



Protecting well-being and performance after sickness presenteeism under demanding conditions: The dual effects of proactive personality and work reward as resources

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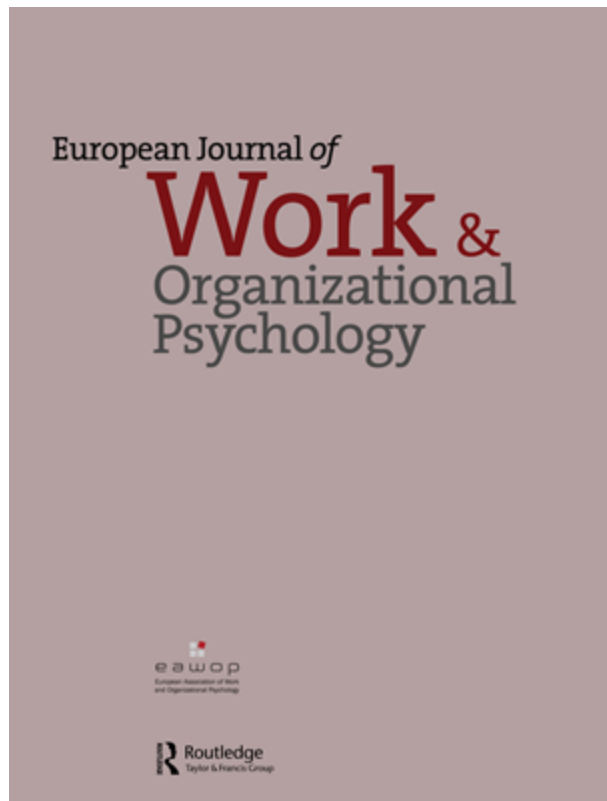
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**Protecting well-being and performance after sickness
presenteeism under demanding conditions: The dual effects
of proactive personality and work reward as resources**

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3 **Protecting well-being and performance after sickness presenteeism under demanding**
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5 **conditions: The dual effects of proactive personality and work reward as resources**
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8

9 **Abstract**
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11
12 Based on conservation of resources (COR) theory, we tested a moderated mediation model of
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14 presenteeism. We hypothesized that heavy workload would precipitate sickness presenteeism,
15
16 which would lead to elevated exhaustion and hampered job performance (mediation). We further
17
18 hypothesized that proactive personality and work reward would mitigate the positive
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20 “presenteeism-exhaustion” and the negative “presenteeism-performance” relationships (moderation
21
22 on the second-stage of the mediation). We conducted a two-wave panel study (with one year
23
24 interval), collecting data from 218 employees working in diverse industries in Taiwan. We found
25
26 significant moderating effects of proactive personality and work reward on the indirect effect of
27
28 workload on job performance via presenteeism over the span of one year. Contrary to our
29
30 hypotheses, workload related positively and indirectly (via presenteeism) to job performance, but
31
32 only for those high in proactive personality and work reward. Although the moderating effects of
33
34 proactive personality and work reward on the “workload-presenteeism-exhaustion” link were
35
36 insignificant, results did support the buffering role of proactive personality on the positive
37
38 relationship between presenteeism and exhaustion. Namely, this relationship was found to be
39
40 positive only for employees with lower levels of proactive personality, whilst the relationship was
41
42 not significant for employees higher in proactive personality. These results tentatively suggest that
43
44 resources have different functions for the outcomes of presenteeism. The possibility to integrate the
45
46 buffering role of resources against the deleterious effects of presenteeism with the enabling role of
47
48 resources to support functional presenteeism is not only of theoretical interest, but also of important
49
50 practical implications for better managing the presenteeism behavior.
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57
58 **Keywords:** sickness presenteeism, the COR theory, proactive personality, work reward
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2 In the post-pandemic era, facing unprecedented upheavals and uncertainties, raising inflation
3 and imminent recession, organizations have to adopt strategic choices like downsizing, restructuring,
4 and layoffs. All this translates into fewer choices, less control, increased workload and job
5 and layoffs. All this translates into fewer choices, less control, increased workload and job
6 insecurity for the employees (Cigna, 2020; Sharma, Cooper, & Pestonjee, 2021). With increased
7 work intensity, a particular behavior dubbed sickness presenteeism (SP, or presenteeism, hereafter
8 used interchangeably) has reached epidemic proportion in the past decade, as reported at 30% to
9 90% worldwide (Lohaus & Habermann, 2019). One recent study found that over a quarter of
10 academic staff committed “virtual presenteeism”, while working from home during the pandemic
11 (Van Der Feltz-Cornelis, Varley, & Allgar, 2020). Presenteeism refers to ‘going to work or
12 continuing to work from home at home (virtual presenteeism) while ill’ (Johns, 2010;
13 Karanika-Murray & Cooper, 2018; Van Der Feltz-Cornelis et al., 2020). While empirical studies on
14 SP have grown rapidly in recent years, the bulk of the literature focuses on identifying the
15 antecedents and correlates of the behavior (Ruhle et al., 2020), and tends to view SP as a negative
16 behavior harmful to employees’ health, attitudes and performance (Johns, 2010; Miraglia & Johns,
17 2016).

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37 Systematic reviews of the literature, however, suggest that the evidence supporting the
38 damaging impacts of presenteeism on future health and performance is inconsistent (Cooper & Lu,
39 2019; Lohaus & Habermann, 2019; Ruhle et al., 2020; Skagen & Collins, 2016). For example, Lu
40 and colleagues showed that presenteeism was negatively related to concurrent mental and physical
41 health and exhaustion, but not future well-being three months later for Chinese and Taiwanese
42 workers (Lu et al., 2014). Another study in Taiwan, however, did find that presenteeism had
43 negative relations with well-being, but not with job performance in a two-month time lag (Lu, Lin
44 & Cooper, 2013). Presenteeism was found to have a short-term (6-month) positive relationship with
45 exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2009), and a long-term (18-month and 3-year) detrimental effect on
46 physical health (Bergström, Bodin, Hagberg, Lindh, Aronsson, & Josephson, 2009). The equivocal
47 evidence seems to suggest that presenteeism may not have a long-lasting negative effect on *all* the
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1 behavioral indicators and/or *all* the well-being and performance outcomes. It is thus imperative to
2 look at “boundary conditions” for the link between SP and various employee outcomes (Cooper &
3 Lu, 2019; John, 2010; Ruhle et al., 2020). Karanika-Murray and Biron (2020) went further to
4 propose that presenteeism may even be enacted as a purposeful and adaptive behavior when
5 presentees aim at simultaneously balancing health constraints and performance demands. They
6 offered initial insights into the conditions/resources enabling the emergence of functional
7 presenteeism, which supports the view that presenteeism does not necessarily result in lower
8 performance for all the presentees (Johns, 2010). In our research, we explore both the internal
9 (proactive personality) and external (organization endowed work reward) resources as the
10 “boundary conditions” that mitigate the negative impacts of presenteeism on future well-being and
11 performance, in the high workload context. That is, in developing our hypotheses, we take the view
12 that resources can mitigate negative presenteeism (Cooper & Lu, 2016, 2019; Ruhle et al., 2020).

13 The thrust of the present study is thus twofold. First, we examine the indirect relationship
14 between workload to health (exhaustion) and job performance through presenteeism, looking at the
15 whole process of “antecedent-SP-outcomes”. As the positive link between heavy work demands and
16 the preponderance of presenteeism is one of the most robust findings in the SP literature, we focus
17 on identifying the moderation effects of proactive personality and work reward in the second leg of
18 the mediation (i.e. presenteeism-outcomes). Specifically, we adopt the resource loss-gain dynamic
19 view of conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2011; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, &
20 Westman, 2018, pp.105-106), to examine whether resource gains (i.e., personal/organizational
21 drives to accomplish work) can protect employees’ well-being and task performance in the context
22 of resource depletion (i.e., working when ill due to heavy workload). *In the SP context, people with
23 proactive personality could make the most use of available resources to them (Greenglass et al.,
24 1999), to better compensate for the serious resource depletion caused by working through illness
25 under high work demands. For instance, Wang et al. (2022) found that proactive coping employees
26 were more favorably evaluated by their supervisors when they committed sickness presenteeism*

1
2 under high work demands. It is thus probable that proactive employees obtain social approval and
3
4 tangible support from supervisors as resource gains to combat the stress of working in illness.
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6 Socio-structural/external resources available in the workplace are viewed as incentives to encourage
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8 employees to work while ill (Johns, 2010; Miraglia & Johns, 2016). When employees exert high
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10 efforts (working under illness), they expect adequate rewards in return from their employers to
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12 sustain the effort-reward balance. The provision of work rewards by the organization can thus be
13
14 seen as a reciprocation and goodwill from the employer to honor the psychological contract. Work
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16 rewards such as monetary compensations, job security, and promotion prospects are thus resource
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18 gains for employees to protect their sense of worthiness and to procure aids to alleviate the strains
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20 of working in illness.
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25 In terms of functional presenteeism, Karanika-Murray and Biron (2020) also proposed that the
26
27 effects of presenteeism on job outcomes could be contingent upon the availability of internal and
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29 external resources. The internal resources are the individual's capacities, referring to the mental,
30
31 physical, or physiological capabilities afforded by the health condition, while external resources are
32
33 the flexible work resources that the presentee has access to and can draw from when enacting the
34
35 presenteeism behavior. Whilst the pivotal role of resources is agreed by researchers in both the
36
37 positive and negative presenteeism camps, past research has mostly focused on investigating the
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39 moderation effects of motivation and intangible work resources on the impacts of presenteeism. For
40
41 instance, evidence suggests that personal motives such as self-efficacy (Lu, Peng, Lin & Cooper,
42
43 2014), positive reasons for enacting presenteeism (Fan & Lu, 2020), intrinsic work value orientation
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45 (Lu & Cooper, 2022), and intangible work resources such as supervisor and colleague support
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47 (Chen, Lu & Cooper, 2021; Wu & Lu, 2022) can buffer the damaging effects of presenteeism on
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49 employees' health and performance.
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54 Over and beyond the motivations and reasons for 'working while ill', how to effectively cope
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56 with resource depletion in the highly demanding scenario of sickness presenteeism is of paramount
57
58 importance for the presentees' well-being and work performance. **Although both self-efficacy and**
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1
2 proactive personality are intrapersonal resources, proactive personality is preponed for active and
3
4 constructive coping behaviors to combat stress which often leads to better adjustment in highly
5
6 demanding circumstances (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Wang, Zhang, Thomas, Yu,
7
8 & Spitzmueller, 2017). As coping behaviors are amendable through training, managers can look to
9
10 enhance employees' proactive coping by introducing various cognitive behavioral programs in the
11
12 organization (Tiwari, 2021). We thus focused on proactive personality, as those with such a trait are
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14 more active to gain resources to reduce the deleterious effects of presenteeism on health and
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16 performance.
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21 Past studies have investigated the protective effect of certain socioemotional aspects of the
22
23 work environment such as supervisor and colleague support (Chen, Lu & Cooper, 2021; Wu & Lu,
24
25 2022) on the outcomes of presenteeism. However, the structural aspects of the work environment
26
27 such as organization endowed rewards for pay, recognition, promotion, and job security (Siegrist,
28
29 1996) have rarely been explored in the context of presenteeism. We thus focus on these work
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31 rewards, expecting that employees with tangible external resources are better able to mitigate the
32
33 negative impacts of presenteeism on their health and performance (Cooper & Lu, 2019).
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37 Second, due to the scarcity of longitudinal studies in the extant literature, claims of negative
38
39 consequences for presenteeism are often made without a rigorous scientific basis (Karanika-Murray
40
41 & Cooper, 2018; Lohaus & Habermann, 2019). In their review of the longitudinal studies, Skagen
42
43 and Collins (2016) noted that the inconsistent findings pertaining to the lasting impacts of
44
45 presenteeism on health and workability were probably due to different timeframes adopted in
46
47 different studies. While there is a constant call for more longitudinal studies, there is thus far no
48
49 consensus for the optimal time lag in organizational research. Most longitudinal studies of SP
50
51 adopted short time frames ranging from 1 week to 6 months. Although some researchers examined
52
53 longer time lapse of more than 12 months (Dellve, Hadzibajramovic, E., Ahlborg Jr., 2011;
54
55 Demerouti, Blanc, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Hox, 2009; Gustafsson & Marklund, 2013), evidence for
56
57 the lasting effects of presenteeism on employee outcomes is mixed, and the temporal effects of
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1
2 presenteeism still need to be disentangled (Skagen & Collins, 2016). We decided, therefore, to
3
4 conduct a two-wave panel study with a longer timeframe of one year to clarify the lasting effects of
5
6 presenteeism on employee outcomes. The one-year lapse from the initial behavior (presenteeism) to
7
8 the subsequent outcomes, allows sufficient time for presenteeism to incubate its effects on
9
10 employees' well-being and job performance while taking into account the level of employees'
11
12 well-being and job performance at the time of enacting the presenteeism behavior. Controlling for
13
14 the baseline levels, gives us a more robust test of causal relations with a prospective research design,
15
16 which is rare in the SP literature. We, therefore, assessed whether the resources depletion (working
17
18 while ill) has long-lasting detrimental effects on well-being and performance; furthermore, whether
19
20 the resources gains (proactive personality and work reward) can mitigate the damaging effects of
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22 presenteeism triggered by high work demands. Below (Figure 1) is the graphical representation of
23
24 our research model.
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29
30 Insert Figure 1 here
31

