Analysis of Time Stealing Behavior among Employees: Determinants and Effects on Organizational Performance

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Abstract

This study aimed to examine the time stealing behavior established among secretariate employees in Peshawar and prevalence of the most common type of time stealing behavior. Ministerial staff of Civil Secretariate Peshawar was taken as population of the study. Primary Data were collected from 610 officer/staff members through questionnaire. SPSS was used a statistical tool for the analysis of the data. Descriptive analysis, correlation, and regression analysis were undertaken to find out the relationship of dependent with explanatory variables. This study establishes positive significant relationships among development of time stealing behavior with workload and job insecurity. The study witnessed a negative correlation of organization commitment with the dependent variable. It was also found that classic type of time stealing behavior is the most prevailing one in all six public sector universities. The practical implication of the study is to recognize various predictors of time banditry confirmed by this study, time banditry factors will be reduced if the managers and supervisors play their role efficiently and will be able to take preventive steps to minimize and reduce the effect of this behavior.

Keywords: *Time stealing, Time banditry, Employees, workload, Job Insecurity, Organizational Commitment.*

1. Introduction

Employees are a company's most valuable asset. Employees' honesty and dedication to their jobs are critical to an organization's success and seamless operation. Employees may deviate from corporate ethics and professional behavior for a variety of reasons. One of the most common of these is time stealing. Long tea or lunch breaks, cyber loafing, unnecessary newspaper reading, personal business or activities, and long phone calls are all examples of time stealing (Kiho, 2018). Time stealing behavior has become a serious problem for many organizations, as this form of unethical action is all too widespread, even in organizations with rigorous policies.

Employees waste time throughout their scheduled working hours, which is known as time stealing or time banditry (Henle, Reeve, & Pitts, 2010). Time thieves are paid in full for less work, which has a negative impact on organization's total productivity and causes major management issues. According to Martin (2010), time banditry refers to employees' predisposition to engage in personal or private concerns during work hours. Certain office activities, such as taking long coffee and lunch breaks, and dealing with personal business, were categorized as time theft by Snider (2001). According to Slora (1989), time-stealing

occurs when employees waste or spend time not working throughout their scheduled work hours.

Clinard ^ Quinney (1973) were the first to establish the concept of workplace time stealing. Because workplace crime is a relatively new topic, it remained an unexplored field of investigation. In his study, Snider (2001) claims that all companies were completely aware of the problem of time theft but did not take it seriously; nevertheless, after the expenses were computed, they realized the significance of the problem. Time stealing occurs in all industries, however, the percentages vary, for example, 62 percent in restaurants, 43 percent in supermarkets, 35 percent in retail firms, 33 percent in hospitals, and 28 percent in manufacturing (Slora, 1989).

Because of the behavior of the employees, time banditry has a direct impact on the organization's operations, targets, and goodwill. Furthermore, time robbery is a legitimate concern for businesses because it results in budgetary expenses (Boye & Slora, 1993). Workers who commit time theft may have strained relationships with their coworkers and upper management, according to Henle, Reeve, and Pitts et al. (2010). With the use of modern technologies, time-stealing has become quite easy; nevertheless, while its use is useful and has increased corporate communication, it also has negative consequences. Time-stealing has become a serious concern due to the widespread usage of mobile devices and simple access to the internet. Over the last decade, excessive usage of the internet and cell phones has become a typical tendency in all enterprises. According to Klotz and Buckley (2013), cyber loafing, also known as technical time theft, is the practice of using workplace time and resources for personal reasons. Classical, technological, and social time steals are the three categories of time banditry. Taking long tea or lunch breaks, putting in less effort at work, arriving late, and leaving the office early are all examples of classic time theft. Technological time theft includes checking e-mail and surfing the web for personal reasons.

The majority of students were complaining about administration and ministry employees stealing their time, so this study was started. It has been noted that there is fewer research available on time theft than on stealing goods or other items, possibly because it is not regarded a crime or a minor crime, or because of its nature of difficulties in detection. The majority of studies on time stealing have been conducted in industrialized countries, with developing countries receiving less attention. Perhaps this was the first-time stealing study undertaken in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistani public sector universities.

This study examines the conduct of Ministerial staff of Civil Secretariate Peshawar in a bid to close that gap. This study attained and focused on some of the factors that influence time theft, such as organizational commitment, workload, and job instability. The study will be useful in addition to the current literature on the subject, and it will be of great value to top-level managers/administrators in dealing with this issue and devising ways to control it if ultimate eradication is not possible. The study's goals were to:

To determine the prevalence of time stealing behavior among civil secretariat employees in Peshawar and to determine the most prevalent type of time stealing behavior. To search the link between time theft and workload, organizational commitment, and job insecurity. Ministerial staff of civil secretariat Peshawar was found engage in time-stealing activity, according to this report and the classic type of time stealing was found the most prevailing one. Workload and job insecurity are also key drivers of developing time stealing behavior, whereas dedication to the workplace prevents the development of time stealing conduct.

