of a two-week general strike that occurred at that time. It is interesting to note that the strike influenced the FI measure but not the TTI measure. Perhaps the TTI measure accounted for people who went on extended sick-leave just prior to the strike and remained on it during the strike. The result therefore would be a less notable dip in sickleave use. For the FI however, people on strike cannot use sick-leave even once, let alone on a more frequent basis. Hence, we see a more extreme dip in the FI measure.

Based on the ACF and PACF illustrations in Figure 15, it is evident that no significant relationship exists among the FI points since none of the ACF spikes exceed the $95 \%$ confidence limits and significant $Q$-statistics are absent at every lag. Given the absence of significant dependence among FI scores, the model was identified as an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model.

As a result, FI values prior to policy introduction (a mean of 0.4509 episodes) were compared to the remaining FI values (a mean of 0.4923 episodes) by means of ANOVA. The results showed that no significant difference was observed between pre- and post-policy FI scores $(F(1,47)=1.23, p=$ 0.272). Henze, no significant change in the average monthly sick-leave episodes was found following policy introduction.



Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | . 056 | . 146 | - |  | - |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | .147 | . 146 | - | 4.4 | - |  |
| 3 | . 166 | . 146 | - $0+4$ | *** | - |  |
| 4 | -. 272 | .146 | , ***** |  | - |  |
| 5 | -. 050 | . 146 | - ** |  | . |  |
| 6 | -. 179 | . 146 | - **** |  | * |  |
| 7 | -. 203 | . 146 | -**** |  | - |  |
| 8 | . 152 | .146 | - | *** | - |  |
| 9 | . 014 | .146 | - |  | - |  |
| 10 | . 153 | . 146 | - | ** | * |  |
| 11 | . 023 | . 146 | * |  | - |  |
| 12 | . 159 | . 146 |  | *** | . |  |
| 13 | -. 228 | .146 | . +3 |  | - |  |
| 14 | -. 0.053 | . 146 | , * |  | - |  |
| 15 | -. 236 | .146 | .***** |  | , | - |
| 16 | . 024 | .146 |  |  | - |  |
| 17 | . 035 | . 146 |  |  | - |  |
| 18 | . 012 | . 146 |  |  | * |  |
| 19 | -. 080 | .146 |  |  | * |  |
| 20 | -. 186 | .146 | $. * * *$ |  | * |  |
| 21 | . .132 | .146 |  | *** | * |  |
| 22 | . 070 | . 146 |  |  | * |  |

Figure 17 - FI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Education

## Analysis of FI Measures for the Department of

Education. Similar to the trend demonstrated in Figure 14, the FI time-series for the Department of Education in Figure 16 also shows a notable dip during September, 1986 (an FI of 0.081 episodes). Again, the influence of the general strike is evident (see Appendix B). The effect suggests much more variability among FI scores before policy introduction as the FI peaks to 0.76 episodes.

For an assessment of the degree of dependency among FI points, Figure 17 illustrates the ACF and PACF for the Department of Education. Again, there were no significant correlations among FI values at any lag and an absence of significant ACF spikes (therefore an ARIMA ( $0,0,0$ ) model). Due to the statistical independence among FI scores, an ANOVA was carried out to sompare pre- and post-policy FI scores ( 24 scores with a mean of 0.4644 episodes and 23 scores with a mean of 0.4879 episodes). There was no significant change in FI values following the no-smoking policy introduction for the Department of Education (F(1,46) $=.84, \mathrm{p}=0.365$ ) .

Analysis of FI Measures for the Department of Finance. Figure 18 presents the Department of Finance's average number of monthly sick-leave episodes per employee between April, 1989 and March, 1993. As the figure shows, FI values fluctuate between approximately 0.3 episodes and 0.65
Autocorrelations

Partial Autocorrelations


Figure 19 - FI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Finance
episodes (see Appendix C). Overall, the variahility among FI scores appears rather consistent from year to year. The ACF and PACF plots are given in Figure 19. Despite the significant spike at lag 10 , an ARIMA $(0,0,0$,$) model was$ identified since all Q-statistics were non-significant. This was yet another case where the lack of statistical dependence among scores allowed for the employment of ANOVA procedures.

In the comparison of 24 pre- and post-policy FI scores (with means of 0.5390 and 0.5285 episodes respectively), there was no significant change in average monthly sickleave episodes after the no-smoking policy was introduced $(F(1,47)=.16, p=0.693)$.

## Analysis of FI Measures for the Department of

Employment and Labour Relations. The time-series graph for the Department of Employment and Labour Relations' average monthly sick-leave episodes is presented in Figure 20. Overall, FI values range between 0.39 and 0.73 episodes (see Appendix D).