32 33 **Hypothesis Development**

34 35 **Presenteeism as the linchpin in the relationship between demanding work and employee** 36 37 **outcomes** 38 39

40
41 The concerted research has revealed that a distinctive feature of presenteeism is its robust
42
43 positive associations with a wide range of job demands, especially heavy workload (Ruhle et al.,
44
45 2020). A meta-analysis has clearly demonstrated that heavy workload is the most salient predictor
46
47 of presenteeism (Miraglia & Johns, 2016), suggesting that individuals tend to attend 'work while
48
49 ill' under high work demands. Furthermore, previous research has found that presenteeism is
50
51 associated with poor health, burnout, impaired workability, productivity loss, or lower performance
52
53 (Johns, 2010; Knani, Fournier & Biron, 2021). Another distinct feature of the presenteeism
54
55 literature is that most studies look at the "work demands-presenteeism" relationship, and/or the
56
57 "presenteeism-outcomes" relationship; few studies have examined the *entire* process of
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1
2 “antecedents-SP-outcomes”, while incorporating the conditioning effects of resources (Baeriswyl,
3
4 Krause, Elfering, & Berset, 2017; Lu & Cooper, 2022; Wu & Lu, 2022).

5
6 Reviews of the presenteeism literature note that the mediation effect of presenteeism between
7
8 work demands and well-being and/or performance has been largely overlooked (Lohaus &
9
10 Habermann, 2019; Ruhle et al., 2020). Although cross-sectional studies are not the best way to test
11
12 mediation models, some tentative evidence indicated that higher job demands were positively
13
14 related to poor mental health and burnout through presenteeism (McGregor, Magee, Caputi, &
15
16 Iverson, 2016; Nair, McGregor, & Caputi, 2020). Another cross-sectional study also found that the
17
18 impact of workload on exhaustion was partially mediated by presenteeism (Baeriswyl et al., 2017).
19
20 Recently the mediation role of presenteeism has been examined in longitudinal studies. For example,
21
22 Lu and Cooper (2022) found that high work demands (i.e. long working hours) precipitated the
23
24 presenteeism behavior, which then led to damaged well-being and job performance five months
25
26 later. Another study on nurses also found that high work demands triggered the presenteeism
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28 behavior, which led to elevated turnover intention assessed four months later (Wu & Lu, 2022).
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34 From the perspective of COR theory (Hobfoll, 2011), when employees face resource depletion
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36 caused by high work demands, they will strive to gain other available resources to replenish this
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38 loss of physical and psychological resources, including continuing to work while ill, though using
39
40 the health resource may lead to further draining on one’s resource reservoir (Demerouti et al., 2009).

41 One possible mechanism for the mediation effect of SP, therefore, is the flow of events as follows:
42
43 In high-demand work settings, employees commit sickness presenteeism to avoid excessive in-trays
44
45 of work, striving to keep up with the work schedule (Johansen, Aronsson, & Marklund, 2014; Lu et
46
47 al., 2013). Working through illness then results in an aggravated state of exhaustion (Chou & Mach,
48
49 2021), a lowered level of cognitive functioning, and poorer work performance (Hansen & Andersen,
50
51 2008; Meerding, IJzelenberg, Koopmanschap, Severens, & Burdorf, 2005). Another possible
52
53 mechanism for the mediation effect of SP is that employees may commit SP as a ‘heroic’ behavior,
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55 to reduce the burdens placed on others who are required to cover the absentee’s work (Caverley,
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Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2007; Johansen et al., 2014), or in the absence of a replacement option (Lu et al., 2013; Vinberg, Landstad, Tjulin, & Nordenmark, 2021). According to the resources loss perspective of the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), work demands caused the loss of individual resources. Heavy workloads request more physical and psychological efforts of employees such as cognitive and emotional resources and this leads to certain physiological or psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2009). Working while ill, for whatever reasons, thus deprives the presentees opportunities of recovery and recuperation, which through accumulating effects in the lapse of time results in worsening health and elevated exhaustion (Conway, Hogh, Rugulies, & Hansen, 2014; Lu et al., 2013; Lu & Chou, 2020), productivity loss (Johns, 2010), and poorer overall quantity and quality of work produced (Ammendolia et al., 2016; Block et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2021; Chou & Mach, 2021; Lu & Chou, 2020; Lu & Cooper, 2022). In sum, viewed from the COR perspective, high work demands compel employees to commit sickness presenteeism, which over an extended period of time, can lead to exhaustion and productivity loss in the ensuing resource-loss cycle (Hobfoll et al., 2018). We thus hypothesized that:

H1a: Presenteeism (T1) mediates the positive relationship between workload (T1) and exhaustion (T2), that is, workload relates positively to presenteeism that in turn relates positively to exhaustion.

H1b: Presenteeism (T1) mediates the negative relationship between workload (T1) and job performance (T2), that is, workload relates positively to presenteeism that in turn relates negatively to job performance.

Mobilizing resources to counter the continuous depletion caused by working while ill

In the scenario of continuous resource depletion triggered by working under illness in high-demand conditions, mobilizing, obtaining, or retaining available resources to cope with both high work demands and suboptimal health is of paramount importance for employees to minimize the adverse effects on their well-being and performance (Ferreira, 2018; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). Viewed from the COR perspective of resources-loss and resources-gain

(Hobfoll et al., 2018), high work demands would put more pressure on employees not to take a legitimate sick leave when they are ill. While presentees push themselves to work in suboptimal health, they need to gain more resources to replenish the continuous loss of physical and psychological resources, in order to maintain a desired level of performance. Though with different origins, personal resources and supportive work environment are arguably the most important conditional factors that could mitigate the negative effects of sickness presenteeism on employees' health and performance (Cooper & Lu, 2019; Karanika-Murray & Biron, 2020; Ruhle et al., 2020). For example, Brunner, Igit, Keller, and Wieser (2019) found that job and personal resources buffered the negative effects of job stressors (time pressure, performance constraints, work overload or task uncertainty) on productivity losses caused by presenteeism. Lu, Cooper, and Lin (2013) found that supervisor support alleviated the negative impact of sickness presenteeism on exhaustion for both British and Chinese employees. Extending the above line of research, we focused on proactive personality trait as a personal resource and work reward as a structural/external resource, which are so far overlooked in the presenteeism literature. In line with the COR proposition of resources-loss and resources-gain (Hobfoll, 2011), we examined both the internal and external resources as moderators on the second-leg of the mediation model ("work demands-SP-outcomes"), namely, the links between presenteeism and exhaustion/performance.

Proactive personality as an intrapersonal/internal resource against the detrimental effects of presenteeism

According to trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), behavior is an expression of a certain trait that is activated by trait-relevant situational cues. Thus, when confronted with challenging conditions of high demands and working through sickness, those who hold positive expectations for changing and mastering their environments will fare better in well-being and performance. This is because that individual's coping styles (e.g., proactive coping) have important bearings on successful adjustment in demanding work context (Reuter & Schwarzer, 2009; Wang et al., 2022). The aforementioned findings that self-efficacy and intrinsic work motivations could

1
2 mitigate the deleterious effects of presenteeism on health and performance, support the value of
3
4 intrapersonal factors in coping with sickness presenteeism (Lu et al., 2014; Lu & Cooper, 2022).

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6 We purport that proactive personality is one such factor.

