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AN EXAMINATION OF VARIOUS FACTORS (AGE, GENDER, FAMILY STATUS,
MARITAL STATUS, AND WORK ENGAGEMENT) AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO
LONGEVITY, ATTENDANCE, AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF CUSTODIAL STAFF AT A
LARGE PUBLIC UNIVERSITY

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Human Resource Education
and Workforce Development

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationships between longevity of employment tenure, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university. Correlation analyses, univariate simple linear regressions, and Analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to analyze the data from 259 custodial employees.

Results showed that longevity was influenced by age and marital status. Younger individuals had lower longevity and older individuals had higher longevity. The widowed marital status group had significantly higher longevity than the single and married groups. Attendance was influenced by gender, family status and work engagement. Females had lower attendance and males had higher attendance. Family status was associated with a decrease in attendance. Individuals with higher work engagement had higher attendance. Job performance was influenced by age and work engagement. Younger individuals had lower work performance than midage individuals. Lastly, individuals with higher work engagement had better job performance.

One of the major findings is that individuals with high work engagement have better attendance and job performance. Human Resource Development practitioners should have focus groups with these individuals to gain insight on what influences their level of engagement, which in turn encourages them to come to work and perform at a higher level of job performance. From this feedback, initiatives could be developed to help increase engagement amongst other employees, therefore increasing attendance and performance overall. Another key finding is that younger individuals had significantly lower job performance than the midage group. Often in research, older individuals were lower performers but that finding could be strongly dependent

on the job. This study is significant in that it is the first to analyze custodial staff members at a public university in regards to longevity, attendance, and job performance.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Employees are one of the greatest assets of an organization because they are vital to the ongoing operation and success of that entity. Without employees, organizations cannot carry out daily tasks, provide services, manage customer relations, and achieve various goals associated with successful operation. The basic question that human resource theorists and researchers continually explore revolves around the reasons employees leave their positions within an organization (Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). The one constant finding that comes out of turnover research is that voluntary turnover has a negative impact on an organization. The monetary and labor costs of recruiting and hiring new employees can become cumbersome. Research in this area seeks an understanding of why employees leave their positions, with the hope of providing strategies that can be used to limit turnover whenever possible.

Employee turnover not only affects organizations financially; productivity is also negatively affected by high turnover rates, particularly in the areas of efficiency and effectiveness. When employee turnover rates are high, productivity rates lower because there are now less people available to complete the existing amount of work. An increased workload for the remaining employees in turn slows down production, which consequently impacts the profits made from the services or products being sold. Additionally, costs associated with filling vacant positions, training new employees, and providing necessary equipment or tools needed to perform a job can increase, thus reducing the amount of funding that can be used to improve performance and enhance organizational operations.

Levit (2014) reported that in 2014 national employee turnover reached 161.7 million, an increase of 12.9% compared to 2012. The downward trend in turnover rates is not a positive predictor for the future. With high turnover rates continuing in this vein, organizations will

continue to spend excess funds to fill vacant positions and train new employees instead of using resources to enhance efficiency of operations. For this reason, it is imperative for the success of an organization to use resources to hire and keep employees who will be fully *engaged* in their jobs and invested in the organization's goals.

Kahn (1990) defined engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (p. 694). Research on employee engagement suggests that organizations with engaged employees have higher shareholder returns, productivity, customer satisfaction, and profitability (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). There are several factors that can impact the level of engagement an individual has for the job they fulfill, thereby affecting performance and organizational success. These factors vary throughout the literature, but Kahn’s (1990) Theory of Employee Engagement describes that a person’s degree of engagement is based on “their perceptions of psychological meaningfulness (task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interactions), psychological safety (interpersonal relationships, group and intergroup dynamics, management style and process, and organizational norms), and psychological availability (physical energies, emotional energies, insecurity and outside life)” (pp. 704-716). Understanding those factors and their relationship with one another can help guide business practices in order to reach the desired goals of an organization.

Organizations should focus on methods to enhance engagement considering that it can impact shareholder returns, productivity, customer satisfaction, profitability, and reduce high turnover rates. This focus should be geared towards all members of their organization ranging from the Chief Executive Officer to lower levels including custodial staff. Unfortunately,

organizations often overlook some of these member populations when it comes to implementing initiatives to increase employee engagement, performance, and overall organizational commitment. One such group that is overlooked is the custodial employee group that is responsible for cleaning and maintaining an organization's facilities. A custodial staff member, for the purpose of this study, refers to a person who cleans, maintains, provides security and initiates or makes minor repairs to buildings. Custodial employees, who are also referred to as janitors or housekeepers, are often disregarded when management is making decisions on where to allocate money for training and development of employees (Kandampully & Suhartanto, 2000). Custodians must be included in an organization's training, engagement, and retention efforts, as this employee group is vital to the success and ongoing operation of any organization.

Custodians are responsible for the cleanliness and maintenance of a building, which can easily be associated with the overall success of the organization within that space. If an organization or business is located in a facility that has not been regularly cleaned and properly maintained, customers will be less likely to return to that facility than one that is clean and well maintained (K. Rockett, Director of Facilities, personal communication, February 1, 2016). All too often, businesses spend millions in construction on new facilities but do not invest the funds to provide proper care and preventative maintenance needed to preserve the integrity of that building.

Regardless of the industry, custodial staff members are present in some facet of every organization's operation. Some organizations hire custodial staff members as employees of their organization, while other organizations may contract custodial services from an outside party. This is often a common scenario seen across universities, where some institutions employ custodians and pay them all benefits as all other faculty and staff on campus, while other

universities bid out their cleaning contracts to outside vendors. Whether they are internal or external employees, these staff members must be given the same attention, dedication, and developmental opportunities as other employees or turnover will increase, productivity will decrease, and overall organizational success will suffer.

Naturally, finding employees who value longevity and the ability to grow in a company can save organizations time and money. Universities and colleges also face the same challenges in terms of employee turnover, especially in groups such as custodians who are often overlooked when it comes to investing money in the development of staff (K. Rockett, Director of Facilities, personal communication, February 1, 2016). In order to keep custodial employees who value this type of long term commitment in the organization and universities, resources need to be expended to positively impact this group's engagement with their position and organization. To achieve this, research needs to be done to determine who are the people that stay in their positions and then furthermore, understanding what factors influence them stay.

Other challenges that adversely affect university managers overseeing custodial staff members are high rates of employee absenteeism and tardiness. An organization's workforce is comprised of a wide array of individuals with multiple personal issues which require them to be absent or tardy for work on some days. However, when custodial staff members are continuously not present for work, the level of quality service is hampered as staff members are stretched thin since they are asked to cover multiple areas in addition to their normal assignments. Mercer (2010) examined the direct and indirect costs associated with absenteeism in 276 organizations in several industries, ranging from health care, hospitality, transportation, colleges, and universities. Mercer reported that "the full cost of employee absences is significant, amounting to an equivalent of 35% of payroll" (p. 1). These costs can be divided

into three areas: direct (benefits and wages paid to the employee for sick or annual leave), indirect (money lost from reduced productivity or increased costs for additional labor to cover the absences), and administrative (supervisor time spent to reschedule duties, time for paperwork processing for the absence, and possible vendor services) (Mercer, 2010). All of these costs can be a huge detriment to an organizations' bottom line of profit.

In addition to the financial costs that come with high absenteeism, other consequences that result from low attendance include poor customer service, lack of production, and over-exertion of other employees. All of these factors can eventually negatively influence employee morale and organizational commitment of individuals who may have once been fully engaged. Another costly outcome from over-working employees is workplace accidents, which can commonly occur when individuals are stretched thin and have a limited timeframe to get work completed (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). Indeed, rising absenteeism can have a huge impact on organizations when work must be completed and there are not enough employees to cover the workload and complete all tasks. It is imperative to any organization, to get a clear understanding of attendance patterns of their employees and then the driving factors that cause employees to miss work.

Job performance or the lack thereof, is another area of concern for university managers overseeing custodial staff members. Job performance is defined as behaviors that impact the goals of an organization and is under the control of the given individual (Campbell, McHenry, & Wise, 1990). Most new custodial employees go through training and are shown the tasks which they will be required to perform. Some individuals will succeed with little or no issues, while others may struggle in various areas. The staff members who struggle and need to make changes to their performance will exemplify one of two types of performance: counterproductive or

adaptive. Counterproductive performance refers to “voluntary actions or behaviors that harm the well-being of an organization” (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69). Employees who struggle due to counterproductive performance acts are willfully not engaging in their position and pose unique problems to the overall productivity and success of an organization. It is questionable whether the employees with counterproductive performance are capable of changing their performance even with increased and targeted training.

On the other hand, adaptive performance is defined as “the proficiency with which an employee alters his/her behavior to meet the demands of the environment, an event, or a new situation” (Kahya, 2009, p. 96). Employees with adaptive performance struggle for different reasons and it is possible that their performance will improve with proper training and support. The employees who adapt their performance can still positively engage with their position and organization, and thus merit the resources invested in them towards performance improvement. Overall, it is essential to the success of an organization to assess job performance to try and understand not only the reasons employees stay in their positions, but also to identify those practices that merit expending resources towards training and improvement. In short, organizations must look for ways to improve, recognize, and capitalize on positive performance behaviors in order to help keep employees engaged in the organization.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationships between longevity, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university.

At the public institution of focus for this study, the custodial staff turnover rate was at an all-time high (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). Additionally,

there had been an increase in absenteeism and employee performance issues. This study sought to understand which custodial employees had stayed despite those high turnover rates. To comprehend the factors of longevity, there needed to first be a brief examination of the context of the position itself at the institution.

A typical job description for a custodial position at the institution of focus listed duties such as: cleaning restrooms, residence hall rooms, classrooms, meeting rooms; vacuuming carpet; dusting furniture; sweeping; mopping; buffing, and waxing floors; changing light bulbs; replacing air filters; disposing trash; and various other duties that are required to upkeep the buildings (See Appendix A for a sample job description). The targeted staff members of this study did not include custodial supervisory staff members, due the fact that they make more money and have different work roles than that of a traditional custodians. Also, custodial supervisory staff members participated in the study by providing feedback on job performance.

There were four main departments that employed custodial staff members at the institution, which are referred to as: Facilities, Student Union, Student Recreation, and Housing. Custodial staff members within Facilities cleaned and maintained academic buildings and administrative offices within the university. Custodians at the Student Union cleaned and maintained all spaces contained within that facility, which included retail space, food venues, meeting rooms, restrooms, and open seating areas. Custodians within the Student Recreation Center cleaned and maintained the spaces within that facility, which included frequent cleaning of work out equipment and machines, locker rooms, small aerobics classrooms and floor maintenance of basketball courts and high traffic areas. In Housing, custodial staff members cleaned all housing facilities on campus, which included a combination of apartments and traditional residence halls. Figure 1 provides the number of positions allocated for custodians

within each department and their various work shifts at the time of this study. Every position was not filled, but specific details regarding vacancies and actual employees are located in Chapter 3. The total number of positions has declined over the years, in lieu of the budget challenges faced (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). Each work shift totaled eight and a half hours, including a thirty minute un-paid lunch break.

Department:	Total Number of Employees:	Shift 1 time frame:	# of employees on shift 1:	Shift 2 time frame:	# of employees on shift 2:	Shift 3 time frame:	# of employees on shift 3:
Facilities	175	6am-2:30pm	78	3:30pm to 12am	80	10pm-6:30am	17
Student Union	14	6:30am-3pm	6	3pm-11:30pm	8	N/A	N/A
Student Recreation	6	7:30am - 4pm	1	3:30pm to 12am	1	10pm-6:30am	4
Housing	129	6:30am-3pm	6	8am-4:30pm	123	N/A	N/A
TOTALS:	324		91		212		21

Figure 1 Summary of Work Shifts for Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Custodial staff members made up a large portion of the university employees that were considered “classified” as civil service employees. Other employees were considered “unclassified” and are “at will” employees who reported directly to the university. The state’s Civil Service office is the overarching body that governs policies as it pertains to civil service employees within the state. The office provides the systems and services that enable state governmental agencies to make merit-based decisions regarding the hiring, training and retaining of civil service employees. The state’s Civil Service office also ensures that departments “provide services in an efficient and courteous manner and foster work practices that ensure that classified employees work in an environment where excellence and productivity are encouraged and recognized” (Louisiana Department of State Civil Service, 2014, p. 1).

Being classified as a civil service employee has both advantages and disadvantages. First, there are established salaries or pay wage brackets which provide guidelines on what an

employee should earn. This can be helpful in making sure individuals are not underpaid, and are treated fairly across state jobs. On the other hand, it can also limit their maximum earnings despite their years of service or experience. There are some situations in which certain individuals, who have worked in the same position for over 30 years, have not received pay raises in 10 years because they are at the maximum salary for their job title (K. Rockett, Director of Facilities, personal communication, February 1, 2016).

Secondly, Civil Service also sets regulations for consistency in entry level titles and pay rates for employees. This helps create an atmosphere of equality amongst organization, as well as amongst departments within the same universities or organizations. There are two levels of custodial employees, level one and level two. Custodians at level one have little to no experience, and are paid \$7.57 an hour, plus benefits. Due to this pay rate and the cost of living, several employees leave their positions at the institution for higher paying jobs in other organizations in order to be able to survive in this economy (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016).

Considering the restraints on compensation set by Civil Service regulations, pay raises outside of an annual raise (when available) are not an option for retaining and recognizing Custodians in order to increase work engagement and commitment at the institution. Due to the budget cut issues that faced the state, Higher Education received more cuts from 2007 to 2015, than any other state (Donoghue, 2016). The participants of this study have only received two annual raises since 2007. Therefore, it was imperative to look at other factors which could impact the level of engagement in these positions in order to identify ways in which to increase work engagement.

Five independent variables (four demographical) and their relationships to longevity, attendance, and job performance were examined. Age has been studied extensively in research spanning many decades (Giniger et al., 1983; Rhodes, 1983; Rhodes, 2004; Sturman, 2003). While employers cannot discriminate based on age when hiring employees, it is vital to understand age's impact on work-related factors so organizations can plan appropriate work initiatives in order to increase longevity, attendance, and performance at the university.

Gender is critical to discuss workplace inequalities between men and women (Timmers et al., 1998; Barmby, 2002; Burke, 2005; Bernardi, 2008). Researchers have studied gender inequalities and have reached multiple conclusions on gender-related efficiency and effectiveness. Although employers cannot discriminate based on gender when hiring, understanding how gender influences work dynamics can provide more insight into increasing work engagement for genders that may be less engaged due to feeling of inequality.

Family and marital status can provide useful insights on the dynamics that these variables can place on an employee's work behaviors. As it pertains to families, one could assume that individuals with children have a higher level of responsibility; therefore, keeping their job is essential to being able to provide for their families. On the other hand, the level of commitment to the organization and the job role of employees with dependent families may be hindered by outside obligations within their families. Marital status may also have an impact on the variables of this study. Economists have long noted that married individuals earn more per hour than unmarried individuals (Korenman & Neumark, 1991). This has been linked to positive differences in productivity, which may be a result of having spousal support to share responsibilities at home. Understanding the impact of these variables on the custodians at this

university can help to create initiatives for the given groups in order to help them better manage their job and personal life responsibilities.

Finally, work engagement was examined as one predictor of longevity, attendance, and job performance. Work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 702). Often, work engagement is referred to the opposite of burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1997) define burnout in terms of exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy. Engaged employees are energetic about their jobs and feel that there is true meaning and purpose behind the role they play in their organization. Having a work environment that is conducive to promoting work engagement amongst employees can have a number of positive effects for the organization.

This study explored the relationship between the aforementioned variables and employee attendance, longevity, and job performance overall. Understanding the nature of the relationship between the variables of this study provides useful information for employers in order to develop strategies and interventions to increase longevity, attendance, and job performance.

Statement of Problem

Scholars have discussed the effects of engagement and other demographic variables on longevity, attendance, and job performance in a number of professions (Werbel & Bedeian, 1989; Kellough & Osuna, 1995; Lewis, 1991; Lewis & Park, 1989; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008; Shantz, Alfes & Latahm, 2016; Barmby, 2002; Dellve, Ericksson, & Vilhelmsson, 2007; Dionne & Dostie, 2007). Although previous studies have provided evidence of the relationships amongst these variables, there is still a lack of research involving custodial staff members from an organizational perspective. Specifically, more research needs to be conducted on custodial staff

members at large public institutions, and the relationship between these variables of age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement, in relation to longevity, attendance, and job performance. This study seeks to address this gap.

The custodial staff members were the lowest paid employees at the institution in this study and had faced an eight year cycle of increased “cost of living” with only two years of pay increases totaling a 7% increase; 2013 – 4% increase; 2014 – 3% increase (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). These pay increases could not cover the progressive increase in cost of living. As the years went by with minimal to zero raises in custodial employment, the amount of turnover had increased, attendance had decreased at times, and work engagement was a concern across the various departments.

Considering the current challenges facing this institution and its employees, reducing turnover was a priority as it has placed a strain on the overall operation of the university. The hiring, training, monitoring, and documenting of employee performance consumed a large amount of time for the management team over the custodial staff. The discipline and accountability process required a lot of documentation and follow-up with an employee which also added stress to the management team. At times, the level of service to constituents was compromised due to the lag in time between filling vacancies and having fully-trained employees adequately fulfilling their work responsibilities.

On average, the hiring process for the custodial positions take four to six weeks. An application is first posted online for a minimum of five days. Once the application is closed, the university’s Human Resources department reviews the applications and eliminates candidates that do not meet the minimum job qualifications. Completed applications are then passed on to the hiring department for review. The departmental review process can take three to five days on

average, before candidates are called to schedule interviews. The time between scheduling and conducting the interviews can be another three to five days. After the interviews are conducted, typically through a one-day process, background checks for candidates suitable for hire are requested and typically take one to two weeks to be completed. Once the results are received, the candidate is officially offered the position and could begin work on the Monday of the next full work week. In some cases, the candidate is working somewhere else and they need two additional weeks to provide their employer a proper notification of resignation. This can elongate the process of filling a vacancy to a total of six to eight weeks.

Managing vacancies, maintaining the level of service provided to constituents, and keeping the existing over-extended staff engaged, prompted the need for more insight into the effect of these issues on work engagement. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationship to longevity, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university.

Rationale for the Study

Employee management and high turnover rates are two major personnel problems that have challenged organizations for a multitude of years (Richardson, 2015). Every organization provides either a product or a service in order to sustain business through positive customer relations. In order to maintain a high level of customer service, an organization needs employees who are invested in the mission of the organization and are dedicated to providing a high level of customer service. When staff members are not committed to the organization, a common trend is high absenteeism and low performance (Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008). High absenteeism can strain the employees who are at work, as they often become overworked and the quality of

the service provided is hampered. Lack of job performance is a hindrance on the day to day operations of an organization, which in turn damages productivity and profitability. Absenteeism and poor performance can lead to future job turnover of employees who are often essential to the organization; they often leave out of frustration and for better opportunities. As noted earlier, there is extensive empirical data that supported the notion of this study and the relationships that were examined. The ability to understand the relationship between the variables and create initiatives to address problems related to them quickly will potentially benefit long-term organizational effectiveness.