2. Literature Review

This section reviews the literature on the idea of time stealing, as well as the literature on counterproductive work behavior (CWB), its determinants, and its impact on employee productivity and overall organization performance. In additions, time theft techniques such as cyber loafing and multitasking were also explored. As per statement by some researchers that time stealing isn't always a bad thing; it can also be beneficial.

2.1 Concept of time stealing

The term "time theft" or "time banditry" was coined by Ketchen, Craighead, and Buckley in 2008 (Baskin, 2010), and was later described by Martin (2010) as "workers' proclivity to engage in off-task activities during official duty time." Theft of time from the organization for non-work-related activities is known as time theft. The worker is paid for the work that he or she did not complete. Time theft is as certain as robbers snatching money from pockets. According to Brock Baskin et al. (2017), time stealing activities might include any activity that is not related to the official duty, such as personal use of the internet, taking long lunch breaks, and severe commuting. Malachowski (2005) stated, an employee averagely wastes 2.90 hours at a job in the USA, which costs 759 billion US dollars per annum to organizations. Counterproductive work behavior, cyberloafing, and multi-tasking are considered to be a part of time stealing and closely related concepts to time theft.

2.2 Counterproductive Work Behavior (CBWs)

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is characterized as intentional voluntary acts that hurt the organization or other persons inside the organization, such as employees, customers, and others (Spector et al., 2006). Researchers believe that due to low involvement and work satisfaction, all CWBs are ineffective.

2.3 Cyber Loafing and Time Stealing

Cyber loafing is a time-banditry-related concept. Cyber loafing is a term used to describe a set of activities performed during work hours that are electronically mediated and unrelated to official employment, such as using Facebook and YouTube (Lim, 2012). Cyber loafing activities, according to Sampat (2017), include online shopping, online gambling, accessing social networking sites, adult sites, online gaming, and online selling and purchasing, among others. According to Askew et al. (2014), cyber loafing poses a significant risk to the organization since it makes it appear as though employees are working while they are not. Some employees spend their entire workday on the internet.

2.4 Multitasking Umbrella

Some people try to mask their time-stealing activity by claiming that they are multitasking. Multitasking is most popular in computer work, where the worker switches between multiple tasks on the computer at the same time. This switching could be caused by a shift in the worker's mindset or an interruption from an external source such as a notification. In a nutshell, multitasking entails performing numerous things at the same time. It has been noticed that frequent interruptions during tough work might have a detrimental impact on performance, whereas they can have a favorable impact on performance in easy activities (Adler and Benbunan, 2015). Supervisors are concerned that staff may be unable to transition between jobs properly as a result of multitasking.

2.5 Organizational Culture and Time Stealing

The organizational adoption of time-staling behavior may be influenced by culture. Organizations, according to Lim (2002), may have developed policies or conventions that make time stealing tolerable to some extent. If the work environment is loose and workers are used to behaving in this manner, such as arriving late or departing early, taking extended breaks,

etc., the rest of the employees would automatically follow such unprofessional behavior. Lim gives the example of a study that found that 96% of workers entertain emails of personal interest, which employees deem more defendable.

2.6 Positive Side of Time Stealing

Time theft is often thought of as a negative and harmful behavior, but it can sometimes serve a constructive purpose, such as when an unproductive worker (who has not completed his task) helps a colleague finish his work. Because this is known as corporate citizenship, the organization will not discourage this type of action of assisting employees. Martin et al. (2010), believe that some non-task activities are necessary for workers' overall productivity and morale, but that when they are not sanctioned by the organization, they are deemed time theft. If a worker uses technology for personal purposes regularly, his job satisfaction will rise. Employees may become involved in time stealing as a result of job stress, which can cause frustration and lead to undesirable feelings (Baskin, 2010).

