Examining Workplace Violence Purposeful Human Guardianship in Religious Organizations and Other Businesses

Dissertation

Submitted to Northcentral University

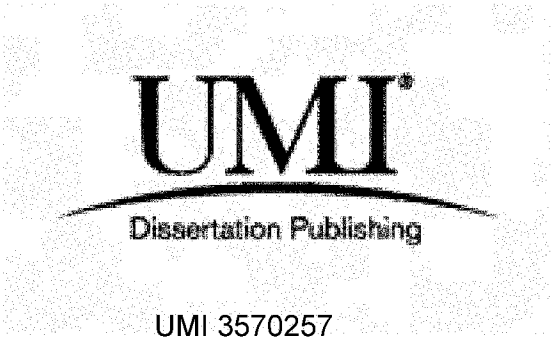
Graduate Faculty of the School of Business and Technology Management
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

GARY B. MITCHELL

Prescott Valley, Arizona
March 2013



ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

APPROVAL PAGE

Examining Workplace Violence Purposeful Human Guardianship in Religious Organizations and Other Businesses

by

Gary B. Mitchell

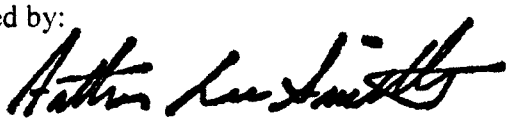
Approved by:

May 11, 2013

Chair: Mohamad Saleh Hammoud, Ph.D. — Date

Member: Mondy Gold, Ph.D.

Certified by:



5/13/2013

School Dean: A. Lee Smith, Ph.D. — Date

Abstract

At the end of the 20th century, the CDC recognized workplace violence as a significant public health problem. Attributed to increased prevention efforts of school and other business leaders the number of workplace violence incidents leveled off during the first five years of the 21st century. However, the number of workplace violence incidents at religious organizations began increasing. A literature review revealed high economic and social costs of workplace violence, but because few studies focused on the routine activity theory (RAT) guardian construct, there was a gap of workplace violence guardianship literature for religious organizations. The problem was religious leaders tended not to expect violence at their establishments, or to have an awareness of workplace violence guardianship. In this quantitative, ex post facto study, the Workplace Violence Guardian Questionnaire was administered online to 305 religious (n = 146) and business leaders (n = 159) in the United States. At the 95% confidence level, findings showed a statistically significant difference based on educational attainment between religious (*rl*) and business leaders (*bl*) for all four research questions (a) awareness, *rl*(M = 9.26, SD = 1.51), *bl*(M = 7.86, SD = 2.08), t(288.11) = 6.772, p =.000; (b) policy strategies, *rl*(M = 9.33, SD = 1.54), *bl*(M = 8.00, SD = 2.07), t(291.01) = 6.397, p =.000; (c) training, *rl*(M = 8.95, SD = 1.51), *bl*(M = 7.77, SD = 2.10), t(286.47) = 5.667, p = .000; and (d) guardianship, *rl*(M = 13.7, SD = 1.91), *bl*(M = 12.90, SD = 2.37), t(298.278) = 3.348, p = .001. Also, for tenure and awareness between religious (M = 5.48, SD = 1.50) and business leaders (M = 5.11, SD = 1.52), t(301.52) =2.133, p=.034 and for gender and guardianship *rl*(M = 8.31, SD = 1.26), *bl*(M = 8.85, SD = 1.51), t(300.076) = -3.395, p = .001. These findings fill a void in RAT guardian construct

literature. Because these variables may play a greater role individually in the prevention of workplace violence, future researchers may want to delve into each variable to determine what is most appropriate to improve workplace violence management.

Dedication and Acknowledgement

I would like to dedicate this Doctoral dissertation to my wife Peg Mitchell. There is no doubt that, without her continued support, I could not have completed the doctoral process. She encouraged me when I thought there was no end in sight. She has read the manuscript even though she has no interest in business topics. She has put up with an absent husband who was always upstairs reading and writing. Now, those days are behind us as we look forward to what the Lord has for us.

I would like to thank my Lord for placing the desire in my heart to compete this research. Because He said, "Before I formed you in the womb I knew you, before you were born I set you apart; For I know the plans I have for you," declares the Lord, "plans to prosper you and not to harm you, plans to give you hope and a future" (Jeremiah 1:5 and 29:11, New International Version, 1984). Truly, as written in Romans 8:28, "And we know that in all things, God works for the good of those who love him, who have been called according to his purpose" (New International Version, 1984). I know He has a purpose for all of this work, even if the purpose is still unknown to me.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the instruction and guidance of my Dissertation Chair Dr. Mohamad Saleh Hammoud, who has been with me since the beginning. Dr. Hammoud has provided me with valuable assistance that has shaped this research from just an idea to a valuable study. Thank you for your prompt feedback and assistance; without you, I would not have been able to maneuver through the dissertation process. Additionally, I also want to acknowledge and thank Dr. Mondy Gold your valuable feedback throughout this dissertation process has helped to enhance my research project.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) recognized workplace violence as a significant public health problem at the end of the 20th century. Workplace homicide rates were increasing over 1980s' rates (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), 1996). Nevertheless, during the first five years of the 21st century, the number of violent incidents occurring at workplaces started leveling off. The improvement was attributed to the increased prevention efforts by leaders of schools and other businesses (Madero, 2005). At the same time, the number of workplace violence incidents occurring in religious organizations began increasing (Wan, 2009).

The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) broadly defines workplace violence as violent acts directed towards persons at work or on duty (BLS, 2006). Victims of workplace violence can be employees, as well as any persons, who are at the work location when violence occurs (Hockley, 2003). Places of worship are thought to be safe workplaces, yet today many congregations have seen violence in their sanctuaries (Wan, 2009). Even though, the likelihood of being killed or injured at work or a place of worship appears to be small, fear affects more individuals than the offense itself (Dansie & Fargo, 2009). Nearly one-quarter of the respondents in a nationwide survey reported workplace violence at their place of business had increased levels of fear in their workforce (BLS, 2006).

Researchers postulate through the routine activity theory (RAT) a crime (workplace violence) can occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and ineffective guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006; Natarajan, 2011; Wortley & Mazzerole, 2008). RAT research has been deficient

because of an inattention to the guardianship construct (Hollis-Peel, Reynald, van Bavel, Elffers, & Welsh, 2011). Because business and religious leaders are required to provide safe working environments, they must be guardians of the workplace (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970). During a nationwide survey, of adults working outside their home, conducted by David Michaelson and Company in 2010, just 44% of the respondents believed their senior managers were concerned about workplace violence, and only 17% were greatly concerned about workplace violence prevention (Whitmore, 2011). The focus throughout this study was to advance the understanding of leaders as guardians responsible for the guardian construct of the RAT. This study was relevant because many congregations have seen violence in their sanctuaries as the numbers of workplace violence incidents increased in places of worship (Wan, 2009).

In this chapter, the groundwork will be laid for the study of workplace violence and the RAT guardianship construct in religious organizations as compared with other businesses. Using a quantitative method to study the problem of workplace violence the findings contribute to the understanding of the RAT's effective guardian construct (Black, 1999; Cohen & Felson, 1979). Four research questions provide insights to the understanding of religious and other business leaders of workplace violence (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship. In addition, the nature and significance of the study are presented. The chapter concludes with a list of hypotheses that were tested, the definitions and concepts that were used throughout the study.

Background

During the first decade of the 21st century, more than 50 people were killed and more than 30 people wounded in 35 church shootings (Linthicum, 2009). In 2007, there were six shootings in places of worship; in 2008, the number increased to 18 shootings (Linthicum, 2009). In May 2010, a pipe bomb exploded outside a Jacksonville, Florida mosque; this was the second-time worshipers at this mosque were attacked (Hannan, 2010). Media's accounts of violence in places of worship have continued to draw national attention to the continuing problem (Hinduja, 2009; van Zandt, 2009).

The costs of workplace violence, including the victims' medical care, counseling, and lawsuits exceeded $36 billion a year (Richard, Emener, & Hutchison, 2009). Nearly 5% of non-government businesses reported a workplace violence incident during the previous year (2005); during the same time, the number was six times higher in state office buildings (BLS, 2006). Between the years 2004-2008, an average of 564 work-related homicides occurred each year in the United States. In 2008, there were 30 multiple-fatality workplace homicide incidents, and nearly half of these events occurred in public buildings, thereby endangering bystanders. During 2008 over 24,000 crimes were reported at churches, synagogues, or temples of which five were murders, 221 were sexual assaults, and more than 1,800 were non-sexual attacks (Chadwick, 2012). Researchers proposed the greater the public contact at an establishment, the greater likelihood of experiencing a workplace violence incident (BLS, 2010). Religious and business leaders have a responsibility to be effective guardians and ensure employees, clients, and customers are safe from workplace violence (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970). Apart from the workplace violence legal responsibilities, there is an impact

of violence on organizational behavior caused by negative public perceptions along with lower employee morale (Shumaker & Feldstein, 2004).

BLS findings indicated only 29.1% of service providing organizations, which include religious organizations, had some form of workplace violence prevention program (BLS, 2006). Moreover, after a workplace violence incident, 22.2% of the service providing organizations reported employees were more fearful and 19.8% reported a decrease in employee morale (BLS, 2006). Even as leaders of organizations like the National Black Church Initiative (2009), the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary (Robinson, 2009), and local law enforcement agencies encouraged church leaders to develop security prevention plans, less than 25% of places of worship have developed plans (Goodchild, 2009).

Researchers studying workplace violence have determined the RAT is pertinent because the whereabouts of the offenders and victims are known when the violence occurs (Southerland, Collins, & Scarborough, 1997). Other RAT researchers point out studies have not focused on the RAT's guardianship construct leaving the component under-researched (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). Specifically related to the RAT guardianship construct, researchers have proposed poorly trained employees in an under-staffed workplace can create an environment that can be more vulnerable to external violence (Bowie, 2002, 2011). Other researchers propose risk assessment policies and management models to reduce workplace violence and improve the level of guardianship in the workplace (Kenny, 2010). Recently, workplace violence scholars have suggested the need for research in the areas of frequency of workplace violence by organizational position; training by organizational position; internal factors generating violence; and

environmental factors affecting externally generated violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). In hospital research conducted during 2006 and 2007, the characteristics of the staff (age, gender, education level, level of employment, and years of experience) were considered to understand workplace violence risks (Chapman, Styles, Perry, & Combs, 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009). Findings from these studies indicated individual characteristics might be a determinant factor of workplace violence risk (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes, Gutiérrez, & Campos, 2011). Because of these findings, individual leader characteristics, including gender, age, education, and tenure were considered, along with the RAT guardianship construct to determine if there was a relationship between religious leaders and other business leaders.

Problem Statement

The general problem is 2 million Americans are victims of workplace violence and about 700 people are murdered each year during workplace confrontations (BLS, 2009a, 2010). At the beginning of the 21st century, the number of violent incidents at religious organizations increased as the overall number of workplace violence incidents leveled off (BLS, 2009a, 2010; Wan, 2009). Prior to 2005 violent deaths at places of worship averaged 10 per year; since then, the average has risen by 400% to 40 deaths per year, with 53 deaths being reported in 2009 (Chinn, 2011). The specific problem is religious leaders are inclined not to expect violence at their establishments, do not have an awareness of violence guardianship, and therefore, few have prevention plans or provide prevention training (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011).

Through the RAT, researchers propose that crime (violence) can occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and ineffective

guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006; Natarajan, 2011; Wortley & Mazzerole, 2008). The reduction of workplace violence at business establishments is attributed to the increased prevention efforts (Madero, 2005). Researchers concluded violence like the Columbine massacre forced school leaders to become better guardians against violence (Brotherhood Mutual Insurance Company, 2007). Because few studies focused on the RAT's guardian construct, there is a literature gap of workplace violence guardianship at religious organizations (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011).

Although leaders have different characteristics such as gender, age, education, and tenure, leaders still must be effective violence guardians (Northouse, 2007). Through the study of the guardianship differences between leaders, this research provides a guardianship indicator for the RAT's guardian construct. By adding to the RAT's guardian construct, this research can lead to safety improvements for employees and congregants at places of worship thereby reducing the impact of workplace violence (Kennedy et al., 2011; Paetzold, O'Leary-Kelly, & Griffin, 2007).

Purpose

The purpose of this non-experimental, quantitative, ex post facto study was to understand if there were guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence. To complete the study, the Workplace Violence Guardianship Questionnaire (WVGQ) was administered to gather information about the leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). The WVGQ was administered on-line to religious and business leaders through SurveyMonkey™ and to those who are members of the more than 30 million people who make up the SurveyMonkey™Audience

(SurveyMonkey™, 2012). The sample was made up of two groups, religious leaders (n=146) and business leaders (n=159). The size of the groups was based upon a G*Power 3 computation for a priori sample size for two-tailed t-tests of the differences between two independent means, with a medium effect worth detecting in the population (effect size $|\rho| = 0.5$), and the correct rejection of a null hypothesis (Power $(1-\beta)$ err prob = 0.80); a minimum of 64 participants in each group were necessary (Faul, Erdfeld, Buchner, & Lange, 2009). To obtain the required number of religious and business leader participants, potential respondents were solicited through faxed and SurveyMonkey™ Audience invitations. Because an establishment leader's personal characteristics could be a factor related to workplace violence risk, the independent variables were linked to the leaders' gender, age, education, and tenure (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes et al., 2011). The dependent variables were linked to the WVGQ question categories. These same variables were used by the U.S. federal government to determine workplace violence prevention awareness (BLS, 2006). The dependent variables were (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship.

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this study was to understand the RAT's guardianship construct as it relates to the effectiveness of leaders as workplace violence guardians. At the highest level, this study provides a greater understanding of organizational behavior as workplace violence prevention was considered from a general systems theory approach (von Bertalanffy, 1968). The underpinning of general systems theory is all activities within an organization are interconnected, and small change in one variable could lead to large

changes in other variables (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). Because of the many variables that could affect workplace violence in an organization, this study focused on workplace violence guardians from the RAT perspective (Cohen & Felson, 1979). In this seminal theory, Cohen and Felson (1979) proposed a crime, in this case workplace violence, could occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and the absence of, or ineffective guardians as shown in Figure 1.

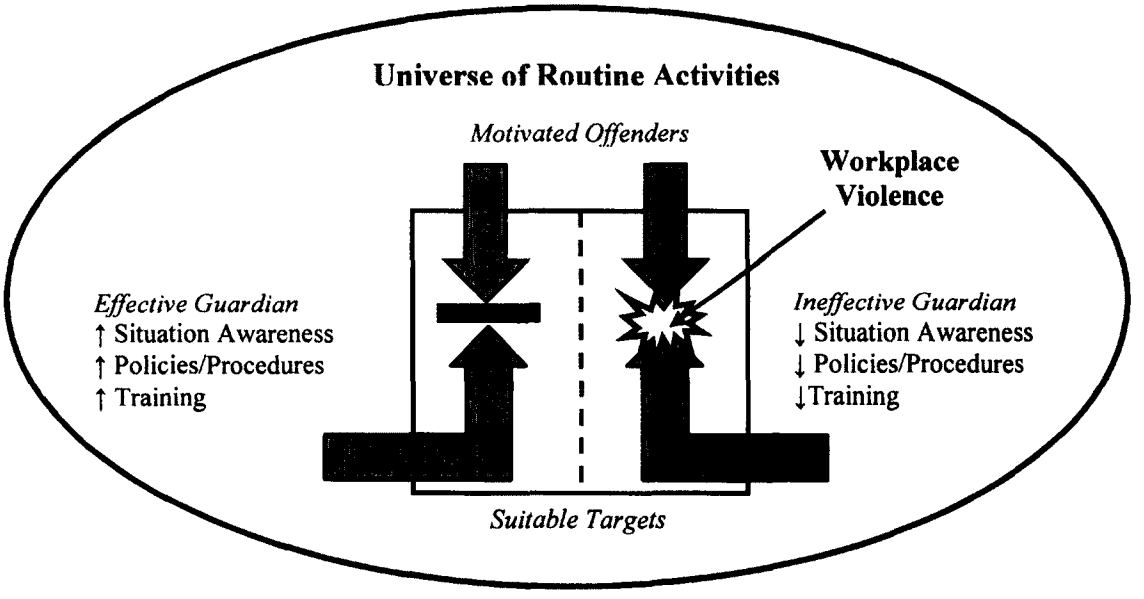


Figure 1. Routine activity theory effective/ineffective guardianship factors.

Of the many theories available to develop the theoretical framework for this study, most are inappropriate for a study of workplace violence prevention. The rational choice theory (Akers & Sellers, 2004) proposed by Cesare Beccaria (1738-1794) postulates people desire pleasure and want to avoid pain relates to the motivated offender construct. From the lifestyle-exposure theory, the concept of environmental criminology was developed; the purpose was to reduce the target suitability using crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) principles and defensible space strategies

(Linden, 2007). These theories focus on offenders and targets and not on the guardians, a weakness in earlier RAT research (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011).

Southerland, Collins, and Scarborough (1997) pointed out that the RAT is pertinent to workplace violence because the whereabouts of the victims are known and the victims are going about their normal activities when the violence occurs. Three assumptions related to the RAT were made in this study about workplace violence guardianship. First, all places of worship and business establishments are suitable targets for workplace violence. Second, motivated offenders make personal decisions to commit acts of violence even when the most effective prevention methods are used. The third assumption was that leaders are the guardians of their organizations and must understand the workplace violence problem, develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011). The guardianship construct was appropriate for research in that there is a great wealth of knowledge, which has not been uncovered (Reynald, 2011b). While Reynald's (2011b) research focused on the elusive guardian in residential environments, this research focused on the differences of place managers (leaders) to understand the effectiveness of leaders as purposeful human workplace violence guardians.

Research Questions

Workplace violence prevention can reduce the danger of a violent incident as employees become aware of violence indicators and action strategies (Romano, Levi-Minzi, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2011). For this reason, the improvement in the number of violent incidents at schools was attributed to the increased prevention efforts (Madero, 2005). To ascertain the current state of workplace violence guardianship at places of

worship and other businesses, these research questions (RQ) were used to discover the perceptions and involvement of leaders with the phenomenon.

RQ 1. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ?

RQ 2. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ?

RQ 3. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ?

RQ 4. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ?

Hypotheses

$H1_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence

awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

$H1_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

$H2_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

$H2_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

$H3_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

$H3_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

$H4_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ.

$H4_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ.

Nature of the Study

The research method for this study was the quantitative method using the ex post facto research design. This design allowed for the comparison of intact groups where the treatment (routine activities) had already occurred (Black, 1999). The WVGQ was administered to two groups, religious leaders and business leaders to gather information about the leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). The WVGQ was administered online to a convenience/opportunity sample (Vogt, 2007) of religious and business leaders who are members of the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012). Participants were recruited through research solicitations and provided a link to the WVGQ on SurveyMonkey™. Collection of survey responses took seven weeks, September 17, 2012 through November 2, 2012. The response rate for the questionnaire during the first two weeks was not great enough to meet the minimum requirement of 64 participants for each group; consequently, reminder solicitations were sent to potential respondents.

Once the data was collected, the data was downloaded from SurveyMonkey™ into an Excel® spreadsheet file for use in SPSS® version 21.0, a statistical software program, for analysis. The independent variables were linked to the establishment leader's individual characteristics, which included gender, age, education, and tenure. The dependent variables were linked to the WVGQ question categories of awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training. Because of the categorical data for multiple dependent and independent variables, cross tabulations were prepared for the initial presentation of the data. Beyond descriptive statistics, an analysis of equality of the means was conducted to test each hypothesis (Hill & Lewicki, 2006).

Significance of the Study

Through this study of the workplace violence guardianship differences between religious and business leaders, this research adds to the RAT guardian construct literature (Boetig, 2006; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006). By adding to the scholarly literature, a void from earlier RAT research was reduced (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). This research also provides a guardianship indicator for place managers (Reynald, 2011b) of places of worship and other businesses. Because recent RAT research focused on the concepts of defensible space (Reynald & Elffers, 2009), situational crime prevention (Komiya, 2011), and residential areas (Reynald, 2011b) there was an opportunity for business related RAT research. This research builds upon Reynald's (2011b) concept of purposeful human guardianship (Figure 2) as religious and business leaders' workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship were studied. The results of this research may lead to other

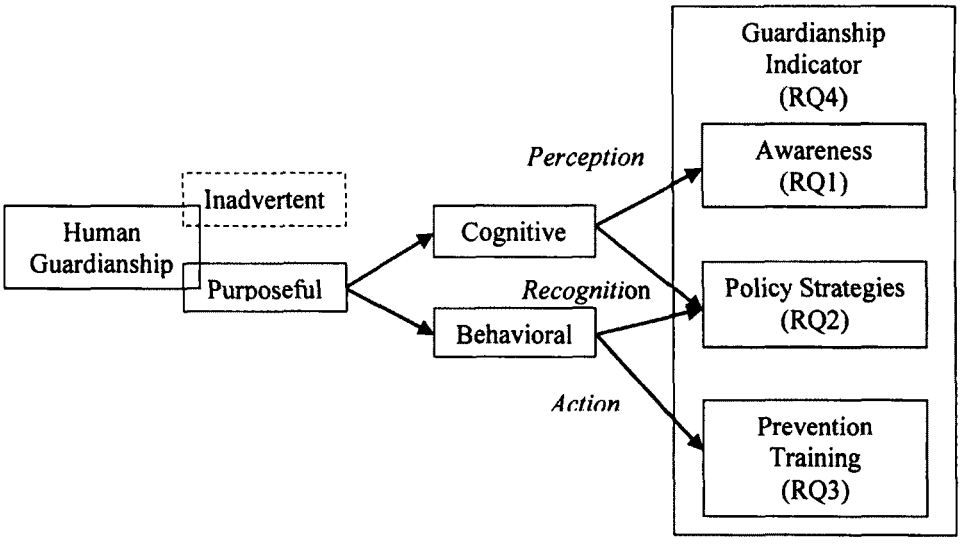


Figure 2. Purposeful human guardianship conceptually tied to the application of guardianship research at places of worship and other businesses (Reynald, 2011b).

organizational benefits, which could reduce costs of workplace violence and lead to safety improvements for employees and congregants (Kennedy et al., 2011; Paetzold et al., 2007).

Definitions

This section introduces the definitions of key terms that were used in this study.

Act of Aggression. An act of aggression is the forceful action, such as an unprovoked attack, intended to dominate or master another person or group (Connor, 2002).

Bullying. The traditional definition of bullying focuses on a power imbalance between the bully and victim, which includes a pattern of phenomena such as emotional abuse and generalized harassment (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011). Bullying is distinguished from other relationship behaviors because bullying is (a) a deliberate

unpleasant act, (b) repeated, and (c) difficult to guard against (Sawyer, Bradshaw, & O'Brennan, 2008).

Business leaders. Business leaders are the leaders of companies or other organizations involved in commerce (Drucker, 1973).

Church. A church is a building for public Christian worship (Stringer, 2005).

Clergy. Clergy are the spiritual leaders within a faith community who serve a local assembly of adherents as a congregation, synagogue, or mosque, or provide spiritual care in a specialized setting as in a hospice, university campus, or military unit. Other related terms for clergy are faith-group specific, such as priest (Anglican, Buddhist, Orthodox, Roman); minister, pastor, or elder (Protestant); rabbi (Jewish); imam or mullah (Islam); medicine man (Native American) (Metzler, 2009).

Congregation. A congregation is an assembly of persons associated by faith for worship and religious instruction (Ammerman, Carroll, Dudley, & McKinney, 1998).

Establishment. An establishment is generally a single physical location where business is conducted, or where services or industrial operations are performed (e.g., factory, mill, store, hotel, movie theater, farm, airline terminal, sales office, warehouse, central administrative office). Each establishment is assigned a NAICS code based on its primary business activity (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

House of worship. A house of worship is a building or place devoted to religious worship and includes churches, synagogues, temples, mosques, or chapels. House of worship is used interchangeably with a place of worship (U.S. Department of Justice, 2010a).

Imam. In Islam, the imam is a recognized leader or a religious teacher. Among the Sunni, the term refers to the leader in the Friday prayer at the mosque; any pious Muslim may function as imam (Ali & Leaman, 2008).

Mosque. A mosque is a building for Muslim worship. The mosque is the Muslim equivalent of the Christian church. The word mosque was derived from the Arabic masjid, which means a place of prostration, literally, a place where worshippers prostrate themselves or more specifically kneel before God (Lewis, 1995).

Place of worship. A place of worship is a building or place devoted to religious worship and includes churches, synagogues, temples, mosques, or chapels. Place of worship is used interchangeably with house of worship (U.S. Department of Justice, 2010a).

Purposeful human guardianship. Purposeful human guardianship is made up of the cognitive and behavioral processes a person takes to perceive, recognize, and take action to prevent a crime from occurring as related to the routine activity theory (Reynald, 2011b).

Religious Leader. Religious leaders are spiritual leaders within a faith community who serve a local assembly of adherents as a congregation, synagogue, or mosque (Metzler, 2009).

Religious Organizations. NAICS Code 8131. This industry group comprises establishments primarily engaged in operating religious organizations for religious worship, training, or study; administering an organized religion; or promoting religious activities (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

Routine Activities Theory (RAT). Researchers proposed a crime might occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and the absence of guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Synagogue. The synagogue is the Jewish equivalent of a church. A synagogue is a place of worship and communal center of a Jewish congregation (Rich, 2010).

Temple. A temple is a building for religious practice (Nibley, 1984).

Violence. Violence is the exertion of physical force to injure or abuse another person (Schinkel, 2010).

Workplace Violence. A violent act directed toward a person at work or on duty and includes physical assault, threat of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying (BLS, 2006).

Workplace Violence Guardianship Questionnaire. A survey created for this study, which is based on the BLS Workplace Violence Prevention Survey (BLS, 2006), and the North Dakota Employee Survey on Workplace Violence Hazard Assessment (State of North Dakota, 2012).

Workplace Violence Prevention Survey. A specific survey created by the United States Department of Labor (DOL) BLS and the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) for use in 2005 (BLS, 2006).

Summary

The CDC recognized workplace violence as a significant public health problem at the end of the 20th century as workplace homicide rates were increasing over 1980s' rates (HHS, 1996). Even though the likelihood of being killed or injured at work or a place of worship appears to be small, fear affects more individuals than the offense itself (Dansie

& Fargo, 2009). While fear is one aspect of workplace violence, researchers postulate through the RAT, a crime (workplace violence) could occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and ineffective guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006; Natarajan, 2011; Wortley & Mazzerole, 2008). Because few studies have focused on the RAT's guardian construct, there was a literature gap of workplace violence guardianship at religious organizations (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011).