Research Questions

This study was designed to answer the following questions:

Question 1. What are the characteristics of custodial employees, in terms of the demographic variables (age, gender, family status and marital status), work engagement, longevity, attendance, and job performance?

Question 2. What are the relationships between longevity and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

Question 3. What are the relationships between attendance on the job and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

Question 4. What are the relationships between job performance and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

Summary and Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter one highlights the importance of employees in the workplace and the challenges that plague an organization when an employee is not engaged. Some of those challenges include decreases in productivity, customer service, and profitability, and increases in employee absenteeism and turnover. As organizations understand these challenges, resources are invested in increasing employee engagement for certain employees, while others are often overlooked. A very important group that is often overlooked is custodial staff members, who are responsible for maintaining cleanliness of facilities. Custodial staff members in this study have challenges when it comes to longevity on the job, attendance, and job performance. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationships between longevity of employment tenure, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university.

Chapter Two provides a review of literature relevant to this dissertation. Chapter Three provided the research methodology for this study including an overview of the population, data collection, instruments utilized, and data analyses conducted. Chapter Four provides a review of the results obtained during the data analysis. Finally, Chapter Five provides a summary of the study, a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications, limitations encountered, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides a review of literature related to this study. The review begins with a brief overview of relevant research that pertains to the current research. A discussion of research that is relevant to the population of focus—custodial staff members—follows. Next, it presents a review of literature related to the dependent variables of the study longevity, attendance, and job performance, and their relationship to the independent variables of age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement. This chapter ends with a discussion of the theoretical framework that was utilized to approach this study.

Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationship to longevity, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university. Employees' roles in organization are critical and can have a huge impact on the productivity and profitability of that entity. While this study focuses on understanding the relationships that can help improve the positive aspects of increasing longevity, improving attendance and improving job performance, a review of literature associated with detrimental impacts of turnover must be covered.

Turnover has been one of the most widely researched topics in organizational literature for many decades. Several researchers have also focused their work on evaluating a number of studies that exist in the literature regarding turnover. Over 36 years ago, Price and Mueller (1981) conducted a study for a casual model on turnover. In that study, Price and Mueller (1981) provided an overview of the extensive amount of literature that was pertinent to turnover literature at the time:

Interest in explaining employee turnover has long been a major concern of organizational scholars (Cornoy, 1957; Long, 1951). The works of Mayo (1924) and Slichter (1919) are

illustrative of the earliest studies. Recently the literature on turnover has become voluminous, and studies may be categorized as one of two types. First, there is the literature that explicitly identifies turnover as the dependent variable to be explained (Bluedorn, 1976; Bowey, 1974; Burton & Parker, 1969; Clowes, 1972; Farris, 1971; Goodman, Salipante, & Paransky, 1973; Knowles, 1964; Lefkowitz, 1971; Martin, 1977; Pencavel, 1970; Pettman, 1973; Porter & Steers, 1973; Schoenherr & Greeley, 1974; Schuh, 1967; Stoikov & Raimon, 1968). Second, there are studies that treat turnover as a component of some more general phenomenon (such as job withdrawal) or depict it as but one of several dependent variables to be explained (Argyris, 1973; Katzell, Korman, & Levine, 1971; Lawler, 1973; Lyons, 1968; March & Simon, 1958; Vroom, 1964). (p. 543)

Since that time, the literature has grown even more. Despite the breadth of research on turnover, there is no perfect solution to fix turnover across any and every type of organization. The most challenging aspect of turnover is managing the unexpected turnovers, especially in high volumes, which cause a delay in productivity and eventually profitability.

In a human resources context, turnover is the act of replacing an employee with a new employee. Employees are replaced in organizations for a number of reasons including: termination, retirement, death, interagency transfers, and resignations (Perez, 2008). Turnover is either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover is the “voluntary cessation of membership of an organization by an employee of that organization” (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001, p. 220). Essentially, employees leave that organization at their own free will. Involuntary turnover is the opposite, and refers to when an employee departs the position/ organization outside of their own request. Morrell, Loan-Clarke, and Wilkinson (2001) state that involuntary turnover is “likely to be more representative of the totality of organizational members than the set of instances of voluntary turnover, where employees have chosen to leave” (pp. 220-221). Since involuntary turnover is often initiated by the organization due to reasons including budget cuts, poor performance, violations of critical policies, or any other reason warranting dismissal, the focus of efforts of reducing turnover should concentrate on voluntary turnover. Being able to

understand voluntary turnover and the influence behind it can help an organization to be better prepared to address it when it occurs and possibly create initiatives to prevent it.

Some aspects of turnover are unavoidable, while others can be avoided. Researchers have looked for ways to reduce the amount of unexpected turnover by recognizing signs of turnover intentions. Turnover intent is defined as the reflection of “the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period” (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2002, p. 1). Individuals’ turnover intentions can be influenced by a number of motivators such as pay, job insecurity, increased workloads, training, external opportunities, lack of job satisfaction, conflict with management, misalignment with the organizations mission and goals, and lack of worthiness in the role. Turnover intentions and actual turnover have also been examined in a number of contexts and studies (Mobley, 1977, Mobley, et al., 1979; Hom & Griffeth, 1991). Turnover intention and actual turnover have been measured independently of one another; however, turnover is expected to increase as the turnover intention increases. It is important for organizations to identify turnover intentions in their employees and the reasons behind them, so turnover can be reduced and in turn longevity can be increased.

Custodial Employees

Research regarding custodial employees at institutions of higher education is nearly non-existent. Some literature on labor unions for “janitors” exists; however, most research regarding this study’s population is found in the fields of hospitality, tourism, and medicine. Despite the difference in work environments, these organizations face similar challenges. Appelbaum, Bernhardt, and Murnane (2006) state that “over the past fifteen years, U.S. hospitals have faced considerable pressure to reduce costs and streamline services, while continuing to provide high quality medical care” (p. 2).

In lieu of reducing costs and streamlining services, managers seek to redesign work processes with the goal of increasing work engagement and reducing turnover. Appelbaum et al. (2006) looked at the impact of changes made to the work processes of low wage, low skill workers in U.S. hospitals. Broadening the job, assigning employees to specific units, and job enhancement all had positive impacts on employee turnover. Appelbaum et al. (2006) also found that participating in a problem-solving team, making pay contingent on performance, and formal and informal training had positive effects on job satisfaction.

Kandampully and Suhartanto (2000) conducted a study of the relationship between customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, and image, as customer loyalty has been recognized as a dominant factor in the success of a business. Customer satisfaction was measured by the impact of reception (desk and receptionist), food and beverage, price, and housekeeping. In the study's results, customer satisfaction with housekeeping was the only factor that significantly impacted customer loyalty and hotel image. Therefore, the researchers strongly recommended that any efforts towards quality improvements should focus primarily on ensuring customer satisfaction with housekeeping. They also mentioned that housekeeping staff members often receive minimal training as compared to that received by receptionist or restaurant staff members in hotels, a priority that should be changed in light of the significant impact that housekeeping has on customer satisfaction and overall loyalty.

Overall, additional research on custodians (housekeepers or janitors) is greatly needed. This population can be found in almost every type of business or organization, a fact that is not represented in the existing literature. Custodians play a vital role in the success of an organization and, with proper training and development, can help an organization increase

productivity and profitability overall. They are found on the front line of any organization and interact with a majority of the customers that enter the organization daily.

Longevity

One of the most important initiatives that a manager should emphasize is the retention of valuable employees who are committed to their job roles and the organizations in which they work. Longevity is a form of perseverance in which an individual remains in one place of employment for an extended period of time, typically for a majority of their career lifespan (Mazerolle, Eason, Lazar, & Mensch, 2016; Gehring, 2002). Research in longevity often looks at a number of aspects that impact longevity such as organizational commitment, career success, engagement, and reasons behind burnout and job turnover.

Allen (2008) stated that “nearly one quarter of all U.S. workers quit their job in 2006, and in some industries the turnover rate was considerably higher” (p. 1). The costs of replacing employees are often omitted from a budget and can have huge implications for an organization’s financial stability. Ton and Huckman (2008) reported that industry studies have estimated the cost of replacing one employee earning \$8 per hour ranges from \$3,500 to \$25,000. Additionally, some of the direct and indirect costs can include include recruitment and selection costs, hiring temporary staff if available, labor hours of management staff who are carrying out various functions due to the vacancy, hampered morale, over-exertion of remaining staff, costs of training new staff members, hindrances to products or service quality, and the loss of social capital (Dess & Shaw, 2001).

It is imperative organizations understand what factors promote and inhibit longevity in the workplace for employees at every level. With respect to this particular study, turnover costs for custodial staff can include the costs of online and print advertisements, labor for scheduling

and conducting interviews, background checks that can vary depending on the number of candidates that are interviewed, labor for human resource employees who complete new hire paperwork and conduct orientations, replacement uniforms, training and the labor associated with training, safety equipment, and overtime pay for employees who must work extra hours to cover the duties of vacant positions while the process to fill them continues (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). Initiatives that support retention and longevity on the job can save even small companies millions of dollars annually (Mathis & Jackson, 2003). In addition to the cost savings, there are a number of reasons why an organization should focus on promoting longevity amongst its employees.

Organizations who have committed personnel with years of longevity not only reduces absenteeism, production losses, and turnover but also leads to a dramatic increase in efficiency through heightened levels of performance, mental freshness of employees, commitment to objectives and the mission, as well as fulfillment of personal goals (Hamidi, Mohammadibakhsh, Soltanian, & Behzadifar, 2017). In addition, organizations with employees who remain long-term, have the benefit of those individuals who can help preserve the culture and traditions that set that particular entity apart from others. Longevity also helps with recruitment of new employees, as it is a positive aspect for a candidate to see individuals who have been in one place for longtime, when they are considering employment with an organization (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). Organizations who have large numbers of new employees, despite several years of being established as a business, can often be a red flag to potential employees. The ability to identify various characteristics of employees who have higher rates of longevity on the job may help to explain why they stay when compared to those who have fewer years in their positions.

Age and Longevity

An organization that promotes the longevity, advancement, and stability of its employees is highly regarded by most job seekers, regardless of how long they intend to stay. Some individuals may begin a job and plan to remain for a year or two, yet they still want the security of a stable environment that promotes longevity in case their plans change and they need to stay longer. Research dating back over fifty years, has shown a strong relationship between age and longevity (Hall & Mansfield, 1975). As time progresses and generations change, it is important to monitor the relationship between these variables. As defined by Ryder (1965), a generation refers to a group of individuals similar in age who have experienced the same historical events within the same time period. As noted by Kowske, Rasch, and Riley, “Managing for generational differences has been a hot topic in literature for more than a decade” (2010, p. 276).

Understanding the relationship between age and longevity in contemporary contexts can be extremely beneficial when designing retention efforts to promote longevity on the job. A clearer understanding of generations with higher turnover allows the identification of additional resources and incentives that appeal to their needs.

Employee needs are likely to vary by age (Seybolt, 1983). Werbel and Bedeian (1989) surveyed over 1100 accountants regarding intentions for turnover. They sought to accomplish two goals: “evaluate the interaction effect of age and performance with intended turnover and determine if age differentially affects the turnover intentions of better and poorer performers” (p. 276). They concluded that age was a significant moderator in the relationship between job performance and intentions for turnover. Older employees with high performance ratings had lower intentions of turnover when compared with younger employees with high performance ratings. Multiple studies have had similar results, finding that older employees who have been in

a position longer are less likely to turnover than young employees (Kellough & Osuna, 1995; Lewis, 1991; Lewis & Park, 1989; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). This disparity could be due to a number of reasons, such as the fear of being unable to find a new job or the comfort of their current roles because they have seen and done it all (Werbel & Bedeian, 1989; Seybolt, 1983). In addition to age, there are other characteristics that can impact longevity and are worthy of further research.

Gender and Longevity

Gender has been included as a variable of interest in a number of studies on turnover. The common hypothesis for several years has been that females were more likely to leave their jobs than males (Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). Burke et al. (2005) "examined the relationship between managerial and professional women's and men's perceptions of organizational values supportive of work-personal life integration and their job experiences, work and non-work satisfaction, and psychological well-being" (p. 53). They found that males displayed a higher length of longevity in their workplace compared to females. Males averaged 9.4 years with their current employer, while females averaged 6.8 years with theirs. Males also had a higher mean in their current job or role when compared to females, at 5.6 years (males) to 4.5 years (females). In the same survey, males had a lower mean for intent to quit (3.4) when compared to females (3.5). Burke et al. (2005) also reported that men had higher job satisfaction (31.6) than women (31.2), which coincides with them having a higher rate of longevity on the job. These findings reflect earlier research that found that women had higher turnover, a situation that was more common when a family could be supported by one income and the mother could stay home with her children. Over time, however, more current studies are finding that women are making up a larger percentage of the workforce, increasing from 43% in 1970 to 59% in 2004 (Bureau of Labor

Statistics, 2005), creating conditions for a trending change for longevity in the workplace between males and females.

Interestingly, the most recent research in this area finds that women are now less likely to leave their jobs than men, results that the researchers attribute, in part, to changes in labor force participation and incentives (Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). As the economy has altered over the past few years, families require dual incomes to financially maintain their households. In 2008, 43% of the families were classified as dual-career couples in the United States; both the wife and husband are employed full-time (Powell, 2010). Stier, Lewin-Epstein, and Braun (2001) state that “women are less likely to exit the workforce after childbirth, as compared to prior years, and that they return to their previous employers or find part-time employment” (p. 1731). Moynihan and Landuyt (2008) conducted a survey of Texas state employees in order to obtain a better understanding of the causes of turnover in the public sector. They also examined the role of gender in relation to turnover and found that females were less likely to leave their jobs than men (p. 135). While gender alone cannot predict the intent of turnover, it can provide clarity on how men and women, working in the same organization, under the same conditions, can react differently to their environment.

Family Status and Longevity

The next demographic variable of interest is family status. According to Korabik and Rosin (1995), “one of several widely held beliefs about employed women, particularly women professionals, is that having a child leads to a reduction in commitment to the organization and in professional attainment” (p. 513). Although their commitment to the organization may be reduced, women are more likely to stay in their current position when they have a child under 18 (47% in 1975 to 71% in 2004) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005). This also applies to men - job

stability, a consistent paycheck, and potential health benefits are appealing incentives for individuals with children to stay in their current roles.

On the other hand, parenthood also has been linked to an increased probability of turnover and reduced job satisfaction due to the conflict between work and family (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997). This conflict could cause increased absenteeism or an inability to meet job demands while balancing home life; therefore, supervisors may apply pressure. Li and Bagger (2011) state that employees experience more job satisfaction and are less likely to leave their job when they receive support from their supervisors.

As research has examined this relationship between family status and longevity, several suggestions have arisen to enhance this relationship. Mabindisa (2003) suggested that:

Employers must try to reconcile employee's family needs with work needs. This may lead to the development of child care center at the organization or institution, or the use of flexi time schedules. The establishment of an onsite sick child bay could also enhance work attendance. According to Jones (2006:34), there is evidence that the introduction of flexible staffing schedules (combination of 8 hour, 12 hour and 4 hours schedules) will reduce staff turnover, because employees can more easily arrange time off for personal and family commitment. (p. 31).

In today's workforce, employees with families are inevitable and the more an organization can accommodate for those resulting needs, the better their results can be in terms of reducing turnover. For the above reasons, family status, and marital status, and their impact on longevity are often researched concurrently.

Marital Status and Longevity

Demanding careers can often limit employees' availability outside of work for dating and personal interactions. Occasionally, a job may require an employee to travel extensively or even temporarily move across the country. The trends toward later and shorter marriages have contributed tremendously to the changing family patterns the last 50 years (Wilson, 2002).

Marital instability has also been gradually increasing. Ahituv & Lerman (2005) stated that “17 percent of men had separated or divorced by age 28; by age 35, 20 percent of women had experienced a second divorce; and about 20 percent of marriages were dissolved during the first 5 years” (p. 221). Through this marital instability, there has been a drastic increase of single parent homes. As of 1998, only about 68 percent of children lived in a home with both of their parents and more than half of all children today, can expect to spend at least some part of their childhood in situation with a single-parent (Lerman, 2002). The children in these single parent homes often see instability as a norm and do not experience or witness the compromise that occurs in a marriage. In turn, those children grow up and repeat the cycles they have seen and often experience high levels of job instability. Ahituv and Lerman (2005) stated:

The high levels of marital instability in the U.S. have been taking place in the context of high levels of job instability. Every month, millions of workers leave one employer and take a job with another employer. It takes young workers a long time to enter a stable career and a long-term relationship with an employer. By the age of 30, high school graduates with no college have already worked for an average of eight employers. Nearly half of all male high school graduates experienced at least one spell of unemployment between ages 25-29 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2000). (p. 221)

Marital Status or simply being married is extremely important for maintaining a culture of longevity within an organization, as individuals today are searching a balance between work and life. As Akram, Malik, Nadeem, and Atta (2014) sum up, “consequently, organizations are trying to manage the working conditions so that an employee can enrich not only his work life and performance, but also his family life” (p. 734). Identifying and managing those work conditions can lead to higher rates of longevity on the job, thereby reducing turnover and the costs associated with it. These assumptions regarding longevity and the four demographic variables of age, gender, family status, and marital status have led to the following hypothesis:

H1. Age, Gender, Family Status, and Marital Status will influence Longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Work Engagement and Longevity

A common theme within organizational research is that engaged workers are less likely to leave their jobs and seek new employment (Halbesleben, 2010; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter 2001; Timms & Brough, 2013). Organizations strive to create a workplace environment and organizational culture that fosters high work engagement amongst its employees. Work engagement also depends on the individual and his or her perception of the work environment. Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) suggested that work engagement is an indicator of an employee's intrinsic motivation. Two individuals who have the same job and work within the same environment, making the same wage, with the same supervisor and co-workers, can have two different levels of work engagement. Employees, who are engaged at work, experience a sense of pride in their roles, find their job to be energizing, time at work passes quickly and they have a sense of personal fulfillment (Timms et al., 2015). Studying work engagement and the factors that influence it can further our understanding of its impact on other facets of a job, such as longevity.