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8
9 'Proactive personality' refers to a dispositional individual difference in people's proclivity to
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11 take personal initiatives in acting to influence their environments in a broad range of activities and
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13 situations (Bateman & Crant, 1993). People with a strong proactive personality recognize
14
15 opportunities, take proactive actions to cope with environmental challenges (Gan, Hu, & Zhang,
16
17 2010; Greenglass, 2002). Research has shown that those with proactive trait tend to take positive
18
19 attitudes and proactive coping strategies to cope with high work demands, then fare better
20
21 well-being and performance (Reuter & Schwarzer, 2009; Wang et al., 2022). In the SP context,
22
23 people with proactive personality may garner more resources to cope with presenteeism under the
24
25 high-demand situation. First, people with a proactive personality have positive outlooks or positive
26
27 expectations toward the future (Reuter & Schwarzer, 2009). They thus tend to expect potential
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29 benefits or gains of presenteeism. For instance, when employees view SP as a show of personal
30
31 strength and professionalism, they prioritize work over health and are less worried about the loss
32
33 incurred by presenteeism (Lu et al., 2013). Such positive conviction towards presenteeism is
34
35 associated with more positive rather than negative outcomes in terms of well-being and
36
37 performance (Cooper & Lu, 2016; Fan & Lu, 2020). Second, people with the characteristic of
38
39 proactive personality are proactive, rather than reactive. When coping with sickness while working,
40
41 they try harder to get control over their performance, because they believe they can make positive
42
43 things happen (Greenglass, 2002; Greenglass, Schwarzer, Jakubiec, Fiksenbaum, & Taubert, 1999).
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45 As shown by a recent study, presentees momentarily increased their effort exertion at work to
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47 sustain performance (Chou & Mach, 2021). Third, people with proactive personality could make the
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49 most use of available resources to them (Greenglass et al., 1999), to better compensate for the
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51 serious resource depletion caused by working through illness under high work demands. Research
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53 has found that to prevent burnout, individuals engage in proactive behaviors such as maintaining
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2 and/or increasing resources and/or reducing demands in the work, home, and personal domains
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4 (Otto, Hoefsmit, Ruysseveldt, & Karen, 2019). Thus, proactive personality and its related
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6 self-regulatory behavior tendency can be regarded as a key personal resource (Hobfoll, 2011),
7
8 which will amplify its value especially in demanding work circumstances. In sum, the challenging
9
10 scenario of ‘working while sick’ to meet high work demands will activate the proactive personality
11
12 trait. People of such predisposition will then mobilize resources to cope with challenges and protect
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14 both well-being and performance, compared to people with a weak dispositional proactive trait. We
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16 thus proposed that:
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19
20 *H2a: Proactive personality will mitigate the positive effect of presenteeism on exhaustion*
21
22 *under high demands, such that the positive presenteeism-exhaustion relationship will be weaker for*
23
24 *employees with high-level proactive personality.*

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26
27 *H2b: Proactive personality will mitigate the negative effect of presenteeism on job*
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29 *performance under high demands, such that the negative presenteeism-performance relationship*
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31 *will be weaker for employees with high-level proactive personality.*

32 33 34 **Work reward as a socio-structural/external resource against the detrimental effects of** 35 36 **presenteeism**

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39 In the context of presenteeism, socio-structural/external resources available in the workplace
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41 are viewed as the incentives to encourage employees to work while ill (Johns, 2010; Miraglia &
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43 Johns, 2016); or as the analgesic to mitigate the damaging effects on the presentees (Cooper & Lu,
44
45 2019). The positive socioemotional aspects of work as external resources have received abundant
46
47 attention in the SP research, confirming that supervisory support, collegial support (Chen et al.,
48
49 2021), team support (Wu & Lu, 2022), and psychosocial safety climate (Biron, Karanika-Murray,
50
51 Ivers, Salvoni, & Fernet, 2021) are all beneficial for employees’ well-being and performance when
52
53 they work under illness. We in the present study focused on the structural-organizational regulatory
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55 aspects of the work environment as resources mitigating the adverse effects of presenteeism
56
57 (Cooper & Lu, 2019). Work reward, such as fair pay, stability of employment, recognition and
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1
2 promotion prospects, provided by organizations are essential resources incentivizing employees to
3
4 engage at work and to cope with work stress (Siegrist, 1996). A solid body of evidence has already
5
6 confirmed the positive effects of work reward as the structural-organizational regulatory
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8 components of the work environment for employees' well-being and job performance (Hussian,
9
10 Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh, & Ali, 2019; Li, Leineweber, Nyberg, & Siegrist, 2019; Siegrist & Li, 2016;
11
12 Siegrist & Wahrendorf, 2016; Wahrendorf, Sembajwe, Zins, Berkman, Goldberg, & Siegrist, 2012).
13
14 However, the salutogenic role of work reward has yet to be explored in the context of presenteeism.
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16 We thus adopted the "effort-reward mismatch" proposition in the Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI)
17
18 model (Siegrist, 1996) to understand the protective mechanism of work reward against resources
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20 loss when employees work through illness.
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25 As a popular occupational stress framework, the ERI model is based on the central tenet of
26
27 social exchange and reciprocity underlying the work contract (Siegrist, 1996). The principle of
28
29 'social reciprocity' pivots on the equivalent exchange of effort spent by the employee and rewards
30
31 returned by the company. These extrinsic rewards are divided into three categories, including
32
33 financial reward (salary or wage), socioemotional reward (esteem or recognition), and status-related
34
35 reward (job promotion or job stability) (Siegrist, 2008). If employees experience the lack of
36
37 reciprocity (e.g., high efforts with low rewards, misfit between efforts and rewards), employees'
38
39 psychological trust to the organization is violated; this state of effort-reward imbalance evokes
40
41 negative emotions and strain reactions with adverse effects on health and well-being (Siegrist, 2008;
42
43 Siegrist & Li, 2016). For example, Wahrendorf et al. (2012) found that high effort or low reward is
44
45 negatively related to mental health and the effort-reward imbalance is negatively related to physical
46
47 health. Many studies also found that failed reciprocity of "cost" and "gain" is associated with high
48
49 risks of depression, coronary heart disease and strains (Li et al., 2019; Siegrist & Wahrendorf,
50
51 2016). The systematic review of empirical studies examining the ERI model further corroborated
52
53 the negative relationship between ERI and work well-being (Van Vegchel, de Jonge, Bosma, &
54
55 Schaufeli, 2005). Expanding the model's initial focus on work stress and strains, Reizer and Siegrist
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1
2 (2022) have recently shown that effort-reward imbalance was associated with multiple dimensions
3
4 of employee performance behavior, including task performance, creative performance, and
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6 organizational citizenship behavior.
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9 Building on the ERI research, presenteeism can be viewed as the circumstance when
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11 employees exert high efforts (working while ill) and expect work reward in return from their
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13 employers (Effort-reward balance). The provision of work reward by the organization can thus be
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15 seen as a reciprocation and goodwill from the employer to honor the psychological/work contract.
16
17 Similar to internal motivational resources (Lu & Cooper, 2022), work reward can be deployed as a
18
19 resource to counter the deleterious effects of resources depletion while employees work under
20
21 illness, and thus function to protect the presentees' well-being and performance. In other words,
22
23 when employees exert extraordinary efforts to work with ill health as they commit presenteeism,
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25 they will expect adequate rewards from the organizations (Siegrist & Wahrendorf, 2016). If
26
27 employees indeed experience adequate exchange between efforts spent and rewards gained, the
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29 effort-reward match reinforces positive emotions, thus acting as a potential protective resource
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31 under stress (Siegrist & Wahrendorf, 2016). On the contrary, if they experience deficient reciprocity
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33 recurrently, negative emotions and stress-related physiological responses will adversely affect their
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35 health and work behavior. Bakker, Killmer, Siegrist, and Schaufeli (2000) found that the misfit of
36
37 high extrinsic efforts spent (e.g., job demands) and low extrinsic rewards received (e.g., poor
38
39 promotion prospects) are positively associated with burnout in nurses of a German university
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41 hospital. We further argue that when employees perceive that their high efforts (working through
42
43 sickness to meet heavy workload) are matched with high rewards, they gain external resources in
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45 their struggle to maintain health and performance against the continuous depletion and loss caused
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47 by sickness presenteeism. We thus proposed that:
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55 *H3a: Work reward will mitigate the positive effect of presenteeism on exhaustion under high*
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57 *demands, such that the positive presenteeism-exhaustion relationship will be weaker for employees*
58
59 *with high-level work reward.*
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1
2 *H3b: Work reward will mitigate the negative effect of presenteeism on job performance under*
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4 *high demands, such that the negative presenteeism-performance relationship will be weaker for*
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6 *employees with high-level work reward.*
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10 **Method**

11 **Procedure and participants**

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15 The present study is a two-wave panel study with a one-year interval between the two data
16
17 collection points. We measured the independent variable (workload), mediator (SP) and dependent
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19 variables twice, and the moderators (proactive personality, work reward) were measured at Time 2
20
21 (T2). Following the convention for analyzing longitudinal data, we used dependent variables
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23 (exhaustion, job performance) at T2, while controlling for the corresponding measurements at T1 as
24
25 the baseline levels. We used the independent variable (workload) and the mediator (SP) from T1, to
26
27 separate from the dependent variables in time.
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31
32 The present study was approved by Research Ethics Committee of the principle researcher's
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34 Institute. We used paper-and-pencil questionnaires for data collection and our sample was
35
36 comprised of full-time employees working in different organizations and diverse industries in
37
38 Taiwan. The survey was carried out using convenient sampling to recruit participants through
39
40 personal contacts of the researchers. Some participants were enrolled in university-based executive
41
42 education programs, and others were recruited through managers in various organizations. With the
43
44 assistance of the contact persons, we successfully collected data at two time points (January 2020,
45
46 January 2021). At T1, a cover letter accompanied the questionnaire, explaining the aim of our study
47
48 and assuring confidentiality. The initial survey was completed by 631 persons (response rate:
49
50 89.25%). One year later, 297 persons completed the survey again (T2, retention rate: 47.07%).
51
52 Using the "matching code" self-generated by and known-only to the respondents, T1 and T2 data
53
54 from 284 persons were combined. We further excluded those with excessive missing data on the
55
56 core research variables, resulting in the final sample size of 218. We examined the attrition bias by
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1
2 comparing the participants in the panel sample and the dropouts on demographic characteristics and
3
4 mean scores of all research variables (T1). We found no significant differences in any variables,
5
6 indicating no serious attrition bias.
7

8
9 The sample was 31.6 percent male and 64.2 percent female, with a mean age of 39.99 (SD =
10
11 9.70), and mean job tenure of 9.03 years (SD = 8.67). Over 60 percent of the sample (61.2%) were
12
13 married. Almost all respondents had college education (90.2%) and more than one third (34%) were
14
15 managers. Participants identified their organizations in three categories, those employing under 250
16
17 people, between 251-1000, and over 1000. Data showed that our participants equally distributed in
18
19 SMEs (35%, under 250 employees) and large companies (37.50%, over 1000 employees). We also
20
21 asked participants to indicate the industries of their organizations and found that manufacturing
22
23 (27.8%), high-tech (22.9%), and service (15.9%) being the top three industries.
24
25

26 27 **Measures**

28
29 The structured questionnaire was written in Chinese, and all the standard measures have been
30
31 used and validated with Chinese samples in previous studies (the Chinese validation reference is
32
33 given for each scale below).
34
35

36
37 **Workload.** We used the 5-item Quantitative Workload Inventory Scale (Spector & Jex, 1998;
38
39 for the Chinese version: Wang et al., 2022) to measure how often each statement of workload
40
41 occurs (e.g., “How often does your job require you to work very fast”). Five-point frequency scales
42
43 were used (1 = Never, 5 = Always). The internal consistency reliability of the scale was 0.80 (T1) in
44
45 the present study.
46
47

