

The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Perceived Leadership Style Among
Security Personnel

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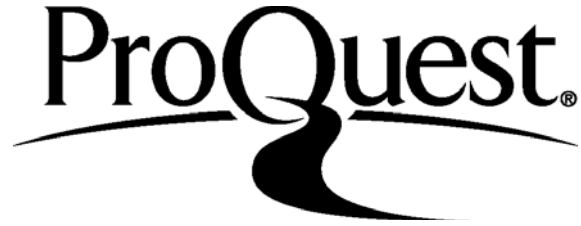
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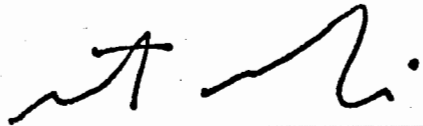
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Abstract

The private security industry is noted for high turnover. Security guard operations typically take up a substantial part of a security department's budget with frequent turnover pools of employees. The proposed quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022. However, turnover rates for security guards are a significant problem as turnover was estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying economic and security vulnerabilities. Employee retention is a critical issue for organizations because of increased costs. Job satisfaction was an important factor in studies examining turnover and effects on employees' intentions to quit from their job along with dissatisfaction with their leaders. Participants were recruited on a voluntary basis requested through the websites of several security-oriented organizations associated with the American Society for Industrial Security and Florida Association of Security Companies. Members of these organizations specialize in the industry of armed and unarmed guards, providing a variety of security support to private and commercial clients and to state and federal government agencies. The sample population for the proposed study was based on a power analysis, using G*Power version 22 software. The parameters of the G*Power analysis for a bivariate correlation was needed to determine if a security officers' overall job satisfaction differ based on security supervisors' leadership style and three groups for the types of leadership styles. An additional power analysis was used to determine the required sample size for a multiple linear regression to determine predictability of

turnover by the predictor variables of leadership style and the specific facets of the job and seven predictors. Examining the ratings of leadership effectiveness and leadership styles and the predictors of job satisfaction may predict turnover intentions of security guards. Conclusions may identify effectiveness and satisfaction of followers and identify the characteristics of a particular leader or group of leaders. The study includes recommendations for further research in the security industry to increase validity and compare results.

Acknowledgements

This was a particularly long journey, and I am indebted to so many for helping me stay the course. First, I want to thank God for giving me this opportunity and allowing me to learn so much on this journey. I want to thank my family and friends for their unwavering support and especially Denise Ables, who inspired me to continue when I wanted to stop. Thank you to my previous Chair, Dr. Ruth Sharf-Williams who was instrumental in getting my concept paper approved, and Dr. Thomas Wilson who came along at the right time to take me to completion.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Employers seek to improve organizational performance while limiting employee turnover (Dixon & Hart, 2010), which can be very costly (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). The private security industry is expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (U.S. Bureau of Labor, 2014). Turnover rates for security guards were estimated to be between 100%-200% per year (Everson, 2014; Parsa, Tesone, & Templeton, 2009). High turnover cost in the security industry includes advertising, interview time, background checks, hiring, new employee processing, training, and can range from 25% to 200% of an employee's annual salary (American Society for Industrial Security [ASIS], 2008). High turnover cost is an economic problem and a serious security vulnerability (Johnston & Warner, 2010). Turnover also weakens security standards and training (Howarth, 2011).

Overall job satisfaction consistently affects turnover (Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008). Leadership behavior is related to employee retention and job satisfaction (Abdullah, Islam, & Homayan, 2013; Gupta, 2011), with an increase of 39% of employee retention and a 37.2% increase in employee satisfaction when leadership focuses on positively engaging employees (Wallace & Trinkka, 2009). Perceived lack of supervisor support is related to increased rates of employee turnover (Dawley, Houghton, & Bucklew, 2010). Leadership styles that may affect employee satisfaction and turnover intentions in the security industry are characterized by the full range of leadership models as transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio, Bass, & Jung 1999). Transformational

leadership occurs when supervisors' characteristics inspire motivation from subordinates to perform. Conversely, transactional leadership is a relationship between supervisors and subordinates based on rewards and punishment characteristics to establish follower credibility (Bucic, Robinson, & Ramburuth, 2010). Passive avoidant leadership is typically used to describe leaders who do not actually lead and is characterized as absent by their subordinates (Molero, Moriano, & Shaver, 2013). The relationship between leadership and turnover is influenced by the behaviors exhibited by leaders and the perceptions of the subordinates (Long & Thean, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Findings suggest that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, and is a key factor in reducing turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Lord & Shondrick, 2011). Transformational leadership behaviors focus on fairness and integrity, clear goal setting, and high expectations of employees (Sadehi & Pihie, 2012). Transformational leadership is one of the most robust predictors of employee job satisfaction along with ratings of leadership effectiveness (Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duer, & Judge, 2012), and security industry turnover is directly linked to a supervisor's performance and relationship with the employee ("Carrots, sticks, & secrets," 2012). Other turnover intention indicators include satisfaction with aspects of career system, such as promotions and pay (Lai & Kapstad, 2009). Findings indicate that those predictors of job satisfaction linked to specific facets of an employees' job, such as satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself, also directly relate to overall job satisfaction (Hoxsey, 2010).

Background

The private security industry is one of the largest growing industries, expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). However, turnover rates for security guards were estimated to be between 100%-200% per year (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009), which are significantly higher than turnover rates in similar criminal justice career fields. Turnover rates for correctional officers are estimated at 10-29% with an estimated 5% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Stinchcomb, McCambell, & Leip, 2009). Law enforcement officer turnover is estimated at 33% with an estimated 7% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Terra, 2009). Turnover cost is an economic problem and a serious security vulnerability (Johnston & Warner, 2010), weakening security standards and training (Howarth, 2011). Job satisfaction is a leading indicator of turnover in positions similar to security guards, including correctional officers (Udechukwa, 2009) and police officers (Carlan, 2007). Other turnover intention indicators include satisfaction with the career system, promotion, pay, and morale (Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Toh, 2013). Job satisfaction has been identified as an important factor in studies examining turnover and effects on employees' intentions to quit from their job (Long & Thean, 2011; Yin-Fah, Yeou, Lim & Osman, 2010) along with dissatisfaction with their leaders (Cicero, Pierro & Van Knippenberg, 2010).

Leadership behavior by supervisors is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008), which consistently affects turnover rates (Pitts et al., 2011). Research has pointed out negative leadership styles and traits are related to leadership failures of subordinates (Harms, Spain, & Hannah, 2011).

Furthermore, leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, indicate an ability to

enhance job performance and reduce turnover (Long & Then, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Supervisors' attitudes towards employees are an important job satisfaction factor (Chaudhuri & Naskar, 2013), and inconsistent supervisory behaviors contribute to uncertainty of the supervisor's trustworthiness and may have a negative impact on relations with the employee (Uchino et al., 2012). Job satisfaction has long been used as an important research construct in organization and group management (Thompson & Phua, 2012; Van Ryzin, 2012), and investigations of job satisfaction assist managers in understanding employees' attitudes and perceptions that may affect their job satisfaction (Jernigan & Beggs, 2010). Evidence indicates job satisfaction and employees' perception of their supervisors support is a major contribution to reducing turnover in the workplace (Darolia, Kumari, & Darolia, 2010).

Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). Different leadership styles may contribute to workforce stability and organizational effectiveness (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg 2011). Leadership styles and behaviors are essential to urge employee performance toward achieving organizational goals, objectives and the success or failure of many businesses depends on the character of the leader, including personal traits and behavior (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Inconsistent supervisory behaviors contribute to uncertainty of the supervisor's trustworthiness and may have a negative impact on relations with the employee (Uchino et al., 2012). Leadership styles and behaviors can influence both performance and job satisfaction and may contribute to reducing turnover and improving retention (Abdullah et al., 2013).

The private security industry is noted for high turnover (Thumala, Goold, & Loader, 2011), yet during the last forty years, few reports and studies reviewed security officer personnel and organizations (i.e., Kajalik & Wildhorn, 1971a, 1971b, 1971c, 1971d; Cunningham & Taylor, 1985; Cunningham, Strauchs & Van Meter, 1990). Though security is considered a component of the criminal justice system, searching a variety of databases found virtually no studies or academic articles pertaining to security, including leadership styles or turnover (Strom et al., 2010; Jaksa, 2102). Recognized security personnel promote the development of leadership in the security industry (Kostanoski, 2008) and security industry turnover has been linked to a supervisor's performance and relationship with the employee ("Carrots, sticks, & secrets," 2012). Since satisfaction with facets of a job and with a supervisor's leadership style have been shown to predict job satisfaction (Piccolo et al., 2012), the possibility exists that these factors may predict turnover of security guards and provide justification for the security industry to conduct further research in leadership training.

Statement of the Problem

Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). However, turnover rates for security guards are a significant problem as turnover was estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). By comparison, turnover rates for correctional officers are estimated at 10-29% with an estimated 5% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Stinchcomb et al., 2009). Law enforcement officer turnover is estimated at 33% with an estimated 7% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Terra, 2009). Employee turnover is a large challenge affecting human

resources (Kazi & Zadeah, 2011) and is an important employment relations outcome for employees and organizations (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Employee retention is a critical issue for organizations because of increased costs (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010).

Job satisfaction is a leading indicator of turnover in positions similar to security guards, including correctional officers (Udechukwa, 2009) and police officers (Carlan, 2007). Other turnover intention indicators include satisfaction with the career system, promotion, pay, and morale (Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Toh, 2013). Leaders and managers try to improve organizational performance and minimize costs associated with employee turnover (Dixon & Hart, 2010), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008), which consistently affects turnover rates (Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011). Furthermore, leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, indicate an ability to enhance job performance and reduce turnover (Long & Then, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Fernandez, 2008; Gupta, 2011). Examining leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2012) as predictors of job satisfaction (Hoxsey, 2010) among security guards may help the security industry identify and reduce turnover intentions and improve the retention of security guards.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. A sample of 157 officers was recruited through the websites of security-oriented organizations associated with the Orlando, Florida Chapter of the ASIS,

the Florida Association of Security Companies (FASCO); and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. Armed or unarmed security officers or guards in a nonsupervisory position were eligible to participate in the study. Participation in the survey was voluntary. The screening criteria included the minimum age for a security guard by law, which is 18, and employment in an unarmed or armed nonsupervisory security-guard or officer position. The Multifactor Leadership Model Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form Rater Version (MLQ5X; Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; see Appendix A) was used to measure employees' perceptions of three leadership styles of their leaders: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant (Xirasagar, 2008). The Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Carter & Dalal, 2010; S. Yang, Brown, & Moon, 2011; see Appendix B) was used to measure overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with five specific job facets, including pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The Job in General (JIG; Lake, Gopalkrishnan, Sliter, & Withrow, 2012; see Appendix B) scale is commonly used with the JDI and was used to measure overall feelings about the job. Bivariate correlations were computed to measure the relationship between overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JIG, and each of the three types of leadership, as measured by the respective subscales of the MLQ5X. Multiple linear regressions were then computed to determine the extent to which the five components of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself), as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted each of the three types of leadership.

Theoretical Framework

The proposed quantitative, nonexperimental study seeks to determine if a security officers' overall job satisfaction and retention differ based on security supervisors' leadership styles. Job satisfaction has been identified as an important factor in studies examining turnover and effects on employees' intentions to quit from their job (Long & Thean, 2011; Yin-Fah et al., 2010) along with dissatisfaction with their leaders (Cicero et al., 2010).

Much of the recent literature on leadership focuses on leader-related skills, personal characteristics, and behaviors, such as transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; Edwards, Knight, Broome, & Flynn, 2010; Salter, Green, Duncan, Berre, & Torti, 2010; Sahaya, 2012; Hamstra et al., 2011; Xirasagar, 2008), charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1994), and authentic leadership, (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009). Different leadership styles may contribute to workforce stability and organizational effectiveness with transformational and transactional leadership styles being the most prominent in literature (Hamstra et al., 2011). Leadership styles are essential to urge employee performance toward achieving organizational goals, objectives and the success or failure of many businesses depends on the character of the leader, including personal traits and behavior (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Inconsistent supervisory behaviors contribute to uncertainty of the supervisor's trustworthiness and may have a negative impact on relations with the employee (Uchino et al., 2012).