Katz (1978) stated that “social scientists interested in socialization processes have always considered job longevity and organizational longevity to be important situational factors that help shape individual reactions and attitudes” (p. 205). These reactions and attitudes then play an influential role in work engagement, which in turn impacts turnover and organizational longevity in a continuous cycle. Shantz, Alfes, and Latahm (2016) conducted a survey of 175 employees in a manufacturing organization, who participated in two surveys administered 12 months apart. In the first survey, individuals rated their perceptions of organizational support and their level of

work engagement. Twelve months later, all of the employees who participated in the first survey were asked to participate in the second survey, in which they rated their intentions to leave and the frequency in which they engaged in deviant behavior. The researchers found that work engagement was negatively significantly related to turnover intentions amongst these staff members.

In another analysis, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) investigated the impact of burnout and work engagement on turnover intention and health problems. They surveyed 1698 employees from four different organizations (insurance company, occupational health and safety services, pension fund company, and home-care organization) and found that engagement served as a mediator between job resources and turnover intention. These studies support research on the role of work engagement in regard to longevity and turnover, and its use in this study should provide valuable insight. This assumption between work engagement and longevity leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4. Work Engagement will be positively related to Longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Attendance

In addition to turnover, lack of attendance or high absenteeism is cited as one of the top three concerns among HR professionals (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes, & Van Dick, 2007). Work attendance refers to an employee reporting to their job at the designated schedule regardless of outside circumstances, including no or few spells of sick leave regardless of their health condition (Dellve, Hadzibajramovic, & Ahlborg, 2011). Organizations need their employees present at work, fulfilling their job duties, in order to sustain operations and productivity. Dellve, Ericksson and Vilhelmsson (2007) state, “work attendance has been conceptualized as a

consequence of individual choices that may be affected by individual, social, organizational, and societal influences” (p. 72). When absenteeism rises, productivity is impacted due to the inexperience of other employees trying to cover the roles of the absent individuals. In order to minimize the impact of absenteeism, organizations must create initiatives to combat the behavior.

According to Dellve, Ericksson, and Vilhelmsson (2007), an increase in sick leave and workloads, combined with a lack of control over attendance, is the most obvious evidence of the need for these initiatives. To address tardiness and attendance challenges, most organizations generally implement an attendance policy. There are two types of attendance policies commonly adopted: no-fault or discretionary. No-fault attendance policies are “rigidly structured attendance frameworks in which the employer indicates that a designated number of points will be assessed for each attendance, tardiness, or early leave ‘occurrence’ and then designates specific disciplinary action to correspond with various point levels” (Fries, 2010, p. 15). Some employers have found a no-fault policy to be an effective model, as it decreases absences and increases productivity, while others find that their employees have identified ways to manipulate the system.

Discretionary attendance policies are flexible in addressing attendance problems, allowing the employer to use his or her discretion and consider the circumstances of the tardiness or absence before taking disciplinary action (Fries, 2010). In this study, the university observed uses the discretionary approach to address attendance issues, but, similar to most cases, it has not been found to be very effective when trying to correct behavior or hold employees accountable for their attendance (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). It is very beneficial to organizations if they can identify the various characteristics of employees who have

higher rates of attendance as it can contribute to an understanding of absenteeism, as well as direct initiatives for correcting it.

Age and Attendance

Age has been extensively researched in relation to attendance and absenteeism. When considering different age groups, most individuals would assume that older employees would have higher levels of absenteeism. This assumption is actually the opposite of what the research suggests, which is that younger employees have higher levels of absenteeism (Tenhiala et al., 2013). The Department of Labor Statistics Report for 2013 reported that individuals aged sixteen to nineteen have the highest absentee rate (3.8) and individuals age 55 and older have the second highest (3.4). Bockerman and Laukkanen (2009) examined the frequency of sickness absenteeism and sickness presenteeism, which is essentially the comparison of those who do not attend work while sick versus those who do attend work while sick. They surveyed 725 union workers and looked at the relationships between sickness absenteeism and presenteeism, in conjunction with variables including age, gender, family status, economical status, education, and work time arrangements (permanent full time, working hours match, shift work, and regular overtime). They concluded that older employees (more than 50 years old) are less absent while sick, than those in younger age groups.

Tenhiala et al. (2013) stated that “the general inverse relationship between age and absenteeism can be explained by the person-environment fit perspective, which posits that people select environments compatible with their behavioral tendencies” (p. 808). If an individual works at an organization that has a strict attendance policy and his or her behavioral tendency is to prefer periodic days off, a conflict will be likely, which could lead to turnover.

Unfortunately, an organization's culture regarding attendance and absenteeism may not be clearly understood until after an individual is hired, thus creating short-term turnover.

Organizations must understand the trends associated with age and attendance, so that they can effectively explain their expectations early in the hiring process and avoid unexpected costs over the long term.

Gender and Attendance

The relationship between gender and attendance also can help organizations when they address absenteeism. Organizations cannot discriminate against gender when hiring, but they can create initiatives to promote attendance. The relationship between gender and attendance has been studied extensively and the findings have been relatively consistent. When it pertains to gender and attendance, women have higher absentee rates than males with a score of 4.1 to 2.3 (United States Department of Labor, 2013). The role of gender in work related health research is of great importance, especially since 80% of employees within education, health care and social services are women (Dellve, Ericksson, & Vilhelmsson, 2007).

Dionne and Dostie (2007) conducted a study that extended the typical labor-leisure model used to analyze the decision to skip work to include firm-level policy variables relevant to the absenteeism decision and uncertainty about its cost. They found that the rate of absence is generally higher for women than for men; specifically, female employees were absent 30% more than their male counterparts. Barmby (2002) conducted a study at an industrial firm to analyze the effects of absenteeism on organizations. Similar results were obtained, namely, a higher rate of absenteeism for women.

In another study, the opposite results were received. Bekker, Croon, and Bressers (2005) conducted a study to "investigate the role of several gender-relevant variables, particularly

childcare obligations, job characteristics, and work attitudes in emotional exhaustion and sickness absence in 404 male and female nurses in an institution for people with learning difficulties” (p.221). Emotional exhaustion had a positive significant effect on sickness absences for both genders. In the results of this study, men actually had higher sickness absences than women. Despite this finding, Patton and Johns (2007) discuss that studies that focus on sickness absences may tend to find conflicting results due to the focus on only the individuals’ personal absences and not other types of leave such as annual that may be taken when an employee has a sick child. This will be an interesting aspect to focus on in relation to custodial staff.

Family Status and Attendance

The next variable of interest is family status. A common perception is that individuals with children tend to be absent more frequently as they must take off work when their children are sick, have scheduled appointments, or have school functions. Employees can often become internally stressed alone, without pressures from work, trying to balance both responsibilities, often known as work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is commonly defined as an inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from work and family are mutually irreconcilable (Demerouti, Bouwman, & Sanz-Vergel, 2011). On top of their own pressure, organizations may place additional pressure on employees with families who have high absenteeism. It may be direct pressure through enforcement of attendance policies, or indirectly through being passed over for promotion.

The dynamic amongst this relationship is highly researched in a number of areas. Scott and McClellan (1990) examined the characteristics and attitudes of secondary school teachers to determine if men and women had different reasons for being absent. They concluded that the number of dependents was positively related to absenteeism for both men and women. Allen

(1981) developed a model to test various hypotheses concerning absenteeism. He also found that family size was positively correlated with absences, particularly for women. Korabik and Rosin (1995) conducted a study of 169 female MBAs who had children to see if being a parent reduced their organizational commitment and involvement in their work. The results showed no differences in net expectations or turnover, but did show lower job involvement and lower attendance rates. In a more recent study, Dionne and Dostie (2007) did not find that women with children had higher levels of absenteeism; perhaps childcare is more equally shared now than in past years.

Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) conducted a study that examined the relationships among employer supported child care, work/family conflict and absenteeism. The study consisted of 253 respondents from a pool of 952 employees who were parents of children five years or younger. The results demonstrated that “supportive supervision and satisfaction with child care arrangements (regardless of location) were related to less work/family conflict” (p. 793). Additionally, it was concluded that less work/family conflict was related to higher levels of attendance. This aspect is beneficial when employers are developing initiatives to increase attendance amongst individuals with family responsibilities.

Marital Status and Attendance

Marital status is the final demographic variable reviewed in relation to attendance. A number of studies have examined the impact of marital status on attendance or absenteeism. A common perception is that married individuals have better attendance at work verses those who are single. If these individuals are parents, that can increase even more because a married individual can split the responsibilities causing them to miss work with a spouse, verses a single parent who has no one to split the responsibilities with. Larger organizations have begun to offer

child care facilities on site to help reduce absences of their employees, especially for those unmarried.

Most of the research findings have been consistent, in that marital status reduces absenteeism. Clegg, Wall, and Kemp (1987) determined that married women had fewer absences than single women. This particular finding could result if the individual is a single parent versus a married female who can split time away from work due to children with her husband. Dionne and Dostie (2007) found that being married reduced absenteeism. Considering the findings for both marital status and family status, employees may be able to balance family and work better than they have before. Examining these variables will be very informative to this study and the assumptions from previous studies have led to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2. Age, Gender, Family Status, and Marital Status will influence Attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Work Engagement and Attendance

As it pertains to engagement and its relationship to attendance, research tends to lean toward the idea that “engaged” employees have higher attendance rates than those who are less engaged (Kahn, 1990). Attendance is directly related to productivity in almost all organizations, thus it is imperative to understand the factors that impact employee attendance. Diestel, Wegge and Schmidt (2014) reiterated that fact and stated, “given the high costs of losses in productivity resulting from absenteeism and the theoretical complexity of attitudes toward work and withdrawals from work, scholars and managers continue to devote their attention to the effects of work-related attitudes on absenteeism” (2014, p. 353). Although research on attendance dates back many decades, it continues to be a popular area of research as organizations and employees evolve over time and absenteeism still ranks among the top challenges in organizations.

Through this research, there are several concepts and assumptions that evolve despite the extensive history of attendance research. Soane et al. (2013) conducted a study to help develop a framework for explaining employee absences. They collected surveys from 625 UK support service employees and collected data regarding their attendance patterns from the human resource manager. They found that meaningful work increases engagement, and that engagement is associated with low levels of absenteeism.

Marco (2016) focused on research conducted by the Gallup research group in Germany. The study looked at the impact of engagement on absenteeism and the results indicated that absenteeism was 67% higher amongst individuals who were disengaged versus those engaged.

Hoxsey (2010) used a construct of engagement to test whether different levels of engagement had any effect on the amount of sick time an employee incurred. Specifically, the author looked at whether there was any correlation between the amount of sick time used and an individual's level of engagement. He proposed that there is an inverse negative relationship between the two: as job engagement increased, sick time used decreased. The results were statistically significant supporting his hypothesis. In general, the research suggests that if organizations can cultivate initiatives to increase the work engagement of their employees, attendance should improve. This assumption led to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Work engagement will be positively related to attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Job Performance

Kahya (2009) stated, "perhaps, the most important dependent variable in industrial and organizational psychology is job performance" (p. 96). Essentially, job performance is a measure of how well a person performs their job. How an employee performs their job has a direct impact

on the productivity of an organization. Managers are often looking for ways to increase their productivity through the use of new products, processes or technologies, but until there is a virtual employee, there must be some level of focus on actual job performance. Research in human resources and other fields have consistently focused on how to improve job performance within organizations.

The way in which job performance is measured has evolved over the years. Traditionally, job performance was associated with a defined list of tasks, all of which were often included in an employee's job description. Currently, job performance is assessed dually, with respect to job tasks and with respect to context. Contextual performance is defined as individual efforts, outside of basic job functions, that are instrumental in shaping the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes (Werner, 2000). Examples of contextual performance could include helping co-workers with their tasks, serving on committees within the organization, volunteering for additional work, and offering feedback on organizational goals or directives.

Both task performance and contextual performance can help increase an organization's effectiveness. Task performance contributes to organizational effectiveness on many levels; employees carry out the processes that take materials and turn them into a product; employees provide the necessary services to keep the organization operating; and organizations conduct the maintenance necessary to upkeep the machinery or facilities (Kaya, 2009). Contextual performance contributes to organizational effectiveness through supporting various organizational, social, and psychological functions necessary for the tasks to be performed (Kaya, 2009). An understanding of the factors that drive job performance and how they interact

with various demographic and categorical variables can offer great insight into problems that occurred at the institution in this study.

Age and Job Performance

Sturman (2003) conducted an extensive meta-analysis to explore non-linear relationships between job experience, organizational tenure, employee age, and job performance. He found that age was positively related to job performance at a young age but negatively related to performance at an older age (more than 49 years old); therefore younger individuals performed at higher levels than older individuals. Rhodes (1983) found that older individuals performed more poorly than younger individuals on a testing instrument that looked at monitoring and controlling attention, suppressing irrelevant information, utilizing analytical reasoning, and updating information in working memory. All of these characteristics are important for job performance, thus indicating that the cognitive ability of younger individuals is better or stronger than that of older individuals.

Lee (2016) “conducted a survey with 167 public-service employees in the United States, classifying them as younger adults (25 to 44 years old) and older adults (45 to 65 years old), and examined how performance of work requiring emotional labor mediates employee age by using an individual’s pride in their job as a criterion variable” (p. 1339). Lee’s study yield results that indicated age was positively related to better job performance requiring emotional labor. Thus older individuals performed better than younger individuals. The contrast in results signify the impact that the nature of a job can impact whether younger or older individuals have better performance, therefore understanding this relationship for custodial staff will provide valuable insight.

Gender and Job Performance

Gender and job performance is another relationship that has been researched extensively. Timmers, Fischer, and Manstead (1998) tested the assumption that gender differences in emotional expression are based on differences in the motives held by men and women in social interactions. Their findings suggested that “men and women have different motivations for regulating their emotions. Specifically, they suggest that men are motivated to remain in control and display emotions that display power, such as pride or anger, while women are more concerned with relationships and more likely to display emotions that express negotiation” (Timmers, Fischer, & Manstead, 1998, p. 974).

Bernardi (2008) examined the attitudes of 713 business students from seven countries, finding that females had higher achievement levels at work than males. O’Neil (2008) concluded that males have better work performance than females in an examination of the state of women’s careers at the dawn of the 21st century. As this research demonstrates, the relationship between gender and job performance can vary depending on situation. Identifying the relationship between these variables in the target population will provide guidance on increasing the performance of lower performers through training and other initiatives, while continuing to support the higher performers.

Family Status and Job Performance

Family status is another important variable to consider when examining job performance. Years ago, women would be work aside for the sake of their families. Women with partners and children were more likely to devalue their work interests and place a higher priority on family than men did (Bielby & Bielby, 1992). Smith-Lovin and Tickamyer (1978) stated married women were more likely to work if they had fewer children. Today, the cost of living almost

dictates that families have a dual-earning income. The question still remains whether a married family with dual earning income has better job performance than a single individual who may have more flexibility to work late hours pending they do not have children.

Tharenou (2008) developed a theoretical model predicting how gender and family status would influence employee willingness to expatriate (live in a country other than that of their current citizenship), international job search behavior, and expatriation decisions and tested the model in a longitudinal investigation. He surveyed Australian employees comprised of 230 females and 401 males with partners and/or children and 208 female and male childless singles. The surveys were administered three times over a three-year period. The results of his study show that employees who are more willing to expatriate are those who have greater personal agency and fewer family barriers. Conversely, both males and females with families were less likely to move with their jobs. Recognizing the impact that family status has on job performance can enable management to create initiatives that strengthen job performance among lower performers.

Marital Status and Job Performance

Research varies regarding the relationship between marital status and job performance. Married men lead more settled lives, potentially increasing their tenure in a job through better job performance (Waite & Gallagher, 2000). In their roles as providers, married men are more likely than unmarried men to encounter and internalize norms such as hard work, obedience to superiors, and achievement that make them better workers (Gorman, 1999). In some studies, married employees have been found to be more satisfied with their jobs than are their unmarried coworkers, which in turn promoted higher job performance (Azim, Haque, & Chowdhury, 2013).

The reason behind this could be that marriage imposes increased responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important.

Evbuoma (2013) examined the impact of marital status on women's job performance while benefiting from women-friendly support services (WFSS). Evbuoma surveyed 860 females drawn from services, manufacturing, and distributive organizations about their perceptions of the support services. In addition, their supervisors rated their overall job performances on the basis of enthusiasm, organization, foresight, reliability under pressure, foresight, and a multitude of other aspects. His findings revealed no significant difference between the job performances of married and of single women. Despite the conflicting results received from the research between job performance and the demographic variables of this study (age, gender, family status and marital status), the following hypothesis was made:

Hypothesis 3: Age, Gender, Family Status, and Marital Status will influence Job Performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Work Engagement and Job Performance

Employers are interested in identifying significant relationships amongst variables that drive job performance to the desired levels yielding high productivity. Work engagement is another important variable that has been researched in conjunction with job performance. The notion of work engagement has gained the attention of organizations because of its connection to individual and organizational performance outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Research conducted in a wide array of organizations has shown that individuals who are engaged in their work are more likely to display higher work performance. Bakker (2011) stated that there are four reasons why engaged workers perform better than those non-engaged:

First, engaged employees often experience positive emotions, including gratitude, joy, and enthusiasm. These positive emotions seem to broaden people's thought-action

repertoire, implying that they constantly work on their personal resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Second, engaged workers experience better health. This means that they can focus and dedicate all their skills and energy resources to their work. Third, engaged employees create their own job and personal resources. Finally, engaged workers transfer their engagement to others in their immediate environment. (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009, p. 267)

Understanding these factors that explain why engaged employees do perform better, and as a result organizations are delving into ways to enhance the level of work engagement amongst their staff to yield higher productivity.

Researchers are further examining the relationship of work engagement and job performance along with other variables they believe to have an impact on this relationship. Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, and Heuvel (2015) examined the process through which leader-member exchange (LMX) is related to followers' job performance and work engagement. The authors hypothesized that a positive relationship between LMX and employee job performance is sequentially mediated by employee work engagement. They surveyed 847 Dutch police officers and found that "employees in high-quality LMX relationships work in a more resourceful work environment that, in turn, facilitates high work engagement and job performance" (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Heuvel, 2015, p. 754).

Another study conducted by Bal and De Lange (2015) investigated the effects of flexibility human resource management (HRM) on employee outcomes over time. Work engagement was used as a moderator in this relationship. Their study was based on the work adjustment theory and Ability, Motivation and Opportunities (AMO) theory. They hypothesized that the use of flexibility HRM would be positively related to employee engagement, as well as higher job performance. "A longitudinal study among US employees and a study among employees in 11 countries across the world showed that engagement mediated the relationships between availability of flexibility HRM and job performance" (Bal & De Lange, 2015, p. 126).

