Absenteeism is defined as the lack of presence of an employee for a planned work. According to Bhatia (1980) one of the factors affecting optimum utilization of human resources is absenteeism. It is an industrial malady affecting productivity, profits, investments, and the absentee workers themselves. Its consequences are alarming, as a day lost is a resource lost, deprived of being invested. As such, an increasing rate of absence adds considerably to the cost of production of an industry and saps industrial progress. The economic and social loss occurring from absenteeism cannot be determined accurately Bhatia (1984).

High absenteeism in the workplace may be indicative of poor morale, but absences can also be caused by workplace hazards or sick building syndrome. Many employers use statistics such as the Bradford factor that do not distinguish between genuine illness and absence for inappropriate reasons. In 2013 in the UK the CIPD estimated that the average worker had 7.6 sick days per year and that absenteeism cost employers £595 per employee per annum.

The psychological model that discusses this is the "withdrawal model", which assumes that absenteeism represents individual withdrawal from dissatisfying working conditions. This finds empirical support in a negative association between absence and job satisfaction, especially satisfaction with the work itself.

Medical-based understanding of absenteeism find support in research that links absenteeism with smoking, problem drinking, low back pain, and migraines. Absence ascribed to medical causes is often still, at least in part, voluntary. Research shows that over one trillion dollars is lost annually due to productivity shortages as a result of medical-related absenteeism, and that increased focus on preventative wellness could reduce these costs. The line between psychological and medical causation is blurry, given that there are positive links between both work stress and depression and absenteeism. Depressive tendencies may lie behind some of the absence ascribed to poor physical health, as with adoption of a "culturally approved sick role". This places the adjective "sickness" before the word "absence", and carries a burden of more proof than is usually offered.
According to Chadwick-Jones JK, Nicholson N, Brown C (1973) Sickness absence has as its main attribution a work incapacity related to illness or injury. A significant proportion of the leave taken however, relates to factors other than inability or inappropriateness for work. In order to explore this distinction researchers have attempted to define and investigate two types of absenteeism: involuntary absence (unavoidable) and voluntary absence (avoidable).

Fitzpatrick and Huczynski (1989) suggest that careful assessment and analysis of absence problems is essential for effective solutions. This involves characterization of the absence problem within an organisation and identification of the causes before designing and implementing strategies suited to that organisation. They further suggest that solutions can be chosen from a range of people, work and organizationally focused strategies.

Evidence indicates that absence is generally viewed as "mildly deviant workplace behavior". For example, people tend to hold negative stereotypes of absentees, under report their own absenteeism, and believe their own attendance record is better than that of their peers. Negative attributions about absence then bring about three outcomes: the behavior is open to social control, sensitive to social context, and is a potential source of workplace conflict.

Women are expected to be absent more often since they are, traditionally seen, more inclined with taking care of the household Barmby, Ercolani and Treble (2002) but also other explanations were found in the literature.

Steers and Rhodes (1978) found the view that traditionally the family responsibilities, such as taking care of sick children, are ascribed to the wife or mother. Johns (2003) and Barham and Begum (2005) discuss similar explanations. Barham and Begum (2005) even found a similar rate of absence for women with or without dependent children while commonly is perceived that presence of children is associated with a higher rate. A study of Cuelenaere (1997) showed that most sick women did not resume work until they were fully recovered, whereas most men often (partially) resumed work even when they were not fully recovered. Geurts, Kompier and Grundemann (2000) further state that women are alleged by the media to hold lower work values because they make less serious attempts to resume work after sickness. Two final explanations mentioned by Johns (2003) are that, compared to men, women appeared to be more restless and busier during a scheduled day off. And
secondly that women may experience or respond more negatively or proactively to stressful or dissatisfying events at work and use time off as an adjective mechanism. 

Steers and Rhodes (1978), Geurts, Kompler and Grundemann (2000), Barmby, Ercolani and Treble (2002), Johns (2003), Gimeno et al. (2004), Barham and Begun (2005) and Leaker (2008) all find a significant relation for women to be more absent than men. In line with these outcomes, a similar result between gender and absenteeism is expected in this study.

Porwoll (1980) found that novice teachers with two to four years of experience and veteran teachers who have worked within the educational arena between twenty three to twenty-five years miss the fewest number of days of school. Novice teachers are still in the infant developmental phase of their career and tend to have fewer personal responsibilities, such as child rearing.