2.7 Determinants of Time Theft

According to several research findings, there are a variety of reasons for time theft. Some employees may rationalize such behavior based on a single issue, such as injustice, while others may justify such behavior based on a combination of variables. Peng et al. (2020), argue that one of the reasons for time stealing in households could be eldercare responsibilities. Fatima et al. (2020) believed that workplace bullying (WPB) can cause negative feelings such as anger, worry, and tension, which can lead to time stealing. Employees' self-esteem is harmed by the WPB, which causes unpleasant feelings and tension, as well as deviant behavior. Bennett and Robinson (2000) believe that time-stealing activity is the best option for retaliating against a passive aggressor employee who feels disgruntled, underappreciated, and disregarded in appreciation since it has a lower likelihood of being recognized. Time stealing behavior is the result of a complex interaction of fixed and dynamic elements. Some elements may be detectable or observable, whereas others may be difficult to detect or observe.

2.8 Job Insecurity

Job insecurity refers to an employee's sense of powerlessness in continuing to work in difficult circumstances. Job uncertainty may cause a decrease in well-being and work attitude. This is a major source of concern for both employees and businesses (Hellgren, 1999). Higher levels of work insecurity are linked to lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which leads to time theft (Areni & Chirumbolo, 2005). According to Snider's (2001) job uncertainty may be a factor in time theft. Brock et al. (2019), stated that the workplace atmosphere is positively associated with time theft, which suggests that employees' time stealing behavior increases when the workplace climate is favorable.

2.9 Organizational Commitment

The possibility that a worker will remain engaged with an organization is defined as commitment to the organization. It refers to an employee's mental attachment to a company (Brock, 2010). If an employee is devoted and committed to the company, it is reasonable to assume that he will be less inclined to engage in time theft. Employee commitment to the workplace, according to Martin (2010), may be afflicted.

2.10 Workload

Dasgufta (2013), stated that the workload is the entire amount of work assigned to an employee for completion in a certain time period. Time banditry may be influenced by workload. Workers who have less control over their work hours, may take more sick days. To put it another way, when they're overworked, they take a lot of sick days. This is a technique for stealing time (Al-

Mursula et al. 2006). Martin (2010) believes that if an employee is dissatisfied with his work, he would seek ways to shift his mode by engaging in something more appealing, such as surfing the internet or conversing with coworkers.

2.11 Theoretical background

This study is based on certain underline theories, i.e. Criminology and Demographic Profile, Social Exchange and Justice Theory, Equity Theory/Internal Control, etc.

2.11.1 Social Exchange & Justice Theory

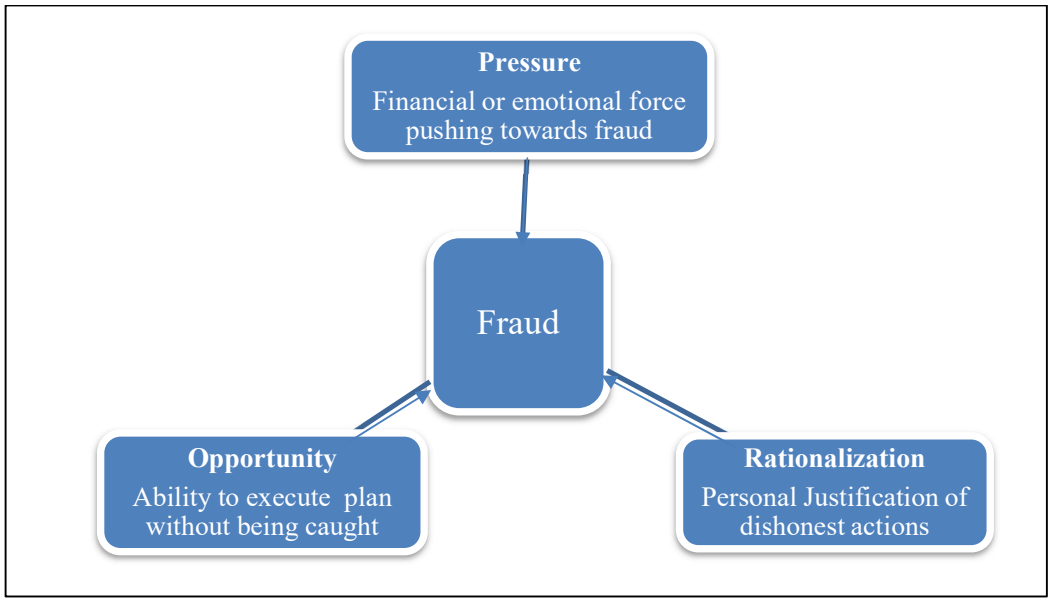
Many social exchange theories can be found in the social sciences literature. Modern social exchange and justice theory, on the other hand, builds its illustrative power within organizational studies by highlighting the type and quality of relationships in which an organization's employees participate (Rousseau, 1995; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Shore et al., 2004). When a powerful party, such as a boss, approaches a less powerful party, a social exchange relationship is formed.