Often, individuals tend to over-work themselves in an effort to display high levels of work engagement to managers. This can often have an opposite impact, which was the focus of a study conducted by Shimazu and Kamiyama (2015). Their study investigated the distinctiveness of two types of heavy work investment (workaholism and work engagement) by examining their 2-year longitudinal relationships with employee well-being and job performance. They surveyed 1196 employees at a Japanese company. The results were as expected; “workaholism was related to an increase in ill-health” (Shimazu & Kamiyama, 2015, p. 18). Based on these assumptions, the following hypothesis was made regarding work engagement and job performance:

Hypothesis 6: Work Engagement will be positively related to Job Performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Conceptual Framework

Based on the complexity of the variables in this dissertation, the conceptual framework encompassed a number of models and theories to help explain the relationships that were examined. Equity theory and three models for employee turnover and absence were used to explain the relationships among variables in this study.

Equity Theory developed by John Stacy Adams in 1963, focuses on the balance between the “employee’s inputs, such as hard work, skill level, tolerance or enthusiasm and an employer’s outputs, such as salary, benefits or intangibles issues” (Perez, 2008, p. 21). One thing that is evident in all organizations is that there must be a balance of give and take between the employee and the employer. Different factors can impact each individual’s assessment of fairness when it comes to the give and take between them and the employer. Those factors are likely influenced by age, gender, family status, and marital status, as the factors are extremely influential on their basic life needs. The hope is that the results of this study will guide future

research to expand the institution's understanding of what aspects works well for custodial staff members and which organizational facets need modifications to meet their needs, goals and desires in order in increase longevity, attendance, and performance.

The first model explained the role of longevity (or lack thereof) and its relationship with employee turnover and job satisfaction. Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979) created a model for employee turnover that helps explain the role of longevity (or lack thereof) and its relationship with job satisfaction and other independent variables included in this dissertation. Mobley et al. (1979) proposed a theoretical causal process to explain a phenomenon that contains four core antecedents connected to employee turnover. First, the demographic characteristics influence a person's decision of whether or not to leave a job. Second, job dissatisfaction impacts an intellectual withdrawal process emphasizing turnover intention. Third, work environment factors considerably shape employee job satisfaction, which in turn shapes turnover intention. Lastly, turnover intent influences actual voluntary turnover (Mobley et al., 1979). The demographic characteristics' influence on turnover in the first portion of this model has a direct relation to the demographical characteristics relationship to longevity in this study. Employee longevity benefits the institution through effective use of time and good stewardship of money, while at the same time strengthening the knowledge base and overall expertise of the staff members who remain. Truly understanding the motivations of those employees who stay cannot be fully grasped without also understanding the influences that cause employees to leave.

The second model explained an employee's motivation for attendance or lack thereof, thus leading to excessive absenteeism. Nicholson (1977) proposed a model for the analysis and prediction of employee absences. He proposed an A-B Continuum in which the construct of 'attachment' is introduced as a means of measuring attendance motivation, and its four main

constituents are specified. The first is personality traits which are associated with the characteristics of the individual include age, gender, family, and marital status. The second constituent is work orientation, which takes into account the employees work history, endurance, need system, and personality. The third is work involvement, which is related to the design of work and job setting. Lastly is the employment relationship shaped by the design and impact of organizational control systems such as pay, incentives, and a cohesive climate of attitudes and behaviors. Those employees with a high attachment to their role will have higher attendance and will only miss work for extreme issues on the A side of the continuum. Those with lower attachment to their jobs and low attendance motivation will miss work for issues ranging from A to B on the continuum (Nicholson, 1977). This model clearly depicts the importance of age, gender, family, and marital status in relation to attendance and understanding an employee's motivation to come to work.

The third and final model explained various job characteristics that can impact job performance. According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), a job characteristic can be defined as an aspect of a job that produces ideal circumstances for high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed five core job characteristics that all jobs should contain: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Hackman and Oldham also identified four work and personal outcomes: growth satisfaction, internal work motivation, work effectiveness and general satisfaction. Job characteristics play a huge part in an individual's overall performance and should be considered with looking for enhancement initiatives. Job performance is directly connected to the advancement of the institution and the quality of service provided to its

customers. Through these models and theories, a framework has been comprised to drive this study and future research that may grow from this study.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of key concepts and constructs in the current study through a literature review and six hypotheses.

One of the most important initiatives that a manager should emphasize is the retention of valuable employees who are committed to their job roles and the organizations in which they work, thus increasing job longevity. Research has shown a strong relationship, dating back over fifty years, between age and longevity (Hall & Mansfield, 1975). Gender has also been researched extensively, although the results have been conflicting over the years. Family status and marital status, and their impact on longevity, are often researched concurrently. Like gender, the results have varied due to several circumstances in a given work environment that may impact one's family status or marital status in a different way. Lastly, work engagement is another well-researched topic in regards to longevity. A common theme within organizational research is that engaged workers are less likely to leave their jobs and seek new employment (Halbesleben, 2010; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter 2001; Timms & Brough 2013). The ability to identify various characteristics of employees who have higher rates of longevity on the job may help to explain why they stay when compared to those who have lower rates.

In addition to turnover, high absenteeism is cited as one of the top three concerns among HR professionals (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes, & Van Dick, 2007). Age has been extensively researched in relation to attendance and absenteeism; the research suggests, which is that younger employees have higher levels of absenteeism (Tenhiala et al., 2013). The relationship between gender and attendance also can help organizations when they address absenteeism.

When it pertains to gender and attendance, women have higher absentee rates than males. In terms of family status and marital status, the results in the literature have also been fairly consistent. The number of dependents is positively related to absenteeism, as well as a “married” marital status helps increase attendance. As it pertains to engagement and its relationship to attendance, research tends to lean toward the idea that “engaged” employees have higher attendance rates than those who are less engaged (Kahn, 1990).

Kahya (2009) stated, “perhaps, the most important dependent variable in industrial and organizational psychology is job performance” (p. 96). Research regarding age and job performance tends to lead towards higher performance for younger individuals, verses older ones. Gender and job performance have also been extensively researched and there have been conflicting results depending on the nature of the job and other related variables. Family status and marital status in relation to job performance also vary depending on circumstances, as seen in the research. Lastly, work engagement and job performance is another relationship that is commonly examined. Research conducted in a wide array of organizations has shown that individuals who are engaged in their work are more likely to display higher work performance.

Research regarding custodial employees at institutions of higher education is nearly non-existent. Some literature on labor unions for “janitors” exists; however, most research regarding this study’s population is found in the fields of hospitality, tourism, and medicine. Overall, additional research on custodians (housekeepers or janitors) is greatly needed. This population can be found in almost every type of business or organization, a fact that is not represented in the existing literature. Figure 2 illustrates the hypotheses model based on the literature review.

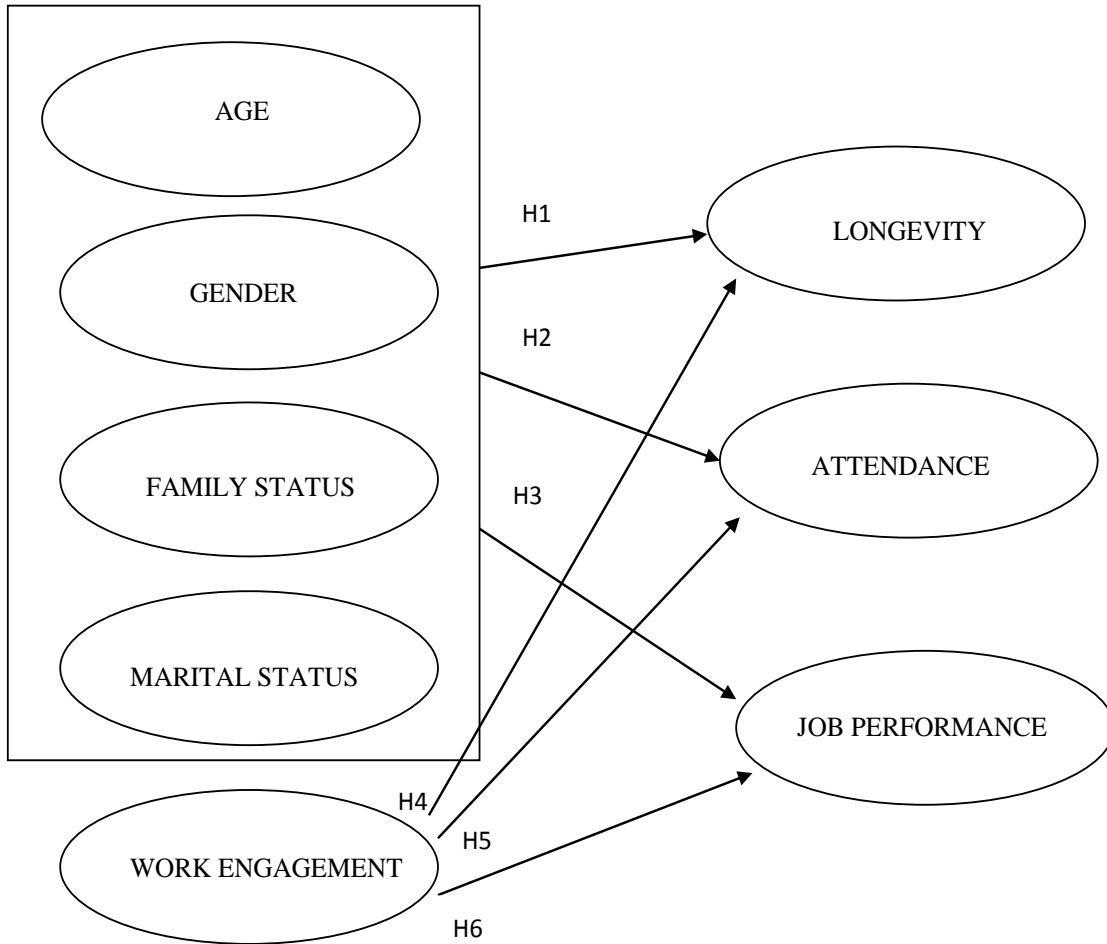


Figure 2 Hypothesized Model

Six hypotheses proposed in this study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 2. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence Attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 3. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 4. Work engagement will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 5. Work engagement will influence attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 6. Work engagement will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This chapter describes the processes utilized to answer the research questions for this dissertation. The structure of this chapter includes the following sections: (a) population/sample, (b) research design; (c) instrumentation; (d) data collection; (e) coding; (f) data analysis; and (g) data screening. Several univariate simple linear regressions were conducted and inferential and descriptive statistical approaches were utilized to analyze the data.

Population/Sample

The target population for this study was custodial staff members at public institutions of higher learning. The sample was drawn from the accessible population of custodial staff members within four departments at the singular institution of study: Facilities, Student Union, Student Recreation Center, and Housing. Custodial staff members in Facilities clean and maintain the classrooms, laboratories, and administrative offices in the academic buildings. Custodians for the Student Union clean and maintain all spaces contained within that facility, which includes retail space, food venues, meeting rooms, restrooms, and open seating areas. Custodians for the Student Recreation Center clean and maintain the spaces within that facility, which includes work out equipment and machines, locker rooms, and small aerobics classrooms, as well as maintain the floors of basketball courts and high traffic areas. In Housing, custodial staff members clean all residential facilities on campus, which includes twenty residence halls and two apartment complexes. Custodial supervisory staff members were not included as subjects in this study due the fact that they make more money and have different work roles than that of a traditional custodian. Also, custodial supervisory staff members completed job performance rating surveys on their employees who participated in this study.

This study yielded 259 responses, which accommodated for 80% of the available positions (324), and a 95% response rate of all custodians employed at the time of the study, which was 274 individuals. In total, 324 custodial positions exist for the four departments, not including custodial supervisory positions. Facilities department has 175 positions; the Student Union has 14 positions; the Student Recreation Center has six positions; and Housing has 129 positions. All of these positions were not filled and all employees were not accessible at the time of the study. Fifty positions were vacant at the time of this study amongst the four departments, thus there were only 274 individuals employed as custodians at the time. In addition, seven individuals were out for critical illness, workplace related injuries, maternity leave, and another Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) qualifying event, thus preventing them from being present for the duration of the study. Four individuals had language barriers that prevented them from participating, 3 employees refused to participate in the study, and one individual worked at a satellite campus far from the main campus and was unreachable.

Demographic information was collected for the 259 participants in this study and is presented in Figure 3, along with their longevity on the job. There were almost twice as many females (65.3%) as there were male participants (33.9%). In terms of marital status, participants could select from six options: single, married, separated, divorced, widowed, or single but living with significant other. Over half of the participants in this study were single (56.8%). Family status information was also collected, and approximately 45% of participants did not have children or they had children and no longer provided any financial support. Over 54% of the participants still provided support for some or all of their children, ranging from one child to five or more children. The age of participants was also collected, and the largest age range of participants was 50-59 years old (39.8%), followed by 40-49 years old (17%). Lastly, Figure 3

also includes participants' longevity on the job. Over half (50.2%) of the participants in this study had been in their current position as a custodian with the institution between 0-59 months, less than five years. 31% of the entire group had been in their position less than two years.

		Total		Males		Female		Transgender	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Total		259	100.0%	88	33.9%	169	65.3%	2	0.80%
Marital Status	Single	147	56.8%	46	52.3%	100	59.2%	1	50.0%
	Married	69	26.7%	28	31.8%	40	23.7%	1	50.0%
	Separated	7	2.7%	3	3.4%	4	2.3%	0	0.0%
	Divorced	15	5.8%	3	3.4%	12	7.1%	0	0.0%
	Widowed	13	5.0%	2	2.3%	11	6.5%	0	0.0%
	Single but living with significant other	8	3.0%	6	6.8%	2	1.2%	0	0.0%
Family Status	No children	65	25.1%	35	39.8%	29	17.2%	1	50.0%
	Children- no financial support	53	20.5%	10	11.4%	43	25.4%	0	0.0%
	Children- financial support 1-2	92	35.5%	29	32.9%	62	36.7%	1	50.0%
	Children- financial support 3-4	44	17.0%	10	11.4%	34	20.1%	0	0.0%
	Children- financial support 5 or more	5	1.9%	4	4.5%	1	0.6%	0	0.0%
Age	29 and younger	35	13.5%	17	19.3%	18	10.6%	0	0.0%
	30-39	40	15.4%	14	15.9%	25	14.8%	1	50.0%
	40-49	44	17.0%	14	15.9%	30	17.8%	0	0.0%
	50-59	103	39.8%	30	34.1%	72	42.6%	1	50.0%
	60-69	32	12.4%	11	12.5%	21	12.4%	0	0.0%
	70 and older	5	1.9%	2	2.3%	3	1.8%	0	0.0%
Longevity	0-23 months (less than 2 years)	80	30.9%	28	31.8%	51	30.1%	1	50.0%
	24-59 months (2-5years)	50	19.3%	15	17.1%	35	20.7%	0	0.0%
	60-119 months (5-10 years)	43	16.6%	13	14.8%	30	17.8%	0	0.0%
	120-179 months (10- 15 years)	39	15.1%	19	21.6%	20	11.8%	0	0.0%
	180-299 months (15-25 years)	42	16.2%	12	13.6%	29	17.2%	1	50.0%

Figure 3 Demographic Information for an Accessible Population of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Research Design

The research design of this study followed a Correlational design. Correlational research is intended to determine if relationships exist among the variables and to allow for the prediction

of future events from the current findings obtained (Strangor, 2011). One limitation of correlational research, that is important to highlight, is that it cannot be used to make assumptions about the causal relationships between and amongst the variables. One of the initial components of Correlational research is to describe your sample by presenting descriptive statistics (mean, median, mode, standard deviation). Descriptive statistics addressed the first research question of this study which was to describe the target population. Several univariate simple linear regressions were used to identify differences among longevity, attendance, and job performance according to age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement in the other three research questions. Lastly, three ANOVAs and one independent-samples t-test were conducted to compare the variance between the groups within each variable.

Instrumentation

The instruments in this study are the UWES-17, employee demographic survey, and a job performance survey. The instruments used a couple of different Likert scales to best meet the need of the research. There were a total of 21 questions that participants were asked to complete, and supervisors were asked to answer one question for each employee.

Demographics

The first instrument was created by the researcher to gather information on gender, family status, and marital status. For the variable of gender, individuals were asked to circle male, female, or transgender. In an effort to be inclusive, transgender was listed as a choice, but the scale was not expanded any further in order to keep the instrument simplistic and brief. Next, participants were asked to circle single, married, separated, divorced, widowed, or single but living with their significant other for their marital status. Lastly, for family status, the participants were asked if they had children (yes or no), and if yes, how many children or

dependents were they still financially supporting. At the top of the survey, participants were asked to record their names so that their responses could be entered into SPSS correctly and could be matched with their job performance scores, longevity, age, work engagement scores, and attendance. Participants were assured that their names were deleted after the data was input and verified. (See Appendix B for a copy of this instrument.)

Work Engagement

The second instrument was utilized to obtain a measurement for work engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), composed of seventeen items (UWES-17), was utilized for this study and was initially created by Schaufeli and Bakker in 1999 (2003) (See Appendix C). The authors define work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p.74-75). These three variables establish the core of this instrument and they further define them out as:

Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work. (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Baker, 2002, p.74-75)

Based on those definitions, the authors compiled a list of questions to assess each of these aspects. Vigor is assessed by six items, dedication by five items and absorption by six items, making up the 17 item instrument. These subscales were combined to measure the overall level of work engagement.

The instrument in this study has been tested for factorial validity which is sound, and the internal consistency is high with values of Cronbach’s ranging between 0.80 and 0.90, which is

above the commonly accepted 0.70 or higher. Cronbach's alpha is a measure that explains how closely related a set of items are as a group.

Job Performance

The third instrument, a measure of job performance, was designed by the researcher in order to mirror the annual job performance evaluation completed each year for every employee at the institution. The self-created scale measured job performance on a five point rating scale (Needs Improvement-1, Successful-3, Exceptional-5, and 2/4 are blank points between the defined points). This particular scale was almost identical to the scale used by the institution to rate all employees at the time of this dissertation; the institution's scale was Needs Improvement -1, Successful -2, and Exceptional – 3. The design was established to create a sense of familiarity for the supervisors, as well as provide an instrument that could be completed quickly and accurately considering each supervisor would have several instruments to complete based on their number of staff members participating in the study.

Supervisors were encouraged to give each individual a “true” rating based on all aspects of the job, including performance, attendance, decision making, customer service, overall attitude, and dependability. At this particular institution, it is not uncommon for a supervisor to rate a staff member as “successful”, even if his or her true performance “needs improvement.” This inflation primarily occurs because evaluations are tied to annual raises and also become a part of employees' official work records, so some supervisors do not want to “hurt” an employee and hold him or her back from a much needed raise (J. Branch, HR Specialist, personal communication, May 1, 2016). It was critical to control for this threat in order to obtain valid data on job performance. (See Appendix D for the instrument utilized to gather job performance

data from supervisors and see Appendix E for a sample Job Performance Evaluation utilized at this institution annually).