Jacobson (1990) found that teachers who were nearing retirement were absent on a more frequent basis.

Unicomb et. al (1992) found that Wednesdays were missed more than any day per week and that Mondays had the fewest number of days missed from work. A common misconception is that employees will miss work on Friday. The research indicates that teachers tend to stay at school in anticipation for the weekend.

A variety of evidence indicates that some teacher absences are discretionary and can be influenced by school and district policies. For example, teachers’ rates of absence are positively associated with the generosity of available leave provisions Ehrenberg, Ehrenberg, Rees, & Ehrenberg, (1991); Winkler, (1980), and the number of contractually allowed days of paid sick- or personal-leave. Rates of absence drop when incentive schemes like buy-backs of unused sick-leave Boyer, (1994); Ehrenberg et al., (1991); Winkler, (1980) or bonuses for exceptional attendance Boyer, (1994); Freeman & Grant,(1987); Jacobson, (1990); Skidmore, (1984); White, (1990) are implemented. Teachers respond to changes in absence control policies. For example, teachers who are required to report absences directly to their principal by telephone are absent less often than teachers who report their absences indirectly, to either a centralized reporting center or a school-based message machine Farrell & Stamm, (1988); Winkler (1980).

There are several mechanisms through which teacher absences may reduce student achievement. First, instructional intensity may be radically reduced when a regularly
assigned teacher is absent Capitan & et al., (1980); Gagne, (1977); Varlas, (2001). substitute teacher showing movies is a time-honored illustration, but low skill level substitute teachers may contribute to the reduction in instructional focus. In contrast to policies of similarly industrialized countries (e.g., Canada, Australia), nineteen states do not require that substitutes hold a Bachelor’s degree Henderson, Protheroe, & Porch,(2002), much less the equivalent licensure status of the regular teacher. Furthermore, NCLB specifically exempts substitutes from its otherwise ambitious requirements for teacher quality US Department of Education, (2004).

A second mechanism through which teacher absences may affect student achievement is through the creation of discontinuities of instruction, the disruption of the regular routines and procedures of the classroom Rundall (1986); Turbeville (1987). Students may have difficulty forming meaningful relationships with multiple, mobile substitutes, and even if substitutes deliver brilliant isolated lessons, they may not be able to implement a regular teacher’s long-term instructional strategies. Furthermore, substitutes’ lack of detailed knowledge of students’ skill levels makes it difficult for them to provide differentiated instruction that addresses the needs of individual students.

Teacher absences may also negatively impact student achievement in less direct ways. For example, teacher absences may inhibit attempts by school faculties to implement consistent instructional practices across classrooms and grades. Common planning time, during which teachers may collaborate on improving instruction, is often so scarce that even low rates of teacher absence could almost completely undermine its purpose. Note that this mechanism implies that a teacher’s absence not only impacts negatively on the students he or she directly works with, but also on the students taught by the teacher’s colleagues.

Many studies have found a negative relationship between teacher absences and student achievement Bayard (2003); Beavers (1981); Boswell (1993); Cantrell (2003); (2005); Lewis, (1981); Madden & et al., (1991); Manatt (1987); Pitkoff (1989); Smith (1984); Summers & Raivetz (1982); Womble (2001); Woods (1990). However, these studies do not provide compelling evidence of a causal link between teacher absences and student achievement because they do not deal explicitly with the potential correlation between measures of teacher absences and unobserved levels of teacher skill and effort. For example, a high rate of absence may signal a
teacher’s lack of skill or effort when she is in school. If this were the dominant pattern, then the observed negative relationship between teacher absence and student achievement would be an upwardly biased estimate of the causal impact of teacher absence on student achievement. Thus, the research challenge is to develop a strategy that permits unbiased estimation of the causal impact of teacher absence on student achievement.

**Johns (2002), Kristensen, Juhl, Eskildsen, Nielsen, Frederiksen, Bisgaard (2006)** Absenteeism is a perennial problem in industry. Various studies have revealed that relatively a few workers are responsible for substantial portion of absenteeism in any plant

**Fitzgibbons (1992) and Rhodes and Steers (1990)** discussed that the vast majority of absence research has focused on the effects of work attitudes like job satisfaction. Besides the restrictions for the determinants itself, employee absence has also been proven to differ between countries Lusinyan and Bonato, (2007); Gimeno, Benavides and Benach, (2004).