The formation of high-quality exchange relationships between the boss and the employees is facilitated by this simple paradigm (cf. Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & UhlBein, 1995). Employees may respond with more favorable behavior and work attitudes, more productivity, and greater organizational loyalty if a manager extends the possibility for a beneficial relationship (Kaufman, Stamper, & Tesluk, 2001; Hackett et al., 2003; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Employers should be treated with both distributive and procedural justice by their bosses and organizations. Each of these fosters positive impressions of corporate support, which promotes employee engagement, which in turn facilitates job performance (Farrell).

2.11.2 Fraud Triangle Theory

Donald Cressey, an American criminologist, created this idea. This theory discusses the elements that contribute to workplace fraud, theft, and other unethical actions. When managers and companies understand the Fraud Triangle, they may more effectively confront individuals who engage in unethical activity that has negative consequences (Mansor & Abdullahi, 2015).

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework



The triangle above illustrates how fraud can originate in an organization for three key reasons:

2.12.1 Pressure

Most people commit a crime or commit fraud because they are under duress. It is not necessary for this pressure to make sense to outside observers, but it must exist. It can involve drug addiction, alcoholism, financial difficulties, exorbitant medical costs, gambling debts, and so on. Greed can be viewed as a form of pressure; however, it is usually coupled with injustice.

2.12.2 Opportunity

Another factor is the possibility of engaging in criminal activity. In the event of fraud, a temporary circumstance frequently emerges where there is an opportunity to perform a crime without having a large risk of getting caught. Employees that fit all three characteristics of a fraud triangle may be given multiple opportunities by organizations that do not rigorously supervise the working environment.

2.12.3 Rationalization

One of the reasons is an employee's desire to commit a crime or act unprofessionally. Employees/workers are successful in justifying what they are about to undertake. Some people believe they will simply borrow the stolen goods or that they require the money more than the "large" organization they are robbing. The employee defends why they committed fraud during rationalization.

2.12.4 Criminology and Demographic Profile

Researchers have looked into the demographic and personality factors that influence employee theft. By analyzing the demographic determinants of employee theft, criminologists hope to create a profile of those who are prone to stealing. Employees who are prone to theft are typically young, emotionally unstable, and under financial stress (Hollinger & Clark, 1983). Individuals who are socially isolated from their communities and have weak ties to their employers are more likely to steal than those who have strong ties (Frank, 1989).

Workplace thieves are often new, contract or daily wagers, and unmarried employees (Murphy, 1993). According to Hollinger and Clark (1983), time-stealing is more widespread in small businesses, low-paying jobs, and jobs with low status. In small businesses, people are more likely to undertake many responsibilities with no checks and balances, making them more vulnerable to unethical behavior. Researchers have also indicated that some people steal time because it is more thrilling to them (Hogan & Hogan, 1989) or because they are emotionally unstable (Hogan & Hogan, 1989; Frank, Lindley & Cohen, 1981).

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Demographics

Ministerial Staff of Civil secretariate Peshawar made up the population for the proposed study. There were 1475 ministerial staff in Civil secretariate Peshawar ranging from grade 11to 17. The mistrial staff was chosen because of their rigid schedule ranging from 9 am. to 5 pm daily.

3.2 Sample Size

The total sample size for this study was 610 employees. Superintendents, Assistants, Computer Operators, Accountants, Senior Clerks, Junior clerks, Stenographer were included in the sample size. Sampling was done by using the simple random sampling procedure to give equal chance of selection to all in the population.

3.3 Questioners and data collection method

Data was collected using a questionnaire adapted from Kiho's (2018) study. On a five-point Likert scale, all of the questions were asked. This size generates more useful data, is more

dependable, and takes less time (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaire was divided into four sections: the first dealt with workload and had seven questions with responses ranging from never, seldom, sometimes, often, and always. The second and third sections of the survey included questions about organizational commitment (four items) and job insecurity (two items), with responses ranging from to a very small extent, to a small amount, slightly, to a big extent, and a very large level. The final section was a thirty-one-question time banditry quiz, with eighteen questions about classical time banditry, seven questions pertaining to technical time banditry, and six questions pertaining to social time stealing. In order to collect data, questionnaires were delivered to all respondents in stages. It took me about 10 to 15 minutes to finish each questionnaire. SPSS was used to analyze the data that had been collected.

3.4 Data Analysis

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to statistically evaluate the data acquired through a survey questionnaire. Correlation, regression, and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data, where the mean, median, and standard deviation were also calculated.