A combined survey to measure employees perception of leadership behaviors will be comprised of the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI) (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), used to

provide measures of job satisfaction and retention; the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Carter & Dalal, 2010; S. Yang et al., 2011), used to provide measures of overall job satisfaction and job satisfaction with five specific job facets, including pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, the work itself; the Job in General (JIG), used to provide measures of overall feelings about the job (Lake et al., 2012); and the Multifactor Leadership Model Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form Rater Version (MLQ5X) survey (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999), used to measure employee's perception of their leader's leadership styles (Xirasagar, 2008). Findings may indicate that those predictors of job satisfaction linked to specific facets of an employees' job, such as satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself, also directly relate to overall job satisfaction (Hoxsey, 2010).

Research Questions

Turnover rates for security guards were estimated to be between 100% and 200% per year, identifying both economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). Employee retention is a critical issue for organizations because of increased costs (Allen et al., 2010). Employee turnover is one of the largest challenges affecting human resources management and operational activities (Kazi & Zadeah, 2011) and an important employment relations outcome for employees and organizations (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Security industry turnover is directly linked to supervisors' relationships with employees ("Carrots, sticks, & secrets," 2012). Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was correlated with

the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. To address the purpose of the study, the following research questions were presented.

Q1. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q2. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q3. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q4. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q5. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived

transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q6. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Hypotheses

H1₀. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H1_a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2₀. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2_a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3o. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived

transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5_a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6_o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6_a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Nature of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was correlated with the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. A quantitative research design was chosen for this study because the use of surveys can provide responses to questions using a numerical rating and are typically used to measure events (e.g., attitudes toward supervisors)

difficult to observe directly (Cook & Cook, 2008). A qualitative research design was not used, as qualitative measures involve primarily the use of data not in numerical form, such as texts, words, and observations (Yoshikawa, Weisner, Kalil, & Way, 2013). A qualitative design does not measure well-known data sets or allow for statistical tests, such as those needed for measuring predictability (Bansal & Corley, 2012). For these reasons, the qualitative design was not considered appropriate for this study.

The survey instruments for the current study were developed to measure leadership behavior and facets of job satisfaction using numerical data from Likert-type measurement scales (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). An experimental design was not chosen, because the basic premise of an experiment is the manipulation of independent variables by the researcher. However, for the current study, the supervisors of the participants were already in place. Therefore, although participants were randomly selected for participation, random assignment to a leader based on leadership style was not feasible.

A total of 157 participants in this study completed the survey questions. Participants were recruited on a voluntary basis through the websites of several security-oriented organizations and the LinkedIn website. Members of these organizations specialized in the industry of armed and unarmed guards, providing a variety of security support to private and commercial clients and to state and federal government agencies. Organizations included the Orlando Florida Chapter of the ASIS, the FASCO, and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. Armed or unarmed security officers or guards in a nonsupervisory position were eligible to participate in the study.

Invitations to participate, including a link to a web-based survey instrument, were posted to the ASIS, FASCO, and ASIS International LinkedIn websites. The survey was conducted with a web-based link, with an invitation to participate. The instructions reiterated the voluntary nature of the study, a consent form, eligibility criteria, and the survey instruments.

The instruments used for this study included the JDI (Carter & Dalal, 2010; S. Yang et al., 2011), the JIG (Lake et al., 2012); and the MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). The JDI had five subscales to measure job satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG measured overall feelings about the job. The MLQ5X had three subscales to measure the extent of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership in the supervisors, as perceived by the employees (Xirasagar, 2008). The survey combining all instruments for the study was developed for distribution and presented on the website of Mind Garden, Inc (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Bivariate correlations were used to measure the relationship of overall feelings about the job to each of the perceived leadership styles. Multiple linear regressions were then used to evaluate the extent to which each of the five facets of job satisfaction (pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself) predicted the perceived leadership styles.

Significance of the Study

Security guard operations typically take up a substantial part of a security department's budget with frequent turnover pools of employees (Campbell, 2009). The private security industry is noted for high turnover (Thumala et al., 2011). High rates of turnover can be harmful to the performance of an organization and may raise transaction

costs by requiring higher management-to worker ratios (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Turnover can be costly, though attention is sometimes overlooked because turnover is not always readily visible and is an indirect cost (McConnell, 2011). Turnover cost is an economic problem and a serious security vulnerability (Johnston & Warner, 2010), weakening security standards and training (Howarth, 2011). Private security is noted as a low paying job with high turnover (Henion & Nalla, 2014), offering little stability, employment security, and appears easy to get a job in the industry but also easy to exit (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013). Personnel costs are rated as the highest concerns for security directors (“Are you paying enough,” 2012).

During the last forty years, few reports and studies reviewed security officer personnel and organizations (i.e., Kajalik & Wildhorn, 1971a, 1971b, 1971c, 1971d; Cunningham & Taylor, 1985; Cunningham et al., 1990). Though security is considered a component of the criminal justice system, searching a variety of databases found virtually no studies or academic articles pertaining to security, including leadership styles or turnover (Strom et al., 2010; Jaksa, 2102).

The proposed quantitative study uses the Multifactor Leadership Model Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form Rater Version (MLQ5X) survey (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999), to measure employee’s perception of their leader’s leadership styles. The MLQ5X survey results may highlight the security officers’ perceptions of their supervisors’ leadership styles and job satisfaction. The study will examine the relationship of supervisor’s leadership styles and employees’ perception of their supervisor’s leadership style as related to job satisfaction. Examining the ratings of leadership effectiveness and leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2012) and the predictors of

job satisfaction may predict turnover intentions of security guards (Hoxsey, 2010). By identifying the predictors of job satisfaction and addressing those predictors, employers may reduce turnover intentions of employees, resulting in less turnover and cost. For example, less employee turnover saves employers from the costs associated with advertising, screening, training, and hiring of new employees. In addition, retaining qualified employees maintains workforce stability and assists in assuring continuity of operations (Gupta, 2011). The results of the study may also provide recommendations for security organizations to include further leadership education to supervisors to strengthen standards and training (Howarth, 2011). Training is a goal to develop the necessary skills, attitude and knowledge to perform effectively in the work environment (Teage, Quin, Green, & Gahn, 2014). Training and development of both supervisors and employees increases their organizational commitment, resulting in stronger retention (Yamamoto, 2013). The role of employee training can be essential for improving performance and increase employee job satisfaction (Antoncic & Antoncic, 2011). Addressing lack of supervisory training and employee turnover intentions may focus on the potential economic problem with the cost of turnover, which may be a security vulnerability because of lack of trained employees to maintain continuity of operations (Johnston & Warner, 2010).

Definition of Key Terms

Facets of job satisfaction. Facets of job satisfaction include employee satisfaction with five aspects of a job, including work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Carter & Dalal, 2010).

Full range of leadership model. The full range of leadership model is a concept used to identify and define transactional, passive-avoidant and transformational leadership behaviors. Using the full range of leadership behaviors separates effective from ineffective leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive reaction to a job experience (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2012).

Passive-avoidant leadership. Passive-avoidant leadership describes leaders who characteristically do not lead and perceived as absent by their subordinates (Molero, Moriano, & Shaver, 2013).

Leadership style. Leadership style is how leaders interact with followers employing a combination of skills, traits, and behaviors (Iqbal, Inayat, & Zahid, 2012).

Morale. Morale is how staff or employees perceive their work environment relative to a sense of belonging and motivation to meet the organization's goals and objectives (Minor, Wells, Lambert, & Keller, 2014).

Retention. Retention describes employees' decision or intention to stay employed in an organization (Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2009; Larkin, Brasel, & Pines, 2013).

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is a relationship between supervisors and subordinates that is based on rewards and punishment (Bucic et al., 2010).

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is a relationship where subordinates are loyal and motivated to perform for the supervisor (Bucic et al., 2010).

Turnover. Turnover is defined as a voluntarily or involuntarily decision to leave an organization. Involuntary turnover occurs when the organization makes the decision to terminate the employee from the organization (Long & Thean, 2011).

Summary

Private security is an integral part of safety and security in the United States and abroad. Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting an 18% growth from 2022 to 2020 (Bureau of Labor, 2014). Turnover rates for security guards were estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying both economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). Job satisfaction is a leading indicator of turnover in positions similar to security guards, including correctional officers (Udechukwa, 2009) and police officers (Carlan, 2007). Other turnover intention indicators include satisfaction with the career system, promotion, pay, and morale (Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Toh, 2013). Overall job satisfaction consistently affects turnover (Pitts et al., 2011), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Abdullah et al., 2013). Employee turnover is a large challenge affecting human resources (Kazi & Zadeah, 2011) and is an important employment relations outcome for employees and organizations (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Employee retention is a critical issue for organizations because of increased costs (Allen et al., 2010). Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). Examining the ratings of leadership effectiveness and leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2012) and the predictors of job satisfaction may predict turnover intentions of security guards (Hoxsey, 2010).

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was correlated with the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. A quantitative research design was chosen for this study because the use of surveys can provide responses to questions using a numerical rating and are typically used to measure events difficult to directly observe (e.g., attitudes toward supervisors) (Cook & Cook, 2008). A nonexperimental design was chosen as the targeted supervisors of the proposed survey employees are already in place, and therefore, while participants will be randomly selected for participation, random assignment to a leader based on leadership style is not feasible.

The theoretical framework of the proposed quantitative, nonexperimental study seeks to determine if a security officers' overall job satisfaction differ based on security supervisors' leadership styles. The significance of the study is security guard operations typically take up a substantial part of a security department's budget with frequent turnover pools of employees (Campbell, 2009). The private security industry is noted for high turnover (Thumala, Goold, & Loader, 2011). High rates of turnover can be harmful to the performance of an organization and may raise transaction costs by requiring higher management-to worker ratios (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Turnover can be costly, though attention is sometimes overlooked because turnover is not always readily visible and is an indirect cost (McConnell, 2011). The literature review highlights job performance and employee turnover linked to job satisfaction. The analysis of security officers' responses will be used to describe characteristics relative to job satisfaction and retention. Job satisfaction appears to be linked to supervisor's leadership styles.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The following chapter summarizes previous research relative to this study. The private security industry is one of the largest growing industries, expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). However, turnover rates for security guards were estimated to be between 100%-200% per year (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009), which causes a problem in the industry as the turnover rates are significantly higher than turnover rates in similar criminal justice career fields. The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study is to determine the extent to which security officers' overall job satisfaction and retention differ based on security supervisors' leadership styles. A secondary purpose is to determine the predictability of turnover based on supervisors' leadership style and employee satisfaction with facets of the job.

The chapter begins with an introduction to the topic. The next topic area is the historical to current description of the private security industry. The next topic is turnover in the security industry followed by job satisfaction and morale in the security industry. The next topic is the full range leadership theory relative to the security industry followed by a summary.

Documentation

Relevant literature for discussion in this review was obtained by searching for published articles using databases, including ProQuest, EBSCO, Gale Academic OneFile, SAGE, Emerald, Business Source Premium, and Google Scholar, with search terms, such as leadership, turnover, retention, job satisfaction, morale, and employee motivation in the security industry. The literature search strategy initially included peer-reviewed journals related to management, leadership, psychology, criminal justice, and security.

However, because of the limited research on the security industry using only peer-reviewed journals, the search expanded to other journal articles, including primary, manuscript, published sources, along with secondary works, conference papers, and governmental studies. Intent of the literature search was 85% peer-reviewed articles within the last five years. Approximately 77% of the articles are within the past five years, and about 65% are peer-reviewed. The majority of the literature on leadership is current, with older, seminal works from secondary sources, including government sites, security-related journals, and professional organizations, such as the American Society for Industrial Security (ASIS).