Data Collection

Prior to starting data collection, this study was approved through a full review with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Louisiana State University (See Appendix H). Several steps were taken to preserve the anonymity of the participants. Information was gathered for the dependent variables (Longevity, Attendance, and Job Performance) and independent variables (Age, Gender, Family Status, Marital Status, and Work Engagement). To determine the employees' longevity and age, information was retrieved from the university's human resource database system. As it pertains to longevity, the employee's length of service was provided in the database as the total number of years, months, and days. The number of years was converted to months and the days were rounded to the nearest month, 1-15 days were rounded down and 16-30/31 days were rounded up. All time was added and longevity for each employee was reported in months. For age, the database also provided the total number of years, months, and days for each employee. The days were rounded to the nearest month, in the same fashion as longevity (1-15 days were rounded down and 16-30/31 days were rounded up). The months were then rounded down to the closest year for 1-6 months and up to the closest year for 7 months or above.

In the next phase of data collection, information concerning gender, work engagement, family status, and marital status were collected via questionnaires that were distributed in small meetings within each department; each were attended by no more than 15 individuals. There were a total of 56 small meetings amongst all areas, as some meetings were as small as one individual for make-up sessions when an individual missed the initial small group meeting with

the rest of their co-workers. Small meetings were crucial for explaining the study, answering questions, reassuring the participants concerning the confidentiality of their responses, and providing the research consent form once they agreed to participate (See Appendix F for the research consent form filled out by employees). A mailed survey would not work with this group for a number of reasons, such as frequent changes in address, comprehension challenges, and general disregard of the survey. An emailed survey also would be ineffective due to the lack of computer literacy among certain portions of this population, limited access to computers inside and outside of work, and limited access to the internet outside of work.

Job performance ratings were obtained from each employee's supervisor in one-on-one meetings; the supervisor also filled out a consent form once agreeing to participate (See Appendix G for the research form filled out by the supervisor). Each supervisor was asked to rate all of their employees, which ranged from 2 to 18 individuals. Meetings with the supervisors were one-on-one to facilitate personal interactions and to assure the supervisor of the confidentiality of their responses, as well as the responses of their employees if they elected to participate in the study. The instrument was administered in December 2016, which was a few months after the supervisors completed the annual evaluations for their employees in August/September, and one month before the supervisors began preparation for the mid-year evaluations due in February. The original timeline was for August/ September but it was delayed due to a natural disaster that occurred in the area and impacted a large number of individuals and their families in the city, at the institution, and in the accessible population. The actual timeline used was still beneficial in terms of accuracy, as the supervisors were in the process of reviewing each employee's file for the past six months to provide a mid-year evaluation for them per the

university's requirements. Therefore, the supervisors were able to give responses based on current reviews of their files, versus responses provided abruptly.

Attendance data was obtained from leave reports in the database, via a member in each department's upper management for the custodial staff. The total number of hours was divided by the number of months worked throughout a three month timeframe. This provided an average number of hours missed per month, in order to minimize the impact of extenuating circumstance that could occur during one given month. The reports that were collected were for the months of September, October, and November for most employees except for staff members who were impacted by the natural disaster in late August. For those individuals, reports were collected for October, November, and December. Lastly, reports were collected for any individuals who had been employed for less than three months. The total hours missed was also added and then were divided by 1 or 2, pending on their length of employment.

The absenteeism reports utilized for the variable of attendance indicated the number of annual, sick, and compensatory leave hours taken per time period for the particular year. For the purpose of this study, the following types of leave have been defined on the institution's website but will not be cited for anonymity. Annual Leave is leave with pay granted to an employee for the purpose of rehabilitation, restoration, and maintenance of work efficiency, Family and Medical Leave (FMLA) for qualifying individuals other than the employee, or the transaction of any personal affairs. Sick Leave is leave with pay granted an employee who is suffering with a disability as a result of accident, illness, psychological problems, or childbearing which prevents the employee from performing usual duties and responsibilities or who requires medical, dental, or optical consultation or treatment. Compensatory Leave is leave granted to eligible classified employees in lieu of cash compensation for overtime work.

Coding

Various steps were taken to code the data before analyzing it in SPSS. Attendance was listed as the average number of hours missed per month, based on their attendance pattern over the past three months or less, as described in the previous section. This number was recalculated three times to ensure accuracy and was then entered into SPSS. The number of months employed, or longevity, was presented in the actual number of months served and was entered into SPSS as such.

Work engagement was measured by the UWES-17 instrument. Coding for this scale could be carried out in a number of ways if a researcher wanted to look at the vigor, dedication, or absorption individually. For the purpose of this study, one score was obtained for the overall work engagement. Responses were provided on the instrument as 0-6, but were recoded for analysis as 1-7. Next the total agscore for the 17 items on the instrument were calculated and then divided by 17, for the final work engagement score ranging between 1 (no work engagement) and 7.0 (high work engagement).

Ages were provided in the database in years, months, and days. Days were rounded up or down to months; 1-15 days were rounded down and 16-30/31 days were rounded up. Next, months were rounded up or down to the nearest year; down for 1 to 6 months, and up for 7 months or more. Once the number of years for a person was determined and input into SPSS, a new variable was created for the age groups (1=29 and under, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, and 6=70 and older). Age groups were used in the initial analyses, which were conducted to identify significance between this demographic variable and the dependent variables through correlation and simple linear regressions. Next, three different variables were created for age categories to determine if there could be some significance between certain ages

and the dependent variables. The different variables included (a) 1=low age – 39 years old and younger; (b) 2=middle age – 40-55 years old; and (c) 3=high age – 56 years old and over.

Gender was coded (a) 1 - males, (b) 2 - females, and (c) 3 - transgender. Family status referred to the number of dependents and/or children an individual had and whether or not they were still financially supporting them. This variable was divided into five categories and coded from 0 to 4, with (a) 0 - no children, (b) 1 - have children but no longer financially support, (c) 2 - have children and still support 1 -2 children, (d) 3 - have children and still financially support 3-4 children, and (e) 4 - have children and still financially support 5 or more children. Finally, marital status was coded as (a) 1 - single, (b) 2 - married, (c) 3 - separated, (d) 4 - divorced, (e) 5 - widowed, and (f) 6 - single but living with significant other. Marital status was input into SPSS and tested with the dependent variables for significance.

Data Analysis

In this dissertation, answers were sought out for the research questions presented in Chapter one and the hypothesis presented in Chapter two. In order to obtain these answers, the relationships between the independent variables (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and dependent variables (longevity, attendance, and job performance) were analyzed through descriptive statistics, a correlational matrix, several univariate simple linear regressions, and finally Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for group variance comparisons.

The initial steps taken in the data analysis plan involved data screening, to ensure the quality and accuracy of the data, as well as to identify missing data from the input process. During the data collection process, the researcher quickly glanced over each survey as the employee was handing them in. If the researcher saw something blank, it was brought to the

employee's attention and they were asked if they could fill in the missing item(s). This helped eliminate any loss of participants due to missing data.

Once information was input into SPSS, descriptive statistics were computed to provide the mean, standard deviation, data range (including the minimum and maximum statistic), variance, skewness, and kurtosis. Standard deviation is a measure of the typical distance of an observation from distribution center or middle value (Barde & Barde, 2012). A low deviation indicates less variability as the range of numbers is relatively close to the mean, while a high standard deviation indicated that the number range is spread out wide and far from the mean (Barde & Barde, 2012). Next a correlation matrix was retrieved to analyze the significance of the relationships amongst the independent and dependent variable. Significance in the matrix was represented by asterisk(s) at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, which equates to a 99% confidence level and 95% confidence level, leaving little to no margin for error.

Next, several univariate simple linear regressions were utilized to help determine which independent variables were significant predictors of the dependent variables. The assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variances for the linear regressions were tested. Normality tests indicate if the data is normally distributed. Linearity is the relationship of direct proportion that occurs when any given change in an independent variable produces a change in the dependent variable; this can be done by plotting the predictor variable against the outcome variable (Casson & Farmer, 2014). The assumption of homogeneity is that the variances of the group being compared are approximately equal (McGuinness, 2002).

Lastly, three one-way ANOVAs and one independent-samples t-test was computed to look at variance of the means amongst the groups within each variable. Following the ANOVA test, a post-hoc test was computed to identify which groups are significantly different from one

another, when the F-value in the ANOVA test was significant. ANOVAs are utilized as long as there is more than two groups within the variable. When there is two groups, and independent samples t-test must be used, which is discussed with the gender variable.

Data Screening

As the data was coded into categories, no outliers were present. Frequencies, which are used to obtain counts on a single variable's values, were ran in SPSS to check for out of range values and to verify that no values were input incorrectly. Due to the method of data collection used, there were no missing values. Longevity, attendance, and age were obtained from reports provided by the university's human resource database system. Job performance scores were obtained from each staff member's supervisor. Gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement were collected from participants' surveys that administered in small group meetings. These meetings lasted approximately 15-20 minutes each. Those individuals who were absent on the day that their scheduled meeting took place were met on the next day or upon return, at a scheduled time agreed upon between the supervisor and researcher.

Several steps were taken to test the assumptions of the univariate simple linear regressions. Histograms and Shapiro Wilkes test of normality were generated to test normality by viewing the curves of the dependent values. Skewness and kurtosis were calculated to examine the evenness of the data distribution and height of the peak. Finally, normal probability plots (PP plots) and tests for each dependent variable were examined. In order to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance, Box's M test and Levene's test of equal variance were run.

Summary

In this chapter, population, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis were described. The target population for this study was custodial staff members at public institutions

of higher learning. The accessible population for this study yielded 259 respondents equaling a 95% response rate. Two of the instruments used in this study to collect data regarding gender, family status, marital status, and job performance were created by the researcher. The UWES-17 was utilized to obtain a work engagement measure. This instrument is composed of 17 items (UWES-17), and was created by Schaufeli and Bakker in 1999. The authors define work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p.74). These three variables establish the core of their instrument. The variables of age, longevity and attendance were obtained from the university’s human resource data base.

Data collection was conducted through small group meetings (2-15 individuals) with the custodial staff members and one-on-one meetings with the supervisors. In these meetings, the researcher explained the steps that would be taken to preserve confidentiality, answered questions and quickly reviewed surveys for missing data before a participant left the room. This helped to eliminate any participants due to missing data. Through data analysis, relationships between the independent variables (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and dependent variables (longevity, attendance, and job performance) were examined for significant relationships through various analyses including descriptive statistics, a correlational matrix and several univariate simple linear regressions. The univariate simple linear regressions were utilized to help determine which independent variables were significant predictors of the dependent variables. ANOVAs and an independent-samples t-test were utilized to examine the variances of the groups within each variable.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the data analysis done for this dissertation study. In the first section, descriptive statistics are presented to provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. In addition, correlational analyses are conducted to examine relationships amongst the independent and dependent variables of this study. Next, several univariate simple regressions are conducted to provide additional summaries of relationships amongst the variables. Lastly, the results are compared to the original hypothesis of the study.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

This study was comprised of eight variables: five were independent variables (age, gender, marital status, family status, and work engagement) and three were dependent (longevity, attendance-presented as average hours missed, and job performance). As mentioned in Chapter 3, a number of methods were utilized to collect data for each of the variables. The research yielded 259 participants who answered a total of 21 questions. Those questions consisted of 17 for work engagement, 2 for family status, 1 for marital status and 1 for gender.

Several statistical analyses were conducted to evaluate the data and relationships amongst the variables in SPSS analysis program. The means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis for all the variables were analyzed and are presented in Table 1. Skewness values, which provide “an indication of the symmetry of a distribution,” ranged from .03 to 1.76 (Pallant, 2010, p.57). Kurtosis values, which indicate the “peakedness” of a distribution, ranged from .03 to 3.96 (Pallant, 2010). In this dissertation, the assumption of normality was met since the values for skewness were less than 3 and the values for kurtosis were less than 10 (Kline, 2010).

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Independent and Dependent Variables of a Correlational Study among Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age	-							
2 Gender	.085	-						
3 Marital Status	.231**	-.042	-					
4 Family Status	.070	.124*	.084	-				
5 Work Engagement	.173**	.119	.015	.045	-			
6 Longevity	.437**	.001	.138*	-.005	.055	-		
7 Attendance	-.004	.111	-.085	.155*	-.151*	.115	-	
8 Job Performance	.123*	-.025	.018	.013	.149*	-.106	.143*	-
Mean	3.278	1.670	1.850	1.500	5.206	88.540	13.109	3.490
Standard Deviation	1.299	.488	1.325	1.101	1.030	82.957	10.851	.994
Skewness	-.347	-.515	1.760	.030	-.479	.928	1.417	-.046
Kurtosis	-.766	-1.226	2.193	-.994	.024	.278	3.961	-.356

Note. Age (1=29 and younger, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, 6=70 and older)

Gender (Male=1, Female=2, Transgender = 3)

Marital Status (Single=1, Married=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Widowed=5, Single but living with significant other=6)

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3, Children, support 5 or more= 4)

Work Engagement (1-7 scale; 1 = no work engagement and 7= highest level of work engagement)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

**p<.01, *p<.05 (Reliability score for Work Engagement was .892 in this study)

Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (**) and 0.05 level (*), which equates to the 99% confidence level and the 95% confidence level. The reliability for the UWES-17 work engagement tool in this study was measured using Cronbach's alpha and was determined to be $\alpha=.892$, suggesting good internal consistency and reliability for the instrument with the respondents. Reliability is essentially the overall consistency of a measure; therefore, if the same instrument was tested multiple times with a group of individuals, similar and consistent results would be obtained (Webb, Shavelson, & Haertal, 2006). Schaufeli & Bakker (2003) stated that

the Cronbach's alpha for this instrument usually ranges between .80 and .90. Cronbach's alpha at .70 are acceptable; however, scores at or above .80 are preferred and are considered "sufficiently reliable to make decisions about individuals based on their observed scores" (Webb, Shavelson, & Haertal, 2006, p.1).

Table 1 shows a number of significantly correlated relationships. The correlation coefficients among the research variables were statistically significant at a moderate level of coefficients (ranging from .123 to .437). The correlation between age and longevity was the highest ($r=.437^{**}$), followed by attendance (average hours missed) and family status ($r=.155^*$). Age and job performance were significantly related ($r=.123^*$). The correlation between longevity and marital status was also significant ($r=.138^*$). Job performance and work engagement were significantly related ($r=.149^*$). There was a negative significant correlation between attendance (average hours missed) and work engagement at ($r=-.151^*$). In the next section, results from the simple linear regressions will be examined for the various relationships amongst the variables.

Simple Regression Analysis

Linear regression is a statistical procedure used to conclude whether the independent variable (X) significantly predicts the dependent variable (Y). Lane (2003) stated that "The variable we are predicting is called the criterion variable and is referred to as Y. The variable we are basing our predictions on is called the predictor variable and is referred to as X. When there is only one predictor variable, the prediction method is called simple regression" (p. 462). In SPSS, a linear regression test will produce a number of tables that provide a wide array of information. This essentially is the p-value and as long as it is under 0.05 then we can interpret that the independent variable influenced the dependent variable. Below will be the regression analysis for each dependent variable that was found to be significant.

Longevity Regression Analysis

Table 2 illustrates the results of the simple linear regressions for longevity. Age and longevity were significantly related; participants' age significantly predicted the longevity ($\beta = .437$, $t = 7.787$, $p < .000$). Participants with higher ages had higher longevity, which was also supported in the correlational matrices. Neither gender nor family status had any significant influence on longevity for the participants in this study.

Table 2 Linear Regression Results for Longevity on Selected Independent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (β)	Std. Error	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	Longevity	27.882	.437**	3.581	7.787	.000
Gender		.106	.001	10.604	.010	.992
Marital Status		-.343	-.005	4.700	-.005	.942
Family Status		8.651	.138*	3.867	2.237	.026
Work Engagement		4.445	.055	5.015	.886	.376

Note. Age (1=29 and younger, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, 6=70 and older)

Gender (Male=1, Female=2, Transgender = 3)

Marital Status (Single=1, Married=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Widowed=5, Single but Separated=6)

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3, Children, support 5 or more= 4)

Work Engagement (1-7 scale; 1 = no work engagement and 7= highest level of work engagement)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The coefficients for the simple linear regression of longevity and marital status are also included in Table 2. They were significantly related in the correlation matrix. Participants' marital status significantly predicted the longevity ($\beta = .138$, $t = 2.237$, $p = .026$). While it was clear there was a significant relationship, we could not identify specific significance for any one group within marital status in relation to longevity at this point in the analyses. The regression analyses supported certain aspects of the first hypothesis (H1) for this study.

Age did have an impact on longevity; the positive relationship indicated that as age rose, longevity rose. Gender did not have an impact on longevity, neither did family status. Marital status did have an impact on longevity. This fourth hypothesis (H4) in this study was not supported, as there was not a significant relationship between work engagement and longevity.

H1. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

H4. Work engagement will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Attendance Regression Analysis

Table 3 illustrates the results of the simple linear regressions for attendance. The initial correlation matrix yielded significant relationships between attendance and family status and attendance and work engagement. The simple linear regressions supported those results and are listed in Table 3. Age and gender did not have a significant influence on attendance.

Attendance and family status were significantly related in the correlation matrix. Participants' family status significantly predicted attendance ($\beta = .155$, $t = 2.514$, $p = .013$). While it was clear there was a significant relationship, we could not identify specific significance for any one group within family status in relation to attendance. Marital status and attendance were not significantly related. Attendance and work engagement were significantly related; participants' work engagement negatively significantly predicted attendance ($\beta = -.152$, $t = -2.468$, $p = .014$). Participants who were positively engaged in their work missed less hours from work; therefore, they had higher attendance. The regression analyses supported certain aspects of this hypothesis two (H2).

Table 3 Linear Regression Results for Attendance on Selected Independent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (β)	Std. Error	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	Attendance	-.035	-.004	.521	-.068	.946
Gender		2.462	.111	1.379	1.786	.075
Marital Status		1.527	.155*	.607	2.514	.013
Family Status		-.693	-.085	.509	-1.361	.175
Work Engagement		-1.591	-.151*	.649	-2.450	.015

Note. Age (1=29 and younger, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, 6=70 and older)

Gender (Male=1, Female=2, Transgender = 3)

Marital Status (Single=1, Married=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Widowed=5, Single but Separated=6)

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3, Children, support 5 or more= 4)

Work Engagement (1-7 scale; 1 = no work engagement and 7= highest level of work engagement)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

**p<.01, *p<.05

Neither age nor gender had an impact on attendance. Family status did have an impact on attendance with certain individuals; we could not identify specific significance for any one group within family status in relation to attendance. In terms of marital status and attendance, there was not a significant relationship amongst these variables. Hypothesis Five (H5) was supported, as there was a significant relationship between work engagement and attendance. Individuals with higher work engagement had fewer hours missed, resulting in higher attendance.