4. Results

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

The demographic features of the respondents are shown in Table 1 below. According to the table, males made up 64.9 percent of the respondents, while females made up 35.1 percent. The participants in the study ranged in age from 24 to 65 years old. 22.9 percent of respondents were between the ages of 24 and 34, 53.2 percent between the ages of 35 and 44, 18.6 percent between the ages of 45 and 54, and 5.3 percent between the ages of 55 and 60.

Figure 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	Demographic Characteristics	Frequency (%)N=607
	Male	394 (64.9)
Gender	Female	216 (35.1)
	Total	**610**
	11-13	183 (30)
Scale	14-17	426 (70.0)
	Total	**607**
	24-34	139 (22.9)
	35-44	323 (53.2)
Age Group	45-54	113 (18.6)
	55-60	35 (5.3)
	Total	**610**
	Single	77 (12.7)
	Married	518 (85.3)
Marital Status	Divorced	2 (0.2)
	Widow	13 (1.8)
	Total	**610**
	Matric	5 (0.8)
	Intermediate	99 (16.3)
Qualification	Bachelors(14years)	104 (17.1)
	BS (Hons) /Masters (16years)	256 (42.2)
	MS/M.Phil.	143(23.6)
	Total	**610**

The marital status statistics revealed that 12.7 percent of respondents were single, 85.3 percent were married, 0.2 percent were divorced, and 1.8 percent were widowed. According to the respondents' educational qualifications, 0.8 percent had a Matriculation level qualification,

16.3 percent had an Intermediate level qualification, 17.1 percent had a Bachelors level qualification, 42.2 percent had a BS (Hons)/Masters (16 years), 23.6 percent had MS/M.Phil. level qualification. 30 percent of respondents had a pay scale of BPS 11-13, 70 percent had a pay scale of 14-17.

4.2 Correlation Analysis

To determine the links between temporal banditry (TB) and other demographic characteristics, as well as other constructs/determinants, a correlation matrix was created. This correlation matrix will serve as the foundation for future research on the topic, allowing scholars to better understand the linkages between time banditry and the components. The TB and workload (WL) had a positive and substantial connection ($r = 0.226$, $p=0.000$), as expected. Employees in any firm will usually develop time stealing behavior as a result of their workload. The previous literature also witnessed a similar effect. Job insecurity (J) was also found to have positive and significant relationship with TB ($r= 0.359$, $p = 0.000$). When the employees feel insecure in the matter of their jobs, they are then not sincere with their work hence get involved in time banditry. Similarly, the matrix indicates a negative significant linear relationship of commitment to workplace with TB ($r = -0.075$, $p = 0.044$). Higher commitment to work reduces the incidence of time stealing. The degree of correlation of TB with Job insecurity is of moderate level ($r = 0.359 > 0.25$), while it is of low level with workload ($r = 0.226< 0.25$) and commitment to workplace ($r = -0.075< 0.25$). The linear correlation of TB with demographic variables as depicted in the table below areas; with gender of the respondent, it is positive and insignificant ($r = 0.073$, $p = 0.075$), with scale of the respondents, it is negative and insignificant ($r = -.073$, $p = 0.075$), with age, it is negative and insignificant ($r = -.046$, $p = 0.256$), with marital status, is negative and insignificant ($r = -0.070$, $p = 0.087$) and with qualification of the respondents, it is negatively related but insignificant ($r = -.045$, $p = 0.271$). The workload mini markers (w1, w2, w3, w4, w5, w6, w7), Pearson correlation coefficients results indicate that six mini markers out of seven had a positive and significant relationship with TB. Similarly, among the four mini markers of commitment to the workplace, three (c1, c2, c3) have a negative and insignificant correlation with TB and c4 has a positive significant correlation. Both the mini marker of job insecurity, i.e. j1 and j2 have a positive and significant relationship with time banditry.