The seminal works on security began in the early 1970's and 1980's, as contract security was on the rise, but virtually no studies were conducted on job satisfaction, morale, and turnover. Immediately following the terrorist attacks of 2001 in the U.S., private security began to grow as the government deployed to meet the threat overseas and a downsized military increased reliance on the private security industry (Godfrey, Brewis, Grady, & Grocott, 2013). Security officers provide services, such as guarding, monitoring premises, and patrolling to preclude violence, theft, or rule infractions (Strom et al., 2010). As a result of increased private and government security and subsequent scandals such as abuses in Abu Ghraib in 2004, killing of civilians in Baghdad in 2007, Blackwater security guards in Iraq in 2008, and campus security for racial profiling at Yale and Harvard University's in 2006 (Cohn, 2011; De Nevers, 2009; Enion, 2009), research began to address these and other security-related growing concerns.

Private Security Industry

In earlier centuries, protecting private property was the responsibility of the owners, who hired people to safeguard their property and formed the basis for private security services (McCrie, 2010). Paid security was widely used for centuries with the nature and quantity of contracting security changing over the twentieth and twenty-first centuries (Elms & Phillips, 2009). The origination of the private security industry can be traced to the early colonization of the United States, through the Revolutionary War, Civil War, the World Wars, and the Cold War. In the early 1850s, the United States government relied on private security to provide private intelligence and counterintelligence services (Waller, 2007). In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, professional private forces, such as Pinkerton, became in demand for security and order in the western part of the United States, and private security was the only national-level investigative force for nonspecific crimes in the United States until the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) was established in 1924 (Hess, 2009). The Pinkerton's private security agency also included executive protection for the U. S. President, conducted intelligence efforts for the Union forces during the U.S. Civil War, and for the next 25 years, provided security for mining operations against strikers (McCrie, 2010). Mid-19th-century private security companies were employed to police workers and impede unionizing efforts (Kumar, 2014). Private security involvement after the Cold War included services to protect against domestic and foreign terrorism (Weiss, 2007). Fiscal crisis of the 1970s and 1980s resulted in public police forces unable to sufficiently provide domestic security, creating a security vacuum filled by private security providers (White, 2011). Over the last decade, private security companies have been introduced

into markets less concerned with traditional security functions, but with areas traditionally conducted by public police forces (Van Steden & De Waard, 2013). Private security and private military and security companies are for-profit organizations specializing in service for private and public agencies and organizations (Walby & Lippert, 2013). In the U.S., as in many other countries, private security companies are increasingly conducting operations previously performed by the armed forces (Alexandra, 2012). The last 20 years has seen a re-emergence and increase in private security and military organizations (Godfrey, Brewis, Grady, & Grocott, 2013) in the areas of surveillance, risk analysis, and guarding with continuing growth in the near future (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2011). In 2010, the U.S. Department of Labor predicted private security guards would be more numerous than high school teachers (Perelman, 2010). Results from a 2014 security survey of 479 security end users and providers' shows spending on private security increased from \$282 million in 2012 to \$319 billion in 2013, with a projected \$341 billion in 2014, which is a 20% increase in two years. The federal homeland security spending budget for security services and goods is estimated at \$400 billion for 2014 (Gips, 2014). The rising demand for security, along with underfunded police forces has resulted in a surge of private security at both national and global levels (Kumar, 2014).

Even before the events of September 11, 2001, the federal government was concerned with the ability to protect critical infrastructure within the United States. In 1996, President Clinton published Executive Order 13010 that defined critical infrastructure and set the conditions for private industry to provide security to the federal government by identifying and consulting with the private sector to support, contribute,

or conduct security (Executive Order, 1996). Encouraging cooperation between the federal government and security-related contractors are 25 directives Homeland Security Presidential Directives (HSPD) relating to homeland security, including HSPD-8, which identifies steps for improved coordination in response operations, and HSPD-12, which established forms of identification for federal employees and contractors (Ritchey, 2010). Critical infrastructure and key resources as defined by the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) identified 18 areas that include the networks, systems, and assets that are vital to the safety, economic and physical security of the government, and economy of the United States (Fisher & Norman, 2010). The National Infrastructure Protection Plan (NIPP) provided a structured partnership between the government and private sector for protecting critical infrastructure and key resources (Ritchey, 2010). The private sector owns approximately 85% of the United States critical infrastructure and key resources (Busch & Givens, 2012), including telecommunications networks, energy production facilities, banking, and financial institutions (Berrick, 2010).

Private security is an integral part of safety and security in the United States and many other countries, with tens of thousands of private security companies both small and large, operating in regional and national locations throughout the world (Van Steden & De Waard, 2013). In the United States, following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the government with a deployed and subsequent downsized military increased reliance on the private security industry (Godfrey, Brewis, Grady, & Grocott, 2013). Security officers provided services, such as guarding, monitoring premises, and patrolling to preclude violence, theft, or rule infractions (Strom et al., 2010). Private security officers are employed in both a civilian and government capacity, conducting security

services in a wide variety of areas, such as guards in shopping malls, airports, schools, warehouses, residential facilities and government buildings (Berndtsson, 2012; Cooper, 2013; Wiatrowski, 2012) and are responsible for protecting many key and critical infrastructure sites and systems (Strom et al., 2010). Private security officers protect 15-20% of the critical infrastructure and key resources sites for the DHS (Margasak, 2007) and their roles are steadily increasing (Strom et al., 2010), expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Figure 1 represents the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics employment projections for security guards and similar job coding of gaming surveillance officers.

Figure 1. Employment Projections Data for Security Guards

Occupational Title	SOC Code	Employment, 2012	Projected Employment, 2022	Change Percent	2012-22 Numeric
Security guards and gaming surveillance officers	-	1,083,600	1,213,800	12	130,200
Gaming surveillance officers and gaming investigators	33-9031	9,300	10,000	7	600
Security guards	33-9032	1,074,300	1,203,900	12	129,600

Figure 1. Employment projections data for security guards and gaming surveillance officers, 2012-22. Adapted from “U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment Projections Program,” *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2014-2015 Edition*.

As a component of the criminal justice system, contract security is the largest employer in United States (Jaksa, 2012), and during the last two decades, outsourcing of security guards rose from 40% to 50% (Dube & Kaplan, 2010). In economic terms alone,

a necessity exists to separate public policing from safeguarding lives and physical property with private security (Cooper, 2013). Private operations might provide a reduced direct labor cost, usually arising from employing non-union employees who have more accommodating job assignments, cross-training and less overtime (Kish & Lipton, 2013). A Congressional Budget Office Report estimated 190,000 private security contractors providing services in Iraq (Bruneau, 2012) and 1,090,600 jobs for private security in the United States (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). An example is DynCorp, which has contracts with the U.S Departments' of Defense, Justice, and Treasury, along with the Drug Enforcement Agency, with over 17,500 employees and annual revenues exceeding \$1.3 billion (Andreopoulos & Brandle, 2012).

Studies conducted on private security relationships with law enforcement found 87.8% of law enforcement responders rated relationships good or excellent (Law Enforcement – Private Security Consortium, 2012), and 71% of high school students reported increased perceptions of feeling safer with private security guards at their school (Maskaly, Donnor, Lanterman, & Jennings, 2011). Most American college students have a positive attitude towards private security (van Steden & Nall, 2010). Data from the School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey found an increase in the use of private security guards and law enforcement in schools as a response to the Columbine High School shootings on April 20, 1999 (Addington, 2009; Theriot, 2009). School response measures to violence are categorized as preventive actions or security, with security including security guards, surveillance cameras, and other communication devices (DeAngelis & Brent, 2010). The 2007 School Crime Supplement highlights security guards have a positive impact with certain types of peer victimization, such as

bullying and vandalism (Blosnich & Bossarte, 2011). School leaders are under pressure to promote school safety, which has resulted in an increased presence of security guards and law enforcement officers (Irby & Thomas, 2013). The presence of armed, trained security and law enforcement officers who can respond quickly to a crime is key to saving lives (Clark, 2011).

Police departments and private security are collaborating and sharing information, acknowledging the legal authority of police officers combined with the resources and technical expertise of private security, creating a successful relationship for emergency response efforts (Strom et al., 2010). The view of police officers in the United States and emerging economies, such as South Korea, towards security personnel is positive, and police officers are supportive of their working relationships with security personnel (Nalla & Johnson, 2011). Many security officers view themselves as team players with police and do not see their work much different from police work, though in a smaller environment (Manzo, 2010). However, many clients and users of security guards perceive their services as a simple, semiskilled occupation and are unwilling to pay wages equal with the actual qualifications (Eick, 2011).

Many aspects of police initiatives have migrated to the private security industry as the market for safety, security services, and investigations has increased significantly due to the reduction in police forces because of budget cuts (Zalud, 2011). Risk analysis includes security guards along with intrusion detection devices, camera systems and access control to mitigate risk (Speight, 2010). Moreover, in many metropolitan police departments in the United States, more than half of the police officers in some capacity supplement their income employed in private security (White, 2011). Outsourcing

private security is on the rise as overhead costs to businesses and governments are costly, such as training expenses, buying uniforms and equipment, and liability insurance is cheaper and more efficient from private contract security (Lind, 2012). Private security officers outnumber police officers three to one in the United States, and guarding federal buildings increases and allow fixed costs for law enforcement organizations (Busch & Givens, 2011). Many police buildings are guarded by private security (Briken, 2011). The federal government has increased use of contract security, as the United States Federal Protective Service employs more than 15,000 contract security guards to supplement physical security services at government facilities, such as courthouses, Veterans Affairs buildings, and Internal Revenue Service buildings (Schenkel, 2009), and over the last decade, relying almost exclusively on contract security (Roberts, 2012). The public views private security on a daily basis as screeners at airports, mall security guards, and guards at government buildings (Cooper, 2013). Security is also viewed in terms of crime prevention, risk management, loss prevention and security technology (Brooks, 2010). A most recent example is a private security company providing security services during the London 2012 Olympic Games (van Steden & De Waard, 2013).

The increased role of private security for government agencies has not been without challenges and criticism. The 1893 Pinkerton Prohibition Act was enacted to prohibit private security contracts with the federal government because of a series of improprieties (Weiss, 2007), until a loophole in the late 1960s allowed government contracts to employ *guards* instead of *detectives* (Weiss, 2007). Immediately following the attacks on September 11, 2001 and the deployment of military personnel overseas, President Bush authorized the Secretary of Defense to allow the use of private contract

security for military installations for a limited period (Bob Stump Defense Reauthorization Act of 2003, 2002). In post September 11, 2001 attacks, the United States increased the use of private contract security overseas, with estimates between 126,000 (Elms & Phillips, 2009), and 190,000 contractors used in Iraq (Bruneau, 2012). Because of the rapid growth of private security and government studies to address shortfalls, such as hiring of qualified security officers (GAO, 2006), Congress enacted a bill to permit reviews of criminal records for private security employees using FBI databases and imposed an ending of contractual services for military installations in December 2012 (Private Security Employment Act, 2003). Critics of private security cite a possible lack of public accountability of private organizations and governing using private rather than regulated public security and police agencies (van Steden & De Waare, 2013). Other findings critical of private security guards include accusations of human rights and civil liberties violations associated with private security agents. Violations such as abuses in Abu Ghraib by in 2004, killing of civilians in Baghdad in 2007, Blackwater security guards in Iraq in 2008, and campus security for racial profiling at Yale and Harvard University's in 2006 (Cohn, 2011; De Nevers, 2009; Enion, 2009). The White House responded to several aspects of this negative contractor behavior, particularly addressing private security in 2009 as not allowing functions that are *inherently governmental activities* being outsourced to private contractors (Cohn, 2011; Tiefer, 2013). Critiques also include the secrecy many private security companies use, as they are shielded by proprietary information protection, particularly in the international environment (Andreopoulos & Brandle, 2012).

The security industry is noted for an absence of a professional status because of a lack of licensing, certification and processes to identify ethical breaches or a revocation authority (Adolf, 2012). Licensing requirements for private security in the U.S. varies significantly from state to state, and the state regulatory agencies vary considerably within each state. A perspective exists that stringent licensing requirements may limit competition as opposed to enhancing quality (Meehan & Benson, 2014). However, a deficiency was identified in the international community indicating more guidance and oversight was needed for private security contractors (Strickland, 2011). Under the guidance of the Swiss government, security companies and non-governmental organizations agreed on a code to provide guidance for security contractors (Biron, 2013). The international community's code addressed preventing human rights violations from private security companies by developing an International Code of Conduct for Private Security Service Providers (Clapham & Zellweger, 2013). The International Code of Conduct for Private Security Service prepared a 16-page code of conduct, which provides measurable standards for oversight and governance, with 58 private security companies signing in November 2010 (Crook, 2011). Figure 2 provides the goals of the November 2010 international code of conduct for private security service providers.