The ACF and PACF plots for this department are displayed in Figure 21. As is typical in all departments discussed in this section, the ACF and PACF suggest no dependency among FI scores. In particular, there were no ACF spikes beyond the $95 \%$ confidence level and Q-statistics at every lag were not significant. However, there was one


Average number of sick-leave episodes
per person/month: Employment \& Labour
Autocorrelations

Partial Autocorrelations


Figure 21 - FI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Employment and Labour Relations
significant spike in the PACF at lag 16. Again, since an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model was identified, the FI scores were considered statistically independent and the pre-FI scores were compared to the post-FI scores using ANOVA. The pre-FI mean of 0.5729 episodes was not significantly different from the post-FI mean of 0.5692 episodes $\langle(1,47)=.02, p=$ 0.889) . Therefore, no significant change in FI values resulted.

Anal: sis of FI Measures for All Departments Combined. Through visual inspection, the time-series graph in Figure 22 appears more variable among pre-policy scores as compared to post-policy scores. As well, FI values range from 0.36 to 0.64 episodes. (see Appendix E).

The ACF plot displayed in Figure 23 shows no significant $Q$-statistics until lag 18 when all remaining $Q-$ statistics are significant. As well, while no significant ACF spikes occur in early lags, three significant spikes exceed the $95 \%$ confidence limits at lags 16,17 and 18 . The PACF however, does not exhibit any significant spikes at either lag. Since the first several lags of any ACF and PACF usually dictate the type of ARIMA model, the lack of significant spikes and $Q$-statistics in the first several lags in both functions suggests an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model.


Average number of siek-leave episodes
per personimonth: All depts combined

Autocorrelations


Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | . 267 | . 144 | - | **** |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | . 082 | .144 | - | ** | , |  |
| 3 | .117 | . 244 | . | ** | , |  |
| 4 | . 042 | . 144 | . | * | . |  |
| 5 | -. 002 | . 144 | - |  | , |  |
| 6 | -. 236 | . 144 | . ***** |  | * |  |
| 7 | . 158 | . 144 | - | *** | . |  |
| 8 | -. 013 | . 144 | - |  | . |  |
| 9 | -. .046 | . 144 |  |  | - |  |
| 10 | -. 066 | . 144 | - * |  | , |  |
| 12 | . 1115 | . 144 | - | * * | . |  |
| 12 | . 010 | . 144 | , |  | . |  |
| 13 | $-.119$ | . 144 | - ** |  | , |  |
| 24 | -. 211 | . 144 | - ** |  | . | , |
| 15 | . 005 | . 144 | + + |  | . | , |
| 16 | -. 312 | . 144 | ****** |  | . |  |
| 17 | $-.151$ | . 144 | , *** |  | , |  |
| 18 | -. .136 | .144 | . $\begin{gathered}\text { ** }\end{gathered}$ |  | . |  |
| 19 | . 035 | . 144 | - | * | . |  |
| 20 | . 059 | . 244 | , | * | * |  |
| 21 | -. 045 | . 144 | $\cdots \quad *$ |  | - |  |
| 22 | . 068 | . 144 | - | * | - |  |

Figure 23 - FI ACF and PACF for all depts conbined

Strengthening this conclusion is the fact that each of the four departments had previously demonstrated no significant dependency among FI scores.

Recognizing the scores of this series as statistically independent, we compared pre- and post-FI scores using ANOVA. There was no significant difference between the mean of the pre-policy FI values ( 0.5185 episodes) and the postpolicy FI values $(0.5230$ episodes) $(F(1,47)=.57, p=$ $0.812)$.

Analyses of the Short-Term Index (STI)
In this final section, all observations relevant to the Short Term Index (STI) are presented. This index represents the average number of sick-leave episodes numbering two days or less per month, per person.

## Analysis of STI Measures for the Department of Social

Services. The time-series graph for Social Service's STI measures is presented in Figure 24. Perhaps the most notable low point of this figure occurs during September, 1986. Again, as discussed in the previous section, this unusual low point (approximately 0.05 episodes) resulted from the government worker's general strike. Since both the STI and FI measures account for sick-leave frequency, we can see the strike's influence in the STI time-sexies graph.



Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | -. 005 | . 144 | - $\stackrel{+}{*}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | -. 096 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 3 | . 163 | . 144 | . | *** |
| 4 | . 083 | . 144 | . | ** |
| 5 | . 028 | . 144 | - | * |
| 6 | $-.006$ | . 144 | , |  |
| 7 | -. 084 | . 144 | - ** |  |
| 8 | -. 110 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 9 | . 114 | . 144 | - | ** |
| 10 | -. 046 | .144 | - * |  |
| 11 | -. 081 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 12 | . 015 | . 144 | - * |  |
| 13 | -. 118 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 14 | . 073 | . 144 | - | * |
| 15 | -. 043 | . 144 | - * |  |
| 16 | -. 061 | . 144 | - * |  |
| 17 | . 184 | . 144 | - | **** |
| 18 | -. 180 | .144 | . **** |  |
| 19 | -. 156 | . 144 | - *** |  |
| 20 | -. 042 | . 144 | * |  |
| 21 | -. 070 | . 144 | * |  |
| 22 | . 217 | . 144 | . ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | **** |

Figure 25 - STI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Social Services

However, there was also a unexplained low point occurring during June of the same year (around 1.5 episodes).