Figure 3. Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
(1) Gender	1.00																					
(2) Scale	.082* (.045)	1.00																				
(3) Age	.073 (.073)	.517** (.000)	1.00																			
(4) M.Sts	-.183** (.000)	-.021 (.601)	.110** (.007)	1.00																		
(5) Qlf	.079 (.052)	.514** (.000)	.612** (.000)	-.057 (.162)	1.00																	
(6) W1	-.122** (.003)	-.113** (.005)	-.193** (.000)	-.037 (.360)	-.087* (.033)	1.00																
(7) W2	-.098* (.015)	-.079 (.053)	-.039 (.339)	-.053 (.195)	.020 (.631)	.543** (.000)	1.00															
(8) W3	-.079 (.053)	-.038 (.356)	.034 (.409)	.104* (.010)	-.003 (.940)	.454** (.000)	.348** (.000)	1.00														
(9) W4	-.029 (.473)	.021 (.607)	.078 (.055)	.054 (.180)	.098* (.016)	-.001 (.977)	.034 (.408)	.031 (.447)	1.00													
(10) W5	.137** (.001)	.059 (.147)	.096* (.018)	-.025 (.531)	.098* (.016)	.187** (.000)	.090* (.026)	.033 (.416)	.108** (.008)	1.00												
(11) W6	.075 (.064)	-.033 (.416)	-.011 (.796)	.047 (.253)	-.058 (.156)	.105** (.009)	-.015 (.713)	.009 (.816)	.076 (.060)	.307** (.000)	1.00											
(12) W7	.184** (.000)	.025 (.539)	.043 (.291)	.015 (.719)	.025 (.543)	.312** (.000)	.219** (.000)	.223** (.000)	-.013 (.741)	.337** (.000)	.202** (.000)	1.00										
(13) C1	-.048 (.235)	-.004 (.917)	-.075 (.066)	.047 (.248)	-.014 (.735)	.059 (.149)	.090* (.026)	.024 (.555)	.107** (.008)	-.012 (.772)	.008 (.837)	-.008 (.845)	1.00									
(14) C2	.000 (.981)	.119** (.003)	.224** (.000)	.078 (.054)	.156** (.000)	-.100* (.014)	.026 (.529)	.060 (.142)	.172** (.000)	.169** (.000)	-.050 (.217)	.008 (.845)	.302** (.000)	1.00								
(15) C3	.129** (.001)	.165** (.000)	.246** (.000)	-.068 (.092)	.169** (.000)	-.046 (.255)	-.023 (.571)	.110** (.007)	.158** (.000)	.236** (.000)	-.030 (.459)	.135** (.001)	.000 (.997)	.350** (.000)	1.00							
(16) C4	.037 (.365)	-.015 (.707)	.014 (.731)	.031 (.443)	-.017 (.673)	.096* (.018)	.186** (.000)	.128** (.002)	.036 (.380)	-.005 (.901)	.009 (.817)	.261** (.000)	-.015 (.718)	-.092* (.023)	-.070 (.085)	1.00						
(17) J1	-.008 (.839)	-.007 (.859)	.002 (.968)	-.025 (.545)	.075 (.064)	.080* (.049)	.060 (.139)	-.041 (.316)	.079 (.052)	-.041 (.316)	-.193** (.000)	.110** (.006)	.058 (.153)	-.090* (.027)	-.050 (.218)	.241** (.000)	1.00					
(18) J2	.060 (.137)	-.075 (.063)	-.062 (.127)	-.112** (.006)	-.127** (.002)	.163** (.000)	.145** (.000)	-.042 (.302)	-.023 (.571)	-.027 (.499)	-.086* (.033)	.165** (.000)	.046 (.260)	.058 (.153)	-.112** (.006)	.274** (.000)	.422** (.000)	1.00				
(19) WL	.012 (.776)	-.042 (.299)	.004 (.921)	.034 (.404)	.025 (.541)	.694** (.000)	.582** (.000)	.594** (.000)	.342** (.000)	.526** (.000)	.426** (.000)	.596** (.000)	.072 (.075)	.078 (.054)	.147** (.000)	.189** (.000)	.016 (.689)	.074 (.068)	1.00			
(20) C	.059 (.144)	.125** (.002)	.194** (.000)	.034 (.401)	.138** (.001)	.001 (.971)	.121** (.003)	.148** (.000)	.214** (.000)	.183** (.000)	-.029 (.476)	.184** (.000)	.544** (.000)	.694** (.000)	.614** (.000)	.370** (.000)	.070 (.087)	.113** (.005)	.222** (.000)	1.00		
(21) J	.032 (.435)	-.050 (.221)	-.036 (.369)	-.082* (.044)	-.033 (.419)	.145** (.000)	.123** (.002)	-.049 (.227)	.032 (.433)	-.040 (.321)	-.164** (.000)	.164** (.000)	.061 (.130)	-.017 (.677)	-.097* (.017)	.306** (.000)	.837** (.000)	.850** (.000)	.054 (.182)	.109** (.007)	1.00	
(22) TB	.073 (.075)	-.073 (.072)	-.046 (.256)	-.070 (.087)	-.045 (.271)	.156** (.000)	.262** (.000)	.186** (.000)	.125** (.002)	.002 (.953)	-.101* (.013)	.200** (.000)	-.050 (.223)	-.017 (.685)	-.076 (.064)	.187** (.000)	.250** (.000)	.354** (.000)	.226** (.000)	-.075 (.044)	.359** (.000)	1.00

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.1

4.3 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical technique for identifying constructs or latent variables by grouping comparable data into dimensions. This method is typically used to simplify data and condense a large number of variables into a smaller number of dimensions. Thirty-one items were subjected to the main component analysis and exploratory factor analysis. The first component is technology, which includes habits such as checking non-work-related emails, spending time on non-work-related internet searches, and so on.