At business establishments, a reduction of workplace violence has been attributed to increased prevention efforts (Madero, 2005). Because leaders are the guardians of their organizations, they must understand the workplace violence problem; develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011). Even though leaders have different characteristics such as gender, age, education, and tenure, leaders still must be effective guardians against violence (Northouse, 2007).

The purpose of this non-experimental, quantitative, ex post facto study was to understand if there are guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence. The WVGQ was administered online to a convenience/opportunity sample (Vogt, 2007) of religious and business leaders to gather information about the leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). The independent variables were linked to the establishment leader's individual characteristics, which included gender, age, education, and tenure. The dependent variables were linked to the WVGQ question categories of awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training. Once the data was collected, the data was entered into a statistical software program for analysis, which

included descriptive statistics and cross tabulations. Beyond descriptive statistics, an analysis of equality of the means was conducted to test each hypothesis (Hill & Lewicki, 2006).

Through this study of the workplace violence guardianship differences between religious and business leaders, this research adds to the RAT guardian construct literature (Boetig, 2006; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006). By adding to the literature, a void from earlier RAT research was filled (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). In addition, this research could lead to safety improvements for employees and congregants at places of worship thereby reducing the impact of workplace violence (Kennedy et al., 2011; Paetzold et al., 2007).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this quantitative, ex post facto study was to understand if there were differences in perceptions between religious and business leaders concerning workplace violence. Little research was available about violence in places of worship (Bourns & Wright, 2004). Using the WVGQ to gather information about an establishment's operations, programs and policies, and training related to workplace violence prevention efforts; this research fills a literature gap related to the RAT and workplace violence. Because the establishment leader's individual characteristics could be a factor related to workplace violence risk, the independent variables in this study were linked to the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes et al., 2011).

The purpose of this review was to present a theoretical and conceptual framework from literature of workplace violence and a need for religious leaders to give closer attention to the possibility of violence in places of worship. Through a synthesis of current literature concerning workplace violence, workplace violence prevention, crime theories, and the impact of workplace violence, the importance of a comparative study of workplace violence in businesses and places of worship will emerge.

Violence has always been part of human history, but until men began keeping statistics, public awareness was limited to what happened at home or in a close community. In the United States, uniform crime reporting began in 1927, after being considered for more than 50 years (Barnett-Ryan, 2007). As the definition of crime evolved, so has the amount of data collected to include additional crime types such as domestic violence, hate crimes, and elder abuse as well as more defined crime locations

such as schools, workplaces, and places of worship (Rennison & Rand, 2007). The amount of research available has grown from these data as researchers have considered the many aspects of violence and crime.

To understand the relationship of workplace violence to various theories, many articles and studies from refereed journals were considered. The research strategy included using electronic databases such as Google Scholar, ProQuest, SAGE, and EBSCOhost to find resources for review. In addition, the impact of workplace violence upon society through violence in schools, workplaces, and places of worship was considered in the literature review. Finally, several government websites were searched to determine what public policy experts believed and what resources were being used to make policy decisions. This review is divided into five interrelated parts: workplace violence typology; site based workplace violence research; workplace violence dynamics; workplace violence research based upon (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship; and crime and violence theories. When new knowledge is discovered, the information can usually be traced back to some historical event. With new knowledge comes a new theory or a greater understanding of previously proposed theories (Novak & Cañas, 2008). Finally, the new knowledge influences society by changing some aspect of the way people approach their lives. Through this study, new knowledge is now available to provide business and religious leaders a greater understanding of workplace violence prevention.

Workplace Violence Typology

Violence has been part of man's history for 6,000 years. The Torah, Bible, and Qur'an all report the first murder when Cain killed his brother Abel (Genesis 4:8 New

King James Version, Qur'an 5:27-31). Many religious faiths view this murder as the first act of violence (Lazerson, 2004). Until Abel's murder, violence was an unknown phenomenon. As the 21st century began, the fear of violence and other forms of crime were socially relevant issues (Wynne, 2008). Abel's murder took place in a field, however, now murders take place in schools, in workplaces, and in places of worship at an increasing rate. Since 2000, twenty shootings have occurred in places of worship (van Zandt, 2009) a place that used to be considered a sanctuary of safety from arrest and for protection (Shoemaker, 2010).

In early studies of violence and crime, researchers concluded that a person's biology was the cause of criminal behavior. Cesare Lombroso (1835-1909) gained attention in criminology during the 19th century as he linked biology to crime in the *Criminal Man.* Lombroso contended that the most persistent and vicious criminals were atavistic, meaning these hardened criminals were *throwbacks* to more barbaric stages in human evolution (Lombroso-Ferrero, 2009).

The focus of modern research on violence is that violence is an act of the *will.* Individuals may not rationally calculate the method of violence to use, but feel comfortable with some form of violence to handle circumstances of life (Schinkel, 2004). Physical, environmental, and social conditions interact to cause human behavior rather than predetermined biological traits (Englander, 2007). The tendencies towards violence and the ability to interpret values and take action are woven into humanity. Because of these tendencies and abilities, humans have the capacity to experience guilt, freedom from guilt, and responsibility for acts of violence (Suchocki, 1994).

Defining workplace violence has been difficult, even for the federal government, as several definitions are used by various federal agencies (Kennedy et al., 2011).

Table 1

Workplace Violence Typology

Type of Violence		Factors
Type I	Criminal	The perpetrator has no legitimate relationship to the business or its employees and is usually committing a crime in conjunction with the violence (e.g. robbery, shoplifting, or trespassing).
Type II	Customer/Client	The perpetrator has a legitimate relationship with the business and becomes violent while being served by the business (e.g. customers, clients, patients, students, inmates, or for any other group that the business provides services).
Type III	Co-worker	The perpetrator is an employee, past employee of the business, or contractor who works as a temporary employee and who attacks or threatens another employee.
Type IV	Domestic Violence	The perpetrator, who has no legitimate relationship to the business (but has a personal relationship with the intended victim), threatens or assaults the employee at the workplace (e.g. family member, boyfriend, or girlfriend).

Note. BLS, 2006

The definition used by Department of Labor, which includes the BLS, defines workplace violence as violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty, which includes physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying (BLS, 2006). In the WVPS, the authors' note that workplace violence can occur at the workplace, on official travel, at field locations, and at a client's homes or workplaces (BLS, 2006). The Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), which includes the CDC, uses a

similar definition without going into the detail used by the DOL (NIOSH, 1996). The definition used by the National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime (NCAVC), which is part of the FBI, has greater details defining workplace violence as any action that might threaten the safety of an employee, impact the employee's physical and/or psychological well-being, or cause damage to company property (Emerging trends in employment, 2002). What the federal agencies are in agreement with is the workplace violence typology shown in Table 1, which had its beginning with the California Occupational Safety and Health Administration (Cal/OSHA) in 1995. When designed by Cal/OSHA, the typology identified the first three types of workplace violence and included domestic violence situations with Type 3 co-worker violence (Cal/OSHA, 1995).

An expanded version of the workplace violence typologies (Table 2) has been used overseas and in the nursing profession (Bowie, 2002). Users of the expanded version describe the potential for workplace violence by linking various typologies together (Bowie, 2002). For example, poorly trained employees in an under-staffed workplace can create an environment that can be more vulnerable to external violence; these Type 1 and Type 4 interactions occur because of a poor organizational culture. Another example was in a nursing home where managers try to maintain financial efficiency by reducing staff size, patient neglect, or abuse then occur, as employees are required to do more with less. In this case, Type 2 and Type 4 interactions are stimulated by decisions for financial efficiency. Finally, staff members are bullied by managers and other employees because of a negative environment, high workloads, or the manager's lack of respect for employees; these Type 3 and Type 4 interactions are stimulated by the

manager's failure to deal with organizational problems. In all the examples, managers have a key role in ensuring a safe working environment (Bowie, 2002).

Table 2

Expanded Workplace Violence Typology

Type of Violence		Factors
Type 1	External/Intrusive Violence	The perpetrator has no legitimate relationship to the workplace Criminal intent by strangers Terrorist acts Protest violence Mental illness or drug related aggression
Type 2	Customer/Client related violence	Consumer/client/patient (and their families) violence against staff
	Vicarious Trauma	Vicarious trauma to a person in care and control professions, such as police, social workers, etc. These individuals can suffer post-traumatic stress
	Violence by Staff Members towards Customers/Clients	Neglect and/or with holding services Verbal abuse to physical violence
Type 3	Relationship Violence	Staff on staff violence or bullying Domestic violence at work
Type 4	Organizational Violence	Also called structural violence, systemic violence of abuse, or institutional abuse Organizational violence against staff Organizational violence against consumers/clients/patients

Note. Bowie, 2002

To fill the knowledge gap of workplace violence in the United States, the Congress directed the NIOSH in 2002, to conduct research into workplace violence and its prevention. The NIOSH used data from the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the National Electronic Injury Surveillance System, and other resources to consider workplace

violence from the victim's perspective. Not until the NIOSH completed the WVPS in 2005, was workplace violence considered from the prevention perspective (CDC, 2010a). Because, according to the FBI, no single profile exists to establish whether a worker might become violent or every event of workplace violence is the same, no one-size-fits-all prevention strategy exists. Effective prevention plans share a number of features, but a good plan must be tailored to the needs, resources, and circumstances of a particular employer and work force (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004).

Site Based Workplace Violence Research

The CDC deemed workplace violence a national epidemic requiring immediate policy attention (National Center for Victims of Crime (NCVC), 2004). On average, 10 workers die each week by homicide, which was the third-leading cause of death on the job in the United States (BLS, 2009a). Suicides accounted for another 251 deaths in 2008, the highest number on record (BLS, 2009b). Although suicide may not seem like a violent act toward another, some suicidal individuals cause others to be violent towards them, in a phenomenon known in law enforcement as "suicide by cop" (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004, p. 22). When these seemingly unpredictable acts of workplace violence occur on the job, they devastate organizations, terrorize workers, traumatize friends and family, and often leave multiple victims.

Before 1986, the public was not aware of the severity of violence at their workplaces (Muchinsky, 2008), or of the slang term, *going postal,* which had originated after a well-published workplace violence shooting occurring at a postal facility in Edmond, Oklahoma. The term *going postal* is now part of the American lexicon, along with news accounts, books, music, and television all bringing workplace violence to the

forefront of the American way of life (Kennedy et al., 2011). Even though the pivotal workplace violence shooting did occur at a postal facility, the U.S. Postal Service does not hold a monopoly on workplace violence incidents or levels carnage (National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University, 2000). Workplace violence has reached epidemic proportions in all types of commerce (NCVC, 2004). Whether the business is large or small; or, if the business is part of the government or a single proprietorship; or, if the business is in a manufacturing industry or religious organization, workplace violence can still occur (BLS, 2009a).

Violence in schools. School violence is not a new phenomenon. One of the earliest cases reported occurred in 1927 when 38 students and two teachers were killed, and another 58 students and teachers were injured when an angry farmer exploded dynamite in a school's basement (Collins, 1999). Most recently Columbine and Virginia Tech have become synonymous with violence in schools (Fredland, 2008) as 12 students and one teacher were killed in Columbine High School, and 32 people were killed, and 25 others were wounded at Virginia Tech in 2007 (Skadden, 2007). During the 2005-2006 school year (July 1, 2005 through June 30, 2006), 14 homicides and three suicides of school-age youth (ages 5–18) occurred in school, or about one death per 3.2 million students enrolled (Dinkes, Forrest Cataldi, & Lin-Kelly, 2007). A further review of the numbers showed between 1996-2006 (10-year period) 207 students died because of homicide or 21 students per school year (Borum, Cornell, Modzeleski, & Jimerson, 2010). Despite heightened attention from educators, government leaders and members of the media, school violence is neither increasing nor decreasing and many violent incidents still go unreported (Joong & Ridler, 2005).

Not until research was completed of a number of school shootings in the late 20th century, did bullying become a topic of greater scholarly attention in the United States, even though bullying had been a topic of interest in Europe and Canada for several years (Bauman, 2008). In a Canadian study of teacher and student perspectives on school safety and violence, researchers found bullying is the most frequent cause of the violent incidents followed by peer group pressure, put-downs, and frustration (Joong & Ridler, 2005). Recent studies conducted in the United States of school violence commonly considered four subject areas: bullying, influence of violent entertainment, copycat crimes, and criminal justice system deterrence (Dill, Redding, Smith, Surette, & Cornell, 2011).

Because of the prevalence of bullying in both schools and other workplaces, bullying is considered separately in this review from the influence of violent entertainment, copycat crimes, and criminal justice system deterrence. The influence of violent entertainment generates controversy, even though there is evidence to support the influence of violent entertainment on adolescence and young adult violence. Some believe the influence effect must be "simple, direct, and extreme", and immediate with the same results for the influence to be related (Dill et al., 2011, p.117). In reality, the effects are subtle and build over time. In a meta-analysis of North American studies, researchers found an average of 20-25 violent acts an hour are shown on United States children's television programs (Browne & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2005). During the 1990s, the authors of a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) study reported 93% of school-age children in areas with electricity spent 50% of their leisure time watching television (Browne & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2005). In a

17-year interval study of New York families, researchers found extensive television watching by young people was linked to an increased likelihood of committing aggressive acts against others (Browne & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2005).

During the past 20 years, research has shifted away from television viewing to video gaming and internet usage (Padilla-Walker, Nelson, Carroll, & Jensen, 2010). Compared to early video games, today's games are more violent and allow for several real-time players; because of these factors some games reduce the individual's reticence to killing and are being used as military training tools (Padilla-Walker et al., 2010). In addition, recent research has shown a link between video gaming and poor personal relationships with parents and friends (Padilla-Walker et al., 2010). While some adolescence behaviors decrease as individuals reach their mid-twenties, video gaming may not drop off which can have implications in risk behavior, aggression and romantic relationships (Padilla-Walker et al., 2010). In response to the prevalence of "[v]iolent scenes depicted on television, video games, and in music and cinema" members of the American Psychiatric Nurses Association (APNA, 2008, p. 5) prepared a position paper calling for research to describe effective violence prevention interventions and the development of workplace violence prevention, management and reporting programs.

Columbine murderers Harris and Klebold could be described as *gamers,* a term used to describe individuals deeply involved in video game usage (Block, 2007b). Both teenagers spent a considerable amount of time, upwards to six hours a day, playing first-person-shooter games in a virtual world. While playing in this virtual world, Psychiatrist Jerald Block believes Harris and Klebold felt connected and empowered, yet in the real world these same adolescences felt lonely, anxious, and angry. Over time, the virtual

world became essential for the two, and they had greater difficulty distinguishing their virtual lives and their real lives (Block, 2007a). Harris reported in a school assignment of dreaming about his life in the virtual world and developing scenarios for uploading into the game's editor (Block, 2007a). Just like with other habits or addictions the need for video game play is built over time, and withdrawal can have a disruptive impact on the individual causing unpleasant emotional or physical effects (King, Delfabbro, & Griffiths, 2011).

After the Columbine High School massacre in an attempt to understand school shootings, researchers identified a typology for school shootings. The five types are rampage shootings, mass murders, terrorist attacks, targeted shootings, and government shootings (Muschert, 2007). This typology can be used for all shootings, whether a school or workplace, although the location may be a school for some individuals, the place is a workplace for others (Muschert, 2007). Table 3 was adapted from Muschert's typology table, which also includes specific shooting events that occurred on school campuses. Based upon the typology the Columbine and Virginia Tech shootings would be classified as rampage shootings and the 1927 Bath School disaster would be a mass murder event (Muschert, 2007).

Another topic considered in school violence research was that of copycat crimes because of media sensationalism (Dill et al., 2011). Although scholarly links to the various forms of media and school shootings are not made, there is anecdotal evidence to suggest there is a link (Coleman, 2007). An example of the anecdotal evidence has been the linking of several modern school shooting to Stephen King's (under the pseudonym

Richard Bachman) book *Rage* published in 1977. In 1982, a 17-year-old student killed an algebra teacher. In 1993, a student took his English class hostage and killed the

Table 3

Typology of School/Workplace Shootings

Type	Perpetrator	Motive
Rampage shootings	Member or former member, such as a student or former student, employee, or former employee	Attack on school or workplace selected for symbolic significance, often to exact revenge on a community or to gain power.
Mass murders	Non-member or a person who is not a student, former student, employee, or former employee	Attack on school or workplace selected for symbolic significance, often to exact revenge on a community or to gain power.
Terrorist attacks	Individuals or groups engaging in violent acts to advance political or ideological goals	Politically motivated attack on school or workplace group selected for their symbolic importance.
Targeted shootings	Member or former member, such as a student, former student, employee, or former employee.	Revenge targeted at individuals for some real or perceived maltreatment.
Government shootings	Government agent such as military or police.	Response to protest or riot behavior, often-in response to a crisis of government legitimacy.

Note. Muschert, 2007

teacher and a custodian. In 1996, 14-year-old Barry Loukaitis, who said he got his ideas from *Rage*, took his algebra class hostage and killed his teacher and two classmates as he quoted from the book, "This sure beats' algebra, doesn't it?"; and in 1997, a copy of *Rage*

was found in West Paducah, Kentucky high school shooter Carneal's locker (Coleman, 2007). While these shootings were linked to *Rage*, several incidents occurring after Barry Loukaitis' shooting have been linked to Loukaitis. A month after the shooting a student killed himself in algebra class. Six months later, a 14-year-old armed with a rifle, broke into a home, held a man hostage, and fired several rounds as he yelled "Loukaitis". Later that same year, the 14-year-old cousin of one of Loukaitis' victims took a hunting rifle (the same type of weapon Loukaitis used) and killed his stepsister, his mother and himself (Coleman, 2007). In 1999, *Rage* was withdrawn from publication after the Columbine shooting (King, 1999). Because the media and media sensationalism do have an impact on violence in the schools, workplaces, and places of worship the broader topic are discussed in the third section of the literature review.

The final research topic related to school violence is the impact of criminal justice deterrence (Dill et al., 2011). Through the 1990s and into this century, *zero tolerance* which means using swift predetermined consequences for violations regardless of the situation context or mitigating circumstances has been the policy to keep schools safe (American Psychological Association, 2006). Even as school administrators implement zero-tolerance policies teachers question the value of the policy to deter school violence because of its one-size-fits-all requirement that is not common sense based (Fries & DeMitchell, 2007). Other educators argue zero-tolerance policies are pushing students into the criminal justice system because administrators are relying on the police and courts to handle misbehavior. Once the student is suspended/expelled from the school, the individual is more likely to drop out of school and continue being involved with the criminal justice system (Brownstein, 2009).

Researchers do not agree on the causes of school violence (Fredland, 2008). To some researchers, the cause was the individual's character flaws, to others the cause was the breakdown of the social structure. In either case, dealing with violence in school requires multiple strategies beginning with the individual and their family, school, and the society (Fredland, 2008). Because in-school homicide rates appear to be lower than that out-of-school homicide rates for students the generalization of cause factors for in-school homicides was uncertain (Borum et al., 2010). While bullying played a role in some attacks, nearly 75% of the attackers had tried to commit or threatened suicide, and nearly one-half of the attackers showed signs of depression or desperation (Borum et al., 2010).

Violence in healthcare facilities. Healthcare workers in the United States are 16 times more likely to experience workplace violence than other service workers (Wang, Hayes, & O'Brien-Pallas, 2008). Increased violence is being reported at healthcare facilities across the country as violence spills over from the streets into patient rooms, emergency rooms, and other areas open to the public (The Joint Commission, 2010). The Joint Commission is a non-profit organization that accredits and certifies more than 19,000 healthcare organizations in the United States and keeps self-reported records of serious assaults, rapes, and homicides occurring at member facilities. During the years 2007-2009, The Joint Commission reported the highest number of serious assaults, rapes, and homicides as compared to previous years, with 36 in 2007, 41 in 2008, and 33 in 2009.

Workplace violence is common to all types of workers in the healthcare professions as physical violence is reported at the rate of 16.2 attacks per 1000

physicians, 21.9 attacks per 1000 nurses, and 8.5 attacks per 1000 patient-care assistants (Gillespie, Gates, Miller, & Howard, 2010). Factors such as acute stress reaction, suicidal identification, and alcohol and drug intoxication are frequently observed in violence perpetrators in healthcare settings such as hospitals and emergency rooms. In nursing home settings, dementia was a factor in 87% of the attacks by nursing home assistants (Gillespie et al., 2010). A factor not discussed often is *horizontal violence,* which is professional workplace bullying, where continuous incivility and intimidation of apprentices, lower skilled healthcare workers, by masters, doctors and nurses, takes place (Longo, 2007: Turney, 2003). In this training relationship, the master controls the destiny of the apprentice who is not willing to speak-out about the abuse for fear of being ostracized (Longo, 2007; Turney, 2003).

Just as there exists no single profile to establish whether a worker might become violent (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004) there is no single characteristic to identify which healthcare workers are at risk for workplace violence (Gillespie et al., 2010). Some researchers report men are more likely to become workplace violence victims because men are more likely to intervene while women are more often the target of the violence (Gillespie et al., 2010). Older healthcare workers report a greater number of violent events throughout their work life while younger healthcare workers report being involved in more recent violent attacks than older workers (Gillespie et al., 2010). Even after workplace violence prevention training, evidence has shown an increase in workplace violence, which can be attributed to increased awareness (Gillespie et al., 2010). Overall workplace violence research in healthcare facilities supports the belief that all healthcare workers are potential targets of some form of workplace violence (Gillespie et al., 2010).

Violence in courthouses. Along with schools and healthcare facilities, researchers have recognized courthouses as another place for workplace violence. Because of high emotional levels of people going to a courthouse and the courthouse being a place where disputes are mediated, the likelihood of violence is increased (Etter & Swymeler, 2010). In a study of courthouse shootings between 1907 and 2007 researchers looked at shootings based upon the motive (Etter & Swymeler, 2010). Each of the motives studied can be linked to a type of violence identified in the Workplace Violence Typology (Table 1). The first motive was attempted unlawful entry, which was Type I workplace violence (Criminal); the second was domestic related, which was Type IV workplace violence (Domestic Violence); the third was escape, and the fourth was assassination or other violence, which are both Type I and Type II workplace violence as the perpetrator commits a criminal act while he or she was supposed to be in the courthouse (Customer/Client). Researchers found 114 shootings had occurred during the 100 years, but the majority (60.5%) had occurred during the last 20 years, which coincides with the increased violence at schools and places of worship (Etter & Swymeler, 2010).). As for the motives one-third (33.3%) were domestic related, a little over one-third (35%) were related to assassination or rage and one-quarter (24.6%) were related to escaping (Etter & Swymeler, 2010). Because courthouses are public buildings, guardians of courthouses must deal with many of the same security issues as guardians of schools and places of worship.

Violence in places of worship. Little research was available about violence in places of worship (Bourns & Wright, 2004). Carnegie Mellon University criminologist Jacqueline Cohen noted, "church violence appears to be increasing; because the location

of a church shooting distinguishes it [the shooting] from other murders, and it [the shooting] makes people afraid to be in a place where they otherwise feel safe" (MacDonald, 2009, para. 9). In a nationwide mail-out questionnaire, pastors/ministers were asked if they believed (a) violence was increasing in houses of worship, (b) clergy were fearful, and (c) clergy have become more security conscious. The researchers found that religious leaders thought violence and anger were increasing; did not expect violence, even at youth events; and had no plan of action if violence did occur (Bourns & Wright, 2004). Although the sheer number of incidents of violence in places of worship did not measure up to the number of mass murders in America, the violence was possibly more shocking for its location, second only to school massacres (Putnam, 2006).

Violence in other workplaces. Workplace violence is crucial for all employers under the General Duty Clause (Section 5(a) (1)), of the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, which requires a place of employment that is free from recognizable hazards that are likely to cause death or serious harm to an employee (Johnston, Phanbtbarath, & Jackson, 2009). In a 2010 nationwide survey of adults working outside their home conducted by David Michaelson and Company, only 44% of the respondents believed their senior managers were concerned about workplace violence prevention, and just 17% were greatly concerned about workplace violence prevention (Whitmore, 2011). The number of workplace violence incidents started falling during the first decade of the 21st century as workplace violence became widely recognized as a national health problem. Even as the homicide numbers improved, workplace violence remained an important issue; FBI Director Robert S. Mueller said workplace violence took on a new perspective on September 11, 2001. Since that day, not only must America's employers be prepared

to face traditional internal workplace violence by disgruntled employees, customers, or domestic violence in the workplace, now employers have to consider the external threat of terrorism (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004).

Variable Based Workplace Violence Research

Violence research is commonplace as organizations such as the CDC were created to conduct research to enhance prevention and implement strategies for the prevention of disease, injury and disability (CDC, 2010b). Not only has workplace violence been of interest to the CDC, the situation has also been of interest to the various universities such as the University of Iowa and the University of North Carolina where workplace violence prevention programs were developed (University of Iowa, 2010). The use of evidence-based practices has become an essential concept in bridging the gap between research and carrying out life's routine activities (Wandersman et al., 2008).

Vulnerability perceptions. According to FBI Director Robert S. Mueller, the perceptions of workplace violence vulnerability took on a new perspective on September 11, 2001, as America's employers must be prepared to face traditional violence by disgruntled employees, customers, or domestic partners, and now the external threat of terrorism (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). However, even with the new terrorism challenges in most cases workplace violence crimes are committed by someone who has been involved with the victim or who has been associated with the business or religious organization (Klotz & Buckley, 2010). To reduce perceived vulnerability to workplace violence researchers have proposed Risk Assessment and Management (RAM) teams to promptly address vulnerabilities through a multidisciplinary approach. RAM teams would use

available resources across the organization to limit workplace violence exposure as early as possible, even in the hiring process (Kenny, 2010).

In the healthcare industry, many workplace violence attacks are committed by patients or their family members; because healthcare workers have the perception that violence was part of the job, workplace violence is under reported in the industry (Gacki-Smith et al., 2009). In the nursing field as the rate of non-fatal attacks against nurses was reported in the National Crime Victimization Survey to be 21.9 incidents per 1,000 nurses as compared to 12.6 incidents per 1,000 other workers (Gacki-Smith et al., 2009). In general, less than 20% of nurses felt safe in the work environment because of a perceived administrative abandonment of their safety concerns (Gacki-Smith et al., 2009). While a substantial amount of workplace violence is preventable, prevention requires a vigorous interdisciplinary approach in the organization (Gacki-Smith et al., 2009).

Policy strategies. Small businesses (fewer than 500 employees) appear to be more vulnerable to workplace violence than large businesses because social factors are less controlled (Klotz & Buckley, 2010). Social factors such as unfair treatment, frustration inducing events, and norms violations are more controlled by local supervisors than by organization policies causing a greater likelihood of inconsistent treatment (Klotz & Buckley, 2010). Organizations must develop a culture where employees feel empowered to report and act upon potential workplace violence (Kenny, 2010; Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). More importantly was management's endorsement and enforcement of the policies created (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011).