Figure 25 displays the ACF and PACF plots of Social Service's STI measures. As the figure shows, the absence of significant ACF spikes and Q-statistics suggested an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model. Since stationarity exists and there is no evidence of either an autoregressive or moving average process, a zero value was assigned to the $p, d$, and $q$ parameters. Consequently, because there were no significant correlations among STI scores, ANOVA was used to compare pre-policy STI scores with post-policy STT scores. The difference between pre- and post-policy STI scores (a premean of 0.3985 episodes and a post-mean of 0.4326 episodes) was not significant $(F(1,47)=.96, p=0.333)$.

## Analysis of STI Measures for the Department of

Education. Figure 26 presents the time-series plot for STI measures representing the Department of Education. As : with the Department of Social Services, the low STI value for September, 1986 is evident. There also appears to be notable variability among scores in that measures range from approximately 0.26 to 0.68 episodes (not including September, 1986) (see Appendix B).


Figure 26
Average number of episodes $<2$ days per
person/month: Dept of Education

## Autocorrelations



Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | . 000 | . 146 | . * |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | . 098 | . 146 | , | ** |
| 3 | . 153 | . 146 | - | *** |
| 4 | -. 289 | . 146 | ****** |  |
| 5 | -. 042 | . 146 | * |  |
| 6 | -. 218 | . 146 | - ** |  |
| 7 | -. 202 | . 146 | . **** |  |
| 8 | . 067 | . 146 |  | * |
| 9 | -. 015 | . 146 | , |  |
| 10 | . 217 | . 146 | - | * |
| 11 | . 211 | . 146 | . | ** |
| 12 | .216 | . 146 | . | * |
| 13 | -. 210 | . 146 | **** |  |
| 14 | -. 025 | . 146 |  |  |
| 15 | -. 196 | . 146 | . **** |  |
| 16 | . 017 | . 146 | - |  |
| 17 | . 081 | . 146 | - | ** |
| 18 | -. 026 | . 146 | - $\quad *$ |  |
| 19 | -. 052 | . 146 | - * |  |
| 20 | -. 233 | .146 | ,***** |  |
| 21 | . 096 | . 146 | - | ** |
| 22 | . 087 | .146 | - 1 | ** |

Figure 27 - STI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Education

Based on the ACF and PACF displayed in Ficure 27, a familiar trend is evident. Given the absence of significant Q-statistics at every lag and only one significant ACF spike at lag 22, the model identified was again ARIMA $(0,0,0)$. Since the ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model signifies the statistical independence of STI scores, 24 pre- and 23 post-policy STI scores were compared using ANOVA.

While there appeared to be a slight increase in STI measures after the policy introduction 10.4184 episodes as compared to 0.4303 episodes), this difference was not significant $(F(1,46)=.11, p=0.747)$.

## Analysis of STI Measures for the Department of

Finance. In Figure 28, the time-series plot of STI values for the Department of Finance shows that STI scores fluctuated between approximately 0.22 episodes and 0.62 episodes (see Appendix C).

Looking at the ACF and PACF graphs in Figure 29, independence among STI measures is again evident as there are no significant Q-statistics or ACF spikes at any lag (therefore an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model).

Figure 28
Average aumber of episodes $<2$ days per personfmonth: Dept of Finance

## Autocorrelations

| Lag | Corr. | Err. | $.25$ |  |  | Q-statistic | Prob |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -. 102 | . 140 | ** |  | . | . 520 | . 467 |
| 2 | -. 062 | . 138 | - * |  | - | . 729 | . 695 |
| 3 | -. 028 | . 137 | - |  | . | . 771 | . 856 |
| 4 | -. 019 | . 135 | . |  | - | . 792 | . 940 |
| 5 | -. 038 | . 134 | - * |  | - | . 874 | . 972 |
| 6 | . 040 | . 132 | - * | * | . | . 966 | . 987 |
| 7 | -. 082 | . 131 | . $* *$ |  | * | 1.361 | . 987 |
| 8 | . 007 | . 129 | , |  | - | 1.364 | . 995 |
| 9 | -. 032 | . 127 | * |  | - | 1.425 | . 998 |
| 10 | -. 259 | . 126 | *** |  | . | 5.675 | . 842 |
| 11 | . 022 | . 124 | . |  | , | 5.706 | . 892 |
| 12 | . 220 | . 122 | - ** | **** | . | 8.921 | . 710 |
| 13 | -. 083 | . 121 | ** |  | . | 9.396 | . 742 |
| 14 | . 012 | . 119 | . * |  | . | 9.406 | . 804 |
| 15 | . 050 | . 117 | - ${ }^{*}$ | * | , | 9.589 | . 845 |
| 16 | . 011 | . 115 | - |  | , | 9.599 | .887 |
| 17 | . 035 | . 114 | . ** | * | - | 9.695 | . 916 |
| 18 | -. 070 | .112 | * | - |  | 10.093 | . 929 |
| 19 | . 037 | . 110 | . * | * . |  | 10.207 | . 948 |
| 20 | -. 073 | . 108 | . ${ }^{\frac{1}{*}}$ | . |  | 10.658 | . 955 |
| 21 | -. 144 | . 206 | *** |  |  | 12.506 | . 925 |
| 22 | -. 128 | . 104 | .*** | - |  | 14.021 | . 901 |