48
49 **Presenteeism.** We used the 2-item Presenteeism Behavior Scale (Lu et al., 2013, 2014)
50
51 developed for the Chinese populations to measure the act of sickness presenteeism (e.g., “Although
52
53 you feel sick, you still force yourself to go to work”). Participants rated the frequency of the
54
55 behavior “in the past 6 months” on four-point scales (0 = Never, 4 = More than five times). The
56
57 internal correlation of the scale was 0.82 (T1) and 0.87 (T2) in the present study. We conducted the
58
59 normality test on the presenteeism data (assessed as the behavioral frequency) to decide whether a
60

1
2 variable transformation was required (Johns, 2011). Following normality diagnosis advice (Kline,
3
4 2005), we examined the skewness and kurtosis coefficients for SP at T1 and T2. The results showed
5
6 that presenteeism (T1/T2) had a skewness coefficient of 0.001/-0.053 and a kurtosis coefficient of
7
8 -0.939/-1.02. These values are all within the accepted ranges of ± 2.0 for skewness and ± 7.0 for
9
10 kurtosis (Cunningham 2008). We thus concluded that the distribution of presenteeism was normal
11
12 and this would not affect the estimator to use in the subsequent analysis.
13
14

15
16 **Proactive personality.** We used 3 items (Proactive Personality Scale, Seibert, Crant, &
17
18 Kraimer, 1999; for the Chinese version: Chang, Lu, & Huang, 2011) to assess the proactive
19
20 personality trait (e.g., “If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen”).
21
22 Five-point scales were used (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). The internal consistency
23
24 reliability of the scale was 0.76 (T2) in the present study.
25
26

27
28 **Work reward.** We used 5 items (Effort-Reward Imbalance Questionnaires, Siegrist, Wege,
29
30 Pühlhofer, & Wahrendorf, 2009; for the Chinese version: Li et al., 2019) to measure rewards for
31
32 work effort, pertaining to salary, job promotion, job security, and esteem (e.g., “Considering all my
33
34 efforts and achievements, my salary/income is adequate”). Five-point scales were used (1 =
35
36 Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). The internal consistency reliability of the scale was 0.71 (T2)
37
38 in the present study.
39
40

41
42 **Exhaustion.** We used a 4-item emotional exhaustion scale from the Maslach Burnout
43
44 Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; for the Chinese version: Lu et al., 2014) to measure
45
46 exhaustion (e.g., “I feel used up at the end of the workday”). Seven-point frequency scales were
47
48 used (0 = Never experienced such a feeling, 6 = Experienced such feelings every day). The internal
49
50 consistency reliability of the scale was 0.92 (T1) and 0.90 (T2) in the present study.
51
52

53
54 **Job performance.** We used the 4-item scale (Ang, Van Dyne, & Begley, 2003; for the
55
56 Chinese version: Lu & Cooper, 2022) to assess self-rated job performance (e.g., “I am effective in
57
58 my job”). Seven-point rating scales were used (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). The
59
60 internal consistency reliability of the scale was 0.90 (T1) and 0.78 (T2) in the present study.

1
2 **Control variables.** According to the cognitive appraisal theory, differential reactions to the
3
4 same stressor (e.g., working through illness) may be attributed to personal difference factor such as
5
6 gender, marital status, and job position (Merrill et al., 2012). We thus collected information on
7
8 gender (0 = female; 1 = male), marital status (0 = not married, 1 = married), and job position (0 =
9
10 not manager, 1 = manager). During our study period of year 2020, Taiwan experienced several
11
12 corona virus outbreaks, we thus included a global assessment of the Covid-19 impact on life at T2
13
14 (1 = Little impact, 5 = Severe impact). All the above are included as control variables to exclude
15
16 potential confounding factors. To take advantage of our longitudinal data set, we also controlled for
17
18 the baseline of the outcome variables in all the analyses.
19
20
21

22 **Strategy of analysis**

23
24 We used the SPSS 24 and PROCESS macro version 3.5 to test the mediation effect of
25
26 presenteeism in the relationship between workload and work outcomes (exhaustion and job
27
28 performance) (Model 4) and the moderated mediation effects of proactive personality and work
29
30 reward (Model 14). According to Hayes, Montoya, and Rockwood (2017), PROCESS is able to
31
32 directly estimate the moderated mediation effect with bootstrapping (5,000 in this study) to
33
34 calculate bias-corrected confidence intervals. To take advantage of our two-wave data, in all the
35
36 following analyses our independent variable (workload) and mediator (SP) were measured at T1,
37
38 moderators (proactive personality and work reward) and dependent variables were measured at T2.
39
40 We further controlled for the base-line levels of the dependent variables (exhaustion, job
41
42 performance at T1). Before testing hypotheses, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
43
44 to verify the factor structure by confirming that each measure is loaded on a particular factor (Byrne,
45
46 2001).
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53 **Results**

54 **Descriptive analysis**

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Prior to the hypotheses testing, bi-variable correlations were computed, and results are shown

1
2 in Table 1. Workload at T1 positively correlated with presenteeism at T1, and exhaustion at T2.
3
4 Presenteeism at T1 positively correlated with exhaustion at T2. Both proactive trait and work
5
6 reward positively correlated with job performance; but negatively correlated with exhaustion.
7
8 Exhaustion at T2 negatively correlated with job performance at T2, which was consistent with the
9
10 correlation for exhaustion at T1 and performance at T1 ($r = -.17, p < .05$). Among the control
11
12 variables, both gender (female) and job position (managers) positively correlated with job
13
14 performance. The impact of Covid-19 positively correlated with exhaustion. Job position (managers)
15
16 positively correlated with workload, proactive personality, and work reward. It is also worth noting
17
18 that both the work condition and employee adjustment have remained stable over the study period
19
20 of one year, indicated by moderate to strong auto-correlations between the same measures at
21
22 different times (workload: $r = .62$; SP: $r = .51$; exhaustion: $r = .55$; job performance: $r = .51$).
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24
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28 Insert Table 1 here

29 Hypothesis testing

30
31 In order to test for discriminant validity, we conducted the CFA using AMOS 24. The
32
33 hypothesized six-factor model (workload, presenteeism, proactive personality, work reward,
34
35 exhaustion, job performance) displayed a suitable fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.78$, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA
36
37 = 0.06, SRMR = 0.07) and outperformed any simpler representations of the data ($p < .01$ for all
38
39 model comparisons). As self-report may increase the threat of common method variance (CMV)
40
41 bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), a CMV test was performed following the
42
43 procedure used by Williams, Cote, and Buckley (1989). This analysis revealed that the method
44
45 factor did improve model fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.50$; CFI = 0.96; RMSEA = 0.05; RMR = 0.06) (Model 5 in
46
47 Table 2), which is expected. We further calculated the variance explained by the method factor
48
49 (Williams et al., 1989), and found it to account for only 8.74% of the total variance. This amount is
50
51 less than the 25% threshold recommended for diagnosing the CMV bias (Williams et al., 1989). We
52
53 thus conclude that CMV was not a major concern in this study. In addition, we tested the factorial
54
55 invariance of the 4-factor model (those variables measured twice) across the two measurement
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1
2 points and found that the values of ΔCFI meet the requirements of measurement invariance (ΔCFI
3 ≤ -0.01). In other words, there was no significant differences of constructs (workload, SP,
4 exhaustion, performance) across Time 1 and Time 2 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).
5
6
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9 Insert Table 2 here
10

11 **Testing the mediating effect of presenteeism**

12
13 We adopted the Model 4 in PROCESS 3.5 (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017) to examine
14 the mediation effect with 5000 bootstrap samples. This model estimates the mediation effects and
15 their significance based on 95 percent bootstrap confidence intervals. In the first step, the effects of
16 individual characteristics and baseline dependent variable (exhaustion, job performance at T1) were
17 controlled. In the second step, we examined the mediation effect of presenteeism on the relationship
18 between workload and work outcomes (exhaustion, job performance at T2) in separate models
19 (Model 2 and Model 4). As shown in Table 3, Model 2 and Model 4 explained 32% and 31% of the
20 variance in exhaustion ($F[7, 167] = 11.35, p < 0.001$) and job performance ($F[7, 168] = 10.55, p <$
21 0.001) respectively. However, the bootstrap estimates indicated that the indirect effect of workload
22 on exhaustion or job performance via presenteeism was insignificant (bottom of Table 3), thus our
23 Hypothesis 1 (a, b) was not supported.
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39 Insert Table 3 here
40

41 **Testing the protective effects of proactive personality and work reward on the detrimental** 42 **effects of presenteeism on outcomes under the high workload condition**

43
44 The analysis of moderated mediation effect was conducted using Model 14 in PROCESS 3.5.
45 Bootstrapping (5000 bootstrap samples) was used with 95% bias corrected confidence intervals
46 applied. In the first step, the effects of individual characteristics and baseline dependent variable
47 (i.e., exhaustion, job performance at T1) were controlled. In the second step, we examined the
48 moderated mediation effects of proactive personality and work reward on the detrimental effects of
49 presenteeism on outcomes separately. As shown in Table 4, the moderated mediation models
50 (Model 2 and Model 4) explained 40% and 46% of the variance in exhaustion ($F[9, 163] = 12.19, p$
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1
2 < 0.001) and job performance ($F[9, 164] = 15.39, p < 0.001$) respectively.
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Insert Table 4 and 5 here

Firstly, as Table 4 shows, the interaction effect of proactive personality and presenteeism was significant on exhaustion (Model 2, $b = -0.26, p < 0.01, 95\% \text{ CI: } -.4310 \sim -.0925$) and job performance (Model 4, $b = 0.08, p < 0.01, 95\% \text{ CI: } .0213 \sim .1406$). Similarly, as Table 5 shows, the interaction effect of work reward and presenteeism was significant on job performance (Model 4, $b = .05, p < 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI: } .0117 \sim .0927$), but not significant on exhaustion (Model 2, $b = -.10, p > 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI: } -.2201 \sim .0111$) (H3a was not supported). Secondly, we examined the contingent effects of proactive personality/work reward on the relationships between presenteeism and exhaustion/job performance in high workload condition. The results showed that the contingent effect of proactive personality was significant (index = .01, SE = .01, 95% CI = .0020~.0243) on the “presenteeism-job performance” relationship in high workload conditions. The contingent effect of work reward on the “presenteeism-job performance” relationship was also significant (index = .01, SE = .00, 95% CI = .0009~.0153). However, the contingent effect of proactive personality on the “presenteeism-exhaustion” relationship in high workload condition was insignificant (index = -.01, SE = .01, 95% CI = -.0447~.0082) (H2a was not supported). Lastly, we clarified the varying degrees of moderation effects according to levels of proactive personality/work reward. As shown in Table 4, the detrimental effect of presenteeism on job performance under high workload condition was reversed (became positive) and significant for those with high-level of proactive personality, but the “presenteeism-job performance” relation was insignificant for those with middle-level and low-level proactive personality. Similarity, as shown in Table 5, the detrimental effect of presenteeism on job performance under high workload condition was reversed (became positive) and significant for those having high-level of work reward, but the “presenteeism-job performance” relation was insignificant for those having middle-level and low-level of work reward. In other words, presenteeism due to heavy workload related positively to performance in conditions of high proactive personality and high work reward; these findings were contrary to our hypotheses.