H2. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

H5. Work engagement will influence attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Job performance Regression Analysis

The initial correlation matrix yielded two significant relationships between job performance and attendance, and then job performance and work engagement. The simple linear regressions supported those results and are listed in Table 4. Participants' age significantly predicted the job performance ($\beta = .123$, $t = 1.986$, $p = .048$). Participants with higher ages had higher job performance. Participants' work engagement positively significantly predicted job performance ($\beta = .149$, $t = 2.415$, $p = .016$). Participants with high work engagement had high job performance. In the next section, the results will be compared to the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 2.

The regression analyses supported one aspect of hypothesis three (H3) which was the influence of age on job performance. As age increased, job performance increased.

The final hypothesis for this study (H6) was supported, as there was a significant relationship between work engagement and job performance. Individuals with higher work engagement had higher job performance.

H3. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

H6. Work engagement will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Table 4 Linear Regression Results for Job Performance on Selected Independent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	Std. Error		
					<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
		(B)	(β)			
Age	Job Performance	.094	.123*	.047	1.986	.048
Gender		-.051	-.025	.127	-.405	.686
Marital Status		.012	.056	.013	.213	.831
Family Status		.013	.018	.047	.282	.778
Work Engagement		.144	.149*	.059	2.415	.016

Note. Age (1=29 and younger, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, 6=70 and older)

Gender (Male=1, Female=2, Transgender = 3)

Marital Status (Single=1, Married=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Widowed=5, Single but Separated=6)

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3, Children, support 5 or more= 4)

Work Engagement (1-7 scale; 1 = no work engagement and 7= highest level of work engagement)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

**p<.01, *p<.05

ANOVA Analyses

Following the simple linear regressions, several one-way ANOVAs were computed to make inferences about the means through analysis of the variance. Lane (2003) described ANOVA as a statistical method that is utilized to test the general differences between two or more means. The one-way ANOVA compared the means within each independent variable in relation to the dependent variables. For examples, there was a statistically significant relationship between family status and attendance in the results from the linear regressions above, but it was unclear if that significance lied with single, married or even divorced individuals. By using one-way ANOVA, a comparison of the means can be examined within family status in relation to attendance to see if any of the variables offer significant influence. Following the ANOVA test, a post-hoc test was computed to identify which groups are significantly different from one another, when the F-value in the ANOVA test was significant. ANOVAs are utilized as long as there is more than two groups within the variable. When there is two groups, and independent samples

t-test was used, which is discussed with the gender variable. The groups or categories within each independent variable were compared to the dependent variables for further analysis.

Age ANOVA Analysis

Participants were divided into three age groups before comparing them on the dependent variables (1-younger, ages 39 and younger; 2-midage, ages 40-59; and 3-older, ages 60 and older). A one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of age on longevity. The ANOVA results showed statistically significant results at the $p < .01$ level in longevity scores for the three age groups: $F(2, 256) = 28.560, p < .000$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared (sum of squares between groups divided by the total sum of squares), was .182 which is a very large effect. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean scores for younger was significantly different from mid age ($p < .000$) and older age groups ($p < .000$). MidAge group was not significantly different from the older group ($p = .071$). Therefore, we can conclude that younger age group had significantly less longevity than the other groups when observing the mean of 35.813 and the older age group had significantly higher longevity than the other groups when observing the mean of 135.648. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Table 5.

A one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of age on attendance. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p < .05$ level in attendance scores for the three age groups: $F(2, 256) = .747, p = .475$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of age in relation to their influence on attendance. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Table 5.

Lastly, a one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of age on job performance. The ANOVA results showed statistically significant results at the $p < .05$ level in

job performance scores for the three age groups: $F(2, 256) = 4.119, p=.017$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .031 which is a small effect. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean scores for younger was significantly different from mid age only ($p=.020$). Therefore, we can conclude that midage group had significantly higher job performance than the younger age group when observing the mean of 3.632 (midage) and 3.240 (younger). The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Table 5.

Table 5 ANOVA Results for Age Groups on Selected Dependent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

	Younger n=75		MidAge n=147		Older n=37		ANOVA (F-value)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Longevity	35.813	45.513	103.585	82.302	135.648	92.702	28.560**
Attendance	12.294	10.085	13.823	10.469	11.928	13.619	.747
Job Performance	3.240	.970	3.632	.951	3.405	1.117	4.119*

Note. Age (Younger = 39 and under, MidAge= 40-59, Older = 60 and above)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

** $p<.01$, * $p<.05$

Gender Independent-Samples t-test Analysis

Gender was categorized as male, female and transgender. For this next portion of the analysis, transgender was removed due to the substantially small sample size ($n=2$). Since there were only two groups remaining for gender, an independent-samples t-test was utilized to compare the mean scores for males and females on each of the three dependent variables. The independent samples t-test are utilized to compare means of two different groups of people or conditions within a variables (Pallant, 2010). Lastly, effect size was computed using Cohen's d;

a small effect size is .01, medium is .06 and large is .14 (Palant, 2010). A summary of the mean, standard deviation and f-value for each of these comparisons is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Independent Samples T-test Results for Gender Groups on Selected Dependent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

	Male n=88		Female n=129		Ind T-Test (T-Value)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Longevity	89.148	80.698	87.869	83.886	.117
Attendance	11.183	10.952	14.220	10.694	.003*
Job Performance	3.522	.971	3.467	1.012	.421

Note. Due to the small sample size, Transgender participants (n=2) were excluded from the comparison

Gender (Male=1, Female=2)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

**p<.01, *p<.05

An independent t-test was conducted to compare the longevity scores for males and females. There was no significant difference in scores for males (M=89.148, SD=80.698) and females (M= 87.869, SD=83.886; $t(255)=.117$, $p=.907$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in means (mean differences =1.278, 95%CI; -20.160 to 22.716) was very small (Cohen's $d=.014$, $r=.007$).

Next, an independent t-test was conducted to compare the attendance scores for males and females. There was a significant difference in scores for males (M=11.183, SD=10.952) and females (M= 14.220, SD=10.694; $t(255)=-2.142$, $p=.033$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in means (mean differences =-3.036, 95%CI; -5.828 to -.245) was large (Cohen's $d=-.302$, $r=.149$). We can conclude that males missed fewer hours of work than females since there was a significant difference and they had a lower mean of 11.183 compared to females at 14.220.

Lastly, an independent t-test was conducted to compare the job performance scores for males and females. There was no significant difference in scores for males (M=3.522, SD=.971)

and females ($M= 3.4677$, $SD=1.012$; $t(255)=.421$, $p=.674$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in means (mean differences =.055, 95%CI; -.203 to .314) was small (Cohen's $d=.052$, $r=.026$).

Family Status ANOVA Analysis

Family status was categorized as no children (nochild), have children but no longer financially support (chidno\$), have children and still support 1 -2 children (child12\$), have children and still financially support 3-4 children (child34\$), and have children and still financially support 5 or more children (child5more\$). For this next portion of the analysis, child5more\$ was removed due to the substantially small sample size ($n=5$).

A one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of family status on longevity. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p<.05$ level in longevity scores for the four family status groups: $F(3, 250) = 2.375$, $p=.071$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of family status in relation to their influence on longevity. See Figure 4 for the mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison.

Next, another one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of family status on attendance. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p<.05$ level in attendance scores for the four family status groups: $F(3, 250) = 2.110$, $p=.099$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of family status in relation to their influence on attendance. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Figure 4.

Lastly, a one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of family status on job performance. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p<.05$ level in job performance scores for the four family status groups: $F(3, 250) = .210$, $p=.889$. Thus, it can be

concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of family status in relation to their influence on job performance. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Figure 4.

	No Child n=65		Childno\$ n=53		Child12\$ n=92		Child34\$ n=44		ANOVA
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	(F-value)
Longevity	76.630	79.713	114.943	100.271	83.326	74.727	87.750	79.115	2.375
Attendance	11.371	11.474	11.416	8.971	13.759	11.794	15.927	9.345	2.110
Job Performance	3.430	.951	3.566	1.083	3.467	.988	3.522	.976	.210

**p<.01, *p<.05

Due to the small sample size, Participants who still support 5 or more children (Child5more\$; n=5) were excluded from the comparison

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

Figure 4 ANOVA Results for Family Status Groups on Selected Dependent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Marital Status ANOVA Analysis

Marital status was categorized into 6 groups: single, married, separated, divorced, widowed, and single but living with significant other (SINGSO). Due to small groups of participants, separated (n=7) and single but living with significant other (n=8) were removed before conducting the ANOVA analyses.

A one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of marital status on longevity. The ANOVA results showed statistically significant results at the p<.01 level in longevity scores for the four marital status groups: $F(3, 240) = 4.904, p=.003$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .058 which is a medium effect. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean scores for the widowed group was significantly different from the single group (p=.003) and the married group (p=.031). Therefore, we can conclude that the widowed group had significantly more longevity than the other groups when observing the mean of

167.076 compared to single (79.061) and married (93.318). The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Figure 5.

Next, another one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of marital status on attendance. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p < .05$ level in attendance scores for the four marital status groups: $F(3, 240) = 1.589, p = .193$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of marital status in relation to their influence on attendance. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Figure 5.

Lastly, a one way ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of marital status on job performance. The ANOVA results did not show significant results at the $p < .05$ level in job performance scores for the four family status groups: $F(3, 240) = 1.687, p = .170$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups of marital status in relation to their influence on job performance. The mean, standard deviation and F value for this comparison can be found in Figure 5.

	Single n=147		Married n=69		Divorced n=15		Widowed n=13		ANOVA
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	(F-value)
Longevity	79.061	84.200	93.318	68.286	101.400	77.383	167.076	112.605	4.904**
Attendance	14.376	12.062	11.180	9.231	14.383	9.465	10.851	7.578	1.589
Job Performance	3.414	1.072	3.681	.915	3.200	.862	3.692	.855	1.687

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

*Due to the small sample size, Separated participants (n=7) were excluded from the comparison.

*Due to the small sample size, Single but living with significant other participants (n=8) were excluded from the comparison.

Figure 5 ANOVA Results for Marital Status Groups on Selected Dependent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the data analyses. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, and skewness) were presented for the variables along with the

correlation value for each relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The correlation between age and longevity was the highest ($r=.437^{**}$), followed by attendance (average hours missed) and family status ($r=.155^*$). Age and job performance were significantly related ($r=.123^*$). The correlation between longevity and marital status was also significant ($r=.138^*$). Job performance and work engagement were significantly related ($r=.149^*$). There was a negative significant correlation between attendance (average hours missed) and work engagement at ($r=-.151^*$).

Once the initial round of data analyses were completed, several simple linear regressions were run to further examine the significance of the relationships amongst the independent and dependent variables. The results partially or fully supported all hypotheses except for H4; work engagement did not influence longevity. Longevity was influenced by age and marital status. Attendance was influenced by family status and work engagement. Job performance was influenced by age and work engagement. Table 7 shows a summary of these results.

In the final portion of this chapter, ANOVA analyses and one independent-samples t-test were conducted to examine the differences amongst the groups within each independent variable. In terms of longevity, older individuals had significantly higher longevity than the other age groups. Widowed individuals also had significantly higher longevity than that of single and married individuals. Attendance was significantly influenced by males, in that they missed less work and had significantly higher attendance than females. Lastly, job performance was influenced by the midage group, in that midage individuals had significantly higher longevity than younger age group individuals. In the next chapter, we will discuss these findings and the implications that can be made from them.

Table 7 Linear Regression Results for Longevity, Attendance and Job Performance on Selected Independent Variables of Custodial Employees at a Large Public University

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (β)	Std. Error	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	Longevity	27.882	.437**	3.581	7.787	.000
Gender		.106	.001	10.604	.010	.992
Marital Status		-.343	-.005	4.700	-.005	.942
Family Status		8.651	.138*	3.867	2.237	.026
Work Engagement		4.445	.055	5.015	.886	.376
Age	Attendance	-.035	-.004	.521	-.068	.946
Gender		2.462	.111	1.379	1.786	.075
Marital Status		1.527	.155*	.607	2.514	.013
Family Status		-.693	-.085	.509	-	1.361
Work Engagement		-1.591	-.151*	.649	-	2.450
Age	Job Performance	.094	.123*	.047	1.986	.048
Gender		-.051	-.025	.127	-.405	.686
Marital Status		.012	.056	.013	.213	.831
Family Status		.013	.018	.047	.282	.778
Work Engagement		.144	.149*	.059	2.415	.016

Note. Age (1=29 and younger, 2=30-39, 3=40-49, 4=50-59, 5=60-69, 6=70 and older)

Gender (Male=1, Female=2, Transgender = 3)

Marital Status (Single=1, Married=2, Separated=3, Divorced=4, Widowed=5, Single but Separated=6)

Family Status (No Children=0, Children but no financial support=1, Children, support 1-2=2, Children, support 3-4= 3, Children, support 5 or more= 4)

Work Engagement (1-7 scale; 1 = no work engagement and 7= highest level of work engagement)

Longevity (presented as months, ranged from 1 month to 388 months)

Attendance (average number of hours missed per month- negative correlate signifies a decrease in the number of hours missed)

Job performance (1-5 scale, 1 = needs improvement and 5 = exceptional)

**p<.01, *p<.05

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status and work engagement) and their relationships between longevity of employment tenure, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university. In summarizing this work, this chapter presents an overall summary of this research, a discussion of the findings, implications, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of Research

Employees are the most vital resource to any organization. Employees assist in carrying out the day to day functions of an organization, while at the same time learning and fulfilling the mission and values that help define that entity. When employees have poor job performance, fail to come to work, or leave an organization altogether, everyone suffers. It is imperative for organizations to recognize trends amongst their employees regarding attendance, performance, turnover, engagement, and overall commitment. When a trend occurs amongst some or all of these aspects, organizations must invest time, resources, and effort to address these challenges, otherwise the success and profit of an organization will suffer. There is extensive research available on job performance, attendance (absenteeism), and longevity (turnover), yet few of these studies focus on the service industry in regards to custodial staff members.

Purpose and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine the various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationships between longevity of employment tenure, attendance, and job performance of custodial staff at a large, public university. This study was designed to answer the following research questions:

Question 1. What are the characteristics of custodial employees, in terms of the demographic

variables (age, gender, family status and marital status), work engagement, longevity, attendance, and job performance?

Question 2. What are the relationships between longevity and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

Question 3. What are the relationships between attendance on the job and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

Question 4. What are the relationships between job performance and demographical characteristics (age, gender, family status, marital status), and work engagement among custodial employees at a large public university?

To investigate the research questions of this study, six hypotheses were proposed in regards to the relationships amongst the variables involved:

Hypothesis 1. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 2. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence Attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 3. Age, gender, family status, and marital status will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 4. Work engagement will influence longevity among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 5. Work engagement will influence attendance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Hypothesis 6. Work engagement will influence job performance among custodial employees at a large public university.

Procedures

Data was collected from the university's human resource database and from three surveys. Participants' age, start date of employment, and hours missed from work over a three month period was collected from the institutions human resource data base. The first survey was created by the researcher to gather information on gender, family status, and marital status. The second survey was also created by the researcher to obtain a job performance score for each participant from their current supervisor. The instrument was created to mirror the current evaluation tool used on an annual basis for employees at the institution. The last instrument was the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, composed of seventeen items (UWES-17). It was utilized to obtain a work engagement score from the participants and was created by Schaufeli and Bakker in 1999 (2003) (See Appendix C). The instrument has been tested for factorial validity which is sound, and internal consistency is high with values of Cronbach's ranging between 0.80 and 0.90, which is above the commonly accepted 0.70 or higher. The reliability of the instrument in this dissertation was very good at .892.

After approval of the study was received from the Institutional Review Board (see Appendix H), data collection began. There were a total of 56 small group meetings (ranging from 1-15 individuals) that were held with the employees in four departments: Facilities, Union, Student Recreation, and Housing. Employees completed two instruments, UWES-17 and the demographic instrument created by the researcher. Next, one-on-one meetings were held with the supervisors in each area of all four departments to collect job performance scores. The groups yielded 259 responses which accommodated for 80% of the available positions (324 positions in

all-50 were vacant) and a 95% response rate of all custodians employed at the time of the study which was 274 individuals. For data analysis, correlation analysis and univariate simple linear regressions were used to test the research hypotheses.

Findings

Descriptive statistics were initially computed to help summarize certain aspects of the data. Next, correlational analyses were examined to evaluate the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. The correlation between age and longevity was the highest ($r=.437^{**}$), followed by attendance (average hours missed) and family status ($r=.155^*$). Age and job performance were significantly related ($r=.123^*$). The correlation between longevity and marital status was also significant ($r=.138^*$). Job performance and work engagement were significantly related ($r=.149^*$). There was a negative significant correlation between attendance (average hours missed) and work engagement at ($r=-.151^*$).

Once the initial round of data analyses was completed, several simple linear regressions were run to further examine the significance of the relationships amongst the independent and dependent variables. The results partially or fully supported all hypotheses except for H4; work engagement did not influence longevity. Longevity was influenced by age and marital status. Attendance was influenced by family status and work engagement. Job performance was influenced by age and work engagement. Table 7 below shows a summary of these results.

In the final portion of this chapter, ANOVA analyses and one independent-samples t-test were conducted to examine the differences amongst the groups within each independent variable. In terms of longevity, older individuals had significantly higher longevity than the other age groups. Widowed individuals also had significantly higher longevity than that of single and married individuals. Attendance was significantly influenced by males, in that they missed less

work and had significantly higher attendance than females. Lastly, job performance was influenced by the midage group, in that midage individuals had significantly higher longevity than younger age group individuals.

Discussion

The results of this study are discussed in terms of longevity, attendance, and job performance based on the relationships with the demographic variables and work engagement.

Longevity

Longevity was influenced by age and marital status in this study. In terms of age and longevity, participants who were younger (ages 39 and younger) had less longevity than older employees (ages 56 and over). Research has shown a strong relationship, dating back over fifty years, between age and longevity in the workplace (Hall & Mansfield, 1975). It may seem like a natural relationship exists between age and longevity, in that the older you grow, the more longevity you can have on a job. However, some positions are considered “entry level” and in theory, you will not find a lot of individuals staying in those positions over a particular duration of time because they move up or move on. Understanding the influences that age has on employees’ decisions to leave or to stay long term in a position is critical to developing initiatives for promoting longevity in an organization. Werbel & Bedeian, (1989) summed up a number of reasons why it is important to consider age when looking at longevity through turnover that it is still relevant today:

(1) the U.S. workforce is becoming older due to demographic changes and retirement legislation; (2) as the work force ages, it will be beneficial for human resource planning purposes to anticipate any differences in the turnover of older as compared to younger employees; and (3) research suggests that employee needs are likely to vary by age (Seybolt, 1983), therefore the efficacy of various methods for motivating older and younger workers is likely to differ (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986). (p.276)

Seeing the positive relationship between age and longevity is encouraging in that there are some reasons that have encouraged this population to remain in their rolls for a long duration of time, despite other employment opportunities that may have been available over the years.