Partial Autocorrulations

| 1 | -.102 | .144 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | -.073 | .144 |
| 3 | -.043 | .144 |
| 4 | -.032 | .144 |
| 5 | -.050 | .141 |
| 6 | .026 | .144 |
| 7 | -.085 | .144 |
| 8 | -.011 | .144 |
| 9 | -.046 | .144 |
| 10 | -.284 | .144 |
| 11 | -.056 | .144 |
| 12 | .178 | .144 |
| 13 | -.072 | .144 |
| 14 | -.012 | .144 |
| 15 | .047 | .144 |
| 16 | .030 | .144 |
| 17 | .013 | .144 |
| 18 | -.093 | .144 |
| 19 | .045 | .144 |
| 20 | -.162 | .144 |
| 21 | -.194 | .144 |
| 22 | -.084 | .144 |



Figure 29 - STI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Finance

The results of the ANOVA performed on the pre- and post-policy STI values show that the pre- and post-STI means ( 0.4618 episodes and 0.4682 episodes respectively) were not significantly different $(F(1,47)=.06, p=0.811)$.

Analysis of STI Measures for the Department of Employment and Labour Relations. Presented in Figure 30 is the STI time-series plot for the Department of Employment and Labour Relations. As the figure shows, STI values range from approximately 0.35 to 0.64 episodes (see Appendix D).

The ACF and PACF are displayed in Figure 31. Despite the significant $A C F$ spike at lag 22, all remaining spikes do not exceed the $95 \%$ confidence interval. As well, given the absence of significant $Q$-statistics at every lag, the ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model was again utilized.

Treating each STI score independently, the pre- and post-policy scores were compared using ANOVA. The difference between pre-policy I'rl $^{\prime}$ scores (with a mean of 0.4932 ) and post-policy STI scores (with a mean of 0.4858 ) was not significant $(F(1,47)=.10, p=0.757)$.

Analysis of STI Measures for All Departments Combined. All departments were again combined in order to conduct an overall comparison between pre- and post-policy STI scores. As is shown in Figure 32, STI scores fluctuate between 0.31

Figure 30
Average number of episodes $<2$ d-ys per person/month: Employment \& Labour


Figure 31 - STI ACF and PACF for the Dept of Employment and Labour Relations


Figure 32
Average number of episodes $<2$ days per
person/month: All departments combined


Partial Autocorrelations

| 1 | . 186 | . 144 | - | **** |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | -. 068 | . 144 | * |  |
| 3 | . 115 | . 144 | - | ** |
| 4 | -. 116 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 5 | -. 095 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 6 | -. 044 | . 144 | * |  |
| 7 | -. 074 | . 144 | - * |  |
| 8 | . 011 | . 144 | - |  |
| 9 | . 043 | . 144 | - | * |
| 10 | -. 034 | . 144 | - * |  |
| 11 | . 228 | . 144 | - | ***** |
| 12 | -. 103 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 13 | . 028 | . 144 | - | * |
| 14 | -. 006 | . 144 | - |  |
| 15 | . 068 | . 144 | - | * |
| 16 | -. 216 | . 144 | . **** |  |
| 17 | -. 138 | . 144 | - *** |  |
| 18 | -. 088 | . 144 | ** |  |
| 19 | . 087 | . 144 |  | ** |
| 20 | -. 148 | . 144 | *** |  |
| 21 | -. 057 | . 144 | * |  |
| 22 | . 132 | . 144 | . | *** |

Figure 33 - STI ACF and PACF for all departments combined
and 0.55 episodes per month. While the STI scores appear more variable during the pre-policy time period, this is probably due to the effects of the general strike observed in the Departments of Social Services and Education.

Similar to the non-significant ACFs and PACFs observed in each department separately and as illustrated in Figure 33, $a^{77}$. ACF spikes and Q-statistics were not significant at any lag for all departments combined. Given an ARIMA $(0,0,0)$ model, and following the procedures of previous sections, pre- and post-STI scores were statistically compared using ANOVA. The difference between the pre-policy STI mean ( 0.4519 episodes) and the post-policy STI mean (0.4681 episodes) was not significant $(F(1,47)=.07, p=$ 0.403 ).