Figure 2. International Code of Conduct

Signatory companies commit to the following as set forth in this Code:	Those establishing this Code recognize that this Code acts as a founding instrument for a broader initiative to create better governance, compliance and accountability. Recognizing that further effort is necessary to implement effectively the principles of this Code, Signatory Companies accordingly commit to work with states, other Signatory Companies, Clients and other relevant stakeholders after initial endorsement of this Code to, within 18 months:
a. to operate in accordance with this Code;	a. Establish objective and measurable standards for providing Security Services based upon this Code, with the objective of realizing common and internationally-recognized operational and business practice standards; and
b. to operate in accordance with applicable laws and regulations, and in accordance with relevant corporate standards of business conduct;	b. Establish external independent mechanisms for effective governance and oversight, which will include Certification of Signatory Companies' compliance with the Code's principles and the standards derived from the Code, beginning with adequate policies and procedures, Auditing and Monitoring of their work in the field, including Reporting, and execution of a mechanism to address alleged violations of the Code's principles or the standards derived from the Code; and thereafter to consider the development of additional principles and standards for related services, such as training of external forces, the provision of maritime security services and the participation in operations related to detainees and other protected persons.
c. to operate in a manner that recognizes and supports the rule of law; respects human rights, and protects the interests of their clients;	
d. to take steps to establish and maintain an effective internal governance framework in order to deter, monitor, report, and effectively address adverse impacts on human rights;	
e. to provide a means for responding to and resolving allegations of activity that violates any applicable national or international law or this Code; and	
f. to cooperate in good faith with national and international authorities exercising proper jurisdiction, in particular with regard to national and international investigations of violations of national and international criminal law, of violations of international humanitarian law, or of human rights abuses.	

Figure 2. The goals of the International Code of Conduct are to provide private security

industry standards worldwide and establish oversight and governance. Adapted from

“International Code of Conduct for Private Security Service Providers,” p. 157.

<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/150711.pdf>. U.S. Department of State website.

The American Society for Industrial Security International (ASIS) is an organization for security professionals, with more than 38,000 members worldwide. ASIS was founded in 1955, and along with developing educational programs and materials addressing broad security interests, ASIS advocates roles and values of the security management profession to business, the media, government entities, and the public (ASIS, 2014). ASIS provides guidelines to establish minimum standards to assist in the selection and training of private security officers, including training on ethics, honesty, and professional image (ASIS, 2010). Figure 3 provides ASIS recommendations for U.S. States to regulate private security.

Figure 3. State Regulation of Private Security

Subject	Recommendations – Consideration should be given to the establishing:
Regulatory Body Oversight/ Enforcement	A regulatory body, operating under the direction and within the framework of a state agency for both proprietary and contract security entities.
State Fees to Support Enforcement Process	Fees commensurate with the effort necessary to process applications for registration/licensure/renewal to be used by the regulatory body to manage the department and enforce the regulations. Enforcement should include inspection, administrative fines for violations of the state statute and the implementation of regulations, sanctions, and criminal violations in certain instances.
Licensee-in-Charge Qualifying Agent Registration	Requirements for licensee-in-charge/qualifying agent (e.g., education, experience, written exam) for both proprietary and contract security entities.
Insurance	Requirements for licensee-in-charge/qualifying agent liability insurance (e.g., minimum of \$1,000,000 per occurrence).
Individual Security Officer Registration/ License	A requirement for regulatory bodies to issue private security officer registration/licenses, which should include a photograph and other relevant identification information for proprietary and security personnel.
Private Security Officer Registration/ License	A requirement for registration/licensure of all private security officers.
Background Investigations	A requirement that all candidates must successfully pass a background investigation prior to registration/licensure as a security officer.
Pre-Assignment, Post-Assignment, and Annual Training	A requirement for private security officer training (pre-assignment; on-the-job; on-going/refresher/annual courses, to include periodic documented training according to manufacturer’s recommendations on lethal weapons, tactics, and techniques).
Armed Security Officer Training	Additional training requirements for armed security officer training – classroom, range safety, course-of-fire, with a demonstration of practical skills (including retention, loading, unloading, clearing of a malfunction including a failure to feed, stovepipe, and double feed under duress), re-certification policy, instructor qualifications, etc. Additionally, security officers should receive training in deadly force, and less than deadly force.

Figure 3. Recommended practices for the development of minimum recommendations for the private security industry to meet selection and training criteria from state to state to provide controls and procedures for the providers of private security. Adapted from “Private Security Officer Selection and Training Guidelines” American Society of Industrial Security International 2010, ASIS GDL PSO-2010, pp 4-5. Copyright 2010 by the American Society of Industrial Security International.

Security officers should have a clear understanding of limitations on the power associated with exercising their respective guard functions (Cooper, 2013). Security managers should exhibit proper ethical behavior, as poor ethical decisions may result in security guard unethical behavior, failure to respond to incidents, and potential for civil liability (Adolph, 2012). Ethics and morals are a cohesive and internalized form of self-regulation guided by core principles of right and wrong that are not influenced by organizations, groups or peer pressures (Tonkin, 2013). Research has resulted in findings of ethical leadership as predictors of employee job satisfaction and with supervisors and perceptions of leadership efficiency (Sharif & Scandura, 2014). Unethical climates within organizations reduces job satisfaction and increases frustration among its employees, thereby increasing turnover (Pierce & Snyder, 2015). Conversely, the concept of Machiavellianism in relation to ethics, is the individual characteristics that predispose an employee's inclination to manipulate others and participate in unethical behavior (Effelesberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014; Zetler & Solgar, 2013). Because of this potential to cheat and manipulate others, a negative association exists between Machiavellianism from an ethical perspective and job performance (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). Private security contractors may be motivated for wealth and profit as opposed to a just cause as with a professional military; however, these intentions do not necessarily affect their ethical intentions (Machairas, 2014). Some studies have shown private security employees are more focused and motivated by extrinsic factors, such as money and success, as opposed to intrinsic motivation of contributing to society (van Steden, van Der Mal, and Lasthuizen, 2015). The security industry should adhere to a professional structure, including continuing education, examinations, certification by an

association, and a code of ethics (Thumala et al., 2011). Ethics in this context is whereby employees transform themselves to operate at a higher level of values and morals to improve themselves and job performance (Levine & Boaks, 2014). Ethical climates of organization can have both a positive and negative effect. Ethical climates in traditional criminal justice organizations, such as police and corrections, center on maintaining order, control, and discipline (Biggs & Naimi, 2012). Ethical codes or models provide a standard for not only appropriate conduct, but also set a behavioral structure for employees to follow (Bayley, 2012). Leadership styles are all rooted in some set of values, and improvements in organizations should provide greater ethical clarity for employees (Burnes & By, 2012). A model for establishing a quality culture in private security companies uses the mission and vision of the organization with a conceptual framework of values as a critical component. The framework values such as: equality, opportunity, integrity, honesty, discipline, loyalty, professionalism, social responsibility, open and honest communication, diversity, involvement and commitment from all employees, leadership and vision from the top (Kokt, 2009). Figure 4 is an ethics in security management model that identifies applying ethical behaviors to security management decisions.

Figure 4. Ethics in Security Management Model



Figure 4. Ethical decision making model of applying varying standards, customs, laws, liabilities, and organizational values to assist in the security management decision making process. Adapted from “Ethics in Security Management: Development of a Theoretical Model,” by D. Adolf, 2012, *Journal of Applied Security Research*, 18, p. 47. Copyright 2012 by Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group. Reprinted with permission.

Questions concerning the legal framework of constitutional protections of the growing variety of services provided by private contractors and public police, such as collecting evidence and other methods not available or more restrictive to public police officers (Strickland, 2011). Problematic are the challenges associated with the increased role in governance and accountability of private security (Manzo, 2011). Police at times,

create anxiety and fear, largely because of aggressive policing, such as the New York Police Department in the 1990s, however; private security officers in areas such as shopping malls, provide public reassurance from a less aggressive uniform presence (Rowland & Coupe, 2012). In hospital emergency department situations, the presence of security officers wearing their uniforms reduced workplace violence (Menendez, Gillespie, Gates, Miller, & Howard, (2012).

Training is a goal to develop the necessary skills, attitude and knowledge to perform effectively in the work environment (Teage, Quin, Green, & Gahn, 2014). Training and development of employees increases their organizational commitment, resulting in stronger retention (Yamamoto, 2013). A recurring theme associated with private security is the perceived lack of training, low wages, and high turnover have a negative effect on the security industry's performance and reputation (Thumala, Goold, & Loader, 2011). Though security is considered a component of the criminal justice system, searching a variety of databases found virtually no studies or academic articles pertaining to security, including leadership styles or turnover (Strom et al., 2010; Jaksa, 2102). Research indicates lack of leader training and mentorship in the security industry is related to inadequate funding because security traditionally did not have training and mentor programs (Magestro, 2013). Moreover, during budget cuts, management typically reduces high-cost services, such as the security guard force (Kotwich & Blades, 2012). Police officers' conduct many of the same functions and duties as security guards; however, police have more extensive training and authority (Wiatrowski, 2012). Security guards agree for an increase in training in areas such as arrest, search and seizure (Lim & Nalla, 2014). Training standards for security guards have not had any significant

increases since 1982, and many U.S. states do not have any training standards (Henion & Nalla, 2014). In the foundation works of the *Hallcrest Report II* on private security trends and recommendations (Cunningham, 1990), despite improvements by private security, most officers only received from four to six hours of training (Manzo, 2011). The focus of a Government Accountability Office (GAO) and Congressional Research Services report between 2007 and 2011 on the Federal Protective Service reliance on contract security resulted in identifying a need for additional training of security guards at federal installations (Roberts, 2012). Training standards were established for government security contractors with contractors required to conduct 64 hours of basic training, 32 hours of live firearms training, and eight hours of classroom firearms training and basic baton training, with an additional eight hours of standards training and x-ray magnetometer training (GAO, 2009). However, the Federal Protective Service was noted not providing oversight of contract security training, including monitoring and verifying training certifications (Reese & Tong, 2010).

Criticisms in the literature reflect the competence and characteristics of the security industry, particularly with contract private contract security (van Steden & Nalla, 2010). Coupled with the lack of training standards, the security industry is lacking in ethics in security management and cited as a management function as opposed to specific security educational knowledge categories at the security guard level (Brooks, 2010).

Turnover in the Private Security Industry

Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting an 18% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Despite rapid growth in employment, the security industry has high annual turnover (Thumala et al.,

2011; Van Steden & Nalla, 2010). Turnover is often regarded as a main indicator of organizational ineffectiveness (Jung, 2010). Turnover rates for security guards were estimated to be between 100%-200% per year (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). By comparison, turnover rates for correctional officers are estimated at 10-29% with an estimated 5% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Stinchcomb et al., 2009). Law enforcement officer turnover is estimated at 33% with an estimated 7% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Terra, 2009). Putting some of the criminal justice and public safety industry turnover rates in perspective, nurses average about 12%, and teachers average about 13% turnover (Matz, Woo, & Kim, 2014). Numerous studies inclusive of the security industry in the criminal justice field have established causal linkages between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover (Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013).

Turnover rates are generally determined by dividing the number of employees leaving the workforce size, including separation rates. The numerator includes total number of employees who leave during the period and the denominator is the average of beginning and ending values. However, separation rates have no maximum as turnover among replacements may allow the numerator to exceed the denominator, thus turnover rates can be in excess of 100%. Involuntary turnover includes only those separations originated by the organization, such as dismissals and terminations (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011).