**Byrk et al. (1993)** found that school communities with a greater degree of collegiality, care for others, and cultural salience also tend to have lower teacher-absence rates also find that teacher-absence rates are lower in Catholic schools than traditional public schools.

**Mayer & Mitchell (1993)** Educators are faced, therefore, with what to do to keep students from incurring excessive absences. Excessive absenteeism results in loss of instruction for the student disruption of instruction for the teacher who must provide remediation upon the student’s return to school, increased workloads for guidance counsellors, administrators, and social workers who must intervene to try to curb or prevent repeated occurrences, and potential decrease in school funding due to loss of Full Time Equivalence (FTE) counts for students who are absent from school.

**Phone Master (1998)** found that Oakland (CA) Unified School District reported a loss of nearly $4 million per year due to high absenteeism Los Angeles Unified School District, also in California, reported a loss of approximately $200,000 in one calendar year from a single large high school Mayer & Mitchell (1993).

**Wisconsin (2000)** found that absenteeism and truancy have been a problem for administrators, teachers, parents, and students. If we require students to attend school
regularly between the ages of five or six and sixteen to eighteen, as all fifty states and the District of Columbia currently do, then we must expect that some students are not going to conform to the mandatory attendance rules. Chronic absenteeism problems face many school districts. Wisconsin public schools report that 31.1% of total absences in the 1998-99 academic years were a result of truancy.

Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (2001) found that teacher mobility is related more to student socio-economic characteristics than to teacher salaries: schools serving large numbers of academically disadvantaged, racial or ethnic minority students tend to lose a substantial fraction of teachers each year both to other schools (with more advantaged students) and to other professions. A key policy challenge is to ensure that all classrooms are staffed with high-performing teachers.

Whitaker (2001) and Gimeno, Benavides and Benach (2004) found that the consequences of absenteeism make sickness absence one of the top priorities for European Union Governments. Barmby, Ercolani and Treble (2002) found that teacher mobility is related more to student socio-economic characteristics than to teacher salaries: schools serving large numbers of academically disadvantaged, racial or ethnic minority students tend to lose a substantial fraction of teachers each year both to other schools (with more advantaged students) and to other professions. A key policy challenge is to ensure that all classrooms are staffed with high-performing teachers.

Cullen and Reback (2002) found that the teacher have to respond adversely to incentives by, for example, reducing collaboration among teachers themselves, excluding low-performing students from classes, cheating on or manipulating the indicator on which rewards are based, decreasing the academic rigor of classes, or “teaching to the test” to the detriment of other subjects and skills.

Kremer et al (2005) found that private-school teachers have absence rates one-third lower than their public-school counterparts in the same villages – despite the fact that private-school salaries are only one-fifth to one-quarter that of public-school salaries.

Bruns, Mingat, and Rakotomalala (2003) found that the evidence does not generally support this view of teacher absence. In many developing countries, teacher pay does not appear to especially low, at least as measured by the teachers’ wages in alternative professions. Teachers’ salaries often reach two to five times their country’s per capita GDP, so wages that seem low in absolute terms are quite reasonable in relative terms.

Martocchio & Jimeno (2003) stated that” We propose a model of the personality types that have a higher likelihood of using absenteeism to their benefit (i.e.to
recharge and change negative affect) and therefore have the absence be functional (i.e., positive affect and higher productivity upon returning to the job) rather than dysfunctional (i.e., negative affect and person is still unproductive or has less productivity than before the absence event). We conclude by emphasizing the theoretical contributions that this model makes and by suggesting ways in which the model could be tested.”

Lavy (2004) found that how teachers behave, including how often they show up to their classrooms, can be affected by monetary and other types of incentives. For example, a recent evaluation of a performance based pay bonus for teachers in Israel concluded that the incentive led to increases in student achievement, primarily through changes in teaching methods, after-school teaching, and teachers’ increased responsiveness to students’ needs.

Mizala and Romaguera (2005) found that a quasi-experimental evaluation of the program’s impact of preliminary evidence that the incentive has improved student achievement in those schools that face relatively good chances of winning the bonus, although the effect appears only cumulatively after a number of years.

Chaudhury, Hammer, Kremer, Muralidharan, and Rogers (2006). This studied found that the set out to bypass the problem of faulty administrative records by measuring attendance through direct observation of teachers during surprise visits to primary schools in 2002-03. The research team used this same methodology across six countries on three continents, in each case in a random nationally representative sample of primary schools, which made cross country comparisons possible.