Several governmental and national workplace violence prevention organizations encourage businesses to create and use zero-tolerance workplace violence policies (APA, 2006; APNA, 2008; Bruce & Nowlin, 2011; Fries & DeMitchell, 2007). Judges have allowed large settlements to victims of workplace violence because some business leaders have failed to create appropriate policies in four prevention areas. These failures include (a) failure to screen out potentially violent employees, (b) failure to act when an employee was discovered to be potentially violent, (c) failure to appropriately monitor employees, and (d) failure to provide adequate security measures for employees, customers and other members of the public (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011). Because of these awards, researchers propose leaders should take a risk-management approach that includes (a) pre-incident/management strategy, (b) pre-event strategy, and (c) a post-event strategy (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011). Even though, zero-tolerance workplace violence policies are the norm, the *jury* is still out on whether these policies are the right solution for workplace violence prevention (Johns, 2009).

Prevention planning. In U.S. history the concept of prevention can be traced back to the idiom quoted by Benjamin Franklin (1739), in *Poor Richard's Almanack*, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure". Violence prevention efforts at schools and other businesses appear to be one of the keys to the number of violent incidents leveling off during the first five years of the 21st century at workplaces (Madero, 2005). A critical fact concerning workplace violence is that the violence is not random or happens, "out of the blue" (Romano et al., 2011, p. 3); therefore, it is essential to recognize the behaviors that could lead to violence. Research has shown a

multidisciplinary approach is needed for the prevention of workplace violence to be effective (Kenny, 2010).

Prevention training. Prevention training is the key component of a multidisciplinary approach for the prevention of workplace violence (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). In the United States, researchers have suggested regular training for all employees, including senior executives, on workplace violence policy and preventive measures that include the topics of risk factors, response plans, safety devices, reporting, seeking medical and follow-up assistance (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). In the international arena, the United Nation's International Labour Organization (ILO) has created a workplace problem training known as SOLVE (Stress, Tobacco, Alcohol and Drugs, HIV/AIDS, and Violence; Probst, Gold, & Caborn, 2008). The purpose of the training is to raise the understanding of workplace violence and other interrelated stress and health issues, and to provide employees with tools to reduce unhealthy causes of problems (International Training Centre, 2011). Researchers found individuals who attended at least one of fifteen SOLVE training courses had significantly improved understanding of stress, tobacco use, alcohol and drug abuse, HIV/AIDS, and methods for prevention of workplace violence and that SOLVE may be a useful intervention for workplace problems (Probst et al., 2008).

Workplace Violence Dynamics

Costs. On a global basis workplace violence causes a momentous economic lost, but because of measurement difficulties and different methodologies, a specific amount is undetermined (Waters et al., 2004). In the United States, the cost of workplace violence, including the victims' medical care, counseling, and lawsuits are exceeding $36 billion a

year (Richard et al., 2009). Bullying and cyber-bullying, if left unchecked, can lead to increased absenteeism, which affects productivity and ultimately business profitability. In the European Union, 35% of workers reporting physical violence at work also reported a higher rate of absenteeism as compared to non-victims who reported a 23% rate of absenteeism (Paoli, 2000). Decreases in workplace morale due to workplace violence incidents or activities like mobbing may lead to costly staff turnover. Most damaging to an organization is the poor public image, caused by being a poor place to work or being a business that cannot meet their client's needs, which in some cases can cause the cycle of workplace bullying to continue or escalate (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

In the United States, there are an estimated 723 attacks, 16,400 threats and nearly 43,000 bullying confrontations occurring every day in the workplace (Hinduja, 2009). Workplace violence has an impact on many facets of an individual's life. There are the physical and mental effects of an attack and the financial costs through lost work time and medical expenses (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007). In addition, the rest of society must manage the economic costs of increased criminal justice system expenses and the lost productivity of the offender. Researchers have reported that the average cost of one murder in the United States is $17.25 million (DeLisi et al., 2010) and the cumulative costs to businesses are more than $36 billion per year (Hinduja, 2009). In a Canadian study of worker compensation claims, absences related to a workplace violence event were about 50% longer than absences associated with an accidental injury or illness (Campolieti, Goldenberg, & Hyatt, 2008). On a larger scale are the immeasurable costs of fear and activity avoidance, in addition to the money individuals and governments spend for crime prevention (DeLisi et al., 2010).

Bullying. Bullying is the leading cause of school and workplace violence (Yamada, 2008). During the years 2005-2010, more than 50% of surveyed business students at Athens State University had witnessed some form of harassment, threats, yelling or other verbal abuses at their work location (Kennedy et al., 2011). The traditional definition of bullying focuses on a power imbalance between the bully and victim, which includes a pattern of phenomena such as emotional abuse and generalized harassment (Einarsen et al., 2011). Bullying is distinguished from other relationship behaviors because bullying is (a) a deliberate unpleasant act, (b) repeated, and (c) difficult to guard against (Sawyer et al., 2008). There are different types of bullying overt bullying, which include physical and verbal harassment, and indirect bullying, which attacks the relationships of the victim. The latest type of bullying is cyber-bullying, which can be overt or indirect and the bully uses some form of communication media or technology to make the attack (Bauman, 2008).

In a study of early teenage students (grades 6 through 10) in the United States, 29.9% reported frequent involvement with bullying (Bauman, 2008). In a survey of United States workers, researchers classified 28% of the workers as bullied and more than 45% of the respondents reported experiencing one negative act weekly (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). Even witnessing bullying caused workers to leave the job at a higher rate than non-bullied workers (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). Bullied victims are more likely to consider suicide than non-victims or bystanders (Rivers & Noret, 2010). Although workplace bullying cannot cause an immediate death by homicide, long-term effects include drinking problems, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, and

ultimately physical conditions as cardiovascular illness and impaired immune systems (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003).

The latest forms of bullying include cyber-bullying and mobbing. The cyber-bully uses communication technology to send messages to threaten or denigrate another person directly or indirectly. These messages may include personal or confidential information, or photographs, which are aimed at hurting the reputation of the subject individual (Privitera & Campbell, 2009). Mobbing is the collective behavior of several individuals ganging up to abuse another worker, similar to animal behavior designed to eliminate a threat in the group (Duffy, 2009). Neither of these forms of abuse has received the attention of much scholarly research, but already, nearly one-third of workplace-bullied victims reported cyber-bullying in addition to face-to-face bullying (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

Even though workplace-bullying research is in its infancy, there has been a link shown between bullying and the destructive consequences to the victims, organizations and non-intended individuals (Carbo & Hughes, 2010). Researchers at the Institute for Safe Medication Practices found 7% of the respondent nurses, and pharmacists reported being involved in a medication error during the past year. One of the reasons cited for the error was intimidating behavior by the prescriber causing 40% of respondents to assume the order was correct or the use of an intermediary rather than to deal with the prescriber themselves (Smetzer & Cohen, 2005). Other researchers discovered bullying caused at least two airline accidents because crewmembers were afraid to question a pilot's decision (Carbo & Hughes, 2010). Because of the severity of bullying and that a single incident can cause tremendous loss, the current definition does not reflect the

pervasiveness of workplace bullying (Carbo & Hughes, 2010). Carbo and Hughes (2010) proposed adding to the workplace bullying definition to include the effect of bullying because bullying takes away the victim's right for respect, dignity, to be heard or some other human right.

Offenders. Most (55%) workplace violence is committed by strangers (Duhart, 2001), and almost 80% of workplace homicides are committed by individuals who have no connection to the workplace (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Although each year nearly 40,000 workplace violence events were linked to the victim's current or former domestic partner (Duhart, 2001). After several workplace violence events occurred in U.S. Post Office facilities, the Postal Service commissioned a study of workplace violence (National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University, 2000). After studying homicides at postal facilities committed by both current and former employees, researchers' found although the motives varied two-thirds of the offenders had histories of substance abuse or were under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time of the attack. One-fifth of the offenders were known to have mental health problems and three of the offenders had histories of committing domestic violence (National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University, 2000). The researchers also found that one-third of the offenders should not have been hired based upon inappropriate behavior before employment and that after employment, managers mishandled several warning signs (National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University, 2000).

Homicide is predominately a male phenomenon; meaning males are more likely to kill other males then for males to kill females or for females to kill males (Thomas,

Dichter, & Matejkowski, 2011). In an Indiana study to investigate intimate partner homicide, women made up about one-quarter of the homicide victims yet about 70% of the women were killed by an intimate partner (Thomas et al., 2011). Five percent of the intimate partner murders occurred at the victim's workplace, whereas nearly 10% of non-intimate partner murders occurred in a workplace (Thomas et al., 2011). Motives for the murders were hatred and rage whereas in non-intimate partner murder money/robbery or some other crime led to the murder (Thomas et al., 2011). Intimate partner homicide offenders typically had a history of alcohol and drug abuse and finally, 25.6% had a history of severe mental illness as compared 11.6% of non-intimate partner offenders (Thomas et al., 2011).

No single profile exists to establish whether a worker might become violent (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). What is known is the majority of mass murderers have been described as *loners* who were preoccupied with violent fantasies and constantly looking for recognition and reward (Aitken, Oosthuizen, Emsley, & Seedat, 2008). The offender is typically a middle-aged white male who had access to firearms and was proficient with the weapons (Aitken et al., 2008). Only one recent workplace mass murder has been attributed to a female as six people were killed by a former Postal Service employee at a mail processing plant in 2006 (Schurman-Kauflin, 2006). The mass murderer sees himself or herself as a victim. Events such as problems at work, bullying, marital conflict, or financial setback can trigger a well-thought-out attack. The attacks are usually directed toward specific individuals whom the attacker blames for their situation and if caught the attacker shows no remorse for the attack. Some mass murderers do

blame themselves for their inadequacies and commit suicide to end the massacre (Aitken et al., 2008).

Fear of crime. Public demand for security is a central theme of contemporary society (Wynne, 2008). As opinions and concerns regarding crime and deviant behavior increase, the fear of crime becomes more dominant in politics and communications media. Using socio-demographic variables along with: victimization, risk, disorder, change, and economic factors in the United Kingdom, Farrall (2007) found there were respondents worried about crime all the time to those who were not worried about crime at all (Gray, Jackson, & Farrall, 2008). Generally, people have a tendency to associate the fear of crime with certain places, where they live, where they work, or where they want to go (Wilson, Brown, & Schuster, 2009). The fear of crime is based upon knowledge or experiences an individual has of an area or location, which may be based upon visual cues (Wilson et al., 2009). Visual cues such as deteriorating buildings or blighted neighborhoods can cause increased fear and research has shown these conditions are linked to increased crime (Wilson et al., 2009). Because much crime research was completed on a broad community level, future research should focus on local surveys to understand socio-demographic variables to produce relevant statistics for the local community (Wynne, 2008).

In fear of crime research, women and older persons tend to be extremely afraid of crime (LaGrange & Ferraro, 2006). LaGrange and Ferraro examined age and gender differences in perceived risk and fear of crime through a comparison with the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) measure of fear of crime along with eleven other

fear indicators. Their findings demonstrate women report significantly greater perceived risk and fear of crime than men, regardless of how fear of crime was measured.

Workplace violence fear continues to be a significant issue in the healthcare field. Even though male physicians experience a higher rate of violent attacks, women physicians reported a higher rate of fear for future violence (Gillespie et al., 2010). In a Michigan study, 16% (n = 27) of the physicians reported carrying a concealed weapon because of workplace violence fear (Gillespie et al., 2010). In another study during the same period, female physicians were more likely to report taking their spouse along during home visits to patients (Gillespie et al., 2010). To address potential workplace violence one of the conclusions of the researchers' was having the healthcare provider to work in teams to conduct home visits and to ensure regular reporting to a responsible control point (Gillespie et al., 2010).

Hate crimes. While crimes of prejudice have long been part of the history of the United States, the term *hate crime* was not used until the 1980s (Shively & Mulford, 2007). The FBI defines hate crimes as "a criminal offense committed against a person, property, or society that is motivated, in whole or in part, by the offender's bias against a race, religion, disability, sexual orientation, or ethnicity/national origin" (Shively & Mulford, 2007, p. 10). In addition to personal attacks, 42 states and the District of Columbia have enacted laws to punish offenders for defacement, desecration, or destruction of a place of worship, in most cases, these laws do not require a bias motive, but only the fact the act occurred (Perry, Levin, Iganski, Blazak, & Lawrence, 2009). In 2009, 1,303 reported hate crime incidents were related to religious bias; of these, 17.6% occurred in churches, synagogues, or temples (U.S. Department of Justice, 2010b).

The majority of religious biases based hate crimes were not against individuals but to the religious organization facilities (Lopez, Brim, & Peer, 2011). In a 10 year longitudinal study (2000-2009), 64% of the reported religious hate crimes were to properties, of which 92% were described as destruction of property or vandalism; the remaining crimes involved some form of theft (Lopez et al., 2011). Using data from FBI crime statistics, researchers found the majority religious bias hate crimes were toward Jewish congregations' and places of worship. Although there was a spike within two months of September 11, 2001, the number of religious bias hate crimes toward Muslim congregations' and places of worship have decreased during the past 10 years (Lopez et al., 2011). In the years 1997-1999, statistics from the National Incident Based Reporting System (NIBRS) for a hatred of a religion crime that 41% were toward Jewish victims and 31% were toward victims of unspecified religious groups (Shively, 2005).

The impact of mass communication on violence. In the 20th century, three types of media were recognized for mass communication: newspapers (print), radio, and television (electronic) (Turow, 2009). In the past, as well as today, mass murders are media-intensive events and reported in all types of mass media. Nevertheless, these incidents, though serious, are relatively infrequent. More frequent was *media violence*, defined as the visual portrayal of acts of physical aggression (Huesmann & Taylor, 2006). Recently, the creation of interactive media not only allows the user to have print and electronic reports of violence, but also to take part in media violence through games and simulations.

Newspaper coverage of crime was not reflective of actual crime rates and repeated exposure to unbalanced information appears to lead readers to perceive a higher

risk to, and greater fear of, personal violence than was actually warranted (Tiegreen & Newman, 2009). The use of emotional words increases the arousal ratings of readers/hearers causing reduced recall accuracy of event facts (detractors) and as such can cause longer memory of the disturbing words (Mathewson, Arnell, & Mansfield, 2008). In a study of five United States newspapers before and after September 11, 2001, there was an increase linking terrorism to fear. As the coverage of crime linked to fear continued at lower rates, there was a larger increase in reports linking terrorism to victims (Altheide, 2006). In addition to the news about school and workplace violence are news reports of violent terrorism.

Because exposure to media violence leads to an increase in real-world violence, media violence along with television news poses a threat to public health (Huesmann & Taylor, 2006). During the past 100 years, young people have included using electronic forms of media at an increasing rate during their leisure time, so by the end of the 20th century, young people reported over 14 hours a week of television usage (Wartella & Robb, 2009). At the beginning of the 21st century young people, have all forms of media, books, movies, music recordings, games and other forms of virtual entertainment instantaneously available through the internet (Wartella & Robb, 2009). In a recent use study, young people between 8-18 years of age reported using the televisions, video games, or computers an average six and half hours a day (Wartella & Robb, 2009). In a similar study for the Television Bureau of Advertising, young people reported using mass media more than 390 minutes a day (Malone, 2010). Adults reported watching television 319 minutes, using the internet 156.6 minutes, listening to the radio 91.2 minutes, and reading newspapers 26.4 minutes on average each day (Malone, 2010).

The concern of media violence in the United States began in the 1950s as the Senate subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency questioned the use of violence on television (Sparks, Sparks, & Sparks, 2009). Since then, the use of media violence has been a topic of much scholarly research as the usage of media violence has spread to advertising and all other forms of media (Sparks et al., 2009). Leading media violence scholar George Gerbner proposed the *cultivation theory,* in which he hypothesized over time, the longer people watch television, the more likely the person's perception of reality becomes distorted to the reality portrayed on television (Morgan, Shanahan, & Signorielle, 2009). In 2000, six professional health organizations (American Academy of Pediatrics, American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, American Psychological Association, American Medical Association, American Academy of Family Physicians, and American Psychiatric Association) issued a joint statement that based upon over 30 years of research including more than 1000 studies; that entertainment violence can lead to increased aggressive attitudes and behavior, particularly in young people (Sparks et al., 2009).

In the United States, there are more than five murders an hour in the prime-time television and about 80% of prime-time television contains some form of violence (Stossel, 1997). Many of these violent acts relate to some form of domestic or workplace violence causing what Gerbner calls the *Mean World Syndrome* and the idea that aggressive behavior was normal as people become more fearful of the world around them (Morris & Earp, 2010). In interactive gaming media, the Mean World Syndrome becomes more real as the viewer/player not only sees the violence, but also is to respond to the event with some action (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2009). For the

viewer/player, most choices include killing and being awarded points for committing violence against another, or doing nothing and losing or dying in the game (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2009). Recent studies in the United States and Japan revealed that in as little as three-month high exposures to video violence could lead to aggressive behavior by adolescents (Anderson et al., 2008).

In some studies, traditional victims of workplace bullying were reported likely to become perpetrators of workplace bullying (De Cuyper, Baillien, & De Witte, 2009). Even the influence of media can cause aggressive behavior in young people and adolescents (Anderson et al., 2008). Because many life factors are interrelated with workplace violence, no single profile exists to establish whether a worker might become violent (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Most people conform to the patterns of society and do not commit crimes. However, some people were provoked by modern life to a point of committing crimes as suggested, more than 100 years ago, by sociologist Emile Durkheim (Giddens, 2006). In the next section, five behavior theories are presented to explain why a person might commit workplace violence.

Crime and Violence Theories

Throughout the past 200 years, crime and violence have been the subjects of much research (Smith, 1999). Because committing a crime or an act of violence against another is a behavior, researchers and scientists are able to record and measure these behaviors (Maxfield & Babbie, 2011). As researchers and scientists focus on the phenomenon of crime and violence, the theoretical perspectives come from the sciences of sociology, psychology, or criminology. The culmination of the study of these records and measurements leads some scientists to propose theories to explain their

understanding of the observations (Maxfield & Babbie, 2011). The first five theories presented are considered from the behavior perspective.

Anomie theory. The anomie theory was considered by Merton (1938) using an American dream perspective. What happens when the individual realizes he or she cannot achieve the American dream? Merton believed the individual would respond in one of five ways:

> The conformist will accept the goals of society and the means for achieving them, as Abel did prior to his murder.
>
> The innovator will accept the goals of society, but reject the accepted means to achieve the goals. The rejection of the accepted means may cause the innovator to become involved in criminal activity.
>
> The rebel rejects the goals and society's means of achieving them and wants to replace society's ideals with new goals and means. The rebel may become the extremist or murderer, like Cain as he murdered his brother Abel.
>
> The retreatist gives up on the goals and means, withdrawing from society.
>
> The ritualist rejects the goals and accepts the means, going through life with no aspirations (Akers & Sellers, 2004).

Others argue the strain of stressors increases the likelihood of crime (Agnew, 2006). Stressors fall into three categories (a) failure to achieve goals, as Cain with his offering; (b) loss of positive stimuli, as with the loss of a romantic partner; or (c) influence of negative stimuli, as with continued verbal or physical abuse. When faced with these stressors the individual feels terrible and an individual predisposed to crime is more

likely to commit a crime when he or she was unable to cope with the strain legally (Agnew, 2006).

General strain theory. The general strain theory is considered an extension of the anomie theory that was first presented by French sociologist Emile Durkheim. Anomie is a condition where social and/or moral norms are confused, unclear, or are simply not present (Atkinson, 2008). Through the years, the general strain theory was refined to suggest that individuals experienced strain or pressure when they cannot attain certain goals, such as money or status in school. Under certain conditions, individuals are likely to respond criminally to this strain. Crime was a more likely response to strain when the strain results in anger and frustration (Cohen, 1965).

Considering Agnew's expansion of the general strain theory in the workplace, researchers found about one-fifth of workers experienced negative treatment because of age, about one-third because of gender or level of education, and about one-quarter because of race (Hinduja, 2009). The most common form of mistreatment experienced was name-calling or insults, which 21.4% of the study population reported (Hinduja, 2009). The majority (64.2%) of the participants experiencing name-calling or insults reported no maladaptive coping mechanism while 75.7% of the remaining participants felt very angry and 29.4% wanted to hurt the people who had hurt them (Hinduja, 2009). Because the workplace is a "melting pot of workers" (Hinduja, 2009, p. 282) in which tolerance and civility are critical, maladaptive coping mechanisms (such as visible anger or inappropriate outbursts) may not be acceptable methods to deal with workplace mistreatment leading occupational stress.

While the general strain theory suggests individuals experience strain when they cannot attain certain goals, the situation also applies when the individual faces work insecurity and could lose the job he or she has attained (De Cuyper et al., 2009). Under these conditions, researchers found perceived job insecurity did not contribute to increased reports of workplace bullying by victims, although the number of perpetrators' reports of workplace bullying increased (De Cuyper et al., 2009). One explanation researchers used for this phenomenon was that as traditional victims of workplace bullying having greater job insecurity are more likely to become perpetrators of workplace bullying themselves (De Cuyper et al., 2009). Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2009) discovered the same type of findings as they studied predictors of workplace bullying in Norway. Through regression analysis, the data supported the findings that being a bullying target was the most likely predictor of being a bullying perpetrator (Hauge et al., 2009).

Other researchers have considered physical and psychological strain and the relationship of exposure to violence and a *violence climate*; a violence climate is an artifact of an organization's policies and procedures, practice and response, and pressure for unsafe practices (Kessler, Spector, Chang, & Parr, 2008). The inverse of a violence climate is a *safety climate* where employees are encouraged to follow high-quality policies and procedures as managers take a proactive approach to safety (Kessler et al., 2008). Researchers found practice and response to be the most significant factor relating to physical violence while the organization's policies and procedures pertinent to verbal aggression. From the findings, the researchers concluded supervisors should be trained how to de-escalate minor hostilities to prevent major violence and to properly respond

should major violence follows (Kessler et al., 2008). Finally, the researchers suggested the perception of a violence climate can contribute to employee's physical and psychological strain, and management should be aware of that when developing prevention efforts (Kessler et al., 2008).

Control theories. Multiple control theories are based upon a person's relationship to his or her socialization agents, such as parents, teachers, preachers, coaches, scout leaders, or police officers (O'Connor, 2006). The central theme of these theories was that the effectiveness of the individual's bonding with authority figures, in particular, leads to bonding with society, in general, thereby keeping the person out of trouble with the law. An element of control theories is that everyone has the desire to commit criminal or deviant acts and seeks to determine why some people refrain from doing so (See, 2004). Adults who go on a rampage at work or in the family are usually socially isolated and lacking in conventional social bonds (Fox & Levin, 2005). In recent studies, precipitating factors include chronic strain; beginning with anger, and moving to frustration, disappointment, depression, fear and finally crime (Levin & Madfis, 2009).

Rational choice theory. The rational choice theory has a long history in sociology, economics and more recently in criminology (Akers & Sellers, 2004). The basis for the assumption as Cesare Beccaria (1738-1794) proposed the theory was that people desired pleasure and wanted to avoid pain. Scholars propose an individual will assess the risks/costs and benefits of a decision to commit a crime and will make a rational choice. In the United States, the doctrine of deterrence, which defines the punishment that will be administered to the person who is guilty of a crime, is a core

principle of the theory (Akers & Sellers, 2004). Without sure and severe consequences, the risks/costs of the crime are substantially increased.

Because the consequences of crime are usually out of the control of business and religious leaders, leaders must rely on crime prevention techniques at their place of business or religious organization to increase the risks/cost of committing a crime. *Moral rules* are the principles people use to determine if an action is right or wrong in a particular situation and are another means leaders can use to prevent violence (Wikström & Treiber, 2009). Zero-tolerance policies provide guidance for employees and visitors that workplace regulations prohibiting violence are fully enforced. Each of these tools causes an individual to consider risks/costs, benefits of a potential crime, and makes it desirable to make a rational choice.

Lifestyle theory. The lifestyle theory can be considered from two different perspectives. One is the criminal's (psychosocial) perspective, and the other is the victim's perspective. The psychosocial perspective proposes crime is a lifestyle pattern rather than a simple behavior. Criminals make thinking errors based upon their biological and environmental conditions and a previous pattern of their choices. The patterns include impulsiveness, rule breaking, and egocentrism (Walsh & Lee, 2006).

From the victim's perspective the lifestyle-exposure theory, supposes the individuals' daily activities, such as work or leisure activities, can contribute to their victimization (Giblin, 2008; Hindelang, Gottfredson & Garofalo, 1978). At this divide in the discussion of crime and violence theories, the center of attention on crime and violence theories changes from a focus on criminal behavior to a focus on the ecology of crime. The ecology of crime considers that a requirement for a crime (workplace

violence) to occur the victim and offender/criminal must converge in time and space (Taylor, 2001).

For most individuals, going to work or school is a lifestyle requirement; however, taking part in leisure activities like going to a place of worship is an activity of choice. If individual fears participating in an activity may have an adverse outcome or increase exposure, the individual will choose another activity. Out of the lifestyle-exposure theory comes, the routines activities theory and environmental criminology. Both concepts require a situational approach to the analysis of specific crime situations and the development of strategies to fit those circumstances. Developed from these strategies are crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) and the use of defensible space for crime prevention (Linden, 2007).

Routine activity theory (RAT). During the 1970s, incidents of crime were increasing in the United States (McDonald & Finn, 2000). At the same time, the Congress was increasing funding, which reached almost $1 billion in 1975, for law enforcement research and crime prevention (Sherman et al., 1997). Out of the research of the 1970s came the RAT. The hypothesis of the RAT is that a crime can occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and the absence of guardians (Boetig, 2006; Cohen & Felson, 1979). Researchers found in a study of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, homicides, and the victims, offenders, and crime locations that the location was most associated with the motive, then the meeting of victims and offenders. Most offenders committed homicides outside their own neighborhoods, and non-local participants influenced the level of violence in the community more than local residents (Tita & Griffiths, 2005).

The basis of the theory was an individual's action affects the likelihood of being a crime target if the individual encounters an offender in a situation where no effective guardian is present. The effective guardian can be a person, or a thing that prevents or restricts contact between the target and motivated offender, or a policy or procedure prevents interaction between the target and a motivated offender (Bajpai, 2004). Examples of effective guardians include people - such as visible law enforcement officers or uniformed security guards; things – such as safety glass barriers that prevent targets and motivated offenders from being in physical contact; and policies and procedures – guidance that controls activities, such as not having money visible or not allowing firearms into an establishment (Bajpai, 2004).