High rates of turnover can be harmful to the performance of an organization and may raise transaction costs by requiring higher management-to-worker ratios (Batt & Colvin, 2011; Park & Shaw, 2013). Turnover can be costly, though attention is sometimes overlooked because turnover is not always readily visible and is an indirect

cost (McConnell, 2011). Employee turnover is one of the most serious problems that can threaten the development and stability of an organization (Wang, Wang, Xu & Ji, 2014). The average employee may have as many as eight jobs between the ages of 22 and 44, with historical trends indicating a significant amount of employees will leave their current jobs for new opportunities as the job market improves (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011). Turnover cost is an economic problem and a serious security vulnerability (Johnston & Warner, 2010), weakening security standards and training (Howarth, 2011). Private security is noted as a low paying job with high turnover (Henion & Nalla, 2014), offering little stability, employment security, and appears easy to get a job in the industry but also easy to exit (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013).

High turnover cost in the security industry includes advertising, interview time, background checks, hiring, new employee processing, and training (ASIS, 2008; Yongbeom, 2012). Research indicated turnover costs might account for as much as 5% of an organization's annual operating budget (Harvey, Harris, & Martinko, 2008). The Institute of Financial Management conducted a survey of 18 security departments on wages and found security organizations spend an average of \$2,181 in costs to hire new security officers ("Are you paying enough," 2012). High turnover also includes indirect costs to an organization, such as lost productivity and loss of customers (Kochanski & Sorensen, 2008). Security guard operations typically take up a substantial part of a security department's budget with frequent turnover pools of employees (Campbell, 2009). Organization costs are higher in service-related industries where employees are in direct contact with clients and citizens (Made, 2014). Personnel costs are rated as the highest concerns for security directors ("Are you paying enough," 2012). Turnover is

one of the first or second major concerns among police chiefs (Yongbeom, 2012).

Employee turnover has further implications for the individual employee leaving the workforce, such as losing personal connections and changing known routines (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). Relationships are important to address work outcomes of turnover and job performance (Dane & Brummel, 2013). New employees have a desire for acceptance and establish a positive relationship with their supervisors and co-workers along with a sense of perceived organizational support (Allen & Shanock, 2013).

Employees may be embedded to stay within a career field, such as contract security, but may not stay with an organization because of not being embedded to the particular organization, thus contributing to turnover or retirement (Johnson, Sachau, & Englert, 2010). Moreover, employees who have high turnover intentions towards their organization tend to perform more poorly on the job (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011).

Both voluntary and involuntary turnover also impairs organizational performance, signaling problems in the quality of the workforce (Batt & Colvin, 2011; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011; Park & Shaw, 2012; Yongbeom, 2012). Evidence suggest that outsourced security officers exhibit higher turnover than in-house staff (Marin, 2013), though in-house staff may be an additional 30% of the base salary and is the most expensive in terms of labor cost (Vogus & Suttcliffe, 2012). Studies examining turnover in the security industry characterize low pay and poor benefits as the leading causes of turnover (Law Enforcement - Private Security Consortium, 2012; Lim & Nalla, 2014) indicating pay is one of the most important aspects for attracting and retaining a workforce (Gupta, 2011). Pay affects employees' behavior and attitude, therefore affecting organizational

effectiveness (Antoni & Syrek, 2012). Low pay in the private sector of correctional officers, similar to security officers, has been shown to increase turnover among employees (Kish & Lipton, 2013). Comparing median salaries for similar occupations revealed that security guards make almost half less annually than their counterparts do in other protective service occupations with the same entry-level education (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). The annual median pay for security guards in 2012 was \$24,020 while the annual median salaries for similar protective service occupations, such as private detectives and investigators was \$42,740; police and detectives was \$56,980; and correctional officers was \$38,970 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Figure 5 represents the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics annual median pay comparisons between security guards and similar protective service occupations.

Figure 5. Annual median pay comparisons between security guards and similar protective service occupations, 2012.

Occupation	Entry-Level Education	Median Pay	Pay Percent Difference
Security Guard	High school diploma or equivalent	\$24,020	
Private Detective and Investigator	High school diploma or equivalent	\$42,740	-43.80%
Police Officer and Detective	High school diploma or equivalent	\$56,980	-57.84%
Correctional Officer	High school diploma or equivalent	\$38,970	-38.36%

Figure 5. Annual median pay comparisons between security guards and similar

protective service occupations. Adapted from “U.S. Bureau of labor Statistics, Security Guards and Gaming Officials.” Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2014-2015 Edition.

<http://www.bls.gov/ooh/protective-service/security-guards.htm> (Nov, 2014).

Studies indicated that 60-70% of turnover for correctional officers is due to better pay and job opportunities (Lambert, 2010) and 33% of law enforcement have left for

better paying jobs (Terra, 2009). Perceptions of employee job security, which creates a stable work environment, has shown to increase retention (Yamamoto, 2013). Job satisfaction has been identified as an important factor in studies examining turnover and effects on employees' intentions to quit from their job (Long & Thean, 2011; Yin-Fah et al., 2010) along with dissatisfaction with their leaders (Cicero et al., 2010). Negative relationships with both coworkers and supervisors contribute to turnover intentions and actual turnover (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011). When employees leave their organization, they are leaving their supervisors, and not necessarily the organization (El Badaway & Bassiorny, 2014). The National Trades Union Congress warns the security sector may incur high staff turnover and low morale because of dissatisfied officers (Toh, 2013). However, organizational identification is related to turnover intentions and appears to be beneficial as the more employees identify with the organization; the less likely they are to leave an organization (Johnson, Sachau, & Englert, 2010). Additionally, some employees become attached to their supervisors and form an attachment security, which is described as trust, with positive expectations and appraisals of self and others (Lavy, 2014). Career development and retention plans to account for the value an employee brings to an organization are indicators for reducing turnover and increasing retention (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011). Perceptions of fairness, satisfaction with pay, job satisfaction including satisfaction with supervisors are links related to turnover (Bernardin, Richey, & Castro, 2011). Conversely, a low to moderate level of turnover can benefit an organization by bringing in new or better-trained employees (Jung, 2010). Leadership styles influence employee turnover

intentions, along with organizational effectiveness and workforce stabilization (Hamstra et al., 2011; McCleskey, 2014).

Job Satisfaction and Morale

Job satisfaction is one of the most common researched concepts for research in the field of management and organizations (Chaudhuri & Naskar, 2013), and regarded as the most widely used predictor of intentions to quit in many models of employee turnover (Allisey, Noblet, Lamontagne, & Houdmont, 2014). Job satisfaction usually involves attitudes, feelings and emotions about a job, and how these attitudes, feelings and emotions affect the job and the employee's personal life (Vatsa, 2013). Job satisfaction focuses on the feelings an employee has about the job and is fundamentally the effective orientation the employee has towards the work itself (Tonkin, 2013). Job satisfaction includes not only feelings about the job itself, but also different aspects of the job, including relationships with supervisors, co-workers and pay (Scheers & Botha, 2014). Research has shown conflicts in relationships have a negative effect on job performance and satisfaction (Lau & Cobb, 2010). Many employee turnover themes suggest job satisfaction has an important role in the process leading to employee turnover, retention, and increased or decreased job performance (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Mahfood, Pollack, & Longmire, 2013). Turnover is also associated with employees' feelings of tension associated with not belonging to an organization's culture or co-workers (Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012). The loss of job security and lack of job satisfaction has led many employees having less loyalty to an organization and switching jobs, resulting in organizations placing emphasis on retention of quality employees (Maden, 2014). Employees engaged in their jobs have higher levels of job

satisfaction, more commitment to their organization and lower turnover intentions (El Badawy & Bassiourny, 2014).

Ethical leadership is often viewed as a positive influence of job satisfaction where employees' perception of an ethical climate contributes to organizational commitment (Sharif & Sandura, 2014). Ethical leadership has a direct influence on job satisfaction and employees' intention to leave or stay with an organization (Palanski, Avey, & Jirapron, 2014). Employees who perceive being socially excluded or experience rejection by supervisors or co-workers are indicators for low job satisfaction and voluntary turnover (Renn, Allen, & Huning, 2013). When a need to belong is not met, employees may experience an emotional and behavioral deprivation that can influence their decision for voluntary turnover (Coyne, Nelson, Robinson, & Gunerdsen, 2011). Low job satisfaction is a trigger that leads an employee to search for job alternatives (Palanski, Avey, & Jirapron, 2014). Low levels of job satisfaction along with job burnout are detrimental to both organizations and their employees (Diestel, Wegge, & Schmidt, 2014). A number of researchers have studied job satisfaction as a predictor of turnover and stress, with job satisfaction as the most significant predictor of job stress (Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2010). Many policing studies examine the role of job satisfaction and job stress relative to intentions to quit, though research suggests support from supervisors and peers are associated with officer satisfactory levels (Allisey, Noblet, Lamontagne, & Houdmont, 2014). The lack of supervisor support is important, as poor supervisor – employee communication can increase stress levels in the workplace (DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012). The effect of job stress is an indicator of burnout and job turnover (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Job stress can reduce both the

quality of interaction between staff members and harm the health and well-being of employees (Paoline & Lambert, 2011). Burnout is an employee being exhausted and psychologically worn out from the job that occurs over time from factors associated with the workplace (Lambert, Hogan, Cheeseman, Jiang, & Khondaker, 2011). Job burnout may include lessening feelings of personal accomplishments, emotional exhaustions, and a sense of depersonalization, where employees are indifferent towards the workplace, co-workers and employers (Diestel, Wegge, & Schmidt, 2014). Positive attachment patterns of employees with their supervisors are associated with better relationships and less work-related stress and burnout (Lavy, 2014; Ronen & Mikulincer, (2010). Supervisors are critical to employees for guidance, feedback, support, and many aspects of supervisory relationships may contribute to adverse effects of the well-being of the employee, including job satisfaction (Nahum-Shani, Henderson, Lim & Vinokur, 2014).

Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). Job satisfaction has long been used as an important research construct in organization and group management (Thompson & Phua, 2012; Van Ryzin, 2012), and investigations of job satisfaction assist managers in understanding employees' attitudes and perceptions that may affect their job satisfaction (Jernigan & Beggs, 2010). Job satisfaction is often linked to motivation and positive employee outcomes (Sledge, Miles, & Van Sambeek, 2011) and lower levels of job stress (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Job stress and feelings of work-related anxiety is high in policing (Johnson, 2012). A component of job satisfaction focuses on expected rewards, which are categorized as extrinsic rewards for job performance, such as pay and

promotions, and intrinsic rewards, which is rewards associated with the job itself, such as developing new skills (Linz & Semykina, 2012).

Job involvement is associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and negatively with turnover intent (Paoline & Lambert, 2011). Employee disengagement by leaders is one of the most contributing factors employee poor performance, lack of job satisfaction and low morale (Cowart, 2014). Supervisor feedback has been shown to predict satisfaction with employees, but may not be necessarily true of overall job satisfaction (Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012). In early 2010, the US Bureau of Labor Statistics found more employees voluntarily left their jobs, exceeding the number of employees who were fired or discharged (Moreland, 2013).

However, job satisfaction in both the public and private sector may increase with a sense of national purpose, such as exhibited during World War II and the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks (Gross, Brewer, & Aday, 2009; Van Ryzin, 2012). A General Social Survey (GSS) by the National Data Program for the Social Sciences is a probability survey conducted every other even year since 1972 of United States full-time workers, with the focus between 2002 through 2004 to represent the post September 11, 2001 period. The results indicate that September 11, 2001 had a significant effect on government works for some time after the attacks (Smith, Marsden, & Hout, 2011; Van Ryzin, 2012). Figure 6 represents data from a GSS indicating an increase in government job satisfaction following the September 11, 2001 attacks.