1
2 Therefore, our moderated mediation hypotheses per job performance (H2b and H3b) were not
3 supported.
4

5
6 To further probe the statistically significant conditional indirect (moderated mediation) effects,
7 we used estimates from the moderated mediation models to plot the conditional effects of
8
9 presenteeism on job performance in high workload condition at various levels of intrapersonal and
10 socio-structural resources. We estimated the conditional effect of presenteeism on job performance
11 at low (-1 SD) and high ($+1$ SD) levels of the moderator. The results showed that the
12
13 “presenteeism-job performance” relationship was positive and significant for employees of
14 high-level proactive personality (slope = 0.18, $p < 0.05$) or of high-level work reward (slope = 0.20,
15
16 $p < 0.001$); However, the “presenteeism-job performance” relationship was negative and significant
17 for employees of low-level proactive personality (slope = -0.18, $p < 0.05$), or non-significant for
18 employees of low-level work reward (slope = -0.15, *ns*) (Figures 2 and 3). Overall, plots of the
19
20 contingent effects showed the positive relation between presenteeism and job performance under
21 high workload condition for those with high proactive personality or high work reward. These
22 findings were contrary to our H2b and H3b. Although the conditional indirect effect of proactive
23 personality on the second lag of the “workload-SP-exhaustion” relationship was insignificant
24 (bootstrap estimates at the bottom of Table 4), the interaction term between proactive personality
25 and presenteeism was significant on exhaustion ($b = -.26$, $p < .01$, Model 2 in Table 4). We
26 preceded to plot the moderation pattern and found that the negative relationship between
27 presenteeism and exhaustion was insignificant for employees of high-level proactive personality
28 (slope = -0.35, *ns*), while the positive relationship between presenteeism and exhaustion was
29 significant for those of low-level proactive personality (slope = 0.80, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 4).
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53 Insert Figures 2, 3, and 4 here

54 55 **Additional analysis**

56
57 If we exclude the effects of individual characteristics and baseline dependent variables
58 (exhaustion, job performance at T1 respectively) as control variables from the analyses, the
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60

1
2 confounding effects inflated the results. We found that when all the control variables were excluded
3
4 from the analysis, the mediation effect of SP in the relationship between workload and exhaustion
5
6 was supported, but the mediation effect of SP in the relationship between workload and job
7
8 performance was not supported. The contingent effect of proactive personality was supported but
9
10 the contingent effect of work reward was not supported. In this paper, we opted to report the “net
11
12 effects” when all the control variables were included in the analysis.
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15
16 We also re-run the analysis on the same model by using SP at T2 as the mediator while
17
18 controlling the effect of SP at T1 as the baseline. The results showed that the mediation effect of
19
20 presenteeism in the “workload-job performance” relationship was insignificant (index = .00, SE
21
22 = .01, 95% CI = - .0090~.0198), but the mediation effect of SP in the “workload-exhaustion”
23
24 relationship became significant (index = .09, SE = .06, 95% CI = .0043~.2348). The contingent
25
26 effects of proactive personality and work reward on the indirect relationship of “workload-SP-job
27
28 performance” were both insignificant (index = .00/.00, SE = .00/.00, 95% CI = - .0050~.0067/
29
30 -.0046~.0038). The contingent effects of proactive personality and work reward on the indirect
31
32 relationship of “workload-SP-exhaustion” were also insignificant (index = -.01/ -.01, SE = .01/.01,
33
34 95% CI = -.0384~.0054 /-.0357~.0002). Agreeing with the argument put forward by Skagen and
35
36 Collins (2016) that the optimal recall period of presenteeism should be no more than two months,
37
38 we strongly prepone for using SP at T1 as the mediator, as the built-in recall span for our
39
40 presenteeism measure covers the past six months, which already exceeds the suggested optimal
41
42 timeframe.
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48 Discussion

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50 The exponential growth of empirical studies on presenteeism have been demonstrated via a
51
52 meta-analysis of its antecedents and correlates (Miraglia & Johns, 2016), and a comprehensive
53
54 volume integrating multi-disciplinary research perspectives (Cooper & Lu, 2018). However, two
55
56 key shortfalls have been identified in the state-of-the-art stocktaking of this thriving field. One is the
57
58 inconsistent findings regarding the consequences of the SP behavior for employees’ health and
59
60

1 performance, especially when the lasting effect of presenteeism is scrutinized pertaining to
2 employees' work outcomes (e.g., Karanika-Murray & Biron, 2020; Skagen & Collins, 2016). The
3
4 other is the lack of systematic examination of the contextual factors for the SP behavior in general,
5
6 and the boundary conditions contingent to the "SP-outcomes" relationships in particular (e.g.,
7
8 Cooper & Lu, 2019; Lohaus & Habermann, 2019; Ruhle et al., 2020). In an attempt to fill the void,
9
10 we examined the long-lasting effects of presenteeism on employees' well-being and performance in
11
12 the time span of one year; and simultaneously explored the boundary conditions of the presumed
13
14 negative "presenteeism-outcomes" relationships. Results showed that workload related positively to
15
16 job performance via increased presenteeism but only for those high in proactive personality and
17
18 work rewards. These findings support the functional view of presenteeism for certain people and
19
20 certain conditions (Karanika-Murray & Biron, 2020). However, support was also found for the
21
22 buffering role of proactive personality since SP related positively to exhaustion only for those low
23
24 in proactive personality, while the relationship was non-significant for those high in proactive
25
26 personality. The present study thus contributes to the flourishing presenteeism literature in the
27
28 following ways.
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36 **Theoretical contribution**

37
38 First, our study contributed to the scarce empirical evidence pertaining to the mediation effects
39
40 of presenteeism between objective work demands (e.g., workload) and work attitude or behavior
41
42 using longitudinal data (Johns, 2010; Miraglia & Johns, 2016), which is more appropriate for
43
44 testing mediation than cross-sectional data. However, we found no long-term (one year) direct
45
46 effects of workload on future well-being and job performance, nor indirect effects via presenteeism.
47
48 This is consistent with findings from a previous study (Demerouti et al., 2009), namely workload
49
50 had only short-term (6 months) effects on presenteeism, so did presenteeism on exhaustion; no
51
52 lasting effects were detected for one year. We went further in the present study by explicitly testing
53
54 the mediation effects of presenteeism between workload and exhaustion, and expanding the scope
55
56 of employees' outcomes to job performance. Our attempt to examine the long-lasting effects of
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1
2 presenteeism on both well-being and performance is distinct in the field, as the majority of the
3
4 existing longitudinal studies on presenteeism adopt short time frames (from 1 week to 6 months).
5
6 The non-significant long-term relationships we found between high workload and employee
7
8 outcomes are explained by the moderated mediation findings, that is, the indirect effects are only
9
10 conditional. In our study, the context of the East Asian work environment, the prevailing workplace
11
12 culture champions work-hard and “Good Samaritanism” are virtues to encourage individuals to
13
14 persevere in demanding work conditions (Kang, Matusik, & Barclay, 2017; Lu et al., 2013). Such
15
16 socio-cultural imperatives for overwork (i.e. social approval) coupled with individual capability (i.e.
17
18 proactive personality) and/or organization endowment (i.e. work reward), help the presentees to
19
20 maintain their well-being and job performance. Notwithstanding, more concerted research is needed
21
22 to establish the robustness of the non-significant long-lasting effect of presenteeism in different
23
24 socio-cultural and work contexts.
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30 In particular, the relationship between presenteeism and well-being may vary due to different
31
32 research designs, such as different measures of workload, presenteeism and dependent variables
33
34 (Baeriswyl et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022), different time frames used (Lu & Cooper, 2022),
35
36 different sample selection and sizes (Skagen & Collins, 2016). Some researchers did find that
37
38 presenteeism had a negative impact on general health after one year (Gustafsson & Marklund,
39
40 2011), and burnout two years later (Dellve et al., 2011). Skagen and Collins (2016) noted that the
41
42 mix results of presenteeism on mental health were probably due to participant recall bias. Similar to
43
44 sick leave, the behavioral frequency of presenteeism is likely to be under-reported when
45
46 retrospectively assessed over a year (Voss, Stark, Alfredsson, Vingård, & Josephson, 2008) or six
47
48 months (as done in the present study). Following Ruhle et al. (2020) and Skagen and Collins (2016),
49
50 we thus suggest that future research could set up additional follow-up periods to clarify the
51
52 temporal variation of the effects of presenteeism behavior, namely, for how long and to what extent
53
54 presenteeism is likely to have an adverse effect. We need systematic research to disentangle the
55
56 temporal trajectory of the effects of presenteeism over time.
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1
2 Second, in the current changing business environment and increasingly demanding work
3
4 conditions, sickness presenteeism may be unavoidable in certain circumstances (e.g., Lohaus &
5
6 Habermann, 2019; Van Der Feltz-Cornelis et al., 2020). Thus, mobilizing all available resources to
7
8 persevere when working while ill in order to protect health and performance in tandem is of
9
10 paramount importance for employees and organizations. Although the two perspectives of negative
11
12 versus positive views of presenteeism seem disparate in their theoretical stances, our findings
13
14 tentatively suggest that the two views may be reconciled contingent on the portfolio of available
15
16 resources to the presentees. **In the present study, we found that resources buffer the effect of**
17
18 **presenteeism on exhaustion, but make employees functional when it comes to performance. When**
19
20 **presentees had low personal capability (i.e. proactive personality), sickness presenteeism not only**
21
22 **damaged job performance under high workload condition but also elevated exhaustion. However,**
23
24 **when presentees had high personal capability (i.e. proactive personality) or high organization**
25
26 **endowment (i.e. work reward), presenteeism had a positive relationship with their job performance**
27
28 **under high workload conditions. While negative as well as positive effects of presenteeism**
29
30 **happened over the lapse of one year, our findings highlight the pivotal role of contextual factors and**
31
32 **boundary conditions for realizing the dysfunctional and functional presenteeism in the real world.**
33
34 **That said, the tentative proposition that resources have different functions for different outcomes of**
35
36 **presenteeism (well-being vs. performance) remains to be tested with future empirical studies.**