Suryadarma, Suryahadi, Sumarto, and Rogers (2006) found that an additional 10 percentage points in the average absence rate of teachers at a school is associated with a .09-standard-deviation decrease in math scores of 4th graders (with no effect on verbal test scores) that study do not track student learning over time, however, nor are they able to correlate an individual student’s achievement with the absence of his or her own teacher.

Alcazar et al (2006) found that Peru fits this characterization, with little incentive for performance. Even without pay incentives, the possibility of promotion could provide motivation to at least the better teachers, but in practice promotions are awarded not only on the basis of merit but also on the basis of connections and corruption.
Das, Pandey, and Zajonc (2006) found that in Pakistan, the larger attendance gap: public-school teachers are absent 3.2 days per month, compared with an already high 1.8 days per month for private-school teachers. A plausible explanation for this difference is that private schools can fire teachers for poor effort, whereas public schools cannot. In India, despite the very high absence rate, only one in 3000 public-school head teachers had ever fired a teacher for excessive absence Kremer et al (2005)

Miller, Miller, Murnane, and Willett (2007) found that a substantial share of absences is discretionary, and that higher absences lead to significantly lower student achievement.

Clotfelter, Ladd, and Vigdor (2007) found that teacher absences are associated with lower student achievement in primary school.

Das et al (2007) found that the study involved repeated surprise visits to the same schools over the course of the year, together with measurement of the students’ learning gains. By correlating each student’s learning gains with the absence of his or her teacher, the authors conclude that absence has a surprisingly large effect: each additional 5 percent increase in teacher absence reduces learning by 4 to 8 percent of a year’s learning for the typical student. This makes it more likely that the learning effect really is due to absent teachers and not to differences in some other input that is correlated with teacher absence.

Duflo, Hanna, and Ryan (2007) found that the experimental evidence on how teacher absence affects learning gains. The experiment provided attendance-based bonuses for teachers at NGO schools in rural Rajasthan, India, by using cameras to monitor attendance and then verifying the results with random spot checks. Compared with the teachers in the schools that had been randomly assigned as controls, teachers eligible for the bonuses had much lower absence rates – only 21 percent, compared with 42 percent for the control teachers.

Vegas (2007) found that in her discussion of teacher pay structures, notes that the great bulk of compensation is unrelated to assessments of how well the teacher is performing, in terms of either effort or student outcomes.

Figlio and Kenny (2007) found that in the U.S, test scores are higher in schools that offer individual financial incentives to teachers for good performance, though it is
unclear whether the finding is due to high-performing schools’ adopting teacher incentive programs or to the responses of teachers to these programs.

**Vegas and Umansky (2007)** found in their review of teacher incentives in Latin America, define several types of incentives affecting teachers, including the opportunity to educate children, and thereby improve their well-being, can serve as a powerful incentive to attract individuals into the teaching profession. Though its presence is important to many teachers, most people would agree that idealism alone is not sufficient to produce adequate performance. Social prestige and recognition: which can incite people to become teachers. **Job stability:** The threat of losing one’s job can act as a powerful incentive, though it is virtually absent from the teaching profession in the region. In many countries, the prevalence of union contracts strongly protects teachers’ jobs, which may serve to attract potential teachers to the profession. **Pensions and other non-salary benefit:** such as health insurance. Reliable government pensions that provide for a decent living after a teacher retires can attract people to the career as well as create an incentive for teachers to remain in their jobs. Although not sufficiently researched, pensions may be one of the more influential incentives encouraging people to work as teachers. **Professional growth:** The presence of opportunities for advancement throughout a career can serve to motivate teachers to excel in their work. Unfortunately, this type of teacher advancement ladder is largely absent in the teaching profession in many developing countries.

**Salary differentials and other monetary benefits:** Differences in salary and overall compensation exist between teachers and non-teachers, and among teachers themselves. Changes in the salary differential between teachers and no teachers can make teaching a more or less attractive profession to highly qualified individuals. Among teachers, salary differentials may be based on seniority, training, characteristics of the school or its students, performance, or other variables. In most countries, teacher salary differentials are based almost exclusively on training and years of service; they are rarely based on performance.