Figure 4. Factor analysis

	Statements	Components		
		Technology	Social	Classic
1	I check non-work-related e-mail and/or any kind of messages at work.	.393		
2	While at work, the only e-mail use I engage in is work related.	.308		
3	I receive non-work-related e-mails or any kind of messages at work.	.306		
4	I spend time on the Internet for reasons not related to work.	.277		
5	I never check non work-related e-mail during work hours.	.273		
6	I send non work-related e-mail or any kind of messages at work.	.248		
7	I receive personal phone calls at work.	.490		
8	I never make personal phone calls at work.	.294		
9	I use the Internet for work-related business only.	.113		
10	I talk to co-workers about their families or life during work hours.	.795	.519	.473
11	When given a task, I finish it faster than the expected timeframe and use the remaining time for personal use.	.574	.499	
12	If I didn't feel like going to work, I would call in sick, even if I wasn't.		.697	
13	I always put 100% effort into my work task.		.515	
14	I put less effort into my work than I know I can.		.591	
15	I take longer lunch breaks than I am supposed to.		.462	
16	I spend more time than necessary on tasks.		.417	
17	I purposely take longer in the restroom than necessary.		.409	
18	I use sick days in order to catch up on personal things.		.397	
19	I start working as soon as I arrive at work.		.385	
20	If I finished a project 20 min before the end of the work day, I would not start working on anything new.		.417	
21	I tell my boss/colleague a task will take longer than I know I can finish it in, so I can take my time.		.414	
22	I take breaks at my desk to read a magazine or newspaper or to catch up on a bestseller.	.493		
23	I daydream while at work.	.489	.426	
24	I only take the required amount of break time allowed in my organization.			.652
25	I spend time in and out of the office engaging in leisure activities (e.g., going to lunch, drinks, and/or dinner) with clients.			.594
26	When I arrive at work in the morning, I get coffee and/or eat breakfast before I start working.			.595
27	I pretend to work through lunch to leave early, even though I still take a break to eat.			.579
28	I take long coffee/smoke breaks.	.449		.504
29	I often go to the restroom even if I don't have to.	.434		.597
30	I take time out of my day to talk with my boss about non work-related topics.	.417		.519
31	If my boss is gone for the day, I will leave early	.402		.414

The second component is a social factor, which includes habits such as making long personal calls at work and often discussing family concerns with coworkers. The third factor is classic time banditry which includes behavior like coming late and going early, pretending to be sick, and frequent breaks, etc. The table below explains the loading pattern of the variables. Loading 1/-1 indicates the stronger influence of factors on the variable. The value 0 indicates weaker

influence. Statement 10 has large positive loading on factors 1 (Technology) and 2 (Social). Similarly, statements 12, 13, and 14 have large positive loading on factor 2 (Social). Statements 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 have large positive loading on factor 3 (Classic).

4.4 Regression Analysis

The table below shows the result of the Multiple Linear Regression Model. The unstandardized beta value (β) explains the degree of dependence of the dependent variable, i.e. time banditry on the explanatory variables in the model. The result shows that with one-unit increase in workload the time banditry increase by 0.625 units (β=0.625, 0.000). Similarly, with one-unit increase in commitment to the workplace, time banditry decreased by 0.007 units (β=0.625, 0.97). The result also showed a positive relationship of time banditry with job insecurity (β=2.107, 0.000), i.e. with one-unit increase in job insecurity, the time banditry will increase by 2.107 units. A positive relation of time banditry was also observed with gender and age of the respondents while the relation was found negative with scale, marital status, and qualification. It means that with an increase in age and marital status male, time banditry increases but with an increase in scale, and qualification of the respondents, the time banditry decreases. The p-value of Work Load and Job Insecurity was only found significant; all other relations were found not significant. The Tolerance and VIF values in the table below indicate the existence of no multicollinearity in the data. All the values of VIF are less than 4 and Tolerance is greater than 0.25. The adjusted R^2 value shows about 17% variation in the data is due to the variables included in the model. The R^2 value of 17% is acceptable in social sciences where there is a study on human nature involved.