Figure 6. Work Satisfaction

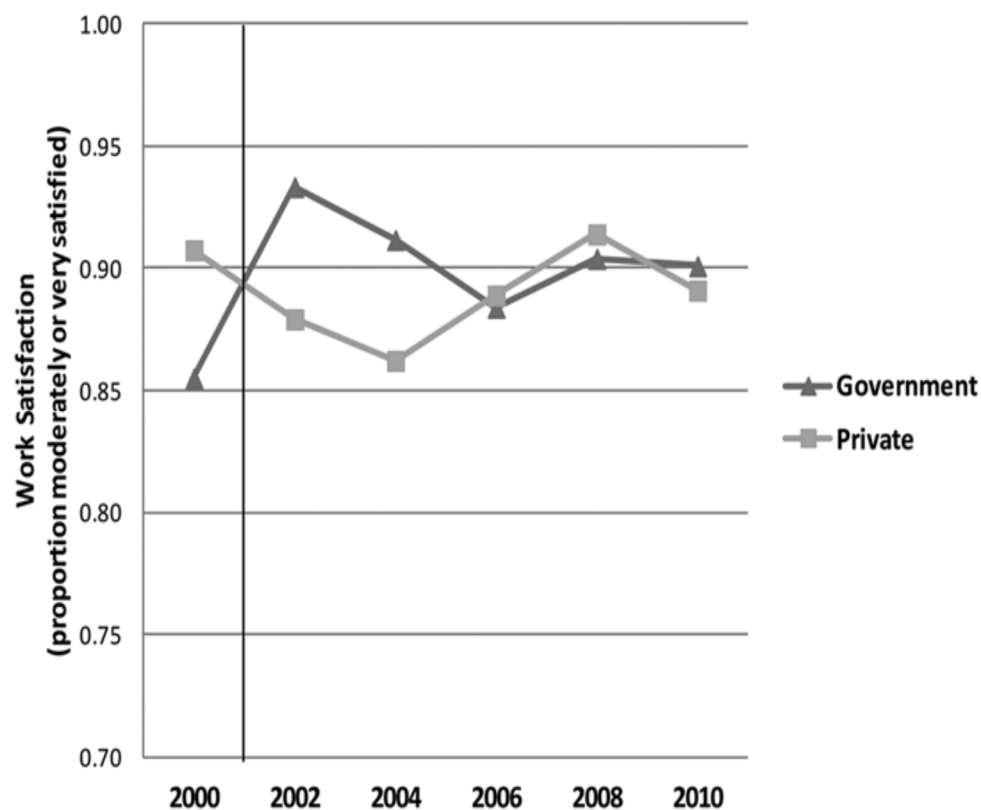


Figure 6. Work satisfaction. Proportion satisfied with the work they do. Note: Vertical line indicates the 9-11 attacks. Weighted results from the General Social Survey (GSS). Adapted from “The curious case of the post-9-11 boost in government job satisfaction,” by G.G. Van Ryzen, 2012, *American Review of Public Administration*, 44, p. 66. Reprinted with permission.

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive reaction to a job experience (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2012). The US Office of Personnel Management conducted a Federal Employee Viewpoint Study (FEVS) of 11,000 employees of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) in 2012 and found the Transportation Security Agency security officers scored 11.6 percent below the DHS average level on job satisfaction and morale (Apaza, 2013). The low employee survey data indicated many DHS employees

report being dissatisfied with their jobs (“Details matter,” 2013). Employees, who perceive their supervisors fulfill relational obligations of providing necessary support, are more likely to experience job satisfaction (Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999; McDonald & Makin, 2000; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994); increasing organizational commitment (Antoni & Syrek, 2012). A Government Accountability Office survey in 2012 measuring employee satisfaction of effective leadership by supervisors in the federal government found employee satisfaction down slightly with 82% in 2012 from the last three years of 83% (GAO, 2012).

Morale is defined as a component of job satisfaction, describing *how good* an employee feels about the job’s work environment (Jewczyn, 2010) and measuring employee attitude and the relationship between manager and employee (Behm, 2009). Morale in the workplace refers to feelings of being happy, cheerful, and enthusiastic about their work and co-workers (Dollard, Osborne, & Manning, 2013). Morale is how staff or employees perceive their work environment relative to a sense of belonging and motivation to meet the organization’s goals and objectives (Minor et al., 2014). Good morale is healthy for an organization and is related to better work predictors, less turnover and directly associated to attitudes towards supervisors and relations with coworkers (Minor et al., 2014). Employee morale can have a positive or negative effect on the employee’s productivity in the workplace (Murrell-Jones, 2012). Morale, as described in the social sciences, regards morale as a feature of a group, however, in the context of security guard morale includes both individual and group morale (Peterson, Park & Sweeney, 2008). A foundation of morale in the workplace is the sense of job security, coupled with employers providing an environment employee are proud to work

and be associated with a productive team (Carrison, 2014). Employee morale is an important trait for employers, as an employee performs better, when self-motivated (Shahu, Gole, & Agashe, 2010). Organizations that do not address or pay little attention to employee morale and welfare display ineffective productivity (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011).

The FEVS of employees of the DHS in 2012 indicated senior leaders and supervisors might attribute low morale to a lack of policies, practices, and concerns (Maura, 2013). Supervisors are critical to employees for providing guidance, feedback, and support, and many aspects of supervisory relationships may contribute to the adverse effects of the well-being of the employees, including job satisfaction (Nahum-Shani, Henderson, Lim & Vinokur, 2014). Satisfaction and morale are linked to positive work environments (Dike, 2012), and findings suggest that overall job satisfaction consistently affects employee turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Kazi & Zadeh, 2011) and turnover intentions (Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011). Morale and job satisfaction of employees affect retention rates (Psunder, 2009), and organizations with high morale have lower employee turnover (Peterson, Park, & Sweeney, 2008; Stowe, 2009). A study of 14 police departments in Pennsylvania revealed officer perceptions of department morale were shown to significantly impact the levels of overall job satisfaction (Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011). The federal government measures retention by taking 100% of personnel minus the attrition rate, which is the number of separations divided by an average of current personnel strength (GAO, 2012). Dissatisfied officers are far more likely to leave an organization (Udechukwu, 2009), and excessive turnover can negatively affect the morale of the remaining employees (Lambert & Hogan, 2009;

Minor, Wells, Angel, & Katz, 2011). Many security guards perceive their low economic and social situations as indicative of their failure to achieve higher paying positions and being exploited by management (Briken, (2011). Employee motivation is an important factor in improving employee morale (Sandya & Kumar, 2011). Improving employee morale has a positive impact on reducing turnover and increasing retention (Allen et al., 2010; Hoxesy, 2010), while low morale of security officers includes frustration with management and can result in high employee turnover (Cromer, 2012).

Human resources cost cutting measures, though necessary during periods of a recession or economic slowdowns, may significantly affect employee morale (Salary & Wages, 2009). Security organizations that pay employees lower wages to reduce costs to attain contracts have lower morale and job satisfaction rates among their employees with higher turnover rates (Anderson, 2010). Lower pay is linked to higher turnover in the private guard industry (Kish & Lipton, 2013). Lack of merit wages or bonuses can further cause a decline in employee morale and lower performance levels, as the effects of monetary rewards have been shown to increase job satisfaction (Pouliakas, 2010). Employee satisfaction and motivation studies occurring after the Hawthorne studies in the mid-20th century resulted in outcomes of increased motivation and job satisfaction including job rotation of workers, though costing employers in terms of additional work and dollars (Casad, 2012). However, employee job satisfaction is also related to feelings of accomplishment from a job, and may not be related with needs such as receiving pay or other dimensions of satisfaction (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2012).

Related to job performance and turnover is abusive leadership behaviors by supervisors (Tsung-Yu & Changya, 2009). Abusive supervision is in direct conflict with

ethical leadership, and has a negative effect on both job satisfaction intentions to quit an organization, increasing turnover (Palanski, Avey, & Jirapron, 2014). Employees will exhibit higher morale if they perceive fair treatment from their supervisors, even in a less than ideal workplace (Snyder, Carmichael, Blackwell, & Cleveland, 2010), and the leaders' positive involvement and challenges will enhance employees feelings of job satisfaction (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2013). Moral stress may include emotional reactions to unethical behavior and affect the employee both psychologically and physically (DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012). Organizations that have no consideration for employee morale suffer great productivity losses (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011), and when employees are unhappy with their supervisors' behavior, employee morale can decrease, resulting in increased turnover (Dike, 2012). Workforce bullying by managers and supervisors is a problem for employees and considered a severe cause of stress at work and contributing factor in low morale and job satisfaction (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Leal-Rodríguez, & Leal-Millán, 2014). Abusive leadership styles contribute to high levels of employee burnout (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010; Tsung-Yu & Changya, 2009), higher turnover intentions and negatively affect work-related attitudes (Ertureten, Cemalcilar, & Aycan, 2013). An important part contributing to job satisfaction is a leader's role in building a civil workplace (Porath & Pearson, 2010). A supervisor's poor treatment of an employee or discontented behavior as perceived by the employee has a significant relationship with employee turnover then independent conflicts or even bullying (Hershcovis, 2011). Another type of negative leadership behavior is *toxic leadership*, which is a lay description for bad leaders who exhibit negative leadership, including destructive and narcissistic leadership behaviors

and indicative of abusive supervisors (Gallus, Walsh, Van Driel, Gouge & Antolic, 2013; Harms et al., 2011). Senior executives report a remedy for low morale is increased communication with employees (Denka, 2009). Similarly, research indicated the impact of leadership focus on employee engagement results in 39% higher employee retention and 37% increased employee job satisfaction (Wallace & Trinkka, 2009) and has a measureable effect on employee morale and job satisfaction (Tsai, 2011). Supervisors, who exhibit encouraging leadership skills, report a positive relationship exists between supervisors and employee job satisfaction (Jernigan & Beggs, 2010; Lim & Nalla, 2014). Retention is also related with leadership development and management programs (Everson, 2014). Leadership, therefore, is an important factor maintaining morale and group performance (Ayoko & Konrad, 2012).

Full Range Leadership Theory

A major objective of leadership research is to identify the different aspects of behavior that explains leader influence on individual, team, and organizational performance (Yukl, 2012). Leaders and supervisors have a deep influence on individual employees in organizations and groups (Cicero et al., 2010) and leadership behavior matters when it comes to predicting perceived performance and job satisfaction (Fernandez, 2008). Supervisor attitudes towards employees are an important job satisfaction factor (Chaudhuri & Naskar, 2013) and inconsistent supervisory behaviors contribute to uncertainty of the supervisor's trustworthiness and may have a negative impact on relations with the employee (Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011; Uchino et al., 2012). Research has pointed out negative leadership styles and traits are related to leadership failures of subordinates (Harms, Spain, & Hannah, 2011). Leader support and

leadership behaviors may be related to both high and low levels of stress and well-being of employees (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). Much of the recent literature on leadership focuses on leader-related skills, personal characteristics and behaviors, such as transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; Edwards et al., 2010; Salter et al., 2010; Sahaya, 2012; Hamstra et al., 2011; Xirasagar, 2008), charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1994), and authentic leadership (Avey et al., 2009). One type of direct measure that may influence job satisfaction is supervisory leadership styles (Ingram & Lee, 2015). Different leadership styles may contribute to workforce stability and organizational effectiveness with transformational and transactional leadership styles being the most prominent in literature (Hamstra et al., 2011). Leadership styles are essential to urge employee performance toward achieving organizational goals, objectives and the success or failure of many businesses depends on the character of the leader, including personal traits and behavior (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Inconsistent supervisory behaviors contribute to uncertainty of the supervisor's trustworthiness and may have a negative impact on relations with the employee (Uchino et al., 2012), along with negatively affecting safety and organizational compliance and participation (Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011). Leadership styles and behaviors can influence both performance and job satisfaction, thus reducing turnover and improving retention (Abdullah et al., 2013). Organizations such as Procter and Gamble's Security Division has developed a model with general categories of criteria to look for in security managers, including leadership, collaborative skills, creativity, innovation, decision making, ability to effectively meet change, and flexibility (Blades, 2010).

The full range leadership theory or the multifactor leadership theory, has received the most attention over the last decade (Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009; Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). The full range leadership theory leadership styles are depicted in a range from highly passive to highly active leadership styles (Rowold, 2014). The full range leadership theory describes three key leadership styles and behaviors, identified as transformational, transactional and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al 1999; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg 2011). Nine components of leadership (idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception [active], management-by-exception [passive], and laissez-faire) are measured with the full range of leadership styles and have been shown to have a strong link to individual and organizational success (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000; 2004). Leadership measurements may identify effectiveness and satisfaction of followers and identify the characteristics of a particular leader or group of leaders, arguing the most effective leaders are both transformational and transactional (Avolio & Bass, 1995, 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2010).