## DISCUSSION

This study was carried out to test claims made by those who suggest that employee smoking is a significant contributor to absenteeism. Indeed, statements like "Studies that monitor the exact cost of a smoking-cessation program on a company's bottom line leave little doubt that smokers impact healthcare, absenteeism and productivity" (Harvey, 1994, p. 51) need to be empirically tested. Based on the results obtained in the investigation of four Newfoundland Government departments, it appears that the nosmoking policy did not influence sick-leave use two years after its introduction. In no case was there a significant change in sick-leave use regardless of dependent measure, time of policy introduction, or department.

Given the archival nature of the investigation and thus the inability to differentiate the smoking population from the non-smoking population, the reason why no effect was : found remains somewhat questionable. It seems that there was no change in employee-health in the fir:t two years las indexed by the TTI measure) and hence no change in absenteeism during this period. Arguably, any health improvements caused by such a policy may take years in which to surface. In this study, we allowed onlv two years following the policy introduction and thurefore may have been too early to observe the policy's influence. However,
there was uso no change in avoidable absences as measured by both the FI and the STI. This is curious since it seems logical that improving air quality should also lead to an increased comfort level and a decreased need to withdraw from the work environment.

It is possible that while the policy may have been a health improvement for non-smokers, denying smokers an opportunity to smoke may have led to an increase in sickleave use among this group. A mixture of non-smoker's reduction in sick-leave use and smoker's increase in sickleave use may have resulted in no significant overall change. Based on the nature of the data however, we cannot test this explanation.

On the other hand, there may have been a general improvement in health status and comfort for all employees but it did not manifest itself in the form of sick-leave use. While sick-leave is offered to employees during times of illness, as suggested in the introduction, a notable portion of sick-leave use is not due to illness. Perhaps the lack of results of this investigation support the claim that because sick-leave use does not totally reflect the number of legitimate illnesses, it is not a sensitive measure of employee well-being. However, we did incorporate different sick-leave indices in order to capture legitimate and illegitimate sick-leave use. Since there was no change
in either measure, it appeared that neither avoidable nor unavoidable absenteeism was influenced by the policy.

## Difference in Autocorrelations Among the TTI, FI and STI

 MeasuresWhile we did not find any change in sick-leave use as a function of the policy, we did observe differences among the sick-leave measures during ARIMA identification. Unlike the FI and STI measures, the TTI measure (commonly perceived as an unavoidable absenteeism measure) produced distinct timeseries in two departments, and for all departments combined. In particular, for the Departments of Social Services and Employment and Labour Relations, and for all departments combined, the ARIMA procedure found rapid exponential decay in the first several lags of each ACF and one spike at the first lag for each PACF. As a result, ARIMA judged each series to be autoregressive such that each current value in the series was predicted by the previous value of the series. However, for both the FI and STI measures, no significant relationship among the poin's of either series was found.

The reason for this difference is not clear. One possible explanation is that TTI illnesses are more likely to last longer than avoidable absences (as indexed by the FI and STI measures). Thus, they would be more likely to span more than one month. Such long-term illnesses would
contribute not only to the current month but also the following one. Therefore, given that this type of illness may contribute to more than one TTI measure, the relationship is between the months is strengthened, and hence an existence of autocorrelations among the points.

This difference among dependent measures offers some support for the fact that our indices were measuring the two distinct types of absenteeism, avoidable and unavoidable.

## The Future of Absenteeism Research and Absence-Control

## policies

As discussed in the introduction, employee absentceism has been perceived as a very complex phenomenon influenced by a variety of variables operating in the work environment. Researchers have accounted for some absenteeism as a reflection of psychological factors such as employee satisfaction. It has also been suggested that personal and demographic variables such as age, tenure and gender also i significantly account for the rate and duration of absenteeism. In general however, for one proposition or another, each variable has been linked with the withdrawal Theory and the need for employees to deal with organizational dissatisfactions by "withdrawing" from the workplace through excessive sick-leave use (Muchinsky, 1977).

While the Withdrawal Theory may be reliable, given the inconsistency surrounding the effects of such psychological variables as worker satisfaction and the variable observations in studies involving personal and demographic variables, more recent research has supported the effects of organization-wide variables as the strongest predictors of absenteeism. In fact, as was discussed in the introduction, along with work-environment factors such as work autonomy, research has suggested that organization-wide factors (such as the specific structure of sick-leave policies themselves) were better predictors of absenteeism than demographic and psychological factors (Farrell \& Stamm, 1988).