Environmental criminology theory. Out of the RAT, researchers developed the situational crime prevention approach, which focuses on the motivated offender. The approach was designed to influence the offender's motivation by increasing the effort required to commit the crime, increasing the perceived risk of the crime, reducing the reward for the crime, and removing excuses for a crime (Clarke, 1997, 2009). Using the situational crime prevention approach, researchers have developed 16 Crime Opportunity Reduction Techniques presented in Table 4.

The Crime Opportunity Reduction Techniques were used in the 2004 India national elections where the number of potential voters was over 670 million, and the turnout was more than 58%. Using Crime Opportunity Reduction Techniques, which included a code of conduct (rules), electronic voting machines with unique software (target hardening), name and photo recognition (crime control facilitators), armed guards at polling places (entrance/exit control and formal surveillance), and removing voting

inducement (deny benefits) the Election Commission of India re-engineered the election process. The results were a safer election as compared the 2000 election when 48 people were killed, and 150 people were injured (Verma, 2009). The use of a situational crime prevention strategy has been successful in a variety of applications from fare dodging and shoplifting to out-smarting terrorist and poaching of endangered species (Verma, 2009).

Table 4

Crime Opportunity Reduction Techniques

Increase perceived effort	Increase perceived risk	Reduce the reward	Remove excuses
Harden targets - Through use of anti-robbery screens/glass	Screen entrances/exits - Through hand baggage screening, merchandise theft alert tags	Remove targets - Through the use of phone cards, places of refuge	Set rules - Through the use of registration upon entrance, codes of conduct
Control access - Through use of entry phones, electronic access to buildings	Formal surveillance - Through the use of security guards, monitored CCTV	Identify property - Through the use of vehicle licensing, property marking	Alert the conscience - Through expectation information, roadside radar
Deflect offenders from locations - By locking doors, separation of rival groups, changing bus stop locations	Employee surveillance - Through the use of parking attendants, greeters, CCTV	Reduce temptation - Through rapid repair of vandalism/damage, off-street parking	Control disinhibitors - Through drinking age laws and regulations
Control crime facilitators - Through use of photos in IDs, credit cards, plastic instead of glass	Natural surveillance - Through the use of appropriate lighting, defensible space architecture	Deny benefits - Through the use of PINs for usage, merchandise theft ink tags	Assist compliance - Through the use of litter control, public lavatories

Note: Clark, 1997

Therefore, the situational crime prevention strategy has application in small businesses as well as places of worship. Even as crime prevention techniques are used with one or more of the RAT conditions' crimes can still occur. Expanding the RAT, researchers have focused on the role of the guardians in their presence, ability to monitor the space, and ability to intervene (Reynald, 2011a). To change any of the RAT conditions a

controller must be identified. A *controller* is one who has a formal responsibility to supply effective crime prevention techniques (Sampson, Eck, & Dunham, 2010). The guardian may be the controller for the target; the establishment leader may be the controller for a location, a guardian, or a target; and both the guardian and establishment leader may be the controller of the offender (Sampson et al., 2010). For example, greeters/ushers at places of worship can act as controllers during worship activities. However, even with the guardian's presence, violence can still occur because the guardian may not be aware of how to deal with a problem or the guardian may be unwilling to respond to the problem. Another possibility, which could lead a crime, was the establishment leader's lack of knowledge of handling crime problems or an unwillingness to provide sufficient resources to handle potential problems (Sampson et al., 2010).

To understand why some controllers fail, researchers have developed a typology of super controllers who provide incentives to controllers for success. The super controller typology includes (a) organizational, (b) contractual, (c) financial, (d) regulatory, (e) courts, (f) political, (g) markets, (h) media, (i) groups, and (j) family (Sampson et al., 2010). Each of these super controllers influences the action of the controller by determining what effort should be expended to prevent crime or violence at a place of worship. For example, the financial super controller may not lend money to a religious organization that does not have appropriate insurance coverage, and the insurance company may not provide insurance to a religious organization that does not have a policy/procedure to handle workplace violence (Sampson et al., 2010). Without understanding the RAT and the role controller's play in workplace violence prevention,

religious leaders may be missing an opportunity to keep employees, congregants, and visitors out of danger (Harrell, 2010).

In the arena of public health, the Haddon Matrix has been used depict responses to the temporal aspects of hazardous events (Runyan, 2003). Users of the matrix identify pre-event, event, and post-event factors for the host (individuals involved), the agent (the actor/action toward the host), the physical environment, and the social environment (rules, policies, or community norms) to understand etiologic factors of an event. Once the event factors are understood prevention strategies may be identified to modify future events (Runyan, 2003). The basis for the Haddon Matrix is Bronfenbrenner's social-ecologic theory, focuses on the five systems surrounding a person or event, which can be linked to the RAT. The five systems are the micro system (the immediate environment); the meso system (the interaction of two micro systems); the exosystem (external environment); the macro system (the socio-cultural environment), and the chronosystem (the evolution of systems over time) (Bronfenbrenner, 2005).

Summary

Violence has been part of man's history for 6,000 years; there was early research that concluded a person's biology the cause of criminal behavior (Lombroso-Ferrero, 2009). The focus of modern research is that violence is an act of the *will.* Individuals feel comfortable with some form of violence to handle the circumstances of life (Schinkel, 2004). Before 1986, the public was not aware of the severity of violence at their workplaces (Muchinsky, 2008), and by the end of the 20th century the CDC had deemed workplace violence a national epidemic requiring immediate policy attention (NCVC, 2004). As the 21st century began the cost of workplace violence in the United

States, including the victims' medical care, counseling, and lawsuits were exceeding $36 billion a year (Richard et al., 2009).

Even for the federal government workplace violence has been difficult to define, as several definitions are used by various federal agencies (Kennedy et al., 2011). The definition used by DOL, which includes the BLS, defines workplace violence as violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty, which includes physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying. To fill the knowledge gap of workplace violence in the United States, the Congress directed the NIOSH in 2002, to conduct research into workplace violence and its prevention. From the governments and other studies, researchers found between 1996 and 2006 (10-year period) that 207 students died because of homicide or an average of 21 students per school year (Borum et al., 2010). Despite heightened attention, school violence is neither increasing nor decreasing and many violent incidents still go unreported (Joong & Ridler, 2005). In the healthcare setting workers are 16 times more likely to experience workplace violence than other service workers (Wang et al., 2008). Researchers recognize the potential for violence at courthouses because of high emotional levels of people going to a courthouse and the courthouse being a place where disputes are mediated (Etter & Swymeler, 2010). Yet, little research was available about violence in places of worship (Bourns & Wright, 2004).

Bullying is the leading cause of school violence and violence in the workplace (Yamada, 2008). Although bullying cannot cause immediate death, long-term effects include drinking problems, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, and ultimately physical conditions as cardiovascular illness and impaired immune systems (Keashly &

Jagatic, 2003). Even as the workplace bullying research is in its infancy, a link has been shown between bullying and the destructive consequences to the victims, organizations and non-intended individuals (Carbo & Hughes, 2010).

The use of evidence-based practices has become an essential concept in bridging the gap between research and carrying out life's routine activities (Wandersman et al., 2008). Researchers are considering the variables (a) vulnerability perceptions, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention planning, and (d) prevention training in various studies such as the BLS special WVPS (2006) and suggested for future research by the American Psychiatric Nurses Association (2008). As these variables are studied the importance of organizations to develop a culture where employees feel empowered to report and act upon potential workplace violence was seen as beneficial (Kenny, 2010; Rugala & Isaacs, 2004), but more importantly was management's endorsement and enforcement of the policies created for the organization (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011).

As violence increases, security is becoming a central theme of contemporary society (Wynne, 2008). Several theories were proposed in this literature review to explain crime and violence in everyday life. The strain theory, also known as the anomie theory suggests certain individuals are likely to respond criminally when the strain results in anger and frustration (Cohen, 1965). The lifestyle-exposure theory suggests individuals' daily activities, such as work or leisure activities, may contribute to the individuals' victimization (Giblin, 2008). Through the RAT researchers suggest that a crime can occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and there was an absence of guardians (Boetig, 2006).

Besides the crimes and violence theories researchers have considered of facets of workplace violence noting there was no single profile to establish whether a worker might become violent or every event of workplace violence was the same (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Most workplace violence is committed by strangers (Duhart, 2001), and almost 80% of workplace homicides are committed by individuals who have no connection to the workplace (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Even as these factors are known, homicide is still a predominately a male phenomenon, meaning, males are more likely to kill other males then for males to kill females or females to kill males (Thomas et al., 2011).

On average, 10 workers die each week by homicide, which was the third-leading cause of death on the job in the United States (BLS, 2009a). Workplace violence is a crucial issue for all employers because under the General Duty Clause (Section 5(a) (1)), of the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, employers must provide a place of employment that is free from recognizable hazards that are likely to cause death or serious harm to an employee (Johnston et al., 2009). However, as researchers found that religious leaders thought violence and anger were increasing; leaders not expect violence, even at youth events; and had no plan of action if violence did occur (Bourns & Wright, 2004). Without understanding these factors, religious leaders may miss an opportunity to resolve their lack of preparedness to handle acts of aggression and to provide for attendees' safety.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The general problem is 2 million Americans are victims of workplace violence and about 700 people are murdered each year during workplace confrontations (BLS, 2009a, 2010). At the beginning of the 21st century, the number of violent incidents at religious organizations increased as the overall number of workplace violence incidents leveled off (BLS, 2009a, 2010; Wan, 2009). Prior to 2005 violent deaths at places of worship averaged 10 per year; since then, the average has risen by 400% to 40 deaths per year, with 53 deaths being reported in 2009 (Chinn, 2011). The specific problem is religious leaders are inclined not to expect violence at their establishments, do not have an awareness of violence guardianship, and therefore, few have prevention plans or provide prevention training (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011).

Through the RAT, researchers propose that crime (violence) can occur whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and ineffective guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson, 2002, 2006; Natarajan, 2011; Wortley & Mazzerole, 2008). The reduction of workplace violence at business establishments is attributed to the increased prevention efforts (Madero, 2005). Researchers concluded violence like the Columbine massacre forced school leaders to become better guardians against violence (Brotherhood Mutual Insurance Company, 2007). Because few studies focused on the RAT's guardian construct, there is a literature gap of workplace violence guardianship at religious organizations (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011).

Although leaders have different characteristics such as gender, age, education, and tenure, leaders still must be effective violence guardians (Northouse, 2007). Through the study of the guardianship differences between leaders, this research provides a

guardianship indicator for the RAT's guardian construct. By adding to the RAT's guardian construct, this research can lead to safety improvements for employees and congregants at places of worship thereby reducing the impact of workplace violence (Kennedy et al., 2011; Paetzold, O'Leary-Kelly, & Griffin, 2007).

The purpose of this non-experimental, quantitative, ex post facto study was to understand if there were guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence. To complete the study, the Workplace Violence Guardianship Questionnaire (WVGQ) was administered to gather information about the leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). The WVGQ was administered on-line to religious and business leaders through SurveyMonkey™ and to those who are members of the more than 30 million people who make up the SurveyMonkey™Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012). The sample was made up of two groups, religious leaders (n=146) and business leaders (n=159). The size of the groups was based upon a G*Power 3 computation for a priori sample size for two-tailed t-tests of the differences between two independent means, with a medium effect worth detecting in the population (effect size $|\rho| = 0.5$), and the correct rejection of a null hypothesis (Power $(1-\beta)$ err prob = 0.80); a minimum of 64 participants in each group were necessary (Faul, Erdfeld, Buchner, & Lange, 2009). To obtain the required number of religious and business leader participants, potential respondents were solicited through faxed and SurveyMonkey™ Audience invitations. Because an establishment leader's personal characteristics could be a factor related to workplace violence risk, the independent variables were linked to the leaders' gender, age, education, and tenure (Chapman et al.,

2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes et al., 2011). The dependent variables were linked to the WVGQ question categories. These same variables were used by the U.S. federal government to determine workplace violence prevention awareness in 2005 (BLS, 2006). The dependent variables were (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship.

Workplace violence prevention can reduce the danger of a violent incident as employees become aware of violence indicators and action strategies (Romano, Levi-Minzi, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2011). For this reason, the improvement in the number of violent incidents at schools was attributed to the increased prevention efforts (Madero, 2005). To ascertain the current state of workplace violence guardianship at places of worship and other businesses, these research questions (RQ) were used to discover the perceptions and involvement of leaders with the phenomenon.

RQ 1. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ?

$H1_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

$H1_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace

violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

RQ 2. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ?

$H2_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

$H2_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

RQ 3. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ?

$H3_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

$H3_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

RQ 4. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ?

$H4_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ.

$H4_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship.

The remainder of this chapter includes a description of the research method and design for the study. Then, the participants and survey instrument are identified, along with definitions for the operational variables. Next, the data collection, and analysis process are discussed, followed by the methodological assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study. The chapter concludes with ethical assurances used to protect not only the participants but also the integrity of the research community.

Research Methods and Design

The proposed research method for this study of workplace violence perceptions was a non-experimental quantitative method using a comparative ex post facto design to ascertain if there were differences in perceptions between religious and business leaders concerning workplace violence. The ex post facto design using a survey instrument was chosen because the design allows the most efficient gathering of subjective data of a phenomenon through the experiences of many individuals (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007); whereas, the qualitative interview process was not chosen because the process would limit the number of participants due to the time requirements to complete individual interviews. Using a survey instrument provides an economic advantage by reducing the time requirement to obtain individual responses because many individuals can be collected during the same period.

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the perceptions of religious and business leaders concerning workplace violence (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship were considered. Quantitative research methods allow the study of a specific group's behaviors, intentions, attitudes, and knowledge related to workplace violence, and to determine whether specific variables

predict behaviors at a statistically significant level (Dainton & Zelley, 2005). After controlling for the religious and business leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, analyses were completed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference as measured by the mean ratings on the WPGQ for the four research questions. Because of the categorical data for multiple dependent and independent variables, cross tabulations were prepared for the initial presentation of the data. Beyond descriptive statistics, an analysis of the equality of the means was conducted to test each research question hypothesis (Hill & Lewicki, 2006). To test each hypothesis, data was analyzed to determine if there was statistically significant difference between the controlled groups mean ratings from the WPGQ using an analysis of the equality of the means test (Black, 1999; Norušis, 2006). Using this design allowed for a determination if there was a difference between the ways religious leaders perceive workplace violence prevention as compared to other business leaders.

Participants

The population for this study was religious and business leaders who were members of the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012) in the United States. Participants were recruited through faxes and a SurveyMonkey™ research solicitation and provided a link to the WVGQ on SurveyMonkey™. Based upon a G*Power 3 computation for a priori sample size for two-tailed t-tests of the differences between two independent means, with a medium effect worth detecting in the population (effect size $|\rho| = 0.5$), and the correct rejection of a null hypothesis (Power $(1-\beta)$ err prob $= 0.80$), a minimum of 64 participants in each group would be necessary (Faul et al., 2009). As the power $(1-\beta)$ err prob is increased, so is the required sample size; increasing

the power to 0.85 would require a minimum of 73 participants in each group; increasing the power to 0.90, would require a minimum of 86 participants in each group; and finally, increasing the power to 0.95, would require a minimum of 105 participants in each group. The goal was to recruit at least 105 leaders from places of worship and 105 business leaders to participate in the study (Black 1999).

On the first screen of the SurveyMonkey™ solicitation, the reader was provided with an informed consent statement. If the reader agreed to participate in the study, acceptance was noted in the survey response, and the participant was allowed to continue on to the questionnaire. Two hundred four religious leaders (rl) and 202 business leaders (bl) responded to the solicitations during the collection period, which began on September 10, 2012, and continued to November 8, 2012 (58 days). Fifty-eight religious leader responses were rejected because the response did not include the zip code, gender, or age of the respondent, leaving 146 acceptable responses. Forty-three business leader responses were rejected because the response did not include the zip code, gender, or tenure of the respondent, leaving 159 acceptable responses. The number of acceptable responses exceeded the minimum 105 participants in each group satisfying G*Power 3 sample size.

Once the data was collected the initial activity was to look at the makeup of the groups. The respondent demographic characteristics are shown in Table 5. The first grouping was the gender of the respondents; the religious leader group was made up of more males (75.3%) than the other business leader group (59.7% males). This could be expected because according to the U.S. Department of Labor only 17% of the religious leaders (clergy) in this country were women (BLS, 2011). Ages between groups were

much more similar, with both groups having more than 50% of their leaders over 50 years of age, although the other business leader group had young leaders in the 20-29 age group (17.6% other business leaders versus 7.5% religious leaders).

Table 5

Respondent Demographic Characteristics

	Religious Leaders (*n*=146)		Business Leaders (*n*=159)	
	n	%	*n*	%
Gender				
Female	36	24.7	64	40.3
Male	110	75.3	95	59.7
Age				
18-19 years	2	1.4	5	3.1
20-29 years	11	7.5	28	17.6
30-39 years	20	13.7	18	11.3
40-49 years	29	19.9	28	17.6
50-59 years	43	29.5	48	30.2
60 years or older	41	28.1	32	20.1
Education Attained				
Did not graduate from high school			2	1.3
Graduated from high school	2	1.4	13	8.2
1 year of college	4	2.7	17	10.7
2 years of college	4	2.7	15	9.4
3 years of college	5	3.4	14	8.8
Graduated from college	23	15.8	42	26.4
Some graduate school	14	9.6	12	7.5
Completed graduate school	94	64.4	44	27.7
Time with the organization				
Less than 1 year	15	10.3	35	22.0
1 to 3 years	31	21.2	35	22.0
4 to 6 years	33	22.6	37	23.3
7 to 10 years	19	13.0	17	10.7
More than 10 years	48	32.9	35	22.0

The biggest differences observed were in the educational attainment between groups; almost two-thirds (64.4%) of the religious leaders reported having completed graduate school, whereas less than one-third (27.7%) of the other business leaders completed graduate school. Finally, religious leaders tended to work with their organizations longer than other business leaders. Almost one-half (45.9%) of the religious leaders were with their organization from more than seven years whereas less than one-third (32.7%) of business leaders had been there for the same period. The Shapito-Wilk test for the variable's gender, age, education attained, and tenure indicated that the data did not fit a normal distribution. This was expected because of the high number of males in the clergy, the younger business leaders, and the high educational attainment of religious leaders.

Table 6

Number of Employees, Customers, Clients, and Visitors

	Religious Leaders (n=146)		Business Leaders (n=159)	
	n	%	*n*	%
	Employees			
1 to 10	81	55.5	44	27.7
11 to 49	44	30.1	33	20.8
50 to 249	21	14.4	39	24.5
250 to 999			26	16.4
1000 plus			16	10.1
Customers, Clients and Visitors coming on a weekly basis				
1 to 10	3	2.1	48	30.2
11 to 49	17	11.6	28	17.6
50 to 249	47	32.2	30	18.9
250 to 999	57	39.0	26	16.4
1000 plus	22	15.1	26	16.4
			1*	.6

Note. * missing case, respondent answered the first question (about employees) but failed to answer the second question about customers, clients, and visitors.

After reviewing the participants' characteristics, then the characteristics of the establishments were reviewed. Religious organizations tended to have fewer employees with one-half (55.5%) having 10 or fewer employees, and no religious organizations reported having more than 249 employees. Table 6 shows the number of employees and the number of customers, clients, and visitors who are present at the place of worship or other business on a weekly basis.

Materials/Instruments

To measure attitudes and opinions of religious leaders and business leaders the WVGQ was administered online through SurveyMonkey™. The WVGQ was based on a special survey created by the DOL, BLS and the NIOSH for use in 2005 (BLS, 2006) and the North Dakota Employee Survey on Workplace Violence Hazard Assessment (State of North Dakota, 2012). These surveys were selected for use in this research study because of their availability in the public domain.

The WVGQ consists of 26 multiple part items scored using various measures and scales to gather information from business establishments concerning workplace violence prevention. The survey was divided into five sections: workplace descriptors, workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and demographics, which coincide with this study's research questions. The WVGQ sections also coincide with the dependent variables presented in Table 8, Dependent Variables from the WVGQ.

Reliability is the degree of consistency in the survey responses, and validity is the likelihood that the survey questions can be used to measure what they were intended to measure (Black, 1999; Czaja & Blair, 2005; Vogt, 2007). There are several basic approaches for evaluating reliability: inter-rater reliability, internal consistency, and test-

retest reliability. Inter-rater reliability is associated with the agreement of the raters; internal consistency is associated with the consistency of the items, and test-retest reliability is associated with consistency over time (Vogt, 2007). The most common method for determining reliability is Cronbach's alpha, which tests the sum of the variance against the sum of the variance of individual items, the closer the coefficient alpha is to 1, the more reliable the measurement (Hill & Lewicki, 2006). Because a valid Cronbach's alpha result was not available for the WVGQ, the reliability was assessed once data was collected. This was done to ensure the WVGQ constructs had an acceptable level of reliability before testing for a significant relationship between the groups (Black, 1999).

Cronbach's alpha scores were prepared for the responses that would become the dependent variables of awareness, prevention strategies, and training activities. The awareness sub scale originally appeared to have the least internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha score of $\alpha = .639$ using the original 19 possible responses from the WVGQ. Because some of the Cronbach's alpha scores were below a satisfactory level of $\alpha = .70$ (DeVellis, 2012; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), four response items were removed from the sub scale. The responses from the safety opinion question (WVGQ question 12, parts a, b, and c) and the question, [D]uring the past 12 months, incidents of workplace violence at my workplace stayed the same (WVGQ question 13, part c) were removed from the construct. After removal of these items, the Cronbach's alpha for the 15 remaining items was $\alpha = .762$. The prevention strategies sub scale of the WVGQ appeared to have satisfactory internal consistency of $\alpha = .902$, along with the training activities' sub scale which had a Cronbach's alpha score of $\alpha = .806$ for the five items.

Validity refers to the accuracy of truthfulness of the measurement (Vogt, 2007). Black (1999) identifies four forms of validity related to survey instruments: construct, content, criterion, and face validity. Construct validity is the degree to which an instrument logically measures the characteristic being investigated (Black, 1999). Using a homogeneous approach (Black, 1999), the WVGQ was developed so topic sections: workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and overall understanding of effective/ineffective guardianship, would be parallel to the study's research questions.

Content validity refers to the fact the instrument measures what is thought to be measured. While there is no measurement to determine content validity, the design of the instrument and the input of subject matter experts can support validity (Black, 1999). Because of the accepted content validity, the BLS WVPS has been used for other studies measuring workplace violence prevention efforts, and therefore was used as the basis for the WVGQ (Kennedy et al., 2011). Vogt (2007) proposes that judgment by experts was often the only way to determine content validity. In the case of the WVGQ, several law enforcement and training subject matter experts (SME's) at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Glynco, Georgia reviewed the questionnaire during the week of May 14, 2012. These experts agreed the questionnaire would measure workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and the overall understanding of effective/ineffective workplace violence guardianship. The SMEs did suggest that a question to gather the job title for the person completing the questionnaire would help determine if leaders were completing the questionnaire; the question was added.

Criterion-related validity refers to the ability of a survey measure to predict a similar result on an existing (concurrent) or future (predictive) instrument (Black, 1999). This research helps establish the concurrent criterion-related validity of the WVGQ as data can be compared with information from the 2005 BLS WVPS. As other studies are available, data from this study may help establish a greater understanding of the RAT construct of effective/ineffective guardianship (Boetig, 2006; Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Face validity considers the instrument from the potential participant's point of view and how the instrument is perceived by the participant (Black, 1999). During the week of May 21, 2012, the WVGQ was presented to a group of religious leaders at Family Life Church in Brunswick, Georgia. These participants agreed the questionnaire would be useful in gathering information about workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and an overall understanding of effective/ineffective workplace violence guardianship. This group did not suggest any changes to the questionnaire.

Operational Definition of Variables

Research participants came from two distinct groups. One group was religious leaders (rl) and the second group was business leaders (bl). Because there was no relationship between the members of either group, the two groups were independent (Norušis, 2006). The independent variables for this study were:

Gender. Gender was the choice made by the respondent to describe their gender. The choices were male or female and that data was grouped for the gender of religious leaders and the gender of business leaders. Data from this variable was operationalized with the leader's age, education, and tenure to describe the establishment's uniqueness.

Age. Age was the choice made by the respondent. The choices were: 17 or younger, 18-20 years, 21-29 years, 30-39 years, 40-49 years, 50-59 years, and 60 years and over and were identified as age religious leader and age business leader. The choice categories were aligned with those used by the BLS, except for leaders under 25 years. The BLS divided the under 25 age into groups of under 16 years, 16-17 years, 18-19 years, and 20-24 years of age (Szafran, 2002). For this study, data from anyone reporting being 17 or younger was eliminated from the results since individuals were asked in the informed consent to affirm he or she was 18 years or older.

Educational level attained. Educational level attained was the choice made by the respondent for the educational level attained by the establishment leader. The choices were: did not complete high school, completed high school/GED, completed some college, completed Associate's degree, completed Bachelor's degree, completed Master's degree, completed Doctoral degree, and completed Professional degree (JD, MD) and were identified as educational level attained religious leader and educational level attained business leader. Data was used to determine the impact and relationship of education attainment on the feelings of vulnerability and workplace violence prevention training provided.

Tenure. Time in position was operationally defined as a choice made by the respondent of the length of time the establishment leader has held that position. The choices were: less than 1 year, 1 to 3 years, 4 to 6 years, 7 to 10 years, and more than 10 years and were identified as time in position religious leader and time in position business leader. Data was used to determine the impact and relationship of tenure on the feelings of vulnerability and workplace violence prevention planning.

The dependent variables for this study were (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship indicator.

Awareness. Awareness was a dependent variable and operationally defined as the choices made by the respondent about the feelings of workplace violence vulnerability. The mean score of responses to 15 interval-level response formatted questions determined the awareness variable. There were five levels to determine respondents' perception of vulnerability to workplace violence from strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. Data that came from the questions in Section 2 of the WVGQ was used to answer RQ1.

Prevention strategies. Prevention strategies were a dependent variable and operationally defined as the choices made by the respondent about the types of policies or prevention strategies used at the establishment. The prevention strategy variable was determined by the mean score of responses to three multi-part dichotomous response questions to determine whether policies or prevention strategies were available. Sixteen yes/no-unknown responses were possible. Data for workplace violence prevention strategies used by religious and business leaders came from Section 3 of the WVGQ and was used to answer RQ2.