Over the last 30 years, research has found transformational leadership as one of the prominent theories related to employee job satisfaction and performance outcomes (Gunderson, Hellesoy, & Raeder, 2012; McCleskey, 2014; Wright, Moynihan, & Panday, 2012). Transformational leadership is characterized by a relationship where subordinates are loyal and motivated to perform for the supervisor and transactional leadership is characterized by a relationship between supervisors and subordinates that is based on rewards and punishment (Bucic, Robinson, & Ramburuth, 2010). Transformational

leadership theory contains four specific leadership behaviors: charisma or idealized influences, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1999; Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & B. Yang, 2012). Transformational leadership has a positive effect associated with job performance and job satisfaction (Keskes, 2014). Transformational leadership behavior responds to employee's goals, needs, and values and has a positive influence on employee attitudes (Antoni & Syrek, 2012), and noted as the most effective type of leadership style (Leong & Fischer, 2010). Transformational leaders are viewed as motivational, influencing employees to be above self-interests to accomplish organizational goals, and are associated with job satisfaction (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). Transformational leaders effectively work with employees who exhibit a high sense of public service motivation (Caillier, 2014). Transformational leaders are likely to motivate an employee to stay, as the transformational leader inspires the employee to go beyond their individual interests, focus on the organization, and commit to their organization (Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013). While transactional leadership has been shown to be effective, transformational leadership is considered the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, and reduce turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Transformational leaders are less likely to participate or support unethical practices and are strongly associated with the stakeholders' view of corporate social responsibility (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). Transformational leaders inspire employees by demanding high standards of moral and ethical conduct (Zhu, Riggio, Avolio, & Sosik, 2011). Transformational leaders exhibit high moral standard and this form of leadership is most likely not compatible with bullying in the work

environment (Nielsen, 2013). Transformational leaders inspire employees by demanding high standards of moral and ethical conduct (Zhu, Riggio, Avolio, & Sosik, 2011), and motivate employees to perform beyond basic expectations (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Ethical issues of transformational leaders are viewed as generally grounded in reflecting the leader's connection to moral obligations (Simola, Barling, & Turner, 2010). However, the transformational leader is not task-oriented, and the leader may spend too much time trying to motivate an employee rather than focus on the employee's specific task (Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2010). A negative aspect of transformational leadership behaviors is the leader may have undesirable personality traits, such as narcissism and the need for personal power, and may pursue goals for personal gain (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2103). Transformational leaders' identification with company interests may increase the probability of employee unethical behavior (Effelesberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014).

Transactional leadership, conversely, builds on punishment and rewards as a leader does not take action until made aware of mistakes or errors by the employee (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003); Zagorsek, Dimovski, & Skerlavaj, 2009). Transactional leadership is more common in organizations, as employees and team members are not expected to go beyond the supervisors and team leaders expectations (Liu, Liu, & Zeng, 2011). However, transactional leadership is effective by providing positive outcomes to employees who perform their duties to standard, while focusing on employee mistakes and complaints, thus assuring organizational success (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Transactional leadership focuses on structure and adherence to guidelines and found to be effective in virtual team performance, where it is more difficult to form personal relationships (Quiesenberry & Burrell, 2012).

Transactional leaders are effective in actual task performance by setting and communicating specific goals and objectives, thereby adding important value to organizations (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). The transactional leader tends to operate within a system or structure, pays strict attention to detail, time constraints, and prefers the process to maintain control over employees (Keskes, 2014). Research in safety compliance in organizations finds transactional leaders are more effective than transformational leaders as the transactional leader is more directly involved in processes and the transformational leader tends to encourage participation in safety programs and compliance (Clarke, 2013). Some transformational leaders' interactions are best found in quick moments of action, which the leader may see as courageous or inspirational, though other leaders may see these types of actions as a threat (Metcalf & Benn, 2013). Therefore, the three elements of transactional leadership, which, include feedback, recognition and rewards are positively related to organizational effectiveness (Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & B. Yang, 2012). Since the transactional leader accepts the goals, objectives and culture of the organization, the expected outcome is the transactional leader will have a positive effect on employee moral identity conduct (Zhu, Riggio, Avolio, & Sosik, 2011). Many management related decisions only require transactional thinking as organizational goals is usually to optimize existing resources (Conley, 2013).

Passive-avoidant leadership is typically used to describe leaders who do not actually lead and characterized as absent by their subordinates (Molero, Moriano & Shaver, 2013). Passive-avoidant leaders tend to exhibit a lack of interest with the organization or interaction with employees (Hargis, Watt & Piotrowski, 2011). Passive-avoidant forms of leadership are generally thought of as the most ineffective leadership

styles, though inconsistent leadership is viewed as the most detrimental on employee performance (Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011). Passive-avoidant leadership behaviors are generally ignored as the leader tends to avoid making any decisions and exhibits a passive indifference towards employees (Keskes, 2014). Passive-avoidant leadership behavior is sometimes viewed as an alternate for transformational and transactional leadership as the passive-avoidant leaders allows conflict to resolve itself (Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009). Recent findings indicate passive-avoidant leadership is a negative leadership style and creates frustration and tension in groups (Nielsen, 2013). Moreover, passive-avoidant leadership behavior tends to relate negatively with a subordinates job satisfaction and satisfaction with the leader (Buch, Martinsen, & Kuvaas, 2015).

The number of studies relating to security officer job satisfaction, leadership styles, and turnover are either dated or limited (Strom et al., 2010). However, recognized security personnel promote the development of transformational leadership in the security industry (Kostanoski, 2008). Transformational leadership is one of the most robust predictors of employee job satisfaction along with ratings of leadership effectiveness (Piccolo et al., 2012), and security industry turnover is directly linked to a supervisor's performance and relationship with the employee ("Carrots, sticks, & secrets," 2012). Since satisfaction with facets of a job and with a supervisor's leadership style have been shown to predict job satisfaction (Piccolo et al., 2012), the possibility exists that these factors may predict turnover of security guards. Positive leadership behaviors have a significant impact on employee morale and retention (Murrell-Jones, 2012). A criticism of the full range leadership theory is some parts of leadership behavior styles may be

lacking, e.g., task behaviors, such as clarifying and planning; along with relations behaviors, such as team building (Verlage, Rowold, & Schilling, 2012). However, each type of leadership behavior can assert some type of influence of outcome or performance and increase a leader's effectiveness or have unintended side effects that can be negative as opposed to positive (Yukl, 2012). Assessing a particular leadership style can assist employer's to maximize their strengths and minimizing weaknesses to leverage the potential to select the right employee for a particular task or job (Rubin, 2013).

Summary

Private security is an integral part of safety and security in the United States and abroad. Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting an 18% growth from 2010 to 2020 (U.S. Bureau of Labor, 2013). Turnover rates for security guards were estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying both economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). Overall job satisfaction consistently affects turnover (Pitts et al., 2011), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Abdullah et al., 2013; Fernandez, 2008). Studies examining turnover in the security industry characterize low pay and poor benefits as the leading causes of turnover (Law Enforcement - Private Security Consortium, 2012), indicating pay is one of the most important aspects for attracting and retaining a workforce (Gupta, 2011). Pay affects employees' behavior and attitude, therefore organizational effectiveness (Antoni & Syrek, 2012).

Job satisfaction has been identified as an important factor in studies examining turnover and effects on employees' intentions to quit from their job (Long & Thean, 2011; Yin-Fah et al., 2010) along with dissatisfaction with their leaders (Cicero et al.,

2010). Job satisfaction and morale are linked to positive work environments (Dike, 2012), and findings suggest that overall job satisfaction consistently affects employee turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Kazi & Zadeh, 2011) and turnover intentions (Pitts et al., 2011). Morale is defined as a component of job satisfaction, describing how good an employee feels about the job's work environment (Jewczyn, 2010) and measuring employee attitude and the relationship between manager and employee (Behm, 2009). Morale is how staff or employees perceive their work environment relative to a sense of belonging and motivation to meet the organization's goals and objectives (Minor et al., 2014). Leadership is an important factor maintaining morale and group performance (Ayoko & Konrad, 2012).

Different leadership styles may contribute to workforce stability and organizational effectiveness (Hamstra et al., 2011). Leadership styles and behaviors can influence both performance and job satisfaction, thus reducing turnover and improving retention (Xirasagar, 2008). Using the conceptual framework of the full range leadership model of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant key leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1995, 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Edwards et al., 2010; Salter et al., 2010; Sahaya, 2012; Hamstra et al., 2011; Xirasagar, 2008) may identify effectiveness and satisfaction of followers and identify the characteristics of a particular leader or group of leaders (Mostovicz, Kakabadse, & Kakabades, 2009). The relationship between leadership and turnover is influenced by the behaviors exhibited by leaders and the perceptions of the subordinates (Long & Thean, 2011; Lord & Shondrick, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). A limitation of many leadership studies is they only examined

how often the leader used a behavior, and not inclusive of the timing and how the behavior was used (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

Chapter 3: Research Method

Security guard employment is one of the fastest growing occupations, expecting a 12% growth from 2012 to 2022 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). However, turnover rates for security guards are a significant problem as turnover was estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). By comparison, turnover rates for correctional officers are estimated at 10-29% with an estimated 5% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Stinchcomb et al., 2009). Law enforcement officer turnover is estimated at 33% with an estimated 7% growth from 2010 to 2020 (Terra, 2009). Employee turnover is a large challenge affecting human resources (Kazi & Zadeah, 2011) and is an important employment relations outcome for employees and organizations (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Employee retention is a critical issue for organizations because of increased costs (Allen et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction is a leading indicator of turnover in positions similar to security guards, including correctional officers (Udechukwa, 2009) and police officers (Carlan, 2007). Other turnover intention indicators include satisfaction with the career system, promotion, pay, and morale (Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Toh, 2013). Leaders and managers try to improve organizational performance and minimize costs associated with employee turnover (Dixon & Hart, 2010), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008), which consistently affects turnover rates (Pitts et al., 2011). Furthermore, leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, indicate an ability to enhance job performance and reduce turnover (Long & Then, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction

(Abdullah et al., 2013; Fernandez, 2008; Gupta, 2011). Examining leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2012) as predictors of job satisfaction (Hoxsey, 2010) among security guards may help the security industry identify and reduce turnover intentions and improve the retention of security guards.

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was correlated with the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. A sample of 157 officers was recruited through the websites of security-oriented organizations associated with the Orlando, Florida chapter of the ASIS, the FASCO, and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. Armed or unarmed security officers or guards in a nonsupervisory position were eligible to participate in the study. Participation in the survey was voluntary. The screening criteria included the minimum age for a security guard by law, which is 18, with no maximum age or gender limitations, and employment in an unarmed or armed nonsupervisory security-guard or officer position. The MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; see Appendix A) was used to measure employees' perceptions of three leadership styles of their leaders: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant (Xirasagar, 2008). The JDI (Carter & Dalal, 2010; S. Yang et al., 2011; see Appendix B) was used to measure overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with five specific job facets, including pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG (Lake et al., 2012; see Appendix B) scale is commonly used with the JDI and was used to measure overall feelings about the job. The Job Satisfaction Index (JSI) (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; see Appendix C) was used to provide measures of job satisfaction and retention. Bivariate correlations were computed to measure the relationship between overall job satisfaction,

as measured by the JIG, and each of the three types of leadership, as measured by the respective subscales of the MLQ5X. Multiple linear regressions were then computed to determine the extent to which the five components of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself), as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted each of the three types of leadership.

The following chapter provides a description of the research method and designs, collection, processing, and analyses in detail so that the study can be replicated. Random sampling methods with a description of data sources, instruments for the proposed study, overview of the operational definition of variables, the analysis strategy, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, ethical assurances, and the proposed steps to carry out the study are discussed. Following are the research questions and hypotheses used to address the study purpose.