Researchers propose that absence-control policies are an interesting area for future research and according to previously published literature reviews, (Farrell et al., 1988; Muchinsky, 1977), reliable scientific investigation has rendered the area very promising for explaining a significant proportion of variance associated with employee absenteeism. Overall, most absence-control policies such as incentives, posters, feedback, and behaviour modification systems have been effective (Farrell, et al., 1988). Scientifically comparing absence-control policies in different organizational structures will be valuable for research in the applied setting.

## Conclusion

This investigation found no evidence of the no-smoking policy's effect on absenteeism rates. One possible explanation is that sick-leave use is not a sensitive or accurate measure of the health benefits of no-smoking policies. Given that employee absenteeism is a complex, culturally-based phenomenon, it may not be a sensitive measure of employee wellness. If an accurate method of data collection existed, the quantification of such variables as employee comfort, productivity, aggression, and/or irritability, for example, might be better indicators of workplace improvements such as ridding the office air of cigarette smoke.

Had other dependent measures been employed to investigate the possible effects of the no-smoking policy, the investigation would have had to distribute questionnaires. However, it was not the intent of this investigation to evaluate the effects through the use of an ; obtrusive, qualitative approach. Since the no-smoking policy was introduced between three and six years ago, it seemed too ambitious to have employees rely on their recollections to report any changes in smoking behaviour or how they felt shortly after the policy was introduced. As well, there are other problems (such as response desirability) associated with soliciting opinions from surveys. This is particularly true if the issues are
surrounded by strong social influence (such as the debate over smoker and non-smoker rights). By analyzing sick-leave use over a period of time, we obtained an unobtrusive measure of what we thought might be an indicator of employee wellness. Given the highly publicized relationship between short and long-term illness, comfort, and cigarette smoke, the investigation seemed to be a logical procedure.

In general, based on the apparent acceptance of the health and economic benefits of no-smoking policies and smoking cessation programs among public and private organizations, the intent of this investigation was to determine if the no-smoking policy had any affect on absenteeism. Given the clear and consistent observations of this study, strong evidence exists that the no-smoking policy should not be justified on the basis of reducing absenteeism.

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## FOOTNOTES

1. This article does not cite any scientific research supporting this claim.
2. A 2-day criterion was chosen because (according to the General Service sick-leave policy) a 3 day absence requires employees to validate illnesses in the form of a medical certificate.
3. All data analyses were performed using $S P S S \backslash P C$ Software.

Appendix A

TTI, FI and STI measures for The Department of Social Servicea

# SPSS/PC PRINTOUT OF TOTAL TIME, FREQUENCY AND SHORT TERM INDICES FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES 



Summaries of TMINUS20 May, 1986







## Summaries of TPLUS4 May, 1988

| VariableFor Entire |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Mean } \\ & 8062 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} \text { Std Dev } \\ 2,0537 \end{array}$ | Cases$178$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 1. 4455 | 3.5220 | 55 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 5565 | . 6147 | 62 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | . 4836 | 5914 | 61 |

Total Cases $=201$
Missing Cases $=23$ OR 11.4 PCT.

Summaries of TPLUS5 June, 1988

| Variable | Value Label | Mean | Std Dev | Cages |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| For Entire Population | .6854 | 1.8045 | 178 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | .9818 | 2.9281 | 55 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX | .5645 | .9342 | 62 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | .5410 | .9412 | 61 |

Total Cases $=201$
Missing Cases $=\quad 23$ OR 11.4 PCT.

Summaries of TPLUS6 July, 198B

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire population |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 |
| SHORT TERM INDEX |  |
| Total Cases $=$ | 201 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 23 OR 11.4 PCT. |

Summaries of TPLUS7 August, 1988

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire population |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 |
| DEPMEAS TOTAL TIME INDEX |  |
| DEPMEAS | 2 |
| FREQUENCY INDEX |  |
| Total Cases $=$ | 3 |
| SHORT TERM INDEX |  |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 201 |




Sumaries of TPLUS16 May, 1989


Summaries of TPLUS20 September, 1989


Appendix B
TTI, FI and STI measure for The Department of Education



Sumaries of TMINUS16 November, 1986




## Summaries of TMINUS4 November, 1987

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire Population <br> DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| :--- | :---: |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 143 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 16 OR |
|  | 11.2 |

Summaries of TMINUS3 December, 1987

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire population |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 143 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 16 OR 11.2 PCT. |

Summaries of TMINUS2 January, 1988

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire Population |  |
| :--- | ---: |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TBRM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 143 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 13 OR 9.1 PCT. |

Summaries of TMINUS1 February, 198 B

Variable | Value Label |
| :--- |
| FOr Entire population |

| DEPMEAS | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS TOTAL TIME INDEX |  |
| DEPMEAS | 2 |
| FREQUENCY INDEX |  |
| Total Cases $=$ | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 143 |$l$