Prevention training. Prevention training was a dependent variable and operationally defined as a choice made by the respondent about the method and amount of workplace violence prevention training provided. The prevention-training variable identified employee groups and the training provided though dichotomous and nominal-level responses. Data for prevention training provided by religious and business leaders

Table 7

Dependent Variables from the WVGQ

Variables	WVGQ Questions	Response Choices
Awareness	*Section 2* The mean of four multi-part questions to determine the respondent's opinion of workplace violence. Nineteen responses possible, 15 responses were used.	Interval-level response format - strongly disagree - disagree - neutral - agree - strongly agree
Prevention strategies	*Section 3* The mean of three multi-part questions to determine whether strategies were available. Sixteen responses possible, 16 responses were used.	Dichotomous response format - Yes - No-Unknown
Prevention training	*Section 4* The mean of five questions to identify the groups trained, the training method, and training hours provided. Five responses possible, 5 responses were used.	Groups - Dichotomous response format Training method - Nominal-level response format Amount of training - Interval-level response format
Purposeful human guardianship indicator	The mean of 36 responses from sections 2, 3, and 4 of the WVGQ	

came from Section 4 of the WVGQ and was used to answer RQ3.

Purposeful human guardianship indicator. Purposeful human guardianship indicator was a dependent variable and operationally defined as the amalgamation of awareness, prevention strategies, and prevention training provided. Data to determine the purposeful human guardianship indicator of religious and business leaders came from Sections 2, 3, and 4 of the WVGQ and was used to answer RQ4.

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

The WVGQ was administered online to religious and business leaders who were members who made up the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012).

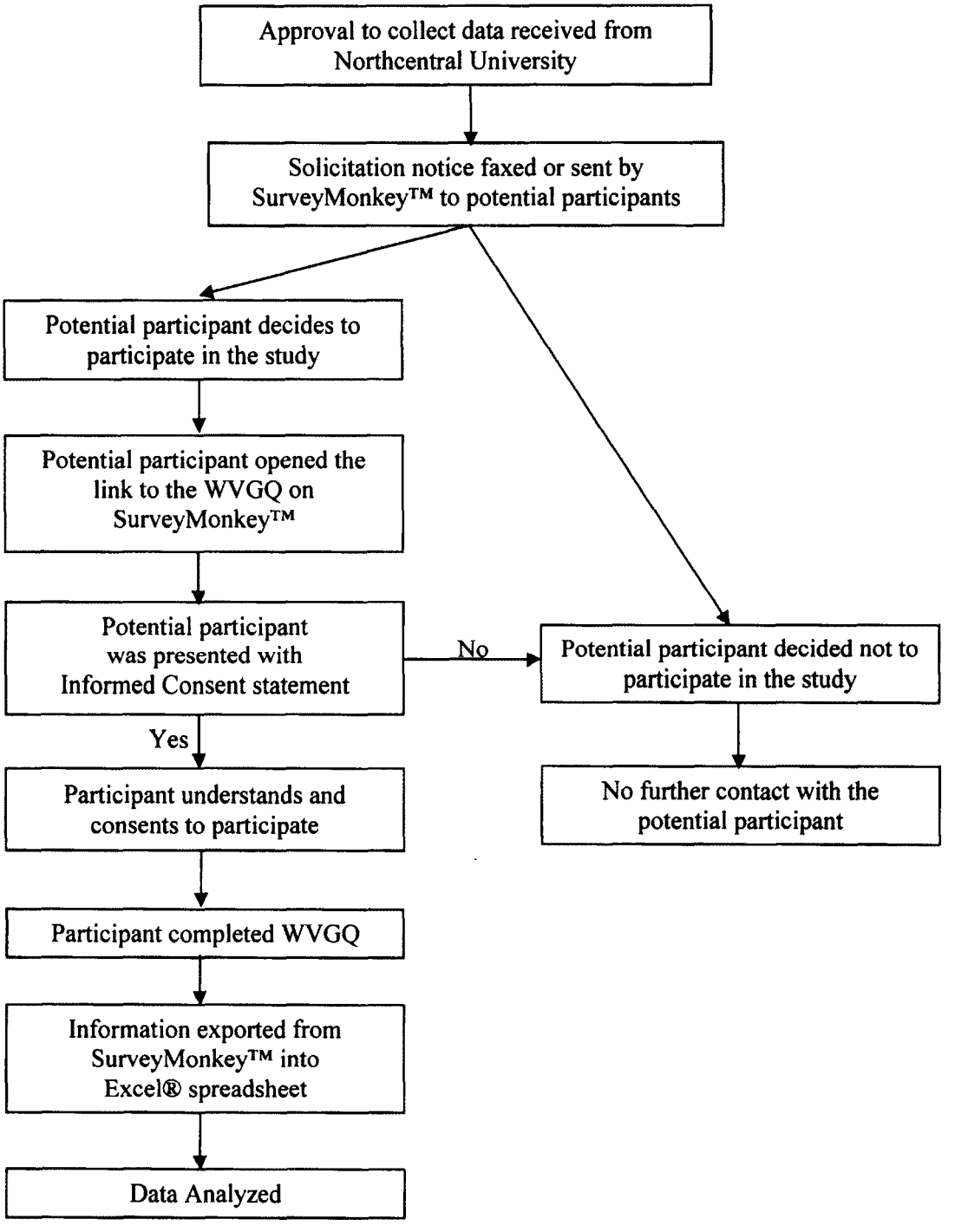


Figure 3. Data collection, processing, and analysis.

To obtain the minimum number of religious and business leader participants, the data collection period was open for 58 days (eight weeks) after approval from Northcentral

University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The steps used for data collection, processing, and analysis are presented in Figure 3.

Non-response bias is a continuing problem with survey research (Adua & Sharp, 2010). Some organizations' measure survey quality by the response rate, even though low response rates alone are a poor indicator of quality (Bethlehem, Cobben, & Schouten, 2008). A plan was established that if at the end of the data collection period not enough religious or business leaders agree to participate in the study, then a second solicitation would be sent through a SurveyMonkey™ Audience request. If data needed to be collected from second group of respondents, then data would be compared with early respondents to determine if there was a statistical difference; if there was not a statistical difference, then the data would be generalized to the population of the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (Diem, 2004). If there was a statistical difference, the data would be segregated, and the fact would be reported in the research findings. Reminders were sent out at the end of two weeks, so the non-response plan was not implemented.

Once data was available on SurveyMonkey™ the data was downloaded into an Excel® spreadsheet for use with the SPSS® statistical software program. Analysis began with an examination of the data from the two groups for independence, linearity, normality, and homogeneity of variance to determine other appropriate statistical tests (Black, 1999; Hill & Lewicki, 2006). Descriptive statistics, which present the data through various observations such as central tendency, mean, median, and mode along with distribution and standard deviations, were prepared (Castillo, 2010). Along with the descriptive statistics, the data was tested for reliability using the Cronbach's coefficient alpha test. Because of the categorical data for multiple dependent and independent

variables, cross tabulations were part of the initial presentation of the data. Beyond the original descriptive statistics, Cronbach's coefficient alpha test, and cross tabulations an analysis of the equality of the means was used to test each hypothesis (Hill & Lewicki, 2006).

Because of the independent variable controlling factors the analysis of variance collection of statistical models were appropriate statistical procedures for this study (Norušis, 2006). To test each research question hypothesis, data was analyzed to determine if there was statistically significant difference between the controlled group mean ratings from the WPGQ using an analysis of the equality of the means (Black, 1999; Norušis, 2006). After the analysis, a decision to accept or reject the null hypothesis for each research question was made (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007). During the decision process, care was taken to avoid Type I (rejecting the null hypothesis when in reality it is true) and Type II (accepting the null hypothesis when in reality it is false) research errors (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007).

Methodological Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions. The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand if there were differences in perceptions between religious and business leaders concerning workplace violence. The basis for the research was the RAT in which researchers have proposed a crime (violence) could take place whenever three conditions are present: suitable targets, motivated offenders, and the absence of guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The first assumption was routine activities theory is related to the phenomenon of workplace violence. This assumption was based upon the research of several scholars

who proposed that the job environment influences workplace violence (Felson, 2002, 2006: Howard & Wech, 2011).

The study was also based on the assumption that the sample of religious leaders and other business leaders was representative of the religious and business leader population (Norušis, 2006; Vogt, 2007). This assumption was made because participants were solicited from the more than 30 million people who make up the SurveyMonkey™ Audience and samples of SurveyMonkey™ Audience population are already known to be representative of the United States population based upon gender and age (SurveyMonkey™, 2012).

A related assumption to the survey instrument was that the participants would answer the questions honestly. Researchers have studied the phenomena of surveys for many years and drawn many conclusions, one of which was surveys bring "the human scene into focus" (Schuman, 2008, p. 160). For this reason, what the participants report is what the participants believe. Once data was collected, three more assumptions were critical to the study, first the samples were independent random samples, and second, the samples come from normal populations (Norušis, 2006). Along with those assumptions was that the data has a linear function, that is, data points cluster around a straight line, and second there was constant variance in the data points (Norušis, 2006). The final assumption was that the statistical analysis was able to detect if there was a statistically significant difference in the data sets. To ensure data was used appropriately careful data entry procedures were used and calculations were rechecked before making conclusions about the data.

Limitations. Limitations are elements of the study, which are out of the control of the investigator. The first research-related limitation was the choice of the quantitative methodology for this study. While the quantitative methodology allows for many participants, precise results, and shorter research time, the methodology does not provide subjective perceptions of respondents who can be identified through actual observations and multiple interviews (Miller & Salkind, 2002). To mitigate this fact, reporting of the findings focused on the quantitative methodology and not the generalization that this study provides a complete understanding of purposeful human guardianship.

While the routine activities theory and the topic of workplace violence have been studied extensively, there was very little specific research available concerning workplace violence at places of worship (Bourns & Wright, 2004). Because of the limited research, there was little data supporting the concept that religious leaders were RAT guardians, or that religious leaders have an understanding of vulnerability, policy strategies, and training impact on workplace violence prevention. To mitigate this fact, data from the 2005 BLS WVPS for service providing establishments were available for comparison as this study was completed.

A third limitation to this study was the sample selection (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007). While using SurveyMonkey™ Audience provides more than 30 million people who could be potential participants through the use of the internet (SurveyMonkey™, 2012). Using the internet for a survey limits the sample to people who use the world-wide-web; according to the United Nations' International Telecommunications Union (ITU) in 2010, 77.3% of the United States population used the internet (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2011). Therefore, the sample may not be representative of the entire

United States population, but only of the users of the internet in the United States. A related limitation to the sample size was that people volunteer to be study participants for various reasons; Vogt (2007) calls these the self-selection and volunteer effects, which may introduce bias into the study. Because volunteers self-select, individual motives are part of the decision process to agree to participate and different from those who choose not to participate (Vogt, 2007). One of those reasons may relate to incentives provided by SurveyMonkey™ Audience participants. While SurveyMonkey™ does not provide direct monetary payments; participants can give a charitable donation and have a chance to win $100 in a sweepstake game. To mitigate the fact of professional survey takers SurveyMonkey™ Audience members can only complete one survey per week (SurveyMonkey™, 2012).

There were four others limitations related to the reliability of the data. The first, many religious leaders are bi-vocational, meaning they have secular jobs in addition to being the leader of a religious organization. If during the survey response bi-vocational church leaders do not make a clear distinction between their different positions, responses could be influenced by their secular job. The second relates to the timing of data collection. If a national tragedy such as a terrorist attack were to occur during the data collection period, then the fear level of participants could be elevated, which would influence their responses (Rubin, Amlôt, Page, & Wessely, 2008). The third data limitation was whether the participants answered the questions honestly. To increase the likelihood of receiving honest responses and mitigate the limitation, potential participants were notified the data collected would be confidential, and all the data was coded such that the participant's name was not collected or associated with the data (Black, 1999).

The fourth limitation relates to the participants' remembrance of activities. Because the respondents were self-reporting activities, in contrast to observations by a researcher, participants may have forgotten an event related to a survey question. Finally, the strength of the results is related to the quality of the data.

Delimitations. Delimitations are elements of the study, which were deliberately imposed by the investigator. Without limiting the scope of this study, one person could not possibly complete a study as large as the original workplace violence prevention survey conducted by the BLS for the NIOSH and CDC in 2005. That research involved multiple researchers surveying over 39,000 establishments (Kato, Downey, McCarthy, & Cruz, 2007). Because there are more than 333,000 places of worship (Hadaway & Marler, 2005) and more than seven million business establishments in the United States (BLS, 2006), limiting this study to the more than 30 million people who make up the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012) was necessary but could impact the inferences made about the population (Black, 1999).

A second delimiting factor was limiting this study to four research questions. The research questions created for this study were related to the same four topics used by the federal government for the WVPS in 2005 (BLS, 2006). These research questions provided insights into the workplace violence (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship with a quantitative focus, but did not fully develop the understanding of why religious and business leaders have these opinions or respond as they do to workplace violence prevention.

Ethical Assurances

Because of failures of early researchers to protect human subjects, the U.S. Congress created the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. To develop protection standards the Commission considered studies such as the Wichita jury case, the obedience to authority study, the tearoom trade study, and the simulated prison study (Bankert, Cohen, Cooper, Goldman, & Hicks, 2011). Out of the Commission's research came the *Belmont Report* and the basic ethical principles of (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence, and (c) justice (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). Using the foundation of the Belmont Report, the United States Federal government created a policy of protection for human subjects, known as the *Common Rule*.

Because the Common Rule guides educational research, faculty and learners of Northcentral University (NCU) must abide by the Common Rule's basic ethical principles. In addition to the ethical principles, the Common Rule further defines research as "a systematic investigation, including research development, testing and evaluation designed to develop or contribute to generalizable knowledge" (45 CFR 46. 102(d)). Using this definition requires educational and research institutions to create and maintain an IRB to review proposed research and keep records of the IRBs work (Korenman, 2006). The Common Rule also requires the IRB conduct an annual review of approved research. The Common Rule does allow for exemptions of research where data was gathered by a survey, provided the data does not include information that would allow the subjects to be identified or disclosure of any responses could place the subject

at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability or reputation. Before the data collection began, approval to complete the study was requested and received from the NCU Institutional Review Board.

The Common Rule's basic ethical principles include (a) respect for persons, (b) informed consent, (c) right to privacy (d) beneficence, (e) justice, and (f) honesty with professional colleagues. The first principle, respect for persons requires individuals to be treated as autonomous agents and persons with diminished autonomy are entitled to additional protection (Bankert et al., 2011). This principle also includes the elements of informed consent and the right to privacy. Participation in the study was voluntary and the desire not to participate did not result in any negative consequences to the individual. Participants were not provided compensation or any other consideration by the investigator for involvement in the study. There was not any physical activity necessary to complete the survey, no deception, and no information was purposely withheld from the participants.

Informed consent is a requirement of the Belmont Report and includes the elements of information, comprehension, and voluntariness. To ensure participants understood the informed consent requirement the first screen of the SurveyMonkey™ solicitation provided the reader with an informed consent statement. If the reader agreed to participate in the study, a positive response from the participant was noted and the participant continued into the questionnaire. The informed consent statement included a full disclosure about the purpose of the study and the potential risks the participant may encounter. After reviewing the informed consent statement, the potential participant had an opportunity to decide if they wish to participate. Comprehension was determined by

the participants' ability to understand the informed consent statement by either continuing on to the questionnaire or leaving the SurveyMonkey™ website.

The second ethical principle from the Belmont Report is beneficence. The proposed research should maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harm to human subjects (Bankert et al., 2011). To determine beneficence, risks and benefits had to be assessed in a systematic manner. For this study, the risks and benefits to participants were reasonable because of the little risk to the participants and the findings could lead to improved workplace violence prevention. Because there were no biomedical aspects, no psychological testing, no physical activity, or no individual specific data requirements, the survey completion had few risks that people in this country do not experience in everyday life.

The third ethical principle from the Belmont Report is justice. This requirement calls for a fair procedure and outcome in the selection of research subjects (Bankert et al., 2011). For this study, participants were solicited from the population of leaders at places of worship and other businesses who were members of the SurveyMonkey™ Audience. Using this method, factors such as business class, socioeconomic status, or racial demographics were not determining factors in the selection of establishments for participation.

A fourth ethical principle, although not specifically mentioned in the Belmont Report, is honesty with professional colleagues. Honestly, with professional colleagues' demands the examination of the study to ensure the process and reporting of the findings meets all the standards of ethical conduct. To demonstrate this requirement accepted research procedures had to be followed throughout the study, and the information had to

be presented in an objective manner. The invention or exclusion of data to support a specific conclusion was unacceptable and research results had to be complete and presented in an honest fashion. Finally, honesty with professional colleagues prohibits plagiarism and the reporting of the findings accurate and objective.

An objective of this study was to adhere to the standards of research for human subjects required by 45 CFR 46, *Protection of Human Subjects*, along with the principles of implied consent, equitable selection of participants, and minimal risk to participants as presented in the Belmont report. Because the study was a non-experimental, quantitative, comparative, ex post facto study, the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and the Common Rule were obtainable. Precautions were taken to minimize risk and potential harm all participants while gathering strong authentic data. Once data was available, diligence was used to demonstrate accepted research procedures were followed, and the information was presented in an objective manner.

For this study, the WVGQ was created from survey instruments that were accessible in the public domain and had characteristics of reliability and validity. A risk associated with written surveys is the potential for the loss of confidentiality of participants if the participant's demographic data is gathered. The WVGQ does not use questions gathering specific personal identifying information, but questions only gather aggregate information about the workplace violence awareness, strategies, and training for the establishment. Should the identifiers to become public, the questions would not cause embarrassment or loss of dignity to any participant, because the name of the establishment or respondent was not collected or identified. The data obtained will be maintained on the SurveyMonkey™ website until deleted or as long as the investigator

has a paid-up account. Any data downloaded will be securely stored as part of an Excel® spreadsheet and in a SPSS® table without any personal identifying information for least seven years before being deleted or destroyed, the expected destruction date will be in 2020.

Summary

The purpose of this non-experimental quantitative comparative study of workplace violence perceptions was to measure and analyze the responses of religious leaders and business leaders using the WVGQ. The survey was created to collect information in the topic areas of workplace descriptors, workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, which coincide with this study's research questions. Along with the workplace violence variables, data was used to compare religious leaders and business leaders by gender, age, education, and time in the leadership position.

Important to any research is the ethical treatment of individuals as autonomous agents and persons with diminished autonomy are entitled to additional protection (Bankert et al., 2011). Ethical treatment also includes the principles of informed consent and the right to privacy. In this study, the ethical principles of (a) respect for persons, (b) informed consent, (c) right to privacy (d) beneficence, (e) justice, and (f) honesty with professional colleagues were followed. Each of these principles was addressed in an application to the Northcentral University IRB.

Approval was received from the Northcentral University IRB for data collection on August 30, 2012; the collection period began on September 10, 2012, and continued to November 8, 2012, for a total of 58 days. The survey instrument was administered online

to religious and business leaders who were members who made up the SurveyMonkey™ Audience (SurveyMonkey™, 2012). To handle non-response bias, a second solicitation was planned through SurveyMonkey™ Audience request to gather a minimum of 64 completed surveys for each group (Faul et al., 2009). The second solicitation was not necessary because 204 religious leaders and 202 business leaders submitted survey responses, and the number of acceptable responses exceeded the minimum 105 participants in each group satisfying G*Power 3 sample size Once data was available, analysis began with the comparison of the data from individual groups.

Descriptive statistics, which present the data through various observations such as central tendency, mean, median, and mode along with distribution and standard deviations, were prepared (Castillo, 2010). As the analysis phase continued, each research question hypothesis was tested to determine if there was statistically significant difference between the controlled group mean ratings from the WPGQ using an analysis of the equality of the means (Black, 1999; Norušis, 2006). After analysis, the decision to reject or fail to reject for the null hypothesis or to support or not support for the alternative hypothesis for each research question was made (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007). The study findings reduce the literature a void from earlier RAT research (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). The research may also provide a guardianship indicator for place managers (Reynald, 2011b) of places of worship and other businesses and add to the understanding of the RAT (Boetig, 2006).

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this non-experimental, quantitative, ex post facto study was to determine if there were guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence. The Workplace Violence Guardianship Questionnaire (WVGQ) was administered on-line to religious and business leaders to gather information about a leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training activities related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011). The dependent variables were comparable to the U.S. federal government's WVPS categories, used to determine workplace violence prevention awareness in this country during 2005 (BLS, 2006). The dependent variables were (a) awareness, (b) policy strategies, (c) prevention training, and (d) purposeful human guardianship.

The research questions for the study were:

RQ 1. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ?

RQ 2. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ?

RQ 3. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and

business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ?

RQ 4. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ?

During research conducted between 2006 and 2007, findings from workplace violence studies indicated personal characteristics of the staff (age, gender, education level, level of employment, and years of experience) might be a determinant aspect of risk (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes, Gutiérrez, & Campos, 2011). For this reason, individual leader characteristics, including gender, age, education, and tenure were considered within this study, along with the RAT guardianship construct. To complete the study, the Workplace Violence Guardianship Questionnaire (WVGQ) was used to gather information about a leader's awareness, policy strategies, and prevention training activities related to workplace violence (Howard & Wech, 2011).

As with any research study, there were inherent weaknesses (Black, 1999), therefore, research results must be interpreted with an awareness of the limitations to the study. The first limitation to this study was the quantitative methodology does not allow subjective perceptions of respondents who can be identified through actual observations and multiple interviews. The reporting of findings of this study focus on the quantitative results from a survey that did not observe any personal experiences beyond the gender, age grouping, educational attainment or tenure within the organization. By not delving

into each respondent's environment and experiences, the study presents a generalization that may not provide a complete understanding of workplace violence purposeful human guardianship. A second limitation, which is true for most study surveys, is the data was self-reported, limiting the quality of the data to the memory accuracy of the participants. Another limitation was the use of the convenience sampling method (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007). Using the SurveyMonkey™ Audience did provide more than 30 million potential participants (SurveyMonkey™, 2012), but participants had to use the world-wide-web; therefore, the sample may not be representative of the place of worship and business leader population in the United States.

A limitation related to the survey instrument was the lack of an existing Cronbach's alpha score for the WVGQ. Because a present Cronbach's alpha result was not available, it was necessary to evaluate the WVGQ for reliability once data was collected. Scores for the responses that would become the dependent variables of awareness (15 items $a = .762$), prevention strategies (16 items $a = .902$), and prevention training activities (five items $a = .806$), were found to be acceptable (DeVellis, 2012; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

In this chapter, the data from the collection process and analysis are presented in the results' section, which is followed by an evaluation of findings' section. The results' section begins with general descriptive information and then consideration of each research question along with the statistical tests' assumptions and any violation of assumptions that influenced the statistical analysis. Included in the results' section are the t-test for equality of means and a statement of whether the results were significant or not significant. The research question section ends with a statement, whether the null

hypothesis was rejected or not rejected, and whether the alternate hypothesis was supported or not supported. An Excel® spreadsheet and the SPSS® software package version 21.0 were used to complete the analyses presented throughout this chapter. The next broad section includes an evaluation of findings, which is organized with an evaluation for each research question. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

Results

Participants were provided with a definition of workplace violence as, "violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty (i.e. physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying)" which was the same definition used in the 2005 BLS WVPS. Table 8 presents the number of establishment leaders reporting a workplace violence incident.

Table 8

Establishments Reporting a Workplace Violence Incident

	Religious Leaders (n=145)		Business Leaders (n=157)	
	n	%	*n*	%
Have had a workplace violence incident				
Never	118	81.4	104	66.2
Within the past 30 days	2	1.4	11	7.0
1 to 3 months ago	8	5.5	7	4.5
4 to 6 months ago	2	1.4	4	2.5
7 to 12 months ago	2	1.4	8	5.1
More than 12 months ago	13	9.0	23	14.6

Of the responding leaders, 73.5% (n = 222) reported they had never experienced a workplace violence incident at their establishment, although 9.7% (n = 14) of the religious leaders and 19.1% (n = 30) of the other business leaders reported having a

workplace violence incident at their establishment during the past year. In the 2005 BLS WVPS, nearly eight percent of all establishments had some type of workplace violence incident during the year before the survey (BLS, 2006).

The analysis continued with an examination of the data from the two groups for independence, linearity, normality, and homogeneity of variance to determine other relevant statistical tests (Black, 1999; Hill & Lewicki, 2006). Descriptive statistics for the construct variables are linked with the research questions, using various statistical techniques such as central tendency, mean, median, and mode along with distribution and standard deviations, are presented in Table 9 (Castillo, 2010).

Because the goal of the study was to determine if there were differences in the workplace violence dependent variables between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, means were determined for each controlling factor. The controlling factor means were then used to test each of the hypotheses. Because of the use of independent variable controlling factors, the analyses of variance collection of statistical models were appropriate statistical procedures in this study (Norušis, 2006). For each research question, the dependent variable mean for religious and business leaders was determined then tested against each independent variable using the t-test for equality of means. After analysis, the decision to reject or fail to reject for the null hypothesis or to support or not support for the alternative hypothesis for each research question was made (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007). During the decision process, special care was taken to review the results and to consider all of the hypothesis alternatives to make sure a Type I error (also known as an alpha error), which is the incorrect rejection of a true null hypothesis when the data

indicates a false positive, was not committed. In addition, special care was taken to avoid a Type II error (also known as a beta error), which is incorrectly failing to reject the null hypothesis because the researcher fails to believe the accuracy of the test results (Black, 1999; Vogt, 2007).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables by Group

Dependent Variables	Awareness		Prevention Strategies		Prevention Training		Guardianship Indicator	
	RL	BL	RL	BL	RL	BL	RL	BL
Minimum	1.00	.93	.56	.25	.80	.40	3.61	1.77
Maximum	3.27	3.20	3.00	3.00	3.20	4.00	9.19	9.85
Mean	2.11	2.22	2.17	2.36	1.79	2.13	6.56	7.25
SD	.51	.49	.50	52	.51	.53	1.16	1.44
Variance	.26	.24	.25	.27	.26	.69	1.34	2.08
Skewness	.02	-.11	-.68	-.97	1.24	.40	.96	-.27
Skew. SE	.20	.19	.20	.19	.20	.19	.20	.19
Kurtosis	-.79	-.82	.16	.97	1.03	-.86	-.26	-.08
Kurtosis SE	.40	.38	.40	.38	.40	.38	.40	.38

Note. RL = religious leaders; BL = business leaders; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error.

Research question 1: Awareness. The first research question considered was, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and

business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ?

To answer the research question the following hypotheses were tested:

$H1_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

$H1_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ.