These nine types of incentives can together work to attract, retain, and motivate effective teachers. Not all of them are likely to have direct effects on attendance, but it is useful to understand the evidence on the policies that can affect them and how they affect teachers’ performance. In this section, we review that evidence, focusing on what is known about their effects on effort and attendance.
Clotfelter, Ladd, and Vigdor (2007) found that a student’s achievement in math and reading falls by 1 to 2 percent of a standard deviation for every 10 days that his teacher is absent.

Miller, Murnane, and Willet (2008) found that the negative impact on math scores of such an absence at 3.3 percent of a standard deviation. Describing the harm of teacher absence in another manner.

Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2008) found that the absence rates have been measured frequently since 2005 at a representative random sample of schools, as part of a series of experiments with interventions to improve school quality. A comparison with the findings from 2003, which were generated by one of the same researchers, shows no statistically significant improvements. Absence rates dropped only slightly in the control schools, from 25 percent in 2003 to 24 percent in 2005-06. Surprisingly, even in the schools in which researchers introduced teacher performance bonus payments on an experimental basis, absence remained stagnant at 25 percent – even as the incentive payments improved teachers’ preparation and accelerated student learning.

Romero (2008) found that the students in early elementary school possessing three or more of these risks were proven to have more absences during the school year than their peers who did not possess three or more risk factors.

Herrmann and Rockoff (2010) found that the daily loss in student achievement resulting from having a substitute teacher is comparable to replacing an average teacher with one between the 10th and 20th percentile in terms of teaching effectiveness. Other researchers note that providing for substitute teachers incurs heavy financial costs.

Chang (2010) found that absenteeism as missing ten percent of the school year and importantly includes all absences in this count, excused and unexcused. Including all absences is important for very young students in elementary school because it is extremely unlikely that a parent does not know about their child’s absence. As children age and move into the secondary school level, truancy is generally defined in terms of unexcused absences and comes with the possibility that parents are unaware of their child’s absences.

Maynard (2012) found that the reasons for absenteeism exist, including a number of family risk factors, health reasons, lack of resources, domestic violence, lack of
interest or ability on the part of the student and the student’s perception of the school, classroom and teacher. One study suggests a number of family risk factors that are an adequate early predictor of student absenteeism: low level of parental education, being born to a teenage mother, living below the poverty index, living in a family with 4 or more children, receiving welfare, having unemployed parents, having a parent with poor health or having food insecurity.

Ehrenberg, Ehrenberg, Rees, & Ehrenberg, (1991); Tingle, Schoeneberger, Wang, Algozzine, & Kerr, (2012). found that the expected because substitute teachers are typically less-qualified instructors than the teachers they replace. Moreover, the pace at which the curriculum is covered is delayed and the daily classroom routine is interrupted when a teacher is absent.

Scott, Markham, and Taylor (1987) found that “a good attendance policy also includes a progressive discipline clause”. Employees under this guidance must receive increasing levels of punishment for more severe or repeated violations of the organization’s policy. The goal is to shape the employee’s behavior and to give the information they need to understand the consequences of their actions. The policy needs to be procedural and must be ingrained throughout the academic year to staff members.

Jacobson (1988) found that a pay incentive plan helps to decrease teacher absenteeism. Teachers will work remain at work to obtain a pay incentive.

Jacobson (1990) found that teachers who were nearing retirement were absent on a more frequent basis.

Scott, Markham, and Robbers (1985) found that recognition motivates employees to stay at work and that pay incentives can be used if they are designed properly.

Scott and McClellan (1990) found that the school level taught and the level of the teaching license was two primary predictors of teacher absences. Through their investigation, it was discovered that the higher the degree obtained by the teacher, the higher the number of days they were absent from the classroom. Elementary teachers missed the most days.

Pitkoff (1993) found that the low performance markings tend to miss a larger number of days than those who did not. Teachers with low marks do not feel a connection to the workplace and believe that they are ineffective in the classroom. This gives an
impetus for school administrators to develop teacher growth plans early in the academic year for low performing teachers than later in the year.

**Porwoll (1980)** found that novice teachers with two to four years of experience and veteran teachers who have worked within the educational arena between twenty three to twenty-five years miss the fewest number of days of school. Novice teachers are still in the infant developmental phase of their career and tend to have fewer personal responsibilities, such as child rearing. He also found that the low performance markings tend to miss a larger number of days than those who did not. Teachers with low marks do not feel a connection to the workplace and believe that they are ineffective in the classroom. This gives an impetus for school administrators to develop teacher growth plans early in the academic year for low performing teachers than later in the year.

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74

78
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