## Summaries of TOPOLICY March, 1988




## Summaries of TpLUS8 November, 1988




Sumaries of TPLUS16 July, 1989

Summaries of TPLUS20 November, 1989


| Total Cases | $=$ | 180 |
| ---: | :--- | ---: |
| Missing Cases | $=3$ OR $\quad 1.7$ PCT, |  |
| Summaries of TPLUS21 December, 1989 |  |  |


Summaries of TYLUS22 January, 1990

| Variable |  | Label | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| For Entire Popu |  |  | . 8644 | 1.9051 | 177 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 2.3220 | 3.1263 | 59 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 7000 | .6713 | 60 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | . 5690 | . 6783 | 58 |
| Total Cases = |  | 180 |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases |  | 3 OR 1.7 PCT. |  |  |  |

Summaries of TPLUS23 February, 1990

| VariableValue Label | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| For Entire Population | .3644 | .5653 | 177 |  |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX |  |  |  |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX | .3644 | .6005 | 59 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | .3833 | .5552 | 60 |
|  |  | .3448 | .5478 | 58 |  |

Total Cases $=180$
Missing Cases $=\quad 3 \mathrm{OR} \quad 1.7 \mathrm{PCT}$.

Appendix $C$
TTI, FI and STI for The Department of Finance

## SPSS/PC PRINTOUT OF TOTAL TIME, FREQUENCY AND SHORT TERM INDICES FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE



## Summaries of TMINUS20 August, 1989





Summaries of TMINUS8 August, 1990



Summaries of TPLUS4 August, 1991






## Appendix D

TTI, FI and STI measures for The Department of Employment and Labour Relations

SPSS/PC PRINTOUT OF TOTAL TIME, FREQUENCY AND SHORT TERM INDICES FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF KMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR RELATION


Summaries of TMINUS20 August, 1989






| Summaries of TOPOLICY April, 2991 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Variable Value Label <br> For Entire Population |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
|  |  |  | . 7634 | 2.5474 | 224 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 1.1216 | 2.4534 | 74 |
| DEPMEAS |  | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 6133 | . 7333 | 75 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | . 5600 | . 7396 | 75 |
| Total Cases = | $=$ | 250 |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases $=$ | $=$ | 26 OR 10.4 PCT. |  |  |  |
| Summaries of TPLUS1 May, 1991 |  |  |  |  |  |
| ```Variable Value Label For Entire Population``` |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
|  |  |  | . 9236 | 1.2961 | 229 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 1. 4145 | 3.1785 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 7368 | . 9433 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | . 6234 | . 8590 | 77 |
| Total Cases = | $=$ | 250 |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases = | $=$ | 21 OR 8.4 PCT. |  |  |  |
| Summaries of TPLUS2 June, 1991 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Variable Value Label |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
| For Entire Population |  |  | . 7752 | 1.7449 | 229 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 1.3224 | 2.8044 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS |  | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 5526 | . 6811 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | .4545 | . 6795 | 77 |
| Total Cases $=$ | = | 250 |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases = | $=$ | 21 OR 8.4 PCT. |  |  |  |
| Summaries of TPLUS3 July, 1991 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Variable Value Label For Entire Population |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
|  |  |  | . 6441 | 2.2383 | 229 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | 1.1908 | 3.7354 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS |  | FREQUENCY INDEX | . 3947 | . 6548 | 76 |
| DEPMEAS |  | SHORT TERM INDEX | .3506 | . 6234 | 77 |
| Total Cases $=$ |  | 250 |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases = | $=$ | 21 OR 8.4 PCT. |  |  |  |







## Appendix E

THI, FI and STI measures for All Departinenta Combined



Summaries of TMINUSI6


Summaries of TMINUS12


## Summaries of TMINUS8

Variable | Value Label |
| :--- |
| For Entire population |

| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 60 OR 7.2 PCT. |.

Summaries of TMINUS7

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire population |  |$\quad$| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY TNDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 60 OR 7.2 PCT. |

Summaries of TMINUS6

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire Population |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Migsing Cases $=$ | 60 OR |

Summaries of tMINUS5

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire Population |  |
| DEPMEAS | 1 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 TOAAL TMME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHOQUENCY INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 54 OR 6.5 PCT. |

## Summaries of TMINUS 4

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire population |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS 1 <br> DEPMEAS TOTAL TIME INDEX  <br> DEPMEAS 2 <br> FREQUENCY INDEX  <br> Total Cases $=$ 3 <br> SHORT TERM INDEX  |  |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 834 |

Summaries of TMINUS 3

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire population |  |

Summaries of TMINUS2

| Variable | Value Label <br> For Entire Population |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | $490.3 \quad 5.9$ PCT. |