Section 2 of the WVGQ included 19 items that focused on the respondents' awareness of workplace violence. The workplace violence perceptions of the surveyed religious and business leaders are presented in Table 10. After completing the Cronbach's alpha test for reliability ($\alpha = .762$) 15 response items were retained for hypothesis testing. Data from the response items were tested for normality and as shown in Table 9, the awareness skewness for religious leaders = .02 and for business leaders = -.11, and the kurtosis for religious leaders = -.79 and for business leaders = -.82. Because the goal for normal data is skewness = 0 and kurtosis = 3, the results indicated the data may not be normally distributed, however, for larger samples (greater than 40 responses) the t-tests method is a safe to use even if there is some skewness to the data. While there may be departures in the normality and variance assumptions, the t-tests are still

appropriate, as long as there is no departure from the independence of the samples as was the case in this study (Elliott & Woodward, 2007).

Table 10

Religious and Business Leaders Perceptions of Workplace Violence Factors

	Religious Leaders			Business Leaders		
	Agree %	Neutral %	Disagree %	Agree %	Neutral %	Disagree %
	In my opinion, workplace violence...					
Is inevitable	25.0	29.7	45.3	23.6	27.3	49.1
Can be predicted	36.0	30.1	33.8	23.0	28.6	48.4
Is random/ unpredictable	59.7	17.2	23.1	49.1	19.0	31.9
Can be prevented	58.0	27.5	14.5	56.8	26.5	16.7
Only happens at Post Offices and schools	0.7	9.4	89.9	1.2	13.0	85.8
Is a "guy thing" women do not need to be concerned	3.8	3.0	93.2	2.5	7.4	90.2
Prevented by guards/ metal detectors	8.7	30.2	61.1	10.6	32.5	56.9
	My workplace is...					
Safe from workplace violence	63.7	15.6	20.7	56.4	25.2	18.4
Safe from crime	42.4	18.4	36.2	43.2	26.5	30.2
In a safe neighborhood	67.4	23.2	9.4	67.5	19.0	13.5
	During the past 12 months, workplace violence incidents have...					
Increased	1.7	29.9	68.4	3.3	38.2	58.6
Decreased	2.5	54.2	43.2	5.3	58.6	36.2
Stayed the same	72.5	22.5	4.9	63.4	32.3	6.3
	During the past 12 months, workplace violence has caused increased...					
Absenteeism	0.8	23.1	76.2	2.5	32.7	64.8
Health insurance premiums	2.3	24.0	73.6	3.8	31.4	64.8
Turnover	0.8	25.2	74.0	6.3	31.0	62.7
Levels of fear	9.2	23.7	67.2	11.5	31.2	57.3
	During the past 12 months, workplace violence has caused decreased...					
Productivity	2.3	25.4	72.3	9.5	28.5	62.0
Morale	2.3	25.6	72.1	12.7	27.8	59.5

Table 11 shows the results of the t-test for equality of means for awareness with the controlling factors of gender, age, education, and tenure. The results suggest there

was not a significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious and business leaders based upon gender and age as measured by the mean ratings. However, for the controlling factor of educational attainment, there was statistically significant difference between religious ($M = 9.26$, $SD = 1.51$) and business leaders ($M = 7.86$, $SD = 2.08$), $t(288.11) = 6.772$, $p = .000$, $p \leq .05$. In addition, for the tenure factor, there was statistically significant difference between religious ($M = 5.48$, $SD = 1.50$) and business leaders ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.52$), $t(301.52) = 2.133$, $p = .034$, $p \leq .05$.

Table 11

t-test for Equality of Means for Awareness with Controlling Factors

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	SE Diff.	LL	UL
					Gender				
EV assumed	.016	.900	.523	303	.602	.04139	.07920	-.11447	.19725
EV not assumed			.523	300.78	.602	.04139	.07920	-.11447	.19725
					Age				
EV assumed	2.768	.097	1.588	303	.113	.26819	.15884	-.06406	.60044
EV not assumed			1.595	302.94	.112	.28619	.16813	-.06265	.59903
					Education				
EV assumed	21.528	.000	6.683	303	.000	1.40147	.20972	.98879	1.81416
EV not assumed			6.772	288.11	.000	1.40147	.20696	.99413	1.80882
					Tenure				
EV assumed	.000	.988	2.132	303	.034	.36852	.17289	.02831	.70873
EV not assumed			2.133	301.52	.034	.68852	.17277	.02853	.70851

Note. EV = equal variance; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit

Therefore, for the controlling factors of the leader's gender and age, the null hypothesis was not rejected and for the controlling factors of the leader's educational attainment and tenure, the alternate hypothesis was supported.

Research question 2: Prevention strategies. The second research question considered was, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ? Section 3 of the WVGQ included 16 items, which focused on the respondents' strategies used to prevent workplace violence.

To answer the research question the following hypotheses were tested:

$H2_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

$H2_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of policy strategies on the WVGQ.

Table 12 shows other prevention strategies used by religious and other business leaders.

Table 12

Workplace Violence Prevention and Policy Strategies

Strategies Used	Religious Leaders		Business Leaders	
	n	%	n	%
Visitors sign in and out	26	17.9	83	51.6
Limit movement in the workplace	89	61.0	109	67.7
Zero tolerance policy	73	50.7	106	65.8
Policy covers physical assault	59	43.1	97	61.4
Policy covers threats of assault	59	43.4	95	60.1
Policy covers domestic violence	44	32.4	74	46.8
Policy covers harassment	63	46.3	104	66.2
Policy covers intimidation	60	44.1	95	61.3
Policy covers bullying	54	39.7	87	55.8
Violations reported to supervisor	117	83.0	127	79.4
Violations reported to human resources	43	35.2	86	55.5
Violations reported to other in company	26	21.8	43	28.7
Violations reported to law enforcement	89	67.4	62	41.3

Again, the response items were tested for normality and as shown in Table 9, the prevention strategies skewness for religious leaders = -.68 and for business leaders = -.97, and the kurtosis for religious leaders = .16 and for business leaders = .97, the results indicated the data may not be normally distributed. While there may be departures in the normality and variance assumptions, there was no departure from the independence of the samples and so the t-test for equality of means for prevention strategies was used to test the hypotheses (Elliott & Woodward, 2007). Table 13 shows the results of the t-test for equality of means for prevention strategies with the controlling factors of gender, age, education, and tenure. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, tenure, the results suggest there was not a significant difference in the workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings.

However, for the controlling factor of educational attainment there was statistically significant difference between religious ($M = 9.33$, $SD = 1.54$) and business leaders ($M = 8.00$, $SD = 2.07$), $t(291.01) = 6.397$, $p = .000$, $p \leq .05$. Therefore, for the controlling factors of the leader's gender, age, and tenure, the null hypothesis was not rejected and for the controlling factor of the leader's educational attainment, the alternative hypothesis was supported.

Table 13

t-test for Equality of Means for Prevention Strategies with Controlling Factors

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	SE Diff.	LL	UL
					Gender				
EV assumed	1.696	.194	-.395	303	.693	-.03182	.08062	-.19048	.12683
EV not assumed			-.395	302.06	.693	-.03182	.08052	-.19028	.12663
					Age				
EV assumed	1.344	.247	1.160	303	.247	.19498	.16802	-.13566	.52562
EV not assumed			1.164	302.96	.245	.19498	.16749	-.13461	.52457
					Education				
EV assumed	19.751	.000	6.320	303	.000	1.32826	.21017	.91468	1.74184
EV not assumed			6.397	291.01	.000	1.32826	.20762	.91963	1.73689
					Tenure				
EV assumed	.962	.327	1.740	303	.083	.29531	.16974	-.03870	.62932
EV not assumed			1.744	302.75	.082	.29531	.16933	-.03790	.62851

Note. EV = equal variance; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Research question 3: Prevention training. The third research question considered was, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ? Section 4 of the WVGQ included five items, which focused on the respondents' training activities related to workplace violence prevention and response.

To answer the research question the following hypotheses were tested:

$H3_0$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

$H3_a$. After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training provided between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of training on the WVGQ.

Table 14 presents data reporting when training was required, and the length of the training, followed up with new employee training information used by religious and business leaders. Again, as shown in Table 9, the prevention training skewness and kurtosis for religious leaders and for business leaders indicated the data may not be normally distributed. However, there were no departures from the independence of the samples so the t-test for equality of means was used to test the hypotheses (Elliott & Woodward, 2007).

Table 14

Workplace Violence Prevention Training Provided to Employees

	Religious Leaders (n=146)		Business Leaders (n=159)	
	n	%	*n*	%
Workplace violence prevention training is provided				
No training required	118	80.8	95	59.7
1 or more times a year	4	2.7	6	3.8
Every 1 to 2 years	8	5.5	2	1.3
Every 3 to 5 years	10	6.8	22	13.8
After a WV incident	6	4.1	34	21.4
Length of training (in hours) when training was provided				
No training required	116	79.3	95	59.0
1 hour or less	20	13.8	29	18.6
1 to 2 hours	7	4.8	25	16.0
3 to 4 hours	2	1.4	5	3.2
5 to 8 hours	1	.7	2	1.3
More than 8 hours			3	1.9
New employees are provided WV training within 30 days of employment				
No/Unknown	124	84.9	94	59.1
Yes	22	15.1	65	40.9

Note. WV = workplace violence.

The prevention training variable mean for religious and business leaders was tested against each independent variable using the t-test for equality of means. Table 15 shows the results of the t-test for equality of means for training activities with the controlling factors of gender, age, education, and tenure. Again after controlling for the leader's gender, age, tenure the results suggest there was not a significant difference in the workplace violence prevention strategies used between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings. Yet again, for the controlling factor of educational attainment there was statistically significant difference between religious (M = 8.95, SD = 1.51) and business leaders (M = 7.77, SD = 2.10), $t(286.47) = 5.667$, p = .000, $p \leq .05$.

Table 15

t-test for Equality of Means for Prevention Training with Controlling Factors

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	SE Diff.	LL	UL
					Gender				
EV assumed	30.480	.000	-1.930	303	.054	-.17944	.09295	-.36234	.00347
EV not assumed			-1.962	277.76	.051	-.17944	.09145	-.35945	.00058
					Age				
EV assumed	20.894	.000	.264	303	.792	.04737	.17921	-.30528	.40001
EV not assumed			.266	302.30	.791	.04737	.17819	-.30328	.39802
					Education				
EV assumed			5.590	303	.000	1.18065	.21121	.76502	1.59628
EV not assumed			5.667	286.47	.000	1.18065	.20833	.77061	1.59070
					Tenure				
EV assumed	.488	.485	.824	303	.411	.14770	.17928	-.20509	.50048
EV not assumed			.827	302.95	.409	.14770	.17853	-.20362	.49901

Note. EV = equal variance; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Therefore, for the controlling factors of the leader's gender, age, and tenure, the null hypothesis was not rejected and for the controlling factor of the leader's educational attainment, the alternative hypothesis was supported.

Research question 4: Guardianship indicator. The final research question considered was, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, to what extent, if any, was there a difference between religious leaders and business leaders

as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator (GI) on the WVGQ? The guardianship indicator was operationally defined as the combination of awareness, prevention strategies, and prevention training indexes (un-weighted averages). This indicator provides the place of worship or other business leader with a reference point as to the guardianship at their establishment. To answer the research question the following hypotheses were tested:

> **$H4_0$.** After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was no statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ.
>
> **$H4_a$.** After controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there was a statistically significant difference between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ.

In this study, the overall uncontrolled GI score ranged from 1.77 to 9.85 with a mean of 6.92 for 305 cases. For places of worship, the uncontrolled GI score ranged from 3.61 to 9.19 with a mean of 6.56 for 146 cases. For other businesses, the uncontrolled GI score ranged from 1.77 to 9.85 with a mean of 7.25 for 159 cases. Table 16 shows the results of the t-test for equality of means for the guardianship indicators without the controlling factors of gender, age, education, and tenure. An analysis of the equality of the means test supports there was statistically significant difference between place of worship leader's GI ($M = 6.56$, $SD = 1.16$) and business leader's GI ($M = 7.25$, $SD = 1.44$), $t(297.77) = -4.651$, $p = .000$, $p \leq .05$.

Table 16

Guardianship Indicator with No Controlling Factors

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	SE Diff.	LL	UL
Guardianship Indicator (no controlling factors)									
EV assumed	13.187	.000	-4.608	303	.000	-.69414	.15064	-.99056	-.39771
EV not assumed			-4.651	297.77	.000	-.69414	.14925	-.98785	-.40042

Note. EV = equal variance; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Finally, the guardianship indicator skewness and kurtosis for religious leaders and for business leaders as shown in Table 9 indicated the data may not be normally distributed. However, there was no departure from the independence of the samples. After controlling for the leader's age and tenure, the results suggest there was not a significant difference in workplace violence guardianship indicator between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings. However, for the controlling factor of gender, there was statistically significant difference between religious ($M = 8.31$, $SD = 1.26$) and business leaders ($M = 8.85$, $SD = 1.51$), $t(300.076) = -3.395$, $p = .001$, $p \leq .05$. In addition, for educational attainment, there was statistically significant difference between religious ($M = 13.7$, $SD = 1.91$) and business leaders ($M = 12.90$, $SD = 2.37$), $t(298.278) = 3.348$, $p = .001$, $p \leq .05$. Therefore, for the controlling factors of the leader's age and tenure, the null hypothesis was not rejected and for the controlling factors of the leader's gender and educational attainment, the alternative hypothesis was supported. Table 17 shows the results of the t-test for equality of means

for the guardianship indicator with the controlling factors of gender, age, education, and tenure.

Table 17

t-test for Equality of Means for the Guardianship Indicator with Controlling Factors

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	SE Diff.	LL	UL
					Gender				
EV assumed	10.012	.002	-3.368	303	.001	-.53820	.15979	-.85263	-.22377
EV not assumed			-3.395	300.08	.001	-.53820	.15854	-.85019	-.22620
					Age				
EV assumed	.498	.481	-1.443	303	.150	-.31139	.21578	-.73600	.11322
EV not assumed			-1.449	302.99	.148	-.31139	.21493	-.73433	.11154
					Education				
EV assumed	8.905	.003	3.318	303	.001	.82189	.24770	.33446	1.30932
EV not assumed			3.348	298.28	.001	.82189	.24549	.33878	1.30500
					Tenure				
EV assumed	2.232	.136	-.974	303	.331	-.21107	.21675	-.63759	.21546
EV not assumed			-.979	302.61	.328	-.21107	.21563	-.63539	.21326

Note. EV = equal variance; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

Evaluation of Findings

Research question 1: Awareness. Awareness is a key element in dealing with the problem of workplace violence (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011). To be an effective guardian the guardian must have an awareness of workplace violence factors.

The survey data supports the expectation that leaders have a mixed understanding of the awareness of workplace violence as almost two-thirds (63.7%) of religious leaders believe their workplace is safe from workplace violence yet less than one-half (42.4%) felt their workplace is safe from crime. The same type of ratio of workplace violence to crime is seen for business leaders as well.

No business is immune to workplace violence as was demonstrated in December 2012, in Newtown Connecticut, as children at an elementary school experienced a horrific workplace violence event. More than one-half of business leaders (56.5%) and 63.8% religious leaders felt that their workplace was safe from workplace violence. Even though no actuarial approaches for predicting workplace violence exist, researchers have concluded that workplace violence is not random or just happens (Romano et al., 2011), it is essential that the guardians recognize the behaviors that could lead to workplace violence. However, 59.7% of the surveyed religious leaders and about one-half (49.1%) of business leaders believed that workplace violence is a random and unpredictable event.

Research question 2: Prevention strategies. Having a workplace violence prevention policy at schools and other businesses appears to be one of the causes of the number of violent incidents leveling off during the first five years of the 21st century (Madero, 2005). In the 2005 BLS WVPS, it was reported only 29.1% of all establishments had any kind of workplace violence prevention policy (BLS, 2006). In this study, 47.3% (n=69) place of worship leaders and 65.8% (n=104) the other business leaders reported having workplace violence prevention policies. The fact that less than one-half of the religious leaders have workplace violence prevention policies is an

indication that religious leaders are not as strong purposeful guardians and other business leaders.

Even as governmental and national workplace violence prevention organizations encourage businesses to create and use zero-tolerance workplace violence policies (APA, 2006; APNA, 2008; Bruce & Nowlin, 2011; Fries & DeMitchell, 2007) less than two-thirds (65.8%) of businesses and about one-half (50.7%) of places of worship have zero-tolerance policies. Of the establishments with prevention policies, 20.0% (n=29) of religious leaders and 48.1% (n=77) other business leaders reported providing employees with a printed copy of the policy.

Only 11.0% (n=16) of place of worship leaders made the policy available electronically to employees as did 43.7% (n=69) of other business leaders. Again, not providing employees with copies of prevention policies is an indication that religious leaders are not as strong purposeful guardians and other business leaders.

Research question 3: Prevention training. Prevention training is the main component of a multidisciplinary approach for the prevention of workplace violence (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004); even so, less than 20% of religious leaders and only 40% of other business leaders provide any training for employees, including new employees. In the United States, researchers have suggested regular training for all employees, including senior executives, on workplace violence policy and preventive measures that include the topics of risk factors, response plans, safety devices, reporting, seeking medical and follow-up assistance (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Nevertheless, most (97.9% religious and 93.6% other business) employees received less than two hours of training

when training was provided, which is hardly enough time to present all the recommended topics by researchers.

Research question 4: Guardianship indicator. Workplace violence prevention can reduce the likelihood of a violent incident as employees become aware of violence indicators and action strategies (Romano, Levi-Minzi, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2011). Because current RAT research focused on the concepts of defensible space (Reynald & Elffers, 2009), situational crime prevention (Komiya, 2011), and in residential areas (Reynald, 2011b), there was an opportunity to use the guardianship indicator for related RAT studies. This research built upon Reynald's (2011b) concept of purposeful human guardianship (Figure 2) as leaders' workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship were studied. It was assumed that leaders were the guardians of their organizations, and must understand the workplace violence problem, develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011). The guardianship indicator provides site managers (Reynald, 2011b) a reference point when comparing their establishment with other places of worship and businesses. While Reynald's (2011b) research focused on the elusive guardian in residential environments, this research question focuses on the differences of leaders to understand the effectiveness as purposeful human workplace violence guardians.

The calculated means for first three research questions are a little higher for business leaders than for religious leaders, but not so much as to indicate a statistical difference in every situation of gender, age, and tenure. However, for educational attainment there was a statistical difference for all the independent variables indicating that higher educational attainment could lead to better guardianship.

Summary

In this chapter, the results of a non-experimental, quantitative, ex post facto study to determine if there were guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence were presented. The research questions concentrated on what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention-training activities, and guardian indicator between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ. Data from 305 religious (n=146) and business leaders (n=159) was collected through SurveyMonkey™. Cronbach's alpha scores were prepared for the responses that would become the dependent variables of awareness, prevention strategies, and prevention training activities. Data from the response items were tested for normality; the results indicated the data might not be normally distributed. However, the t-tests are still appropriate for larger samples (greater than 40 responses) where there are departures in the normality and variance assumptions, because in the case of this study there is no departure from the independence of the samples (Elliott & Woodward, 2007).

The data was analyzed to determine the leader's workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, and prevention-training activities (Howard & Wech, 2011). Because of the several controlling factors, there were different possibilities for the decision to reject or fail to reject for the null hypothesis or to support or not support for the alternative hypothesis for each research question. Only with the controlling factor of educational attainment was there statistically significant difference between religious and business leaders for all four research questions.

The findings support the expectation that leaders have a mixed understanding of the awareness of workplace violence, as almost two-thirds of religious leaders believe their workplace is safe from workplace violence yet less than one-half felt their workplace is safe from crime. The same type of ratio of workplace violence to crime was seen for business leaders as well. Even as governmental and national workplace violence prevention organizations encourage businesses to create and use zero-tolerance workplace violence policies (APA, 2006; APNA, 2008; Bruce & Nowlin, 2011; Fries & DeMitchell, 2007) less than two-thirds of businesses and about one-half of places of worship have zero-tolerance policies. Most religious and business employees received less than two hours of training, which is hardly enough time to present the topics of risk factors, response plans, safety devices, reporting, seeking medical and follow-up assistance recommended by researchers (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Finally, there was a statistical difference for all the independent variables indicating that higher educational attainment could lead to better guardianship. In the next chapter, the implications of these findings are discussed.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there were guardianship differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence. At the beginning of the 21st century, the number of violent incidents at religious organizations began to increase as the overall number of workplace violence incidents leveled off (BLS, 2009a, 2010; Wan, 2009). The problem was religious leaders did not expect violence at their establishments, tended not to have an awareness of workplace violence guardianship; therefore, few had prevention plans or provided prevention training (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011). Researchers studying workplace violence pointed out the routine activities theory (RAT) is relevant to the phenomenon because the whereabouts of the offenders and victims are known when the violence occurs (Southerland, Collins, & Scarborough, 1997). Other RAT researchers point out studies have not focused on the RAT's guardianship construct leaving the construct under-researched (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). Because few studies have focused on the RAT's guardian construct, there was a literature gap of workplace violence guardianship at religious organizations (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). This study continues to fill the literature gap of the violence guardian construct by considering the awareness, use of prevention strategies and training of religious and other business leaders.

The study was built upon Reynald's (2011b) theory of purposeful human guardianship (Figure 2) as religious and business leaders' workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship were considered. As such, the focus of this research was on the groups of religious and business leaders. The findings suggest there was not a significant difference in workplace violence

awareness, policy strategies and training between religious leaders and business leaders when considering gender, age, and tenure. However, there was a significant difference when considering educational attainment. Generally, the results support the argument that leaders are the guardians of their organizations, and must understand the workplace violence problem, develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011).

The remainder of the chapter presents a discussion for each research question of the implications of the findings and how the finding fit with current literature and reduces the literature gap of workplace violence guardianship at religious organizations (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011). The section is followed with study design limitations that could have been limiting factors for each research question and hypotheses. The chapter concludes with recommendations for workplace improvements and for future workplace violence purposeful human guardianship investigation.

Implications

At the highest level, this study provides a greater understanding of organizational behavior as workplace violence prevention was considered from a general systems theory approach (von Bertalanffy, 1968). The underpinning of general systems theory is all activities within an organization are interconnected, and a small change in one variable could lead to large changes in other variables (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). Because of the many variables that could affect workplace violence in an organization, this study focused on workplace violence guardians from the RAT perspective (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Three assumptions related to the RAT were made in this study about workplace violence guardianship. First, all places of worship and business establishments are suitable targets for workplace violence. Second, motivated offenders make personal decisions to commit acts of violence even when the most effective prevention methods are used. It is the third assumption that leaders are the guardians of their organizations, and must understand the workplace violence problem, develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011) that was critical to this study. Workplace violence prevention can reduce the risk of a violent incident as employees become aware of violence indicators and action strategies (Romano, Levi-Minzi, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2011). To ascertain the current state of workplace violence guardianship at places of worship and other businesses four research questions were used to discover the perceptions of leaders with the phenomenon.

Research question 1: Awareness. The first question considered to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure. The t-test for equality of means was the primary tool used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence awareness means between religious leaders and business leaders. The null hypothesis stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be no statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ. In this study, the null hypothesis was not rejected for the leader's gender and age. Whereas the alternative hypothesis that stated, after controlling for the leader's gender,

age, education, and tenure, there would be a statistically significant difference in workplace violence awareness between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence awareness on the WVGQ. For this study, the alternative hypothesis was supported for the leader's education, and tenure.

Earlier research literature suggested awareness is a key element in dealing with the problem of workplace violence (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011). The implications of this study are that the difference between religious leaders and business leaders in gender and age do not affect their workplace violence awareness. However, the differences in their education and tenure may have some influence in their workplace violence awareness. Reynald (2011b) points out residents are capable guardians in their neighborhoods because of their personal investment in neighborhood safety. The same may be true for leaders who have a greater personal investment as they have worked to attain higher-education levels or who have a stayed employed longer at a particular workplace.

Research question 2: Prevention strategies. The second question considered to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention strategies between religious leaders and business leaders after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure. The t-test for equality of means was the primary tool used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention strategy means between religious leaders and business leaders. The null hypothesis stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be no statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings

of workplace violence prevention on the WVGQ. In this study, the null hypothesis was not rejected for the leader's gender, age, and tenure. Whereas the alternative hypothesis that stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be a statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention strategies between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence prevention strategies on the WVGQ. For this study, the alternative hypothesis was supported for the leader's education.

Earlier research literature suggested having a workplace violence prevention policy at schools, and other businesses appears to be one of the reasons the number of violent incidents started leveling off during the first five years of the 21st century (Madero, 2005). However, the problem at places of worship is religious leaders tend not to expect violence at their establishments, and therefore, few had prevention plans or provided prevention training (Bourns & Wright, 2004; Whitmore, 2011). Organizations like the National Black Church Initiative (2009), the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary (Robinson, 2009), and local law enforcement agencies have encouraged church leaders to improve security prevention plans (Goodchild, 2009). In this study, the number of establishments having a workplace violence prevention policies, 47.3% at places of worship and 65.8% at other businesses, increased over the 2005 BLS WVPS report of 29.1%, indicating an across the board increase in policies during the past seven years. Again, there appears to be no differences between places of worship and other businesses except in the area of educational attainment.

Research question 3: Prevention training. The third question considered to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence prevention training

activities between religious leaders and business leaders after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure. The t-test for equality of means was the primary tool used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence prevention training activities means between religious leaders and business leaders. The null hypothesis stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be no statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention training activities between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence prevention training activities on the WVGQ. In this study, the null hypothesis was not rejected for the leader's gender, age, and tenure. Whereas the alternative hypothesis that stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be a statistically significant difference in workplace violence prevention training activities between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence prevention training activities on the WVGQ. For this study, the alternative hypothesis was supported for the leader's education.

Earlier research literature in the United States, recommends regular training for all employees, including senior executives, on workplace violence policy and preventive measures that include the topics of risk factors, response plans, safety devices, reporting, seeking medical and follow-up assistance (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Prevention training is the main component of a multidisciplinary approach for the prevention of workplace violence (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004); for that reason, training is a necessary aspect of workplace violence prevention. However, more than 80% (80.8%) of religious leaders and more than 50% (57.9%) of other business leader survey participants do not provide

any training for employees, even to new employees. The implications are that leaders may be willing to write policies but are to a lesser degree are willing to spend resources to train employees about those policies. Small businesses (fewer than 500 employees) appear to be more vulnerable to workplace violence than large businesses because social factors are less controlled (Klotz & Buckley, 2010).