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43 Karanika-Murray and Biron (2020) purported that there are different types of presenteeism
44
45 contingent on the presentees' individual capacity and work resources. Adopting their typology, the
46
47 functional presenteeism was realized for those with high proactive personality, and when presentees
48
49 have high work reward, despite high work demands. **However, the damaging effects of**
50
51 **presenteeism under high demands on job performance were only shown for presentees with low**
52
53 **proactive personality. Furthermore, the moderation effect of proactive personality on the positive**
54
55 **relationship between presenteeism and exhaustion was found to be significant only for employees**
56
57 **with lower levels of proactive personality, while the relationship was insignificant for employees**
58
59 **with higher levels of proactive personality.**

1
2 **higher in proactive personality.** We have thus demonstrated that proactive personality as an
3
4 intrapersonal resource can buffer the negative impact of presenteeism on health and performance,
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6 whereas adequate work reward as a socio-structural resource can even overturn the negative
7
8 relationship between presenteeism and performance into a positive one.
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10
11 Those with high proactive personality are predisposed to cope actively in demanding work
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13 conditions, working through illness could thus be used as a coping strategy to regulate their
14
15 workload and protect their performance and health (Biron & Saksvik, 2010). Employees with low
16
17 proactive personality in contrast, experience more exhaustion while taking passive coping strategies
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19 and attitudes to deal with heavy work demands (Nielsen, Firth, & Crawford, 2022). In addition to
20
21 proactive personality, future research could explore other intrapersonal factors to identify *who* are
22
23 the resilient presentees and *who* are the high-risk ones in demanding work conditions (e.g.,
24
25 Demerouti et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2022). As research on the positive presenteeism is only
26
27 emergent, further studies to investigate the contingent factors of other work resources and
28
29 individual capabilities for the functional presenteeism is in dire need (Karanika-Murray & Biron,
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31 2020; Ruhle et al., 2020).
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37 Third, extending the resources loss-gain dynamism depicted in the COR theory, we found that
38
39 proactive personality and work reward are crucial resources protecting job performance in the
40
41 continuous resources depletion situation when the employee is forced to ‘work while ill’
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43 necessitated by heavy workload. Employees with the proactive disposition tend to take stress as a
44
45 challenge and take initiatives to actively gain resources to cope. For instance, proactively coping
46
47 employees were not only more likely to commit presenteeism, but also attained favorable
48
49 evaluations from their supervisors, especially when work demands were high (Biron & Saksvik,
50
51 2010; Wang et al., 2022). According to the COR theory, proactive personality could be categorized
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53 as a personal resource (intrapsychic), while work reward is a socio-structural resource provided by
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55 the organization (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In line with the tenet of the ERI model, work reward is the
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57 reciprocation from organizations to compensate employees’ work efforts (Siegrist & Wahrendorf,
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1
2 2016). When presentees feel better compensated with more rewards (resources gains) while
3
4 working with illness (resources depletion), they have stronger motivation to honor the reciprocity
5
6 principle by maintaining their job performance. Most of the extant presenteeism studies adopt a
7
8 resource-based view such as COR and Job demands-Resources Model, we believe that introducing
9
10 alternative theoretical perspectives such as the reciprocity view underpinning the ERI Model or the
11
12 psychosocial regulatory view of the social cognitive theory (Cooper & Lu, 2016), can enrich our
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14 understanding of the presenteeism behavior and contribute to the theoretical development in the
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16 field (Lohaus & Habermann, 2019). Following on the expansion of the ERI model to organizational
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18 behavior (Reizer & Siegrist, 2022), the present study represents the first empirical attempt to
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20 incorporate one key concept of the model into the presenteeism literature, namely work reward as
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22 an extrinsic component of the work environment.
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26
27 Lastly, our findings tentatively suggest that sickness presenteeism can be either dysfunctional
28
29 or functional under certain conditions (Chen et al., 2021; Lu & Cooper, 2022). The boundary
30
31 conditions we have identified answer to the call by various scholars (Cooper & Lu, 2019; Ruhle et
32
33 al., 2020) for bringing in the “contexts” of the SP behavior. According to the COR theory, resources
34
35 can be categorized into internal- and external origins (Hobfoll, 2011). This study provided
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37 preliminary proof that both the intrapersonal/internal (proactive personality) and
38
39 socio-structural/external (fair work reward) resources are valuable for presentees overcoming the
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41 serious resource depletion caused by working through illness; which then enable them to maintain
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43 well-being and job performance over a prolonged period of one year. We have taken the pioneering
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45 step to investigate the entire process from antecedent to presenteeism to employee outcomes,
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47 incorporating intrinsic (proactive personality) and extrinsic (work reward) components of the
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49 contextual factors. Future studies may explore the effects of more contextual factors (salutogenesis
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51 and pathogenesis), from different origins (e.g., work team, workplace culture), and on more diverse
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53 outcome variables (e.g., health symptoms, work behaviors) to extend our knowledge of the SP
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55 process.
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Managerial implications

From a practical perspective, our findings can offer useful insights for managing presenteeism in the precarious work context of the post-pandemic world (Cigna, 2020; Sharma et al., 2021). First and foremost, we urge employers to reduce the pressure on employees to work while ill by ensuring sufficient manpower, especially for those in the work context who lack of individual and work resources. If, for any high demand or deadline reason, presenteeism is unavoidable, employers must provide adequate support and resources to enable presentees to simultaneously balance health and performance (Karanika-Murray & Biron, 2020). Previous research has found that support from supervisors, colleagues and the work team are important resources to lessen the damage of presenteeism to employee outcomes (Chen et al., 2021; Wu & Lu, 2022).

We have demonstrated that organization endowed work rewards can help the presentees to maintain their job performance in high demand work conditions. Employers should thus provide fair compensations for employees' efforts, such as financial rewards, recognition and promotion, job stability, and safety. Furthermore, both the present study and previous research have found that proactive personality is related to positive work behaviors and favorable work outcomes (Tornau & Frese, 2012). Managers can implement training programs to enhance employees' skills of proactive coping (Tiwari, 2021), or to recruit employees with high proactive trait who will better adapt to the high-demand work conditions (Wang et al., 2017; Fuller & Marler, 2009). It needs to be stressed that we are by no means encouraging presenteeism, both employees and employers should keep a close watch on the "physical wear and tear" of working in illness. Sufficient recovery from stress and recuperation is thus pivotal in managing presenteeism as a sustainable work behavior (Lu & Chou, 2020; Sonnentag, Venz & Casper, 2017).

Limitations and future directions for research

As with any research, this study is subject to some limitations which can point to new directions for further research. First, we acknowledge that all variables were self-reported, which may increase the threat of common method variance (CMV) bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In an

1
2 effort to minimize such bias, we adopted a two-wave design to separate the independent variable
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4 (workload), mediator variable (presenteeism), moderator variables (proactive personality and work
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6 reward), and dependent variables (exhaustion and job performance) in time. Second, 3-wave data
7
8 are ideal for an appropriate test of mediation. We nonetheless used Hayes' PROCESS (Hayes, 2013)
9
10 to test the mediation effects of presenteeism between objective workload and subjective attitude or
11
12 behavior; meanwhile estimating the contingent effects of proactive personality and work reward on
13
14 the indirect effects of workload on outcomes through presenteeism (i.e. the second-leg of the
15
16 mediation). Our moderated mediation models confirmed robust positive effects of presenteeism on
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18 employees' job performance one year later for those with high proactive personality and work
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20 reward. However, we failed to find evidence for the direct effects of workload on well-being and
21
22 job performance. With only a handful of longitudinal studies and ours using the longest timeframe
23
24 of one year, we will refrain from speculating on differential time trajectories pertaining to different
25
26 outcome variables (e.g., well-being and performance). Instead, we encourage the test of various
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28 timeframes (short-, medium-, long-) to clarify the process of presenteeism in a wider range of time
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30 trajectories.
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37 Third, we tested models of exhaustion and performance in separate analyses and did not
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39 account for their potential interrelationship. Previous research has suggested a negative relationship
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41 between exhaustion and performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). In the context of presenteeism,
42
43 there may be a chain effect: heavy work demands precipitates sickness presenteeism, which leads
44
45 first to exhaustion, then further hampers performance. Demerouti et al. (2009) noted a reciprocal
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47 relationship between presenteeism and exhaustion. They suggested that employees who experienced
48
49 exhaustion could commit more presenteeism to avoid decrements in performance, which in the long
50
51 run, would exhaust more energy and burnt out. In other words, presenteeism could be useful to
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53 protect work performance in the short term (e.g., avoiding piling up of workload); but may
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55 ultimately be detrimental to well-being due to the deprivation of recovery (Rivkin, Diestel, Gerpott,
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57 & Unger, 2022). Similarly, following the logic of economic exchange principles (e.g., Blau, 1964;
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1
2 Coleman, 1990; Gouldner, 1960), employees can be motivated to exert more efforts in productivity
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4 to obtain higher reward, but this could be harmful to their well-being in the long run. Although we
5
6 found that proactive personality and work reward could act as activator to promote the functional
7
8 effects of presenteeism on performance over a one-year period, future research should collect
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10 3-wave data to examine the sequential mediation model linking presenteeism, exhaustion, and
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12 performance as a chain of events.
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16 Fourth, we focused on proactive personality and work reward as moderators on the
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18 presenteeism process. However, the potential list of resources countering loss and strain can be
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20 quite extensive (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For instance, Miraglia and Johns (2016) identified that
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22 optimism is a core intrapersonal factor that consistently correlates with presenteeism. Recent
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24 research has also demonstrated that motivations (e.g., work value orientation) and workplace social
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26 support (e.g., supervisor and colleagues) can buffer the detrimental impact of presenteeism on
27
28 well-being and performance (Chen et al., 2021; Lu & Cooper, 2022). Over and beyond buffers of
29
30 negative effects of presenteeism, some studies have found that proactive employees were more
31
32 likely to commit presenteeism and subsequently attain better job performance evaluations under
33
34 high work demands (Wang et al., 2022), and self-efficacious employees gave more positive reasons
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36 for committing presenteeism (Lu et al., 2013). We thus suggest that future research could expand
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38 the search for resources from individual, workplace, and the wider societal context, while clarifying
39
40 their effective mechanisms for dysfunctional and functional presenteeism (Miraglia & Johns, 2016).
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42 Finally, the present study was conducted in an Eastern Asian country (Taiwan) and the relatively
43
44 small and non-random sample may limit the generalization of our findings. Future studies should
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46 include more diverse samples from other countries to establish the generalizability of our findings
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48 and those from Western studies (Sharma et al., 2021).
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54 **Conclusion**

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57 Based on conservation of resources theory, this research represents an initial empirical attempt
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59 at investigating the protective effects of intrapersonal/internal and socio-structural/external
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resources against working in sickness in high-demand conditions. Unexpectedly, we found that high proactive personality and work reward could help to realize the positive impact of presenteeism on employees' job performance over one year. Our findings thus answer the "for whom and under which circumstances" questions of presenteeism, that is for proactive presentees and when organizations provide adequate work reward, higher performance can be sustained over an extended period of strenuous work. This is probably because proactive employees have a more positive attitude towards and take active initiatives to cope with demanding work; because employees feel reciprocated with fair work rewards for their extraordinary efforts (Nielsen et al., 2022). We hope that our research will lead to more scholarly interest in exploring the boundary conditions and mechanisms which transform the presenteeism behavior into employee outcomes. We also hope that presenteeism in today's work environment can be better managed as a viable choice for both employees (if they so wish) and organizations.