Summaries of TMINUSI

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire population |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 834 |
| Missing Cascs $=$ | 48 OR 5.8 PCT. |




| Summaries of TPLUS8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ```Variable Value Label For Entire Population``` |  |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
|  |  |  |  | . 6049 | 1.4160 | 853 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX |  | *. 8669 | 2. 2694 | 278 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX |  | *. 5017 | 6787 | 287 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX |  | *. 4549 | . 6504 | 28B |
| Total Cases = |  | 918 |  |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases $=$ |  | 65 OR 7.1 PCT. |  |  |  |  |
| Summaries of TPLUSS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ```Variable Value Label For Entire Population``` |  |  |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
|  |  |  |  | . 6455 | 1.7829 | 859 |
| DEPMEAS | 1. | TOTAL TIME INDEX |  | 1.0518 | 2,9436 | 280 |
| DEPMEAS |  | FREQUENCY INDEX | * | . 4740 | . 6510 | 289 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | * | . 4241 | .6412 | 290 |
| Total Cases = |  | 918 |  |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases = |  | 59 OR 6.4 PCT. |  |  |  |  |
| Summaries of TPLUSio |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Variable Va | e | Label |  | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
| For Entire population |  |  |  | . 6211 | 1.3557 | 859 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX |  | +. 9339 | 2.1218 | 280 |
| DEPMEAS | 2 | FREQUENCY INDEX |  | +.5087 | . 7318 | 289 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX |  | *. 4310 | . 6580 | 290 |
| Total Cases = |  | 918 |  |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases * |  | 59 OR 6.4 PCT . |  |  |  |  |
| Summaries of tplusil |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Variable Value LabelFor Entire Population |  |  |  | Mean | Std Lev | Cases |
|  |  |  |  | . 6816 | 1.5447 | 859 |
| DEPMEAS | 1 | TOTAL TIME INDEX | * | 1.0339 | 2.4706 | 280 |
| DEPMEAS |  | FREQUENCY INDEX | * | .5467 | . 7303 | 289 |
| DEPMEAS | 3 | SHORT TERM INDEX | * | . 4759 | . 6918 | 290 |
| Total Cases $=$ |  | 918 |  |  |  |  |
| Missing Cases = |  | 59 OR 6.4 PCT. |  |  |  |  |

Summaries of TPLUS12

| VariableValue Label <br> For Entire population |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS | 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 932 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 68 OR |

Summaries of TPLUS 13

Variable | Value Label |
| :---: |
| For Entire Population |

| DEPMEAS | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEPMEAS TOTAL TIME INDEX |  |
| DEPMEAS | 2 |
| FREQUENCY INDEX |  |
| Total Cases $=$ | 3 |
| SHORT TERM INDEX |  |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 932 |

Sumnriries of TPLUS14

| VariableValue Label |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Entire Population |  |
| DEPMEAS | 2 TOTAL TIME INDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 2 FREQUENCY TNDEX |
| DEPMEAS | 3 SHORT TERM INDEX |
| Total Cases $=$ | 932 |
| Missing Cases $=$ | 53 OR $\quad 5.7$ PCT. |

Sumaries of TPLUS 15

| Variable | Value Label |
| :--- | :--- |
| For Ent ire population |  |



```
    Summaries of TPLUS20
    variable value Labe
        Mean
        .7016
        std Dev
        1.4346
        Cases
        903
\begin{tabular}{llllrr} 
DEPMEAS & 1 & TOTAL TIME INDEX & \(* .9883\) & 2.1844 & 300 \\
DEPMEAS & 2 & FREQUENCY INDEX & \(\star .5927\) & .8210 & 302
\end{tabular}
    DEPMEAS 3 SHORT TERM INDEX * .5249 . }3939**
    Total Cases = 932
    Missing Cases = 29 OR 3.1 PCT.
    Summaries of TPLUS21
    Variable Value Label
    For Entire population
    DEPMEAS 1 TOTAL TIME INDEX
    DEPMEAS 2 FREQUENCY INDEX
    DEPMEAS }3\mathrm{ SHORT TERM INDEX
        Total Cases = 932
Missing Cases = 29 OR 3.1 PCT.
    Summaries of TPLUS22
    Variable Value Label
    For Entire Population
\begin{tabular}{rr} 
DEPMEAS & 1 \\
DEPMEAS TOTAL TIME INDEX \\
DEPMEAS & 2 FREQUENCY INDEX \\
Total Cases \(=\) & 3 SHORT TERM INDEX \\
Missing Casea \(=\) & 932 OR 2.8 PCT.
\end{tabular}
    Summaries of
        TPLUS23
    Variable Value
\begin{tabular}{lr} 
DEPMEAS & 1 \\
DEPMEAS & 2 TOTAL TIME INDEX \\
DEPMEAS & 3 SREQUENCY INDEX \\
& \\
Total Cases \(=\) & 932 ORT TERM INDEX \\
Missing Cases \(=\) & 26 OR 2.8 PCT.
\end{tabular}
1.
2.
3.
```