Research question 4: Guardianship indicator. The final question considered to what extent, if any, was there a difference in workplace violence guardianship indicator between religious leaders and business leaders after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure. The t-test for equality of means was the primary tool used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the workplace violence guardianship indicator means between religious leaders and business leaders. The null hypothesis stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be no statistically significant difference in workplace violence guardianship indicator between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ. In this study, the null hypothesis was not rejected for the leader's age and tenure. Whereas the alternative hypothesis that stated, after controlling for the leader's gender, age, education, and tenure, there would be a statistically significant difference in workplace violence guardianship indicator between religious leaders and business leaders as measured by the mean ratings of workplace violence guardianship indicator on the WVGQ. For this study, the alternative hypothesis was supported for the leader's gender and education.

Earlier research suggested workplace violence prevention could reduce the likelihood of a violent incident as employees become aware of violence indicators and

action strategies (Romano, Levi-Minzi, Rugala, & Van Hasselt, 2011). This investigation was built upon Reynald's (2011b) theory of purposeful human guardianship (Figure 2) as leaders' workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship were studied. It was assumed that leaders were the guardians of their organizations, and must understand the workplace violence problem, develop prevention policies, and train employees (Kennedy et al., 2011). The guardianship indicator provides site managers (Reynald, 2011b) a reference point when comparing their establishment with other places of worship and businesses. For this reason, a guardianship indicator is a crucial aspect of workplace violence prevention. In this study place of worship leaders had an uncontrolled guardianship indicator (GI) mean of 6.56 and other business leaders had a guardianship indicator of 7.35, indicating the likelihood that business leaders had better management of workplace violence at their establishment. However, when considering educational attainment the guardianship indicator reversed for place of worship (GI mean 13.7) and business leaders (GI mean 12.9); the implications are that higher-education levels may improve the leaders' management of workplace violence at their establishment.

Limitations. Using a comparative ex post facto design allowed for the determination that there are differences between the ways religious leaders perceive workplace violence prevention as compared to other business leaders. However, the hypotheses were not designed to determine if the difference was positive or negative. Therefore, it is not possible to infer whether religious leaders are more or less aware workplace violence, have better or worse prevention strategies, or have more or less suitable training activities than business leaders. Because of this limitation, a future

researcher may want to compare the positive or negative difference of workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and purposeful human guardianship.

A second limiting factor was the research was confined to users of computers, the Internet, and SurveyMonkey™. The impact of this factor hinders the generalizability of the research findings. A related and maybe more important limitation of the study was the small sample size; in this study a convenience sample of 305 religious (n = 146) and business leaders (n = 159) in the United States was used. Due to nature of research for the dissertation, the time, and financial constraints, the study did not reach the level of the BLS survey of workplace violence prevention in 2005. That research involved more than 39,000 establishments (Kato, Downey, McCarthy, & Cruz, 2007), out of a place of worship population of over 333,000 establishments (Hadaway & Marler, 2005) and more than seven million business establishments in the United States (BLS, 2006). Because of large difference between the samples and populations there could be an effect on the inferences made about the population (Black, 1999).

A third limiting factor relates to the sensitivity/power of a statistical effect worth detecting in the population (effect size $|\rho|$ = 0.5), and the correct rejection of a null hypothesis in the study (Power (1-β) err prob = 0.80) (Faul et al., 2009). As the power (1-β) err prob is increased, so is the required sample size. A power of 0.95 would require a minimum of 105 participants in each group; in this study the sample size of religious leaders (n = 146) and business leaders (n = 159) met the required minimum of 105 participants in each group for the power of 0.95. However, using the relatively conservative *alpha* (effect size $|\rho|$ = 0.5), as opposed to $|\rho|$ = 0.01 made statistical

significance harder to attain. A related factor is the hypotheses were designed to determine significance with a two-tailed test without a change in the effect size. Changes in either or both of the effect size and one or two-tailed type tests could change the results of the findings.

Review of research purpose and significance. The overall purpose of this study was fulfilled through the demonstration of differences between religious and other business leaders concerning workplace violence awareness, prevention strategies, prevention training, and purposeful human guardianship. As far as findings that individual characteristics might be a determinant factor of workplace violence risk (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes, Gutiérrez, & Campos, 2011) only educational attainment impacted the difference between religious and business in every workplace violence area addressed, leaving the opportunity for further research. Finally, this study enhances the RAT's guardianship construct literature by extending the scholarly understanding of the effectiveness of religious and business leaders as workplace violence guardians.

Recommendations

Recommendations for practice. The WVGQ survey data suggested more than one-half of religious leaders (59.7%) and about one-half of business leaders (49.1%) believed that workplace violence is a random and unpredictable event. However, this fact is not supported by earlier research (Romano et al., 2011), and the fact leaders are responsible for the safety of employees, clients, and customers (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970). For that reason to be effective guardians religious and business leaders may want to improve their level of workplace violence awareness.

Less than one-half of the place of worship leaders (47.3%) participating in this study reported having a workplace violence prevention policy along with only 65.8% of the other business leaders. Judges have allowed large settlements to victims of workplace violence because some business leaders failed to create appropriate policies in four prevention areas. These failures include (a) failure to screen out potentially violent employees, (b) failure to act when an employee was discovered to be potentially violent, (c) failure to appropriately monitor employees, and (d) failure to provide adequate security measures for employees, customers and other members of the public (Bruce & Nowlin, 2011). Because of these past failures, current place of worship and other business leaders may want to protect their organization by developing and improving their workplace violence prevention policies.

Most religious leaders (80.8%) and more than one-half of other business leaders (57.9%) do not provide workplace violence prevention training for employees. Research has shown prevention training is the key component of a multidisciplinary approach for the prevention of workplace violence (Rugala & Isaacs, 2004). Knowing this, and of the workplace violent incidents which have occurred recently, leaders may want to consider the opportunity to provide some workplace violence prevention training for their employees.

Recommendations for future research. The findings of this research may also be enhanced through a deeper examination of the dependent variables of workplace violence awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship with other occupational groups or organizations. Earlier research has identified the possibility that improvement in the number of workplace violence incidents

was attributed to increased prevention efforts by leaders of schools and other businesses (Madero, 2005). Because these dependent variables may play a greater role individually in the prevention of workplace violence and through a greater understanding of each variable, the situation may be possible to weight the factors and develop a recognized guardianship index. Therefore, future quantitative researchers may want to consider the impact of awareness, policy strategies, prevention training, and overall level of guardianship as independent variables in the RAT's guardian construct in other occupational groups or organizations.

The hypotheses were not designed to determine whether the difference for the dependent variable WVGQ means between place of worship leaders or business leaders was positive (better) or negative (worse). Future researchers may want to compare the level of awareness, type of prevention strategies, or level of training between religious leaders and business leaders to determine what level is most appropriate to improve workplace violence management. Once scholars determine suitable values for the dependent variables, it may be possible to create a recognized guardianship index. With an accepted guardianship index, researchers may then be better able to compare individuals and organizations workplace violence management.

Only for the individual characteristic of educational attainment was there a significance difference between religious and business leaders in every workplace violence area addressed. The idea that a leader's individual characteristics (Chapman et al., 2010; Gacki-Smith et al., 2009; Montes, Gutiérrez, & Campos, 2011), impact workplace violence risk still needs further research. It may be that by using the quantitatively method to focus on the leaders, and their personal characteristics that this

study may have missed the root causes of an individual's awareness of workplace violence. For this reason, future researchers may want to focus on qualitative studies that delve into the leader's awareness of workplace violence and why leaders respond through developing prevention policies and providing training for employees.

Conclusions

This research enhances the knowledge of the understanding the RAT's guardianship construct as it relates to the effectiveness of leaders as workplace violence guardians. The findings support the acceptance of the null hypotheses (H_o) for the controlling factors of gender, age, and tenure, indicating there were no statistically significant differences between the religious and business leaders. However, there was statistically significant difference between the religious and business leaders as related to the factor of educational attainment; therefore, there is still the need for a greater understanding of the role leaders' play in workplace violence prevention.

References

Agnew, R. (2006). General strain theory. In S. Henry & M. Lanier (Eds.), *The essential criminology reader* (pp.155-163). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Aitken, L., Oosthuizen, P., Emsley, R., & Seedat, S. (2008). Mass murders: Implication for mental health professionals. *International Journal Psychiatry in Medicine, 38*(3), 261-269. doi:10.2190/PM.38.3.c

Akers, R. L., & Sellers, C. S. (2004). *Criminological theories: Introduction, evaluation, and application* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Company.

Ali, K. & Leaman, O. (2008). *Islam: The key concepts.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Altheide, D. L. (2006). Terrorism and the politics of fear. *Critical Methodologies, 6*(4), 415-439. doi:10.1177/1532708605285733

American Academy of Pediatrics. (2009). Media Violence. *Pediatrics, 124*(5), 1495-1503. doi:10.1542/peds.2009-2146

American Psychiatric Nurses Association. (2008, October). *Workplace violence: APNA 2008 position statement.* Retrieved from http://www.apna.org/

American Psychological Association, Report of the APA Zero Tolerance Task Force. (2006). *Are zero tolerance policies effective in the schools? An evidentiary review and recommendations.* Retrieved from http://www.jdaihelpdesk.org/

Ammerman, N. T., Carroll, J. W., Dudley, C. S., & McKinney, W. (Eds.). (1998). *Studying congregations: A new handbook.* Nashville, TN: Abington Press.

Anderson, C. A., Sakamoto, A., Gentile, D. A., Ihori, N., Shibuya, A., Yukawa, S., Naito, M., & Kobayashi, K. (2008). Longitudinal effects of violent video games on aggression in Japan and the United States. *Pediatrics, 122*(5), e1067-e1072. doi:10.1542/peds.2008-1425

Atkinson, R. (2008). Societal effects of cyberbullying: The dark side of building bridges with technology. *South Atlantic Philosophy of Education Society 2008 Yearbook.* Greenville, NC: East Carolina University School of Education.

Bajpai, G. S. (2004). Crime reduction through situational crime prevention: A study in the United Kingdom. Retrieved from www.forensic.to/webhome/drgsbajpai/

Bankert, E., Cohen, J. M., Cooper, J. A., Goldman, B. D., & Hicks, L. (2011). History and ethical principles. Retrieved from https://www.citiprogram.org

Barnett-Ryan, C. (2007). Introduction to the uniform crime reporting program. In J. P. Lynch & L. A. Addington (Eds.), *Understanding crime statistics: Revisiting the divergence of the NCVS and UCR* (pp. 55-92). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Bauman, S. (2008). The role of elementary school counselors in reducing school bullying. *The Elementary School Journal, 108*(5), 362-375.

Black, T, R. (1999). *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Block, J. (2007a). Lessons from Columbine: Virtual and real rage. *American Journal of Forensic Psychiatry, 26*(2), 1-27. Retrieved from http://www.scribd.com/doc/61091761/The-Columbine-Massacre-Lessons-From-Columbine

Block, J. (2007b, September 18). The games shooters play: Columbine and its relationship to computer games. *Berglund Center for Internet Studies Roundtable.* Retrieved from http://www.vimeo.com/19456545

Boetig, B. P. (2006). The routine activity theory: A model for addressing specific crime issues. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 75*(6), 12-18.

Borum, R., Cornell, D. G., Modzeleski, W., & Jimerson, S. R. (2010). What can be done about school shootings? A review of the evidence. *Educational Researcher, 39*(1), 27–37. doi:10.3102/0013189X09357620

Bourns, W., & Wright, W. D. (2004). A study of church vulnerability to violence: Implications for law enforcement. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 32*(2), 151-157.

Bowie, V. (2002, September). *Workplace violence: A second look.* Paper presented at the Crime Prevention Conference, Sydney, Australia. Retrieved from http://www.aic.gov.au/events/aic%20upcoming%20events/2002/crimpre.aspx

Bowie, V. (2011). An emerging awareness of the role organizational culture and management style can play in triggering workplace violence. In M. R. Privitera (Ed.), *Workplace violence in mental and general healthcare settings* (pp. 43-56). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (2005). Ecological systems theory. In U. Bronfenbrenner (Ed.), *Making human beings human: Bioecological perspectives on human development* (pp. 106-1730). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Brotherhood Mutual Insurance Company. (2007). Surviving a violent attack at church. *The Deacon's Bench, 19*(2). Fort Wayne, IN: Author.

Browne, K. D. & Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. (2005). The influence of violent media on children and adolescents: A public-health approach. *The Lancet, 365*(9460), 702-710. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(05)17952-5

Brownstein, R. (2009). Pushed out. *Teaching Tolerance, 36*, 58-61. Retrieved from http://www.tolerance.org/magazine/number-36-fall-2009

Bruce, M. D., & Nowlin, W. A. (2011). Workplace violence: Awareness, prevention, and response. *Public Personnel Management, 40*(4), 293-308.

California Occupational Safety and Health Administration (Cal/OSHA). (1995). Cal/OSHA guidelines for workplace security. San Francisco, CA: State of California Department of Industrial Relations. Retrieved from http://www.dir.ca.gov/dosh/dosh_publications/worksecurity.html

Campolieti, M., Goldenberg, J., & Hyatt, D. (2008). Workplace violence and the duration of workers' compensation claims. *Industrial Relations 63*(1), 57-84. Retrieved from http://www.erudit.org/revue/ri/2008/v63/n1/018122ar.pdf

Carbo, J., & Hughes, A. (2010). Workplace bullying: Developing a human rights definition from perspective and experiences of targets. *WorkingUSA: The Journal of Labor and Society, 13*(3), 387-403. doi:10.1111/j.1743-4580.2010.00297.x

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2010a). Occupational violence, workplace violence initiative: Research and implementation. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/topics/violence/traumaviol_research.html#employer

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2010b). Vision, mission, core values, and pledge. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/about/organization/mission.htm

Chadwick, C. (2012). Analysis of uniform crime reports from the FBI. Retrieved from http://www.christiansi.org/research_resources.htm ick

Chapman, R., Styles, I., Perry, L., & Combs, S. (2010). Examining the characteristics of workplace violence in one non-tertiary hospital. *Journal of Clinical Nursing, 19*, 479-488. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2702.2009.02952.x

Chinn, C. (2011). Ministry violence statistics. Retrieved from http://www.carlchinn.com/church_security_concepts.html

Clarke, R. V. (Ed.). (1997). *Situational crime prevention: Successful case studies* (2nd ed.). Albany, New York: Harrow and Heston.

Clarke, R. V. (2009). Situational crime prevention: Theoretical background and current practice. In M. D. Krohn, A. J. Lizotte, & G. P. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook on crime and deviance* (pp. 259-276). New York, NY: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-1-4419-0245-0_14

CNN Wire Staff. (2010, October 29). Suspicious packages 'contain explosive material,' Obama says. Retrieved from http://www.cnn.com/2010/US/10/29/security.concern/index.html

Cohen, A. (1965). The sociology of the deviant act: Anomie theory and beyond. *American Sociological Review, 30*, 5-14.

Cohen, L. E., & Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review 44,* 588-608.

Coleman, L. (2007, January). The copycat effect: School shootings and recommendations. In L. Eib (Moderator), *Confronting Violence in Our Schools: Planning, Response, and Recovery.* Symposium conducted at the meeting of Public Entity Risk Institute, Fairfax, VA.

Collins, K. (1999). Columbine incident recalls '27 massacre. *USATODAY.com.* Retrieved from http://www.usatoday.com/news/index/colo/colo57.htm

Connor, D. F. (2002). *Aggression and antisocial behavior in children and adolescents: Research and treatment.* New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (2005). *Designing surveys: A guide to decisions and procedures.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Dansie, E. J., & Fargo, J. D. (2009). Individual and community predictors of fear of criminal victimization: Results from a national sample of urban US citizens. *Crime Prevention and Community Safety, 11*, 124-140. doi:10.1057/cpcs.2009.3

De Cuyper, N., Baillien, E., & De Witte, H. (2009). Job insecurity, perceived employability and targets' and perpetrators' experiences of workplace bullying. *Work & Stress, 23*(3), 206-224. doi:10.1080/02678370903257578

DeLisi, M., Kosloski, A., Sween, M., Hachmesiter, E., Moore, M., & Drury, A. (2010). Murder by numbers: Monetary costs imposed by a sample of homicide offenders. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry and Psychology, 21*(4), 501-513. doi:10.1080/1489910903564388

DeVellis, R. F. (2012). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Dill, K. E., Redding, R. E., Smith, P. K., Surette, R., & Cornell, D. G. (2011). Recurrent issues in efforts to prevent homicidal youth violence in schools: Expert opinions. *New Directions for Youth Development, 129,* 113-128. doi:10:1002/yd 391

Dinkes, R., Forrest Cataldi, E., & Lin-Kelly, W. (2007). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2007* (NCES 2008-021/NCJ 219553). Retrieved from National Center for Education Statistics website http://nces.ed.gov/programs/crimeindicators/crimeindicators2007/index.asp

Drucker, P. F. (1973). *Management: tasks, responsibilities, practices.* New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Duffy, M. (2009). Preventing workplace mobbing and bullying with effective organizational consultation, policies, and legislation. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 61*(3), 242-262. doi:10.1037/a0016578

Duhart, D. T. (2001). Violence in the workplace, 1993-99. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/vw99.pdf

Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.). (2011). Bullying and harassment in the workplace: Development in theory, research, and practice. Boca Raton, FL: Taylor & Francis Group.

Elliott, A. C., & Woodward, W. A. (2007). *Statistical analysis quick reference guidebook: With SPSS examples.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Emerging trends in employment and labor law: Examining the need for greater workplace security and the control of workplace violence, Hearings before the Subcommittee on Employer-Employee Relations, of the House Committee on Education and the Workforce, 107th Cong. 5 (2002) (testimony of Eugene Rugala). Retrieved from http://bulk.resource.org/gpo.gov/hearings/107h/82591.pdf

Englander, E. (2007). *Understanding violence* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Etter, G. W., & Swymeler, W. G. (2010). Research note: Courthouse shootings 1907-2007. *Homicide Studies, 14*(1), 90-100. doi:10.1177/1088767909353017

Farrall, S. (2007). *Experience and expression in the fear of crime: Full research report ESRC end of award report* (RES-000-23-1108). Retrieved from Economic and Social Research Council website http://www.esrcsocietytoday.ac.uk/

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods, 41*(4), 1149-1160. doi:10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Felson, M. (2002). *Crime and everyday life,* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Felson, M. (2006). *Crime and nature.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fox, J. A., & Levin, J. (2005). *Extreme killing: Understanding serial and mass murder.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fredland, N. M. (2008). Nurturing hostile environments: The problem of school violence. *Family Community Health, Supplement 1 31*(15), S31-S41.

Fries, K., & DeMitchell, T. A. (2007). Zero tolerance and the paradox of fairness: Viewpoints from the classroom. *Journal of Law and Education, 36*(2), 211-230. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com.proxy1.ncu.edu/ehost/

Gacki-Smith, J., Juarez, A. M., Boyett, L., Homeyer, C., Robinson, L., & MacLaen, S. L. (2009). Violence against nurses working in US emergency departments. *The Journal of Nursing Administration, 39*(7/8), 340-349. doi:10.1097/NNA.0b013e3181ae97db

Giblin, M. J. (2008). Examining personal security and avoidance measures in a 12-city sample. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 45*(4), 359-379. doi:10.1177/0022427808322610

Giddens, A. (2006). *Sociology* (5th ed.). Cambridge, United Kingdom: Polity Press.

Gillespie, G. L., Gates, D. M., Miller, M., & Howard, P. K. (2010). Workplace violence in healthcare settings: Risk factors and protective strategies. *Rehabilitation Nursing, 35*(5), 177-184. Retrieved from http://www.rehabnurse.org/pdf/rnj325.pdf

Goodchild, J. (2009). Why your church needs a security plan. *CSO Magazine.* Retrieved from http://www.csoonline.com/article/478069/why-your-church-needs-a-security-plan

Gray, E., Jackson, J., & Farrall, S. (2008). Reassessing the fear of crime. *European Journal of Criminology, 5*(3), 363-380. doi:10.1177/1477370808090834

Hadaway, K., & Marler, P. (2005). How many Americans attend worship each week? An alternative approach to measurement. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 44*(3), 307-322. doi:10.1111/j.1468-5906.2005.00288.x

Hannan, L. (2010, May 12). Police ask Jacksonville community to help catch mosque bomber. *The Florida Times-Union.* Retrieved from http://jacksonville.com/news/crime/2010-05-12/story/pipe-bomb-used-jacksonville-mosque-blast

Harrell, B. M. (2010). Security challenges for houses of worship. *Journal of Physical Security 4*(2), 1-9. Retrieved from http://jps.anl.gov/

Hauge, L. J., Skogstad, A., & Einarsen, S. (2009). Individual and situational predictors of workplace bullying: Why do perpetrators engage in the bullying of others? *Work & Stress, 23*(4), 349- 358. doi: org/10.1080/02678370903395568

Hill, T., & Lewicki, P. (2006). *Statistics: Methods and applications* (1st ed.). Tulsa, OK: Statsoft.

Hindelang, M. J., Gottfredson, M. R., & Garofalo, J. (1978). *Victims of personal crime: An empirical foundation for a theory of personal victimization.* Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Hinduja, S. (2009). Occupational stressors and antinormative behavior. *Security Journal, 22,* 269-285. doi:10.1057/palgrave.sj.8350083

Hockley, C. (2003). The impact of workplace violence on third party victims: A mental health perspective. *Advances in Mental Health, 2*(2), 108-118. doi:10.5172/jamh.2.2.108

Hollis-Peel, M. E., Reynald, D. M., van Bavel, M., Elffers, H., & Welsh, B. C. (2011). Guardianship for crime prevention: A critical review of the literature. *Crime, Law and Social Change, 56*(1), 53-70. doi:10.1007/s10611-011-9309-2

Howard, J., & Wech, B. (2011). A model of organizational and job environment influences on workplace violence. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, (8 September 2011),* 1-17. doi:10.1007/s10672-011-9181-3

Huesmann, L. R., & Taylor, A. D. (2006). The role of media violence in violent behavior. *Annual Review Public Health, 27,* 393–415. doi:10.1146/annurev.publhealth.26.021304.144640

Johns, D. V. (2009). Action should follow words: Assessing the arbitral response to zero-tolerance workplace violence policies. *Ohio State Journal on Dispute Resolution, 24*(2), 263-290.

Johnston, M., Phanbtbarath, P., & Jackson, B. S. (2009). The bullying aspect of workplace violence in nursing. *Critical Care Nursing Quarterly, 32*(4) 287-295.

Joong, P., & Ridler, O. (2005). School violence: Perception and reality. *Education Canada, 45*(4). Retrieved from http://www.crisisprevention.com/pdf/school-violence-perception-and-reality.pdf

Kast, F. E., & Rosenzweig, J. E. (1972). General systems theory: Applications for organizations and management. *Academy of Management Journal, 15*(4), 447-465.

Kato, A., Downey, K., McCarthy, W., & Cruz, S. (2007). *Non-response bias analysis of the survey of workplace violence prevention.* Retrieved from U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Survey Methods Research website: http://www.bls.gov/osmr/abstract/st/st070190.htm

Keashly, L., & Jagatic, K. (2003). By any other name: American perspectives on workplace bullying. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace: International perspectives in research and practice.* New York, NY: Taylor and Francis, Inc.

Kennedy, R. B., Burks, E., Calhoun, S., Essary, M., Herring, S., Kerner, L. L., Machuca, A., & Wilson, T. (2011). Workplace violence: A discussion and ongoing study. *International Journal of the Academic Business World, 5*(1), 29-36.

Kenny, J. (2010). Risk assessment and management teams: A comprehensive approach to early intervention in workplace violence. *Journal of Applied Security Research, 5*(2), 159-175. doi:10.1080/19361611003601033

Kessler, S. R., Spector, P. E., Chang, C., & Parr, A. D. (2008). Organizational violence and aggression: Development of the three-factor violence climate survey. Work & Stress, 22(2), 108-124. doi:10.1080/02678370802187926

King, D. L., Delfabbro, P. H., & Griffiths, M. D. (2011). The role of structural characteristics in problematic video game play: An empirical study. *International Journal of Mental Health Addiction, 9*(3), 320-333. doi:10.1007/s11469-010-9289-y

King, S. (1999, May 26). Stephen King's keynote address: Vermont Library Conference. Retrieved from http://www.horrorking.com/interview7.html

Klotz, A. C., & Buckley, M. R. (2010). 'Where everybody knows your name': Lessons from small business about preventing workplace violence. *Business Horizons, 53*(6), 571-579. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2010.06.004

Komiya, N. (2011). Community safety maps for children in Japan: An analysis from a situational crime prevention perspective. *Asian Criminology, 6*, 131-140. doi:10.1007/s11417-011-9113-z

Korenman, S. G. (2006). *Teaching the responsible conduct of research in humans.* Los Angeles, CA: University of California Regents. Retrieved from http://ori.dhhs.gov/education/products/ucla/intro/intro.htm

LaGrange, R. L., & Ferraro, K. F. (2006). Assessing age and gender differences in perceived risk and fear of crime. *Criminology, 27*(4), 697-720.

Lazerson, A. (2004). The first murder, Cain killed Abel. *The Jewish Magazine, 84.* Retrieved from http://www.jewishmag.com/84mag/cain/cain.htm

Lewis, B. (1995). *The Middle East. A brief history of the last 2,000 years.* New York, NY: Touchstone.

Linden, R. (2007, March). Situational crime prevention: Its role in comprehensive prevention initiatives. *IPC Review, 1,* 139-159.

Linthicum, K. (2009, June 22). Southern California churches prepare in case gun violence shows up at the altar. *Los Angeles Times.* Retrieved from http://articles.latimes.com/2009/jun/22/local/me-beliefs22

Lombroso-Ferrero, G. (2009). *Criminal Man by Gina Lombroso.* Salt Lake City, UT: Project Gutenberg. Retrieved from http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/29895

Longo, J. (2007). Horizontal violence among nursing students. *Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, 21*(3), 177-178. doi:10.1016/j.apnu.2007.02.005

Lopez, C. M., Brim, C., & Peer, R. (2011) Religious bias crimes (2000-2009): Muslims, Christians & Jewish victims. Washington, DC: Center for Security Policy.

Lutgen-Sandvik, P., Tracy, S. J., & Alberts, J. K. (2007). Burned by bullying in the American workplace: Prevalence, perception, degree, and impact. *Journal of Management Studies, 44*(6), 837-862.

MacDonald, G. J. (2009). Shootings give rise to church security concerns. *The Christian Century.* Retrieved from http://findarticles.com

Madero, J. N. (2005). Workplace violence in the 21st century: emerging trends. Retrieved from International Risk Management Institute website http://www.irmi.com/expert/articles/2005/madero07.aspx

Malone, M. (2010, May 25). TVB study: Adults spend twice as much time on TV than web. Retrieved from http://www.broadcastingcable.com/article/453033

Mathewson, K. J., Arnell, K. M., & Mansfield, C. A. (2008). Capturing and holding attention: The impact of emotional words in rapid serial visual presentation. *Memory & Cognition, 36*(1), 182-200. doi:10.3758/MC.36.1.182.