The next variable that impacted longevity was marital status. Widows had significantly higher longevity when compared to single and married individuals in the marital status groups. Widows are married individuals who have lost their spouse to death. Once that individual loses their spouse, they are often faced with maintaining the financial commitments that were once shared. As time progresses on as a widow, there are some alterations made to the standard of living for that individual. Weitzman (1981) found that adjustments to living varied amongst men and women after a marriage was dissolved through divorce or death; women had a 73% decrease in their standard of living while men had a 42% increase. Outside of this, there is little research regarding widows and remaining or withdrawing from the workforce (Radl & Himmelreicher, 2015).

Attendance

Attendance was impacted by gender, family status, and work engagement. In terms of gender, females had lower attendance while males had higher attendance. This relationship has been studied extensively and the findings of this study are consistent with a majority of the literature. When it pertains to gender and attendance, women have higher absentee rates than males (United States Department of Labor, 2013; Dionne & Dostie, 2007; Barmby, 2002). This could be for a number of reasons, such as the responsibility of women as mothers and thus they tend to take off of work more than males, when their children are ill or have other personal needs. This is also increased when single parents are taken into account and the children are raised by the mother.

In terms of family status, there was a significant relationship amongst the variables, but no further significance was found amongst the groups within family status in relation to attendance. There is some literature that has also found significance amongst this group of individuals. Scott and McClellan (1990) conducted a similar study and concluded that the number of dependents was positively related to absenteeism for both men and women. Allen (1981) also found that family size was positively correlated with absences, particularly for women. The responsibilities of an individual without children verses that of one who has 3-4 children differs drastically and can clearly impact a staff member's attendance at work.

The last significant relationship was that of attendance and work engagement. Individuals who had high work engagement also had high work attendance. As it pertains to engagement and its relationship to attendance, research tends to lean toward the idea that "engaged" employees have higher attendance rates than those who are less engaged (Kahn, 1990). Soane et al. (2013) conducted a study to help develop a framework for explaining employee absences. They found that meaningful work increases engagement, and that engagement is associated with low levels of absenteeism. Hoxsey (2010) used a construct of engagement to test whether different levels of engagement had any effect on the amount of sick time an employee incurred. Hoxsey (2010) found that as job engagement increased, sick time used decreased. In general, the research of this study and the literature suggests that if organizations can cultivate initiatives to increase the work engagement of their employees, attendance should improve.

Job Performance

Job Performance was influenced by age and work engagement. In terms of age, younger individuals (age 39 and younger) had lower work performance than midage workers (40-59 years old). These findings contradict the literature that was found on this relationship. Sturman (2003)

found that age was positively related to job performance at a young age but negatively related to performance at an older age (more than 49 years old); therefore, younger individuals performed at higher levels than older individuals. Rhodes (1983) found that older individuals performed more poorly than younger individuals. This contradiction could be for a number of reasons. In this field, being detail oriented when cleaning is a highly rated characteristic in terms of performance. While younger individuals may be able to work at a faster pace, their work may not be thoroughly clean, thus resulting in a lower performance score.

The last significant relationship with job performance was with work engagement. Individuals who were more engaged with their work had higher job performance. Research conducted in a wide array of organizations supports the finding of this study; it has shown that individuals who are engaged in their work are more likely to display higher work performance. Engaged employees tend to be more positive individuals, which has a positive impact on their performance, as well as they have better health so they can focus and dedicate all their skills and energy resources to their work (Bakker, 2011).

Implications

Implications of this study for theory and practice in the field of Human Resource Development (HRD) are discussed based on the results.

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical contributions that occurred from the results of this study can be summarized best in relationship to the theory and models utilized in the conceptual framework of this dissertation. Equity theory and three models for employee turnover and absence were used to explain the relationships amongst variables in this study.

Equity Theory, developed by John Stacy Adams in 1963, focuses on the balance between the “employee’s inputs, such as hard work, skill level, tolerance, engagement, or enthusiasm and an employer’s outputs, such as salary, benefits or intangibles issues” (Perez, 2008, p. 21).

Different factors can impact each individual’s assessment of fairness when it comes to the give and take between them and the employer. Those factors are likely influenced by age, gender, family status, and marital status, as those factors are extremely influential on the employee’s basic life needs. In turn that perception of fairness fuels the employees’ actions such as work engagement.

The mean score for work engagement in this study was a 5.206, which was above the midpoint of 4.5 (scale of 1 to 7). This means, on average, more people were engaged in their jobs than those who were not. In turn, this led to a significant relationship between engagement, attendance, and job performance. The demographic variable likely influenced their perceptions of fairness, which in turn influenced higher levels of engagement in the workplace. Despite budgetary challenges and the lack of having received an increase in pay for a number of years, this level of engagement suggests that participants in this study do value some of the outputs provided by the institution such as benefits and other intangible incentives.

Focus groups with the participants would be beneficial to identify the specific factors that encourage their levels of engagement. These results of this study do support the Equity theory and could be supported even more after the focus groups are held to obtain more clarification on these relationships.

The first model, utilized in the conceptual framework of this study, was by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979); these researchers created a model for employee turnover that helps explain the role of longevity (or lack thereof) and its relationship with job satisfaction

and other independent variables included in this dissertation. In this model, demographic characteristics influence a person's decision of whether or not to leave a job, which had a direct relation to the demographic characteristics relationship to longevity in this study. The findings of this study supported this model. Age and marital status were significantly related to longevity in the results of this study. Being able to understand the relationship between these demographic variables and longevity can help to shape initiatives to increase retention of staff.

The second model explained an employee's motivation for attendance or lack thereof, thus leading to excessive absenteeism. Nicholson (1977) proposed a model for the analysis and prediction of employee absences. He proposed an A-B Continuum in which the construct of 'attachment' is introduced as a means of measuring attendance motivation, and its four main constituents: 1) personality traits which include age, gender, family, and marital status; 2) work orientation; 3) work involvement, and 4) employment relationship. This model clearly depicts the importance of age, gender, family, and marital status in relation to attendance and understanding an employee's motivation to come to work. In this study, there was a significant relationship between gender, family status, and work engagement with attendance; therefore, the findings of this study support this model. Being able to understand how these demographic variables and work engagement impact attendance can further assist managers with developing initiatives to combat absenteeism through the guidance of this model based on the characteristic of their employees.

The third and final model utilized in this study explained various job characteristics that can impact job performance. According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), a job characteristic is a facet of a job that produces ideal conditions for high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance. While it is uncertain of the reasons or job characteristics behind a higher level of

work engagement, there was a significant relationship amongst work engagement and job performance in this study. This indicated that individuals with higher levels of engagement experienced high ratings for their job performance, therefore supporting the notions of this model.

Practical Implications

The results in this study offer a foundation for management of custodial staff members, as well as HRD practitioners at institutions to use for developing initiatives that foster an environment to increase longevity, attendance, and job performance amongst custodial staff members. In some instances, more information may need to be obtained in order to create certain initiatives. Below are the practical implications that can be applied at this time, based on the results of this study.

Longevity amongst employees is the optimal outcome that organizations desire for any employee that is beneficial to that entity, in that the employee performs the duties they have been hired to do at an exceptional rate with few interruptions to productivity. The results of this study indicate that there is a higher level of longevity in older employees. This means that these individuals were provided the conditions and benefits that met their needs throughout life, that has encouraged them to remain employed at this institution over the years.

In order to continue this pattern, HRD practitioners should meet with a group of the employees who have higher years of longevity and ask them questions to understand the factors that kept them in these positions over the years, despite other employment opportunities. Next, HRD practitioners should sit down with employees in the younger and mid-age groups to see what they value most in a position that would encourage them to stay long term. This can provide an overview to employers of the various factors that employees will value through the

different facets of their life. For example, older employees may value a better insurance plan and retirement plan, while younger employees value better pay and more time off. HRD practitioners can use this feedback to modify certain work benefits that appease the needs of their employees, especially during times of high turnover. Practitioners must understand that employees' desires will change over time and this topic needs to be revisited periodically every 5-10 years.

The results between marital status and longevity resulted in higher longevity amongst widowed individuals. In other words, there were higher turnover rates among people who were single and married. HRD practitioners could delve deeper to understand the motivations that exist for single individuals to move on, in order to create initiatives to promote longevity. For example, some of these individuals may be un-married parents and the low wages make it hard to maintain the financial needs of providing for children on a single income. While an institution may not be able to increase wages, possibly they could offer a more affordable rate to child care centers that are owned and operated by the institution. The institution in this study currently has a child care center but there is one flat rate to send a child to this school, regardless of income. If the institution could create a fee schedule based on income, these single individuals may stay longer because they would value having their children in a great learning environment and close to where they work, which could also increase employee attendance and performance. Having this benefit could encourage single individuals to stay employed by the institution, pending they are un-married parents. This would be helpful to boost morale as well and the same concept of doing further investigations can be applied to those employees who are not parents, in order to find out what challenges encourage them to leave the organization.

It is practically impossible for most organizations to have a large number of extra employees to cover for absences; therefore, it is imperative to understand the factors that impact

attendance or lack thereof. In this study, results from the ANOVA analysis implied that females had lower attendance than males. It is illegal to hire individuals based on gender; however, this information can be useful to help develop initiatives that promote attendance in females. HRD practitioners should have focus groups with females and asks the questions that help to clarify the reasons why they miss work. From that feedback, they can develop initiatives such as a more affordable rate to send their children to the child care center on campus. This could allow mothers to go check on their children when something occurs and then come back to work. Currently, they may have to drive across town to an off campus facility, tend to any issues and then not have enough time to drive back to work before a shift is over. Another initiative to reduce absences for women could be to promote wellness; institutions could work with their healthcare insurance providers to include free wellness visits for women to have the necessary annual exams which could offer early detections on certain illnesses. Creating initiatives such as these could help reduce absences amongst women.

In terms of family status, there is some significant positive influence on attendance (average hours missed). HRD practitioners could have focus groups with individuals from each of these groups to identify the specific reasons that cause them to miss more time away from work. From those meetings, certain initiatives could be developed to help those individuals deal with those issues while still coming to work. In this case, the flexible fee schedule at the child care may be beneficial to this group as well, especially if the absences revolve around tending to issues with their children. Flexible work shifts may be feasible in some instances that could allow individuals to come in on an alternate shift when they have a time conflict on their normal shift. Also, a reward system could be beneficial to promote attendance for those who may commonly miss work. Incentives could include things as simple as a certificate and recognition

at a staff meeting, tickets to sporting or other events on campus or even for bonuses depending on the financial ability of an organization.

Lastly, the findings of the study revealed that individuals who were more engaged in their work had better attendance and job performance scores. HRD practitioners should identify the factors that encourage engagement and inhibit engagement amongst this group. If individuals feel a lack of importance as an employee to the institution, upper administration should look for ways to increase support and awareness about the value of the role custodians play in the operations. A thorough evaluation should be conducted of the current benefits offered to the employees at this institution. If some of the benefits are not useful to the employees, adjustments should be made where possible. One example of this is the benefit of tuition remission. Employees can take six credit hours of coursework each semester after working for one year at the institution; the tuition is free but the employee is responsible for the miscellaneous fees. This benefit is valuable to some employees, but a number of the custodial staff cannot meet the admission requirements of the university to take advantage of this benefit. In this instance, the university could possibly partner with a local community college and offer tuition remission at that college with the option of completing a designated number of hours before being able to transfer back over to the four year university. This alone could increase engagement and validation in their position at the institution. When an employee feels validated in the work they do, they are often motivated to do their best and to give of themselves more willingly.

Creating an environment that is conducive to work engagement is ideal on many levels. HRD practitioners could create recognition programs that promote not only attendance but performance as well. This could be as simple as certificates for “Employees of the Week,” “Most Improved,” and “Spic and Span” for the cleanest area. While a recognition program cannot

increase engagement alone, it can create a sense of encouragement and motivation for employees to do the right thing in terms of attendance and performance.

The only other variable that impacted job performance outside of work engagement was age. In this study, younger individuals had significantly lower job performance than midage individuals who were older. These younger individuals potentially have less experience; since this coincides with longevity in terms of age. HRD practitioners may want to create a more extensive training program within each department or overall across the entire institution. Training amongst this population is handled on the supervisory level at this institution; therefore, the extent and quality of training can be subjective to the experience, motivation, commitment, and engagement of that supervisor. Having a more uniformed training program can offer all employees the opportunity to have access to the same training and resources, therefore performance can be a direct result of an employee's actions and not because of lack of experience and preparation or training.

Limitations of Study

A few potential limitations to this study have been identified, including: the supervisor's subjectivity to the job performance instrument, participants' subjectivity to the UWES-17, lack of research in this population to use as a comparison, the impact of a natural disaster on this population, the researcher's authority over some members of the sample, and the disproportionate distribution of participants in terms of gender and race.

The first limitation is the supervisor's subjectivity to the job performance instrument. Each supervisor used the same instrument based on the same criteria, were ensured of the confidentiality of their responses and were encouraged to give an honest rating for each employee based on the criteria provided. Despite these factors, some individuals still may have

given scores for their employees that were not accurate depictions of their performance since the researcher was someone unfamiliar to them. Due to the design of this study, it would be hard to use another job performance rating tool to rate an employee's job performance considering the number of employees a single supervisor may be asked to rate. An instrument that would be longer may be a deterrent for participation.

The second limitation is similar to the first, in that the participant's subjectivity to the work engagement instrument (UWES-17) could have been a limitation. Responses were based off of the participants own decision on how they responded and may have not been consistent with the objectives of the instrument. Participants used the same instrument, were all ensured of the confidentiality of their responses, and were encouraged to give honest feedback in regards to each question on the instrument. Despite these factors, participants may have still been skeptical of the confidentiality of this study and their responses, therefore provided answers they felt were more appropriate than how they actually felt. There are limited measures available for work engagement that meet the needs of this population in terms of readability and a moderate length; definitions were include in the margins of this instrument to help clarify some of the questions.

Limited research on this particular population makes it difficult to generalize the findings to the rest of the target population. While there is extensive research on the relationship amongst variables in this study, there was not any research found for this population that was similar. Therefore it is hard to generalize the findings based off of this one study. The findings may not be the same if a similar study was conducted at another institution; therefore this one study on this population serves as a limitation. Nonetheless, it seeks to fill a gap in the research literature on topics related to turnover and engagement, as there are no other such known studies with this population of employees in this institutional context.

Environmental factors also served as a limitation for potential influence on some of the responses in this study. Prior to data collection, there was a large natural disaster that caused flooding in the geographical vicinity where this study was conducted. Several participants in this study suffered from damage caused by this storm to their homes and possessions, or they had family members residing with them due to the damage they suffered. This situation is a perfect example of the internal validity threat of history and must be acknowledged as a limitation that could have impacted participants' responses and their ability to provide accurate feedback. It also had an impact on their attendance at work, although the researcher attempted to control for this by using an alternate three month series of absences for those impacted by this disaster. Attendance trends were observed for individuals impacted by the flood. The majority of absences occurred in August and September of 2016. The three month series utilized for this study was September – October 2016, but for these individuals impacted by the flood, their attendance was collected for October – December 2016. This timeline (October- December) could not be used for the entire population due to the timeline for the study and the duration it took to tabulate average hours missed.

The researcher's role as supervisor over a portion of the study's participants who worked for Housing was a minor limitation. The researcher involved an outside person to collect surveys regarding Housing custodial staff members' work engagement, gender identity, family, and marital status. The outside individual also met with the supervisors to administer the surveys for job performance ratings. The supervisors in Housing are direct reports to the researcher, therefore it was imperative to obtain outside assistance. This helped to ensure that the researcher's authority over participants did not become an influence on responses.

In addition, the gender variable posed a minor challenge, as the population of custodians was 34% male, 65% female, and 1% transgender. Fewer inferences were made regarding transgender individuals due to the fact of the low percentage that were accounted for in the entire population. Lastly, several studies have examined the impact of race on the same variables of this study in other context (Glenn, 2002; Holvino, 2010; Soni-Sinha & Yates, 2013); however, race was not examined in this study as the majority of the custodial staff members at the university studied were African American (approximately 90%).

Recommendations for Future Research

With this information, a greater understanding has been reached about the demographic characteristics and work engagement patterns that are associated with staff who stay in their custodial positions longer, have higher attendance, and have better job performance overall. However, in order to generalize these findings to the target population, it is suggested that more studies be conducted in a similar design for a broader understanding in regards to this population and amongst custodial staff members as a whole in organizations outside of public universities. It is also suggested that steps be taken to minimize the effects of the limitations identified.

The design of this research was correlational and one important limitation of correlational research is that it cannot be used to make assumptions about the causal relationships between and amongst the variables. As mentioned in the practical implications section of this study, HRD practitioners will need to take these results and form focus groups to obtain a more extensive understanding of the factors that influence the significant relationships amongst the variables identified in this study. From those focus groups, initiatives can be created to help increase longevity, attendance, and performance in the parts of the population that were not positively

significant. Through these initiatives, outcomes should be monitored for improvements and necessary adjustments should be made when the desired outcomes are not being received.

Future studies may want to consider the adverse effect of the dependent variables on one another, as well as the interaction effects of the independent variables in relation to the dependent variables. In the results of this study, job performance was positively significantly related to attendance ($r=.143^*$). Thus, those with higher longevity also had higher performance. That is an ideal relationship that most organizations would hope to see. Future research may focus on the factors that influence this particular relationship, as well as the other adverse relationships between longevity, attendance, and job performance. Other statistical analyses may also be utilized such as a multiple regression which would provide an overview of the interaction amongst a number of independent variables on the dependent variable. A factorial ANOVA of the dependent variables would also be beneficial to utilize in the analyses of the dependent variables.

In future studies, work engagement could be changed to a dependent variable, as opposed to its current position as an independent variable in this study. In the correlational matrix of this study, age and work engagement were positively significantly related ($r=.189^{**}$). As age increased, work engagement increased. Also, gender and work engagement were slightly significantly related ($r=.122^*$). When comparing the different variables of male and female to work engagement, no further significance was identified. Females did have a positive insignificant correlation ($r=.112$) versus that of males with a negative insignificant correlation ($r= -.119$). This could be a relationship to focus on in the future. Some research has found a pattern of higher levels of engagement in females (Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, &

Baumert, 2008), whereas another study found mixed results across a number of samples (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006).