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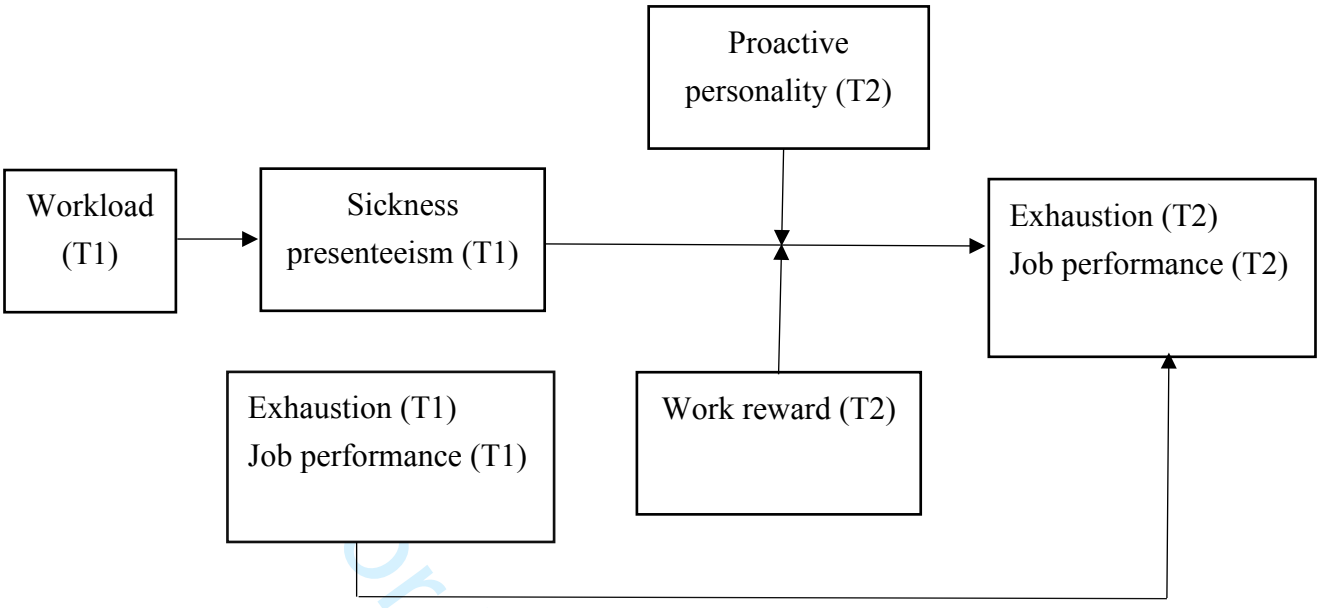


Figure 1 Research model

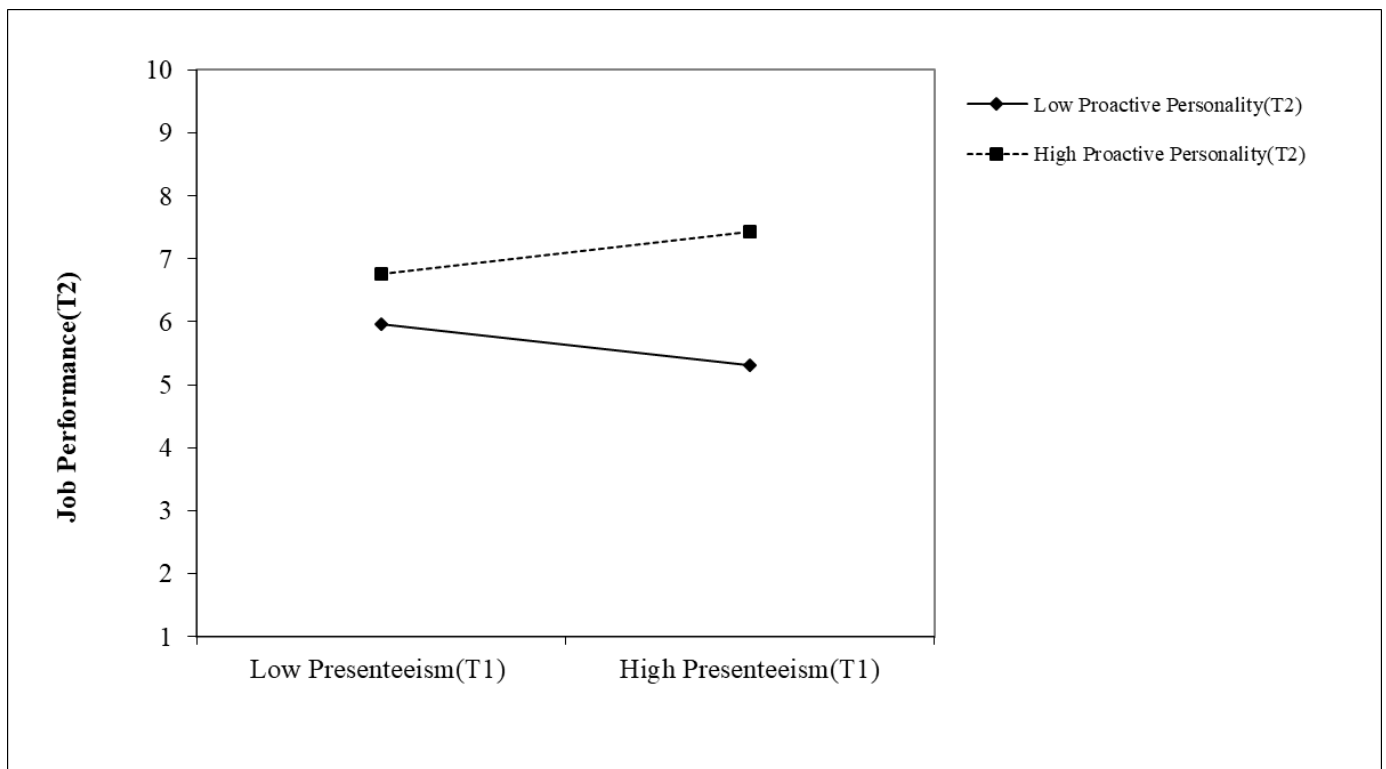


Figure 2 The interaction effect of presenteeism and proactive personality on job performance

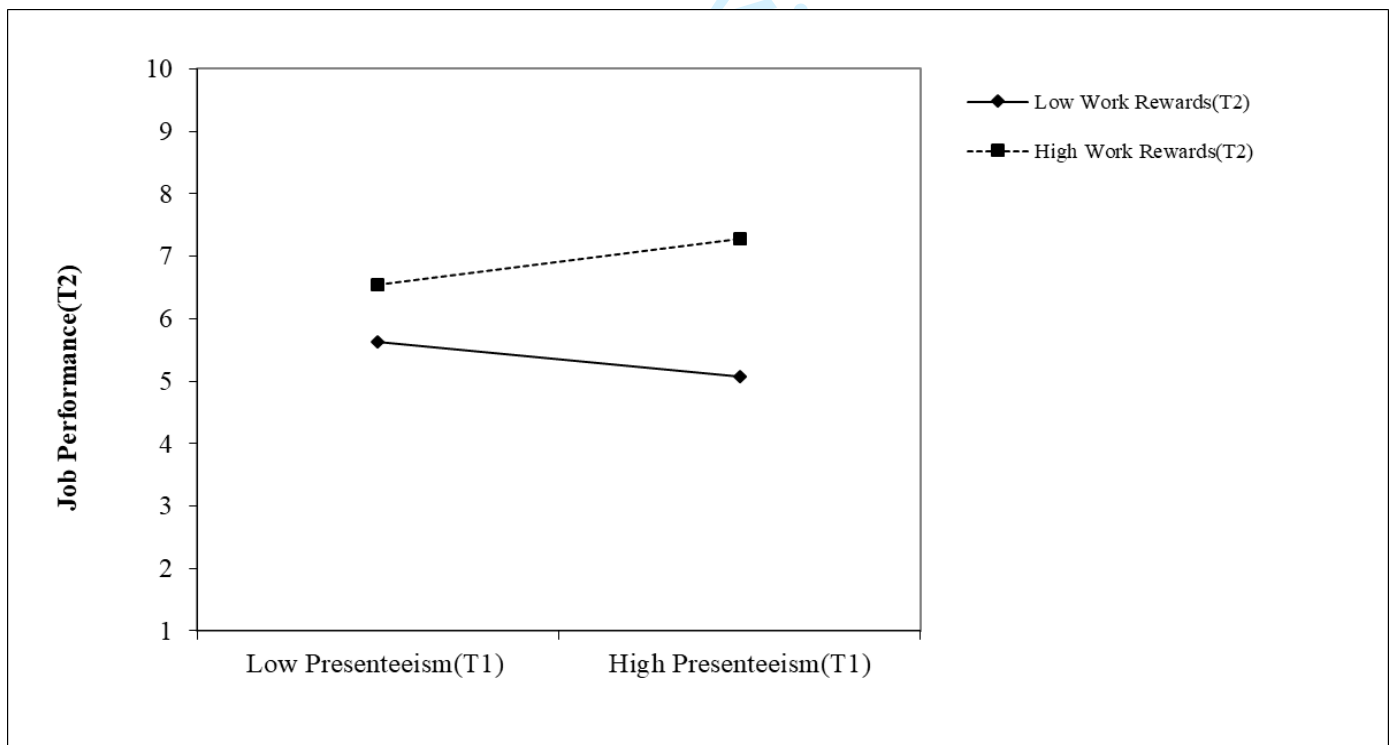


Figure 3 The interaction effect of presenteeism and work reward on job performance