Maxfield, M. G., & Babbie, E. R. (2011). Research methods for criminal justice and criminology (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Metzler, P. (2009). Clergy. *Encyclopedia of death and the human experience*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. Retrieved from http://www.sage-ereference.com/humanexperience/Article_n66.html

Merton, R. K. (1938). Social structure and anomie. *American Sociological Review, 3*(5), 672-682.

Miller, D. C., & Salkind, N. J. (2002). *Handbook of research design and social measurement.* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miniwatts Marketing Group. (2011). Internet world stats: United States of America: Internet usage and broadband usage report. Retrieved from http://www.internetworldstats.com/am/us.htm

Montes, J. A. A., Gutiérrez, A. C. M., & Campos, E. M. (2011). The bullied manager: An empirical study of individual, organizational and contextual factors. *International Business and Management, 2*(2), 6-23. Retrieved from http://cscanada.net/index.php/ibm/issue/view/121

Morgan, M., Shanahan, J., & Signorielle, N. (2009). Growing up with television. In J. Bryant & M. B. Oliver (Eds.), *Media effects: Advances in theory and research* (3rd ed.). Boca Raton, FL: Taylor & Francis Group.

Morris, S. (Producer), & Earp, J (Director). (2010). *The mean world syndrome.* [DVD]. Distributed by Media Education Foundation, Northampton, MA.

Muchinsky, P. M. (2008). *Psychology applied to work: An introduction to industrial and organizational psychology,* (9th ed.). Summerfield, NC: Hypergraphic Press.

Muschert, G. W. (2007). Research in school shootings. *Sociology Compass 1*(1), 60–80. doi:10.1111/j.1751-9020.2007.00008.x

Natarajan, M. (Ed.). (2011). *Crime opportunity theories: Routine activity, rational choice and their variants.* New York, NY: The City University of New York.

National Black Church Initiative. (2009). National Black Church Initiative condemns church shooting [Press release]. Retrieved from http://www.naltblackchurch.com/pdf/shooting-press-release.pdf

National Center for Victims of Crime (NCVC). (2004). *Workplace violence: Employee information* (Document ID 32374). Retrieved from http://www.ncvc.org/ncvc/main.aspx?dbName=DocumentViewer&DocumentID=32374

National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University. (2000). *Report of the United States Postal Service Commission on a safe and secure workplace.* Retrieved from http://permanent.access.gpo.gov/lps12068/33994.pdf

National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioural Research. (1979). *The Belmont report: ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research.* Washington, DC: Government Printing Office

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH). (1996). Violence in the Workplace: Risk Factors and Prevention Strategies," Current Intelligence Bulletin 57, DHHS (NIOSH) Publication No. 96-100, Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/violpurp.html

Nibley, H. W. (1984). What is a temple. In G. Truman (Ed.), *The temple in antiquity: Ancient records and modern perspectives* (pp. 19-37). Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.

Norušis, M. J. (2006). *SPSS 15.0 guide to data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership theory and practice*. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Novak, J. D., & Cañas, A. J. (2008). The theory underlying concept maps and how to construct and use them, technical report IHMC CmapTools 2006-01 Rev 01-2008. Florida Institute for Human and Machine Cognition. Retrieved from http://cmap.ihmc.us/Publications/ResearchPapers/TheoryUnderlyingConceptMapsHQ.pdf

Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometic theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, S. 2193, 91st Cong., 2nd Session. (1970).

O'Connor, T. (2006, December 2). Crime theories and the field of criminology. MegaLinks in Criminal Justice. Retrieved from http://www.apsu.edu/oconnort/1010/1010lect02.htm

Padilla-Walker, L. M., Nelson, L. J., Carroll, J. S., & Jensen, A. C. (2010). More than just a game: Video game and internet use during emerging adulthood. *Journal of Youth Adolescence, 39*(2), 103-113. doi:10.1007/s10964-008-9390-8

Paetzold, R. L., O'Leary-Kelly, A., & Griffin, R. W. (2007). Workplace violence, employer liability, and implications for organizational research. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 16*(4), 362-370. doi:10.1177/1056492606294521

Paoli, P. (2000). Violence at work in the European Union: Recent findings. Dublin, Ireland: Eurofound. Retrieved from http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/

Perry, B., Levin, B., Iganski, P., Blazak, R., & Lawrence, F. M. (Eds.). (2009). *Hate crimes*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publisher.

Privitera, C., & Campbell, M. (2009). Cyberbullying: The new face of workplace bullying? *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 12*(4), 395-400. doi:10.1089/cpb.2009.0025

Probst, T. M., Gold, D., & Caborn, J. (2008). A preliminary evaluation of SOLVE: addressing psychosocial problems at work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(1), 32-42. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.13.1.32

Putnam, F. (2006, June 5). Church shootings. *American Chronicle*. Retrieved from http://www.americanchronicle.com/articles/view/10733

Rennison, C. M., & Rand, M. (2007). Introduction to national crime victimization survey. In J. P. Lynch & L. A. Addington (Eds.), *Understanding crime statistics: Revisiting the divergence of the NCVS and UCR* (pp. 17-54). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Reynald, D. M. (2011a). Factors associated with the guardianship of places: Assessing the relative importance of the spatio-physical and sociodemograhic contexts in generating opportunities for capable guardianship. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 48*(1), 110-142. doi:10.1177/0022427810384138

Reynald, D. M. (2011b). *Guarding against crime: Measuring guardianship within the routines activity theory.* Famham, Surrey, United Kingdom: Ashgate.

Reynald, D. M., & Elffers, H. (2009). The future of Newman's defensible space theory: Linking defensible space and the routine activities of place. *European Journal of Criminology, 6*(1), 25-46. doi:10.1177/1477370808098103

Rich, T. R. (2010). Synagogues, shuls and temples. *Judaism 101*. Retrieved from http://www.jewfaq.org/shul.htm

Richard, M. A., Emener, W. G., & Hutchison, W. S., Jr., (Eds.). (2009). *Employee assistance programs: Wellness/enhancement programming* (4th ed.). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.

Rivers, I., & Noret, N. (2010). Participant roles in bullying behavior and their association with thoughts of ending one's life. *The Journal of Crisis Intervention and Suicide Prevention, 31*(3), 143-148. doi:10.1027/0227-5910/a000020

Robinson, J. (2009, March 17). How should a church cope with security? *Towers.* Retrieved from http://news.sbts.edu/2009/03/17/how-should-a-church-cope-with-security/

Romano, S. J., Levi-Minzi, M. E., Rugala, E. A., & Van Hasselt, V. B. (2011). Workplace violence prevention: Readiness and response. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 80*(1), 1-10.

Rubin, G. J., Amlôt, R., Page, L., & Wessely, S. (2008), Methodological challenges in assessing general population reactions in the immediate aftermath of a terrorist attack. *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research, 17*, S29–S35. doi:10.1002/mpr.270

Rugala, E. A., & Isaacs, A. R. (2004, March). *Workplace violence: Issues in response.* In *Workplace Violence.* Symposium conducted at the meeting of the Federal Bureau of Investigation's National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime, Washington DC.

Runyan, C. W. (2003). Introduction: Back to the future – Revisiting Haddon's conceptualization of injury epidemiology and prevention. *Epidemiologic Reviews, 25*. 60-64. doi:10.1093/epirev/mxg005

Sampson, R., Eck, J. E., & Dunham, J. (2010). Super controllers and crime prevention: A routine activity explanation of crime success and failure. *Security Journal, 23*(1), 37-51. doi:10.1057/sj.2009.17

Sawyer, A. L., Bradshaw, C. P., & O'Brennan, L. M. (2008). Examining ethnic, gender, and developmental differences in the way children report being a victim of "bullying" on self-report measures. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 43*(2), 106-114. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2007.12.011

Schinkel, W. (2004). The will to violence. *Theoretical Criminology, 8*(1), 5-31. doi:10.1177/1362480604039739

Schinkel, W. (2010). *Aspects of violence: A critical theory*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillian.

Schuman, H. (2008). *Method and meaning of polls and surveys.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Schurman-Kauflin, D. (2006). Female mass murderers: Jennifer San Marco joins an exclusive club after killing 7. Atlanta, GA: Violent Crimes Institute. Retrieved from http://www.drdsk.com/articles.html#JSanmarco

See, E. (2004). *Student study guide for Ronald L. Akers and Christine S. Sellers' criminological theories: Introduction, evaluation, and application* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Company.

Sherman, L. W., Gottfredson, D., MacKenzie, D., Eck, J., Reuter, P., & Bushway, S. (1997). *Preventing crime: What works, what doesn't, what's promising.* (National Institute of Justice Grant 96MUMU0019). Retrieved from National Criminal Justice Reference Service website https://www.ncjrs.gov/works/

Shively, M. (2005). Study of literature and legislation on hate crime in America. (Task requirement T-049 prepared for the National Institute of Justice). Abt Associates Inc. Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/210300.pdf

Shively, M., & Mulford, C. F. (2007). Hate crimes in America: The debate continues. *National Institute of Justice Journal, 257*, 8-12. Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/jr000257c.pdf

Shoemaker, K. (2010, May 24). *Sanctuary, violence, and law in the medieval England.* Presented as part of the Law and Violence in the Middle Ages series for the Leeds International Medieval Congress, Southampton, England. Abstract retrieved from http://www.wun.ac.uk/events/sanctuary-violence-and-law-late-medieval-england

Shumaker, T. A., II, & Feldstein, T. L. (2004). Employer liability for workplace violence. *Public Management, 86*(3), 34-35.

Skadden, A. (2007). Appendix L: Fatal school shootings in the United States: 1966-2007. Mass shootings at Virginia Tech: April 16, 2007. Report of the Virginia Tech Review Panel Presented to Governor Kaine, Commonwealth of Virginia. Retrieved from http://www.governor.virginia.gov/TempContent/techPanelReport-docs/FullReport.pdf

Smetzer, J. L., & Cohen, M.R. (2005). Intimidation: Practitioners speak up about this unresolved problem. *The Joint Commission Journal on Quality and Patient Safety, 31*(10), 594-599. Retrieved from http://www.ismp.org/newsletters/acutecare/articles/20040311_2.asp

Smith, D. J. (1999). Less crime without more punishment. *Edinburgh Law Review, 3*, 294-316. Retrieved from http://www.law.ed.ac.uk/cls/esytc/findings/lesscrime.htm

Southerland, M., Collins, P., & Scarborough, K. (1997). *Workplace violence: A continuum from threat to death.* Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Co.

Sparks, G. G., Sparks, C. W., & Sparks, E. A. (2009). Media violence. In J. Bryant & M. B. Oliver (Eds.), *Media effects: Advances in theory and research* (3rd ed.). Boca Raton, FL: Taylor & Francis Group.

State of North Dakota. (2012). Survey on workplace violence hazard assessment. Retrieved from http://www.nd.gov/risk/files/samples/workplace-violence-assessment-survey.pdf

Stossel, S. (1997). The man who counts the killing. *The Atlantic Monthly, 279*(5), 86-104. Retrieved from http://www.theatlantic.com/past/docs/issues/97may/gerbner.htm

Stringer, M. D. (2005). *A sociological history of Christian worship.* Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Suchocki, M. H. (1994). *The fall to violence: Original sin in relational theology.* New York, NY: Continuum Publishing Company.

SurveyMonkey™. (2012). Answers and FAQ. Retrieved from http://help.surveymonkey.com/app/answers/categorylist/noIntercept/1

Taylor, R. B. (2001) The ecology of crime, fear, and delinquency: Social disorganization versus social efficacy. In R. Paternoster & R. Bachman (Eds.). *Explaining criminals and crime: Essays in contemporary criminological theory.* Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Co.

The Joint Commission. (2010, June 3). Preventing violence in the health care setting. *Sentinel Event Alert 45.* Retrieved from http://www.jointcommission.org/assets/1/18/SEA_45.PDF

Thomas, K. A., Dichter, M. E., & Matejkowski, J. (2011). Intimate versus nonintimate partner murder: A comparison of offender and situational characteristics. *Homicide Studies, 15*(3), 291-311. doi:10.1177/1088767911417803

Tiegreen, S., & Newman, E. (2009). Violence: Comparing reporting and reality. Retrieved from http://dartcenter.org/content/violence-comparing-reporting-and-reality

Tita, G., & Griffiths, E. (2005). Traveling to violence: The case for a mobility-based spatial typology of homicide. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 42*(3), 275-308. doi:10.1177/0022427804270051

Turney, L. (2003). Mental health and workplace bullying: The role of power, professions and 'on the job' training. *Australian e-Journal for the Advancement of Mental Health 2*(2), 1-8.

Turow, J. (2009). *Media today: An introduction to mass communication* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2006, October 27). *Survey of workplace violence prevention, 2005.* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/iif/oshwc/osnr0026.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2009a). *National census of fatal occupational injuries in 2008.* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/cfoi_08202009.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2009b). *Occupational suicides: Census of fatal occupational injuries-Fact sheet.* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/iif/oshwc/cfoi/osar0010.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010). Fact sheet: Workplace shootings. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/iif/oshwc/cfoi/osar0014.htm

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2011). *Copyright Information.* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/opub/#copyright

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2011). *Women in the labor force: A databook (2011 edition).* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/cps/wlf-databook2011.htm

U.S. Census Bureau. (2008). Computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CAPI) manual for field representatives. NCVS-550. Retrieved from http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/manual08.pdf

U.S. Census Bureau. (2011). What is an establishment? Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/eos/www/naics/faqs/faqs.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2004). *Information about the protection of human subjects in research supported by the Department of Education – Overview.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/fund/guid/humansub/overview.html

U.S. Department of Health & Human Services (HHS). (1996). HHS press release: NIOSH report addresses problem of workplace violence, suggests strategies for preventing risks. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/updates/violpr.html

U.S. Department of Health & Human Services (HHS). (2009). *Regulations.* Retrieved from http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/index.html

U.S. Department of Justice. (2010a). *Report on the Tenth Anniversary of the Religious Land Use and Institutionalized Persons Act.* Retrieved from http://www.justice.gov/crt/rluipa_report_092210.pdf

U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2010b). *Hate Crime Statistics, 2009.* Retrieved from http://www2.fbi.gov/ucr/hc2009/documents/locationtype.pdf

U.S. Government Printing Office. (1949). Trials of War Criminals before the Nuremberg Military Tribunals under Control Council Law No. 10, 2, 181-182. Washington, DC.

University of Iowa. (2010). Research to practice bulletin: Partnerships. Retrieved from www.public-health.uiowa.edu/heartland/r2p/Issue-1/2.html

van Zandt, C. (2009, March 9). Sunday morning murder time - The "why" of church shootings. *Newsvine*. http://clintvanzandt.newsvine.com/_news/2009/03/09/2524148-sunday-morning-murder-time-the-why-of-church-shootings

Verma, A. (2009). Situational prevention and elections in India. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences, 4*(2), 83–97. Retrieved from http://www.sascv.org/ijcjs/verma.html

Vogt, W. P. (2007). *Quantitative research methods for professionals.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

von Bertalanffy, L. (1968). *General system theory: Foundations, developments, applications.* New York, NY: Braziller.

Walsh, A., & Lee, E. (2007). Psychosocial theories: Individual traits and criminal behavior. In *Criminology: An interdisciplinary approach.* (pp. 169-198). Retrieved from http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/13434_Walsh_Chapter_7.pdf

Wan, W. (2009, September 30). Sense of sanctuary lost as church attacks spike. *The Washington Post.* Retrieved from http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2009/09/29/AR2009092903766.html

Wandersman, A., Duffy, J., Flaspohler, P., Norman, R., Lubell, K., Stillman, L., Blachman, M., Dunville, R., & Saul, J. (2008). Bridging the gap between prevention research and practice: The interactive systems framework for dissemination and implementation. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 41*, 171-181. doi:10.1007/s10464-008-9174-z

Wang, S., Hayes, L., & O'Brien-Pallas, L. (2008). A review and evaluation of workplace violence prevention programs in the health sector. (MOHLTC Grant #06221, Project # EVPP 007). Retrieved from Nursing Health Services Research Unit website http://www.nhsru.com/publications/nursing-work-environment/a-review-and-evaluation-of-workplace-violence-prevention-programs-in-the-health-sector

Wartella, E., & Robb, M. (2009). Historical and recurring concerns about children's use of the mass media. In S. L. Calvert & B. J. Wilson (Eds.). *The handbook of children, media and development.* Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. doi:10.1002/9781444302752.ch1

Waters, H., Hyder, A., Rajkotia, Y., Basu, S., Rehwinkel, J. A., & Butchart, A. (2004). The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.

Whitmore, B. (2011). *Potential: Workplace violence prevention and your organizational success* (1st ed.). New York, NY: Highpoint Executive Publishing.

Wikström, P. H., & Treiber, K. H. (2009). Violence as situational action. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence, 3*(1), 75-96. Retrieved from http://www.ijcv.org/index.php/ijcv/article/view/49/49

Wilson, R. E., Brown, T. H., & Schuster, B. (2009). Preventing neighborhood crime: Geography matters. *National Institute of Justice Journal, 263*, 30-35. Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/226875.pdf

Wortley, R., & Mazzerole, L. (Eds.). (2008). *Environmental criminology and crime analysis*. Cullompton, UK: Willan.

Wynne, T. (2008). An investigation into the fear of crime: Is there a link between the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization? *Internet Journal of Criminology*. Retrieved from http://www.internetjournalofcriminology.com

Yamada, D. C. (2008). Workplace bullying and ethical leadership. *Journal of Values-Based Leadership, 1*(2), 49-62.

Appendixes

Appendix A:

Workplace Violence Guardian Questionnaire

Informed Consent

1. Informed Consent

Purpose. You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted for a dissertation at Northcentral University in Prescott, Arizona. The purpose of this study is to examine workplace violence prevention. There is no deception in this study. We are interested in your opinions about workplace violence prevention at your workplace.

Participation requirements. You will be asked to complete a short online survey. The survey should take less than 10 minutes to complete.

Research Personnel. The following people are involved in this research project and may be contacted at any time: Gary Mitchell, e-mail address: gary_mitchell@bellsouth.net. Dr. Mohamad Hammoud, faculty member, e-mail address: Mhammoud@my.ncu.edu.

Potential Risk/ Discomfort. There are no known risks in this study. However, you may withdraw at any time and you may choose not to answer any question that you feel uncomfortable in answering.

Potential Benefit. There are no direct benefits to you of participating in this research. No incentives are offered. The results will have scientific interest that may eventually have benefits for religious organizations or other businesses.

Anonymity/ Confidentiality. The data collected in this study are confidential. All data are coded such that your name is not associated with them. In addition, the coded data are made available only to the researchers associated with this project.

Right to Withdraw. You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. You may omit questions on the survey if you do not want to answer them.

We would be happy to answer any question that may arise about the study. Please direct your questions or comments to Gary Mitchell at gary_mitchell@bellsouth.net.

By continuing to the survey, you agree you understand the purpose of the study and the conditions of participation. You also agree that you are at least 18 years old and understand the risks and benefits of completing the survey.

- ○ Yes (I agree to participate)
- ○ No (I do not want to participate)

Section 1 – About the Workplace

Please use this definition of Workplace Violence - violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty (i.e. physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying).

2. Is your workplace a Place of Worship?
Definition for a Place of Worship. A building or place devoted to religious worship; a church, synagogue, temple, mosque, or chapel.

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

(If no) What type of business? _____

3. What is the U.S. Postal Zip code for your workplace?

_____

4. Is your workplace open to the public? (If yes) Select ALL of the hours the workplace is open to the public.

- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes - between 6:01 a.m. and 5:00 p.m.
- ☐ Yes - between 5:01 p.m. and 11:00 p.m.
- ☐ Yes - between 11:01 p.m. and 2:00 a.m.
- ☐ Yes - between 2:01 a.m. and 6:00 a.m.

5. How many clients/customers/members/visitors come to your workplace on a weekly basis?

- ○ 1 -10
- ○ 11 - 49
- ○ 50 - 249
- ○ 250 - 999
- ○ 1000 plus

6. How many people are employed at your workplace? Include all paid employees (full-time, part-time, hourly, salaried, temporary, and seasonal).

- ○ 1 - 10
- ○ 11 - 49
- ○ 50 - 249
- ○ 250 - 999
- ○ 1000 plus

7. Select ALL of the hours that employees work at this workplace, regardless of whether the workplace is open or closed to the public during those times.

- ☐ between 6:01 a.m. and 5:00 p.m.
- ☐ between 5:01 p.m. and 11:00 p.m.
- ☐ between 11:01 p.m. and 2:00 a.m.
- ☐ between 2: 01 a.m. and 6:00 a.m.

8. If 11:01 p.m. to 2:00 a.m. and/or 2:01 a.m. to 6:00 a.m. are checked in the last question then... Which of the following procedures are used between 11:01 p.m. and 6:00 a.m.? Check ALL that apply.

- ☐ No procedures are used
- ☐ Limited contact with the public (e.g. cash/items exchanged using a pass-through window)
- ☐ Minimum of two employees working together
- ☐ Limiting the amount of cash on-hand (e.g. drop safes)
- ☐ Escorts to parking areas
- ☐ Employees' personal alarm systems
- ☐ Security systems (e.g. cameras)
- ☐ Visibility of work areas (e.g. lighting)
- ☐ Other (please specify) _____

9. Which of the following situations apply to employees who work at this workplace? Check ALL that apply.

- ☐ Working in direct contact with the public
- ☐ Exchanging money
- ☐ Having a mobile workplace (e.g. working out of a vehicle)
- ☐ Delivering passengers, goods, or services (e.g. taxicab, route drivers, or takeout food delivery)
- ☐ Working with unstable or volatile persons in health care or social service settings
- ☐ Working in high crime areas
- ☐ Guarding valuable goods or property (e.g. a museum or armored car guard)
- ☐ Working in small numbers (fewer than 5 people)
- ☐ Working in community-based settings (e.g. social services, public meetings, or childcare)

- [ ] Going door-to-door to residences (e.g. home health care, sales, or meter readers)
- [ ] None of the above
- [ ] Other (please specify)

10. When did the most recent incident of workplace violence occur at your workplace?

- ( ) never had an incident of workplace violence
- ( ) within the last 30 days
- ( ) 1 to 3 months ago
- ( ) 4 to 6 months ago
- ( ) 7 to 12 months ago
- ( ) more than 12 months ago

Prev | Next

Section 2 - Workplace Violence Awareness

Please use this definition of Workplace Violence - violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty (i.e. physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying).

11. In your opinion, workplace violence...

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Only happens at post offices or schools.	○	○	○	○	○
Is inevitable.	○	○	○	○	○
Is random and unpredictable.	○	○	○	○	○
Is a "guy thing", and women do not need to worry about workplace violence.	○	○	○	○	○
Is best prevented by security guards and metal detectors.	○	○	○	○	○
Can be predicted.	○	○	○	○	○
Can be prevented.	○	○	○	○	○

12. In your opinion, my workplace is...

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Safe from workplace violence	○	○	○	○	○
Safe from crime	○	○	○	○	○
In a safe neighborhood	○	○	○	○	○

13. During the past 12 months, incidents of workplace violence at my workplace...

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Have increased	○	○	○	○	○
Have decreased	○	○	○	○	○
Stayed the same	○	○	○	○	○

14. During the past 12 months, workplace violence has affected employees at my workplace by…

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Increased absenteeism	○	○	○	○	○
Increased health insurance premiums	○	○	○	○	○
Increased turnover	○	○	○	○	○
Increased fear levels	○	○	○	○	○
Decreased productivity	○	○	○	○	○
Decreased morale	○	○	○	○	○

Prev | Next

Section 3 - Policy Strategies

Please use this definition of Workplace Violence - violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty (i.e. physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying).

15. Does the business or place of worship you work for...

	Yes	No	Unknown
Have a policy concerning workplace violence?	○	○	○
Have a "zero tolerance" workplace violence policy?	○	○	○
Provide a printed workplace violence prevention policy to each employee?	○	○	○
Make available an electronic copy of a workplace violence prevention policy to each employee?	○	○	○
Require visitors to sign in and out?	○	○	○
Limit movement within the workplace to those persons who have a legitimate reason for being there?	○	○	○

16. Does the workplace violence policy at your business or place of worship include information concerning...

	Yes	No	Unknown
Physical assaults	○	○	○
Threats of assault	○	○	○
Domestic violence	○	○	○
Harassment	○	○	○
Intimidation	○	○	○
Bullying	○	○	○

17. At the business or place of worship where I work, workplace violence must to be reported to...

	Yes	No	Unknown
A supervisor or manager	○	○	○
Human resources personnel	○	○	○
Other company personnel at another business location	○	○	○
Local law enforcement	○	○	○

Other (please specify)

Prev | Next

Section 4 - Training

Please use this definition of Workplace Violence - violent acts directed towards a person at work or on duty (i.e. physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying).

18. The business or place of worship where I work provides...

	Yes	No	Unknown
Informational materials (posters/brochures) about workplace violence prevention?	○	○	○
Training for new employees (within 30 days of employment) on workplace violence prevention?	○	○	○
Training for other employees (employed more than 30 days) on workplace violence prevention?	○	○	○

19. How often are employees required to participate in workplace violence prevention training at your workplace?

- ○ No training required
- ○ One or more times per year
- ○ Every 1-2 years
- ○ Every 3-5 years
- ○ After an incident occurs

20. During the past 12 months, how many hours of training specific to workplace violence prevention did every employee at your workplace receive?

- ○ No training required
- ○ 1 hour or less
- ○ 1-2 hours
- ○ 3-4 hours
- ○ 5-8 hours
- ○ 9 or more hours

21. Which of the following training methods are used at your workplace for workplace violence prevention training?

- ☐ No training required
- ☐ Classroom, instructor led (formal classroom)
- ☐ Self-paced (includes computer-based)
- ☐ On-the-job; one-on-one (informal)
- ☐ Written policies or manuals (references)

Prev | Next

Section 5 - About You

22. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

23. Which category below includes your age?

- 17 or younger
- 18-20
- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

24. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Did not graduate from high school
- Graduated from high school
- 1 year of college
- 2 years of college
- 3 years of college
- Graduated from college
- Some graduate school
- Completed graduate school

25. What is the job title for your current position?

26. How long have you worked at this business or place of worship?

- less than 1 year
- 1 to 3 years
- 4 to 6 years
- 7 to 10 years
- more than 10 years

Prev | Done

Workplace Violence Guardianship

Thank you for completing the survey, if you are interested in receiving an executive report of the study findings, please send your request to gary_mitchell@bellsouth.net

Prev | Done