The final recommendation would be to include the variable of job satisfaction in this study, as it has been widely researched in conjunction with the variables of this study. Diestel, Wegge, and Schmidt (2014) define job satisfaction as “a work-related attitude that reflects the extent to which an employee evaluates certain aspects of his or her job—such as co-workers, the supervisor, career opportunities, the organization, and working conditions—as beneficial to him or her” (p. 355). Organizations vary in the attention they give to job satisfaction, despite the role job satisfaction plays in so many facets of organizational performance. Existing research established that job satisfaction is a predictor of job performance, while considering outside moderators such as pay and rewards (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Employers can use this information to create incentives and other methods to increase satisfaction amongst its employees, which can in turn yield greater performance, higher attendance, and extended longevity on the job.

Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the research, discussion of the findings, implications of the findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research. Overall, this study produced findings about the demographic characteristics and work engagement patterns that are associated with staff who stay in their custodial positions longer, have higher attendance, and better job performance overall. The target population of custodial staff members has limited available research and none could be found that coincided with this study.

The results highlighted a number of significant relationships that exist amongst the variables. Longevity was influenced by age and marital status; attendance was influenced by gender, family status, and work engagement; and job performance was influenced by age and work engagement. From these findings, several implications were made, both theoretically and practically. Limitations to the study included: supervisor's subjectivity to the job performance instrument, participants' subjectivity to the UWES-17, lack of research in this population to use as a comparison, the impact of a natural disaster on this population, the researcher's authority over some members of the sample, and the disproportionate distribution of participants in terms of gender and race. Lastly, future recommendations for research were made that could strengthen these findings and make them more applicable to this population of staff members.

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APPENDIX A- SAMPLE JOB DESCRIPTION

CUSTODIAN 1 OR 2 (Sample Job Description)

30% - Cleans residence hall lobbies, bathrooms, hallways and other assigned areas by sweeping, mopping, scrubbing, dusting and polishing. Works in areas requiring a higher degree of knowledge and skill related to that specific area. May be required to work around or handle hazardous materials. Mixes or blends routine cleaning solutions to proper concentration.

20% - Empties trash and recycling containers, transports waste material to outdoor refuse containers or recycling containers as appropriate. May be responsible for removing and disposing of bio-hazardous waste. Determines by visual inspection if material is acceptable for recycling, according to written standards. Clean, decontaminate and deodorize waste containers.

10% - Cleans, strips, waxes and polishes floors using industrial size mops and/or commercial type floor machines. Uses commercial stripper, waxes, floor sealers, cleaners and pads according to label direction for correct dilution and application.

10% - Operates wet/dry vacuum, carpet extraction equipment, other commercial equipment as required for cleaning and shampooing carpets or cleaning up after water leaks or floods. Operate a flood pump or other equipment to remove flood waters from buildings.

10% - Washes building exteriors, windows, walls, fixtures, steps and sidewalks using power washers, pressure sprayers, commercial window washing equipment, cleaning solutions or other related equipment and materials.

10% - Unlocks/locks campus buildings utilizing assigned building, room and master keys. Has responsibility for security of all keys issued as part of daily assignment. Moves and sets up tables, chairs, partitions, sign stanchions and other related equipment used for special events such as programs, registration, Spring Testing, etc. May be required to move or rearrange office furniture and fixtures.

5% - May perform a variety of other tasks including one or more of the following: maintain and clean equipment; wear safety equipment or clothing as instructed per supervisor; report safety hazards to supervisor; carry a note pad and pencil to record maintenance problems found in buildings; report maintenance needs of building and equipment daily.

5% - Perform any other miscellaneous custodial related duties necessary to maintain the cleanliness and sanitary conditions of buildings and grounds.

Required Qualifications: Custodian 1: No experience or training required; Custodian 2: Six months of experience in custodial, housekeeping, or food service work. May be required to demonstrate physical ability to perform manual work.

APPENDIX B: EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Custodial Doctoral Research Study – Employee Questionnaire

Name: _____

Your responses will remain confidential. We are asking for your name at this time, so it can be matched with other data about you such as the date you started working at LSU, which will be obtained from the database. Once all information has been input into the spreadsheet, you will become a randomly assigned number and will not be identified by your name. Your employer will not know your individual responses to any part of this study. Your confidentiality is ultimate my priority.

Please select one.

GENDER: _____ Male _____ Female _____ Transgender

MARRITAL STATUS: _____ Single _____ Single but living with significant other _____ Married
_____ Divorced _____ Widowed _____ Separated

DO YOU HAVE ANY CHILDREN? _____ Yes _____ No

IF YES, HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU STILL FINANCIALLY SUPPORT FULLY OR IN CONJUCTION WITH THEIR OTHER PARENT? _____

APPENDIX C: UWES-17

(AUTHOR’S VERSION FOLLOWED BY THE VERSION DESIGNED FOR THE STUDY)

Work and Well-being Survey (UWES) ©

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, write “0” (zero) in the space preceding the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by writing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

0	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
Never	1	2	3	4	5	6
	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

1. At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy (VI1)*
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)
3. Time flies when I'm working (AB1)
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI2)*
5. I am enthusiastic about my job (DE2)*
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)
7. My job inspires me (DE3)*
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI3)*
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB3)*
10. I am proud of the work that I do (DE4)*
11. I am immersed in my work (AB4)*
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)
13. To me, my job is challenging (DE5)
14. I get carried away when I'm working (AB5)*
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)
17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)

* Shortened version (UWES-9); VI = Vigor; DE = Dedication; AB = Absorption © Schaufeli & Bakker (2003). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is free for use for non-commercial scientific research. Commercial and/or non-scientific use is prohibited, unless previous written permission is granted by the authors.

Work & Well-being Survey (UWES)

Name: _____

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, write a "0" in the space provided. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

1. _____ When I'm at work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. _____ I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.
3. _____ Time flies when I'm working.
4. _____ At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (*vigorous- full of physical or mental strength or active force*)
5. _____ I am enthusiastic about my job. (*enthusiastic-very interested in something or excited by it*)
6. _____ When I am working, I forget about everything else around me.
7. _____ My job inspires me.
8. _____ When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
9. _____ I feel happy when I am working intensely. (*intensely-of an extreme kind; very great, as in strength*)
10. _____ I am proud of the work that I do.
11. _____ I am immersed in my work. (*immersed-to make (yourself) fully involved in some activity or interest*)
12. _____ I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
13. _____ To me, my job is challenging.
14. _____ I get carried away when I'm working.
15. _____ At my job, I am very resilient, mentally. (*resilient- able to become strong, healthy, or successful again after something bad happens*)
16. _____ It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
17. _____ At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well. (*persevere-to continue doing something or trying to do something even though it is difficult*)

APPENDIX D: SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE FOR JOB PERFORMANCE

Custodial Doctoral Research Study – Supervisor Questionnaire

Employee Name: _____

Your responses will remain confidential. We are asking for your employee's name at this time, so their job performance score can be matched with other data about them such as the date they started working at LSU and their own responses to surveys included in this study. Once all information has been input into the spreadsheet, the employee will become a randomly assigned number and will not be identified by their name. Your employer, the employee, and your department will not know your individual responses to any part of these job performance ratings. Your confidentiality is my ultimate priority.

Think about the employee named above, and the information you are currently reviewing for your annual evaluation review for this particular employee. I ask for your honest evaluation, as this will not have any impact on their merit raises or employee files. Please rate them on the five point scale listed below.

Needs Improvement

Successful

Exceptional

1

2

3

4

5

APPENDIX E: SAMPLE JOB PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

EMPLOYEE		DEPARTMENT	
LSU ID		TITLE	
PERFORMANCE YEAR			
EVALUATION PERIOD			
AGENCY MISSION: As the flagship institution of the state, the vision of Louisiana State University is to be a leading research-extensive university, challenging undergraduate and graduate students to achieve the highest levels of intellectual and personal development. Designated as a Land, Sea, and Space Grant institution, the mission of Louisiana State University is the generation, preservation, dissemination, and application of knowledge and cultivation of the arts.			
I. DEPARTMENT MISSION:			

SUPERVISOR'S ASSESSMENT		
EXCEPTIONAL: Consistently performed job duties; work and behavior expectations consistently met; consistently exceeded performance goals and supervisor's expectations; anticipated and took on additional duties beyond major responsibilities.	SUCCESSFUL: Consistently performed job duties; work and behavior expectations consistently met; met performance goals and supervisor's expectations; completed and verified own work in a timely, accurate and thorough manner.	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT/UNSUCCESSFUL: Did not consistently and/or accurately perform job duties; work and/or behavior expectations were not met; did not meet performance goals and/or supervisor's expectations; not consistently reliable in handling daily duties; may require more supervision than is expected.
II. MAJOR RESPONSIBILITIES The evaluating supervisor must review the employee's job description and summarize the position's major responsibilities. Each listed major responsibility should account for at least 20% with a combined total of 100%. If necessary, minor responsibilities can be combined to equal 20%. The evaluating supervisor must rate according to the evaluation rating chart provided above and provide comments for each major responsibility listed.		
MAJOR RESPONSIBILITIES	RATING	EVALUATING SUPERVISOR'S COMMENTS (REQUIRED)
	Select a Rating:	
	Select a Rating:	
	Select a Rating:	
	Select a Rating:	
	Select a Rating:	

PERFORMANCE GOALS AND DEVELOPMENT PLAN
III. PERFORMANCE GOALS As part of the planning process, the evaluating supervisor must list performance goals for the employee to achieve during the future performance period. Goals and objectives should be specific, measurable, actionable, relevant and time-bound.
IV. PERFORMANCE DEVELOPMENT PLAN The evaluating supervisor should develop a performance development plan for the next 12 months to enhance the employee's work performance. The performance development plan should directly address any major responsibilities, behavior expectations and other focus areas needing improvement or requiring attention. The evaluating supervisor should also outline training and resources available to the employee.

PLANNING SESSION SIGNATURES				
V. PLANNING SESSION SIGNATURES The Second Level Evaluator should review and sign the planning session before it is presented and discussed with the employee.				
	PRINT NAME	SIGNATURE	LSU ID	DATE
EVALUATING SUPERVISOR				
SECOND LEVEL EVALUATOR				
EMPLOYEE				

MIDYEAR REVIEW
VI. MIDYEAR REVIEW TOOK PLACE ON (DATE): COMMENTS:

BEHAVIOR EXPECTATIONS		
VII. BEHAVIOR EXPECTATIONS The evaluating supervisor must assess the employee according to a standardized set of expectations set forth in the "Behavior Expectations" attachment.		
CORE COMPETENCY	RATING	EVALUATING SUPERVISOR'S COMMENTS (REQUIRED)
DELIVERING RESULTS	Select a Rating:	
PROBLEM SOLVING	Select a Rating:	
COMMUNICATION	Select a Rating:	
COLLABORATION	Select a Rating:	
SERVICE TO CUSTOMER AND LSU	Select a Rating:	
INTEGRITY	Select a Rating:	
LEADING OTHERS (FOR SUPERVISORS ONLY)	Select a Rating:	

OVERALL EVALUATION RATING		
<input type="checkbox"/> EXCEPTIONAL	<input type="checkbox"/> SUCCESSFUL	<input type="checkbox"/> NEEDS IMPROVEMENT/UNSUCCESSFUL
<input type="checkbox"/> NOT EVALUATED	<input type="checkbox"/> UNRATED – If Unrated, select sub-category: <input type="checkbox"/> Never Rendered <input type="checkbox"/> Untimely <input type="checkbox"/> Violation of Chapter 10	

VIII. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SUMMARY The evaluating supervisor should determine an overall evaluation rating and provide a brief narrative that summarizes the employee's work performance, accomplishments or areas needing improvement during this evaluation period. If a rating of exceptional or needs improvement/unsuccessful is chosen, the evaluating supervisor must provide justification for the rating.

OVERALL EVALUATION SIGNATURES			
IX. OVERALL EVALUATION SIGNATURES The Second Level Evaluator should review and sign the evaluation before it is presented and discussed with the employee. <i>*My signature only indicates that this evaluation has been shared and discussed with me, and does not necessarily indicate agreement with its contents.</i>			
	PRINT NAME	SIGNATURE	DATE
EVALUATING SUPERVISOR			
SECOND LEVEL EVALUATOR			
EMPLOYEE*			

APPENDIX F: RESEARCH CONSENT FORM – EMPLOYEE

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM-EMPLOYEE

1. **Study Title:** An examination of various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and Work engagement) and their relationship to longevity, attendance and job performance of custodial staff at a large public university
2. **Performance Site:** Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
3. **Investigators:** The following investigators are available for questions about this study, M-F, 8:00 a.m. -4:30p.m.
Dr. Petra Robinson, Assistant Professor, (225) 578-5753, petrar@lsu.edu
4. **Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between age, gender, family status, marital status and work engagement, in relation to attendance, longevity and job performance.
5. **Subject Inclusion:** Custodial staff members with Facilities, Housing, University Recreation and Union.
6. **Number of subjects:** 324
7. **Study Procedures:** The study will be conducted in one session, at which time the participants will answer general questions about gender, family status, and marital status. Immediately following, subjects will fill out a brief questionnaire regarding work engagement. A separate meeting will be held with the employee's supervisor to allow them the opportunity to rate their overall job performance. The subject's Workday data will be accessed to obtain information including age, employment start date and attendance, and has been approved by LSU's Employee Relations Director, Jennifer Normand.
8. **Benefits:** The study may yield valuable information about work trends that can guide future initiatives to enhance your work experience.
9. **Risks:** Minimal to none; every effort will be made to maintain the confidentiality of your responses. Files will be kept in secure cabinets to which only the investigator has access. Once your information is entered into the data program, you will be assigned a number and your name will be deleted. All paper files will be destroyed and you will be unidentifiable.
10. **Right to Refuse:** Subjects may choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or loss of any benefit to which they might otherwise be entitled.
11. **Privacy:** Results of the study may be published, but no names or identifying information will be included in the publication.
12. **Signatures:**

The study has been discussed with me and all my questions have been answered. I may direct additional questions regarding study specifics to the investigators. If I have questions about subjects' rights or other concerns, I can contact Dennis Landin, Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692, irb@lsu.edu, www.lsu.edu/irb. I agree to participate in the study described above and acknowledge the investigator's obligation to provide me with a signed copy of this consent form.

Subject Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX G: RESEARCH CONSENT FORM – SUPERVISOR

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM-SUPERVISOR

1. **Study Title:** An examination of various factors (age, gender, family status, marital status, and work engagement) and their relationship to longevity, attendance and job performance of custodial staff at a large public university
2. **Performance Site:** Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
3. **Investigators:** The following investigators are available for questions about this study, M-F, 8:00 a.m. -4:30p.m.
Dr. Petra Robinson, Assistant Professor, (225) 578-5753, petrar@lsu.edu
4. **Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between age, gender, family status, marital status and work engagement, in relation to attendance, longevity and job performance of custodial staff members.
5. **Subject Inclusion:** Custodial staff members with Facilities, Housing, University Recreation and Union.
6. **Number of subjects:** 324
7. **Study Procedures:** The study will be conducted in one session, at which time the participants will answer general questions about gender, family status, and marital status. Immediately following, subjects will fill out a brief questionnaire regarding work engagement. A separate meeting will be held with the employee's supervisor to allow them the opportunity to rate their overall job performance. The subject's Workday data will be accessed to obtain information including age, employment start date and attendance, and has been approved by LSU's Employee Relations Director, Jennifer Normand.
8. **Benefits:** The study may yield valuable information about work trends that can guide future initiatives to enhance your employees' work experience.
9. **Risks:** Minimal to none; every effort will be made to maintain the confidentiality of your Responses, as well as those of your employees. Files will be kept in secure cabinets to which only the investigator has access. Once all information is entered into the data program, your employee will be assigned a number and their name will be deleted. All paper files will be destroyed and the employees will be unidentifiable.
10. **Right to Refuse:** Subjects may choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or loss of any benefit to which they might otherwise be entitled.
11. **Privacy:** Results of the study may be published, but no names or identifying information will be included in the publication.
12. **Signatures:**

The study has been discussed with me as the employees' supervisor and all my questions have been answered. I may direct additional questions regarding study specifics to the investigators. If I have questions about subjects' rights or other concerns, I can contact Dennis Landin, Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692, irb@lsu.edu, www.lsu.edu/irb. I agree to participate in the study described above and acknowledge the investigator's obligation to provide me with a signed copy of this consent form.

Subject Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX H: IRB APPROVAL



Institutional Review Board
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair
130 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8892
F: 225.578.5983
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

ACTION ON PROTOCOL APPROVAL REQUEST

TO: Sunyoung Park
SHREWD

FROM: Dennis Landin
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: December 12, 2016

RE: IRB# 3798

TITLE: AN EXAMINATION OF VARIOUS FACTORS (AGE, GENDER, FAMILY STATUS, MARITAL STATUS, AND WORK ENGAGEMENT) AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO LONGEVITY, ATTENDANCE, AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF CUSTODIAL STAFF AT A LARGE PUBLIC UNIVERSITY

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review type: Full Expedited Review date: 12/9/2016

Risk Factor: Minimal Uncertain Greater Than Minimal

Approved Disapproved

Approval Date: 12/9/2016 Approval Expiration Date: 12/8/2017

Re-review frequency: (annual unless otherwise stated)

Number of subjects approved: 325

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):

Protocol Matches Scope of Work in Grant proposal: (if applicable) _____

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman 

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is **CONDITIONAL** on:

1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. SPECIAL NOTE: Make sure you use bcc when emailing more than one recipient.

*All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at <http://www.lsu.edu/irb>

***Note- Committee Co-chair listed as the Researcher since study required a full review

VITA

Celena Raquel Trahan was born and raised in Maurice, Louisiana. She attended high school at North Vermilion High School in Maurice, Louisiana and graduated in May 2000. Following graduation, she attended Louisiana Tech University in Ruston, Louisiana where she earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Animal Science in May 2004. She then moved to Baton Rouge, Louisiana to pursue a Master's of Science degree in Food Science, at Louisiana State University. She also accepted a graduate assistantship in Residential Life. After her first semester of graduate school, she realized that she had a passion to continue a career working with college students. In January of 2005, she changed her graduate program to Human Resource Education and Workforce Development. In December of 2006, she graduated with a Master's degree and continued full time employment in Residential Life at Louisiana State University.

In June of 2008, Celena accepted a position as the Assistant Director Housing Operations in Residential Life at Tulane University in New Orleans, Louisiana. The following spring, she was accepted to the doctoral program in Higher Education at the University of New Orleans. She began course work in August of 2009, while working full time and going to school in the evening. She was later promoted to Associate Director of Housing Operations in March of 2010 at Tulane University, while continuing her education. Celena was offered a position as the Associate Director of Housing Operations at Louisiana State University and accepted, so she moved back to Baton Rouge in February of 2011. While working in Baton Rouge, she would return to New Orleans two nights a week to continue her course work through December 2011. In January of 2012, Celena transferred to the doctoral program at Louisiana State University in Human Resource Education and Workforce Development. She anticipates graduating with her PhD in May 2017.