Figure 5. Model Coefficients

Variables	Collinearity Statistics				
	(β)	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	64.414	14.004	.000		
WL	.625***	5.369	.000	.943	1.060
C	-.007	-.036	.971	.899	1.113
J	2.107***	9.017	.000	.974	1.027
Gender	1.465	1.503	.133	.953	1.050
Scale	-.947	-.903	.367	.663	1.508
Age	.054	.069	.945	.540	1.852
M. Status	-1.180	-1.061	.289	.918	1.089
Qualification	-.324	-.536	.592	.560	1.787

Dependent Variable: Time Banditry; Adjusted R2 = 0.168; Durbin Watson = 1.71

W= Workload, C= Commitment to Workplace, J= Job Insecurity

4.5 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The result of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) shows that whether the overall F ratio for the ANOVA is significant. Here, the F ratio is (16.248) is significant (0.000) at the 0.05 Alpha level. We reject the null hypothesis that all four groups' means are equal, since $p < \alpha$. Here it is concluded that at least one of the group means is significantly different from the others. As a rule of thumb value of F value, more than 4 is needed to reject the null hypothesis.

Figure 6. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA Table)

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	16654.294	8	2081.787	16.248	.000
Residual	76236.042	595	128.128		
Total	92890.336	603			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Qualif, WL, M.St, J, Gen, C, Scal, Age

b. Dependent Variable: TB

5. Discussions

This research was carried out in civil secretariate Peshawar to determine the factors that influence time banditry among ministerial staff. The many types of time banditry were also studied to see which sort of time stealing behavior is most prevalent. The impact of workload, occupational dedication, and job uncertainty on time banditry was investigated. For the data analysis, factor analysis, correlation, and regression were used. The findings show that time banditry (TB) has a positive relationship with the respondents' workload, job uncertainty, and gender (male). There was a negative link between time banditry and workplace dedication, age, size, qualification, and marital status (married). The regression analysis also revealed that when workload increases, so do the incidence of time banditry in secretariate employees. Similarly, job insecurity increases employees' time banditry behavior, which is reduced by a commitment to the workplace. The time banditry reduces with increasing scale and qualification, as well as when responders are married. According to the regression study, time-stealing is more prevalent among male and younger staff in civil secretariate Peshawar. These findings are comparable to those of Snider (2001), Areni and Chirumbolo (2005), and Brock et al. (2019), all of whom concluded that job uncertainty is one of the reasons for time theft in offices and organizations. In her research, Martin (2010) discovered that workplace dedication reduces time banditry. This study came up with similar results. McElroy, Morrow, and Fenton (1995) likewise concluded that a lack of commitment to the workplace/organization led to the development of time stealing behavior among employees, which is backed by our findings. Al-Mursula et al. (2006), Martin (2010), and Cordes and Dougherty (2010) all support the conclusions of this study (1993). They discovered that employees' workload and frustration lead to the development of time stealing behavior.

5.1 Implications

Time banditry is rampant among Peshawar civil secretariat ministerial workers, according to the findings. Time banditry was found to have a positive link with the workload, job insecurity, younger age, unmartial status, low scale, and low level of qualification, whereas commitment to the workplace, higher qualification, and marriage were found to have a negative relationship with time banditry.

According to the findings, firms should focus on the benefits of their employees in order to lo wer the incidence of time-stealing habits. The study's practical consequences are that it exposed various predictors engaged in time banditry in Peshawar secretariate employees. This study brought crucial concealed issues to the attention of the relevant authorities. By focusing on the drivers of time banditry behavior, the involved authorities will have the opportunity to stop or at least limit its development. The relevant authorities must establish policies that will allow the issue to be resolved in a timely manner.

5.2 Limitation & future Research

The study's sample size is limited to 610. It may be duplicated if a large sample size was used. Faculty members were excluded from the study. Another study might look into the faculty. Self-reports were used to collect data. If data is obtained using a peer or supervisor-rated metric, the results may be more accurate and suitable. Because of the language barrier, data were collected from employees who were deemed competent in understanding the English language of the questionnaire. Employees in class four groups can be surveyed using a Pashto-language questionnaire, and time-stealing conduct has been identified in the majority of cases. With only three independent factors in the study, future research could include more variables connected to this topic.

5.3 Conclusion

Classic time banditry was found to be more widespread at the offices of civil secretariat in Peshawar when researchers looked at which sort of time stealing is more prevalent among classic, technological, and social time banditry. These results are comparable to those of Brock et al. (2009) and Martin et al. (2009). They also showed that classic time banditry predominates over other types.

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