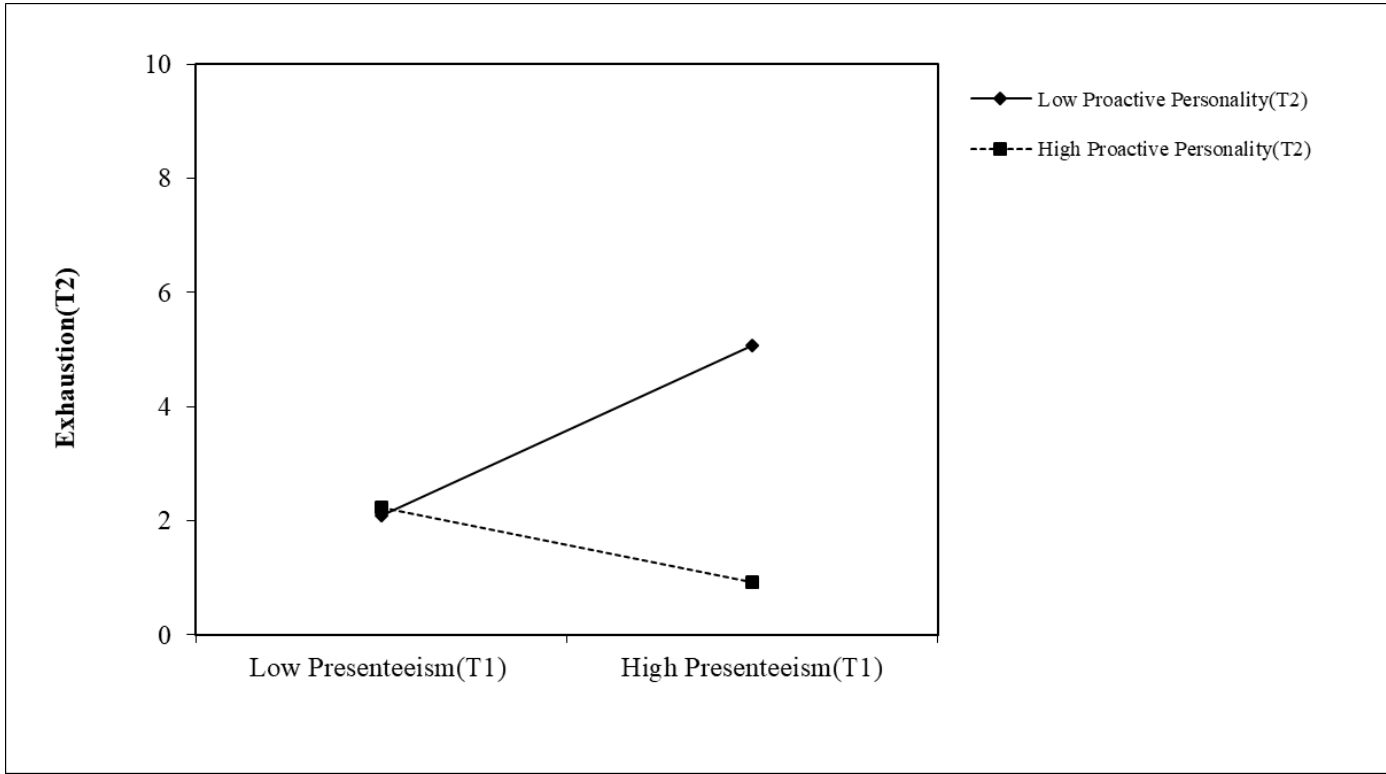


Figure 4 The interaction effect of presenteeism and proactive personality on exhaustion

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Table 1 Correlations among study variables ($n = 218$)

	Mean	SD	Gender	Marriage	Manager	Covid19	T1WL	T1SP	T2SP	T2Proactive	T2Reward	T1Exh	T2Exh	T1JP	T2JP
Gender	.40	.57	1												
Marriage	.61	.49	-.03	1											
Manager	.34	.47	.29***	-.20***	1										
Covid 19	2.49	1.10	.13	.07	.10	1									
T1WL	17.62	3.19	-.00	-.04	.23***	.05	1								
T1SP	5.08	1.87	-.11	-.06	.13	.07	.26***	1							
T2SP	5.09	1.90	-.12	.00	.06	.21**	.27**	.51***	1						
T2Proactive	10.00	2.20	.20**	-.08	.19**	-.04	.02	-.11	-.10	1					
T2Reward	16.02	3.33	.12	-.05	.20***	-.13	-.08	-.11	-.20**	.42***	1				
T1Exh	10.54	5.42	-.08	.04	.00	.01	.36***	.32***	.24***	-.14*	-.31***	1			
T2Exh	9.67	5.30	-.03	.03	-.09	.14*	.27***	.29***	.47***	-.28***	-.38***	.55***	1		
T1JP	20.85	3.82	.20	.07	.28***	.06	.17*	-.05	.08	.40***	.34***	-.17*	-.14*	1	
T2JP	10.74	2.00	.15*	.11	.12	-.03	.09	-.10	.00	.44***	.42***	-.16*	-.18**	.51***	1

Notes: Gender: 0 = female, 1 = male; Marriage: 0 = not married; 1 = married; Manager: 0 = employees; 1 = managers. Covid 19 = Perceived impact of Covid 19; WL = Workload; SP = Sickness presenteeism; Proact = Proactive personality; Reward = Work reward; Exh = Exhaustion; JP = Job performance.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 2 Summary of the goodness-of-fit indices of the competing models ($n=218$)

Model		$\chi^2(df)$	χ^2/df	RMR	SRMR	GFI	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1	Full model-6 factors	30.97(174)	1.78	.07	.07	.88	.86	.94	.06
Model 2	5 factors	479.82(179)	2.68	.12	.10	.82	.78	.85	.09
Model 3	3 factors	782.93(186)	4.21	.13	.12	.75	.64	.69	.12
Model 4	1 factor	1338.60(189)	7.08	.15	.16	.56	.38	.41	.17
Model 5 (CMV check)	1-factor (one latent method variable)	230.09(153)	1.50	.06	-	.91	.89	.96	.05

Notes: 6-factor model (Full model): workload (T1), sickness presenteeism (T1), proactive personality (T2), work reward (T2), exhaustion (T2), job performance (T2); 5-factor model: workload (T1), sickness presenteeism (T1), proactive personality (T2), work reward (T2), exhaustion (T2) + job performance (T2); 3-factor model: workload (T1) + sickness presenteeism (T1), proactive personality (T2) + work reward (T2), exhaustion (T2) + job performance (T2).

Table 3 Mediation effect of presenteeism on the relationship between workload and job outcomes ($n = 218$)

Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Presenteeism (T1)		Exhaustion (T2)		Presenteeism (T1)		Job performance (T2)	
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE
Step 1: Control variables								
Gender	-.46	.25	.44	.69	-.40	.26	.33	.25
Marriage	-.14	.27	-.17	.72	-.12	.28	.36	.27
Manager	.54	.30	-1.95*	.82	.57	.32	.10	.31
Covid 19 (T2)	.17	.12	.48	.31	.16	.12	-.06	.12
Exhaustion (T1)	.11***	.03	.42***	.07		.04		
Job performance (T1)					-.06		.26***	.04
Step 2: Independent variables								
Workload (T1)	.05	.04	.20	.12	.14***	.04	.02	.04
Presenteeism (T1)			.38	.21			-.06	.07
Total R ²								
	.18***		.32***		.12**		.31***	
<i>F</i>								
	6.35		11.35		3.84		10.55	
df								
	(6, 168)		(7,167)		(6,169)		(7,168)	
The effect of X on Y ^a								
	Unstandardized effect size (SE)		95% CI		Unstandardized effect size (SE)		95% CI	
			LL	UL			LL	UL
Direct effect of X on Y								
	.20 (.12)		-.0104 .440		.02(.04)		-.059 .1002	
Indirect effect of X on Y mediated via Me								
	.02(.02)		-.0167 .0731		-.01(.01)		-.0315 .0112	

Notes: Gender: 0= female, 1 = male; Marriage: 0 = not married; 1 = married; Manager: 0 = employees; 1 = managers.

^a. X = independent variable; Y = dependent variable; Me = Mediator variable

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 4 Moderated mediation effect of proactive personality in the presenteeism process ($n = 218$)^{a, b}

Predictors	Model 1 Presenteeism (T1)		Model 2 Exhaustion (T2)		Model 3 Presenteeism (T1)		Model 4 Job performance (T2)	
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>b</i>	SE
Control variables								
Gender	-.35	.25	.86	.66	-.32	.26	.09	.23
Marriage	-.16	.26	.05	.69	-.13	.28	.37	.24
Manager	.41	.30	-1.80*	.80	.46	.32	.16	.28
Covid 19 (T2)	.19	.11	.35	.30	.17	.12	.01	.11
Exhaustion (T1)			.39***	.07				
Job performance (T1)							.18***	.03
Independent variables								
Workload (T1)	.05	.04	.24*	.11	.14***	.04	.02	.04
Presenteeism (T1)			2.84**	.86			-.81**	.30
Proactive personality (T2)			.87	.49			-.08	.17
Presenteeism x Proactive personality			-.26**	.09			.08**	.03
R ²	.20***		40***		.12**		.46***	
Conditional indirect efforts (through Presenteeism) at three levels of Proactive personality ^c								
		B(SE)	95%CI LL	95%CI UL		B(SE)	95%CI LL	95%CI UL
-1 SD	(7.54)	.04(.04)	-.029	.142		-.03(.02)	-.066	.003
M	(9.67)	.02(.02)	-.016	.067		-.00(.01)	-.023	.016
+1 SD	(11.81)	-.01(.02)	-.071	.027		.02(.01)	.001	.053

Notes: LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit. ^a $n = 218$; unstandardized regression coefficients are reported; standard errors in parentheses. ^b Direct and total effects. ^c Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 5 Moderated mediation effect of work reward in the presenteeism process ($n = 218$)^{a, b}

Predictors	Model 1 Presenteeism (T1)		Model 2 Exhaustion (T2)		Model 3 Presenteeism (T1)		Model 4 Job Performance (T2)	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Control variables								
Gender	-.46	.25	.60	.66	-.40	.26	.29	.23
Marriage	-.14	.27	-.12	.70	-.12	.28	.48	.24
Manager	.54	.30	-1.35	.81	.57	.32	-.11	.28
Covid 19 (T2)	.17	.12	.39	.31	.16	.12	.02	.11
Exhaustion(T1)			.37***	.07				
Job performance (T1)							.17***	.03
Independent variables								
Workload (T1)	.05	.04	.22	.11	.14***	.04	.04	.04
Presenteeism (T1)			1.94*	.96			-.82*	.34
Work reward (T2)			.21	.34			-.03	.12
Presenteeism x Work reward			-.10	.06			.05*	.02
R ²	.18***		.38***		.12**		.45***	
Conditional indirect efforts (through Presenteeism) at three levels of Work reward ^c								
		B(SE)	95%CI LL	95%CI UL		B(SE)	95%CI LL	95%CI UL
-1 SD	(12.71)	.03(.04)	-.021	.120		-.02(.02)	-.055	.007
M	(15.93)	.01(.02)	-.016	.064		.00(.01)	-.016	.023
+1 SD	(19.14)	-.00(.02)	-.058	.044		.03(.01)	.002	.057

Notes: LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit. ^a $n = 218$; unstandardized regression coefficients are reported; standard errors in parentheses. ^b Direct and total effects. ^c Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.