Q1. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q2. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q3. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q4. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q5. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

Q6. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H10. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H1a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2o. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3o. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6o. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Research Method and Design

Leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008; Pitts et al., 2011). The survey used for this study was designed to provide an in-depth summary of how subordinates perceive their leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). The MLQ5X is widely used in the criminal justice field to measure leadership styles and effectiveness (Sarver & Miller, 2014).

A quantitative method was chosen for this study because the use of surveys can provide responses to questions using a numerical rating and are typically used to measure events, such as attitudes toward supervisors, that are difficult to observe directly (Cook & Cook, 2008). Quantitative research involves the use of numbers to record and study the occurrences of responses to specific questions, such as those provided in the JDI, the JIG, and the MLQ5X. The responses to these surveys enable a quantification of data so that researchers can interpret and make decisions (Arghode, 2012). A quantitative method for this study enabled a focus on employee attitudes and perceptions toward their supervisors, using statistics to measure variation and predict outcomes (Yilmatz, 2013).

A qualitative method was not used for this study. Qualitative analyses typically provide a descriptive analysis of nonnumeric data (Landrum & Garza, 2015). A

qualitative method does not enable statistical prediction or generalization to a larger population. Qualitative research generally involves using open-ended questions, focus groups, and case studies to gain an understanding and bring meaning to the type of phenomena being studied (Stake, 2010; Yin, 2009). A qualitative research approach may allow the observer to influence or affect changes in the phenomenon being studied (Hagger & Chatzisabantis, 2011). In contrast, statistical information was essential in the current study to provide projectable information for the population (Sellers, 1998).

This study was correlational and nonexperimental. The supervisors of the employees surveyed were already in place at the time of the study. Therefore, although participants were randomly selected for participation, random assignment to a leader based on leadership style was not feasible. In this study, unlike in an experiment, data were not manipulated in an intervention to observe the outcome (Delost & Nadder, 2014). Nonexperimental studies account for the majority of studies in crime and justice, with only about 15% of studies involving experiments (Weisburd, 2010).

Population

The population for this study is security officers throughout the United States, with a focus on officers in the State of Florida. The security industry population in the United States is 1.1 million private security officers (SEIU, 2015). The security industry population in Florida has 1,464 security agencies and offices, with 138,590 licensed security officers (Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, 2016) holding a Class “D” (unarmed) license or Class “G” (armed) license in accordance with Florida Statute 493 (Florida Statutes, 2015). Years of experience of security officers in the United States are less than one year, 11%; 1-4 years, 51%; 5-9 years, 20%; 10-19

years, 14%; 20 years or more, 5%; with 19% of officers being female and 81% being male (PayScale Human Capital, 2015). Ethnicity of security officers in the United States varies with 53% being White; 31% Black; 16% Hispanic or Asian, with 46% of security officers having a High School education or less, 12% have a bachelor's degree, and 42% completed some college (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Security officers range in age from 18 to upwards of 60 years of age (Security Guards, 2015).

Sample

A sample of 157 security officers completed the surveys for this study. Post hoc power analyses (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009) were computed for both bivariate correlations and multiple linear regressions. For the bivariate correlations, the achieved power of the study was 97.1%, assuming an effect size of 0.3, an error probability of .05, and a sample size of 157. For the multiple linear regressions, the achieved power of the study was 97.4%, assuming five predictor variables, an effect size of .15, an error probability of .05, and a sample size of 157.

The proposed sampling pool of private security officers will be located primarily in Orlando, Orange County, Florida. Participants were recruited on a voluntary basis through the websites of several security-oriented organizations and the LinkedIn website. Members of these organizations specialized in the industry of armed and unarmed guards, providing a variety of security support to private and commercial clients and to state and federal government agencies. Organizations included the Orlando Florida chapter of the ASIS, the FASCO, and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. Armed or unarmed security officers or guards in a nonsupervisory position were eligible to participate in the study.

Permission was obtained from the security-related organizations to post on their member websites, with an invitation to participate, including a link to the survey, informed consent, and screening criteria. The websites of the security agency organizations post a variety of security-related information, including job searches, best practices in the industry, upcoming conferences and training, and questions posted by security professionals for the groups at large. The recruitment strategy was to post a request for survey participants with a brief overview of the purpose of the study and a link to the survey instrument.

Materials/Instruments

The instruments used for this study included the MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; see Appendix A); the JDI (Carter & Dalal, 2010; B. Yang et al., 2011; see Appendix B), and the JIG (Lake et al., 2012; see Appendix B), and the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI; Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; see Appendix C). The MLQ5X had three subscales to measure the extent of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership in the supervisors, as perceived by the employees (Xirasagar, 2008). The JDI had five subscales to measure job satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG measured overall feelings about the job. The survey instruments were combined into a single survey created and administered by Mind Garden, Inc. (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

MLQ5X. The MLQ5X is a valid and reliable measurement tool extensively used to assess dimension of leadership, most commonly to rate subordinate satisfaction and supervisor effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Edwards et al., 2010; Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Leong & Fischer, 2010; Salter et al., 2010;

Sahaya, 2012). The MLQ5X includes 45 questions answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). The MLQ5X consists of three scales to measure each of three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant). Transformational leadership refers to inspirational and motivational leadership, based on a relationship in which subordinates are loyal to, and motivated to perform for, the supervisor (Bucic et al., 2010). Transformational leadership includes the components of idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership refers to a leadership style in which followers receive task-specific duties and experience rewards or punishment from the leader. Transactional leadership includes the components of management-by-exception (active) and contingent reward. Passive-avoidant leadership refers to a leadership style in which leaders avoid making decisions. Passive-avoidant leadership includes the components of management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire.

The scaled scores of the MLQ5X were calculated as mean scores for the items in each of the subscales of the three leadership styles. The Transformational Leadership subscale included 20 questions, the Transactional Leadership subscale included eight questions, and the Passive-Avoidant leadership subscale included eight questions. The remaining nine questions of the MLQ5X were not used for this study. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the Transformational Leadership subscale was .94; for the Transactional Leadership subscale, .73; and for the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale, .80 (Ackerman, Scheepers, Lessing, & Dannhauser, 2000). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the MLQ5X and findings resulted in the

MLQ5X being reasonably fit, with a goodness of fit index (GFI) at .84, and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) at .78 (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

JDI/JIG. The JDI is the most commonly used measure of job satisfaction (Carter & Dalal, 2010; Lake et al., 2012; Robinson & Athanasiou, 1969; S. Yang et al., 2011). The JDI has 72 items to measure five facets of job satisfaction, including 18 items in the JIG (P. C. Smith et al., 2009). The five areas of job satisfaction of the JDI include work, coworkers, supervision, pay, and promotion, with the JIG measuring overall satisfaction (P. C. Smith et al., 1969). Each of the five areas is measured with either nine or 18 adjectives describing a specific behavior in response to a specific question, such as “Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work?” or “Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people?” Cronbach alpha coefficients for the JDI have ranged from .67 to .96, indicating acceptable or good reliability (Baltzer et al., 1997), with all correlations being significant at the 0.01 level, 2-tailed (Brodke et al., 2009). The Pearson correlation for the facets are work, 0.63; pay, 0.42; promotion, 0.42; supervision, 0.49; and co-worker, 0.79; with all correlations significant at the 0.01 level, 2-tailed (Brodke et al., 2009).

The JIG is commonly used with the JDI and was used in this study to measure overall feelings about the job. The questionnaire included 18 descriptive adjectives addressing the following question: “Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time?” The Cronbach alpha value for the JIG scores was .92, indicating

a high level of reliability (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010), and correlations being significant at the 0.01 level, 2-tailed, and the Pearson correlation at 0.79 (Brodke et al., 2009).

Job Satisfaction Index (JSI). The Job Satisfaction Index (JSI; Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) is considered an effective measure of job satisfaction (Frings-Dresen, van Saane, Sluiter, & Verbeek, 2003; Thompson & Phua, 2012). The JSI is a 20-item Likert-type questionnaire with 10 positive and 10 negative statements about a job. Possible scores range from 20 to 100. High scores indicate higher job satisfaction, and low scores indicate lower job satisfaction. The JSI has a Cronbach's alpha reliability score of 0.87 (Frings-Dresen et al., 2003).

Participants in this study completed the JSI as part of the overall questionnaire. However, data analysis showed that the JIG and the JSI were multicollinear, $r = .83$. Thus, the information from the JSI was redundant, and using it would have added no additional information to the study. The instrument was therefore eliminated from the data analysis.

Operational Definition of Variables

The variables used in this study were derived from the five facets of JDI, the JIG score, and the three subscales of the MLQ5X. All questions for the MLQ5X were presented on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The questions on the JDI and the JIG, in contrast, had possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The demographic variables of gender, age, ethnicity, education, and location were reported descriptively and were not measured in the research questions. Following is a description of all variables used in this study for data analysis.

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership refers to inspirational and motivational leadership, based on a relationship in which subordinates are loyal to, and motivated to perform for, the supervisor (Bucic et al., 2010).

Transformational leadership was an outcome variable for this study, measured with the Transformational Leadership Subscale of the MLQ5X. The items in the MLQ5X used for the subscale were 2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29 through 32, 34, and 36. The variable was an interval variable measured as the mean score on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with values ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Transformational leadership was the outcome variable for Research Question 1 and the criterion variable for Research Question 4. No variables in this subscale were reverse coded.

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership refers to a leadership style in which followers receive task-specific duties and experience rewards or punishment from the leader (Bucic et al., 2010). Transactional leadership was an outcome variable for this study, measured with the Transactional Leadership Subscale of the MLQ5X. The items in the MLQ5X used for the subscale were 1, 4, 11, 16, 22, 24, 27, and 35. The variable was an interval variable measured as the mean score on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with values ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Transactional leadership was the outcome variable for Research Question 2 and the criterion variable for Research Question 5. No variables in this subscale were reverse coded.

Passive-avoidant leadership. Passive-avoidant leadership refers to a leadership style in which leaders avoid making decisions (Bucic et al., 2010). Passive-avoidant leadership was an outcome variable for this study, measured with the Passive-Avoidant

Subscale of the MLQ5X. The items in the MLQ5X used for the subscale were 3, 5, 7, 12, 17, 20, 28, and 33. The variable was an interval variable measured as the mean score on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with values ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Passive-avoidant leadership was the dependent variable for Research Question 3 and the criterion variable for Research Question 6. No variables in this subscale were reverse coded.

Satisfaction with work. Satisfaction with work refers to how satisfied an employee is with the work he or she is assigned to perform (Carter & Dalal, 2010). Satisfaction with work was a predictor variable for Research Questions 4 through 6 of this study, measured as the Satisfaction With Work subscale of the JDI. Items 1 through 18 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Twelve positive adjectives and six negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as the sum of all answers to the Satisfaction With Work subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 54. Items 2, 4, 12, 13, 15, and 16 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Satisfaction with pay. Satisfaction with pay refers to how satisfied an employee is with monetary compensation received (Carter & Dalal, 2010). Satisfaction with pay was a predictor variable for Research Questions 4 through 6 of this study, measured as the Satisfaction With Pay subscale of the JDI. Items 19 through 27 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; P. C. Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Five positive adjectives and four negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as

the sum of all answers to the Satisfaction With Pay subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 27. Items 3, 4, 6, and 9 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Satisfaction with promotion. Satisfaction with promotion refers to how satisfied an employee is for opportunities for promotion (Carter & Dalal, 2010). Satisfaction with promotion was a predictor variable for Research Questions 4 through 6 of this study, measured as the Satisfaction With Promotion subscale of the JDI. Items 28 through 36 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; P. C. Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Five positive adjectives and four negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as the sum of all answers to the Satisfaction With Promotion subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 27. Items 2, 4, 6, and 7 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Satisfaction with supervision. Satisfaction with supervision refers to how satisfied an employee is with supervision received on the job (Carter & Dalal, 2010). Satisfaction with supervision was a predictor variable for Research Questions 4 through 6 of this study, measured as the Satisfaction With Supervision subscale of the JDI. Items 37 through 54 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Ten positive adjectives and eight negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as the sum of all answers to the Satisfaction With Supervision subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 54. Items 2, 3, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, and 16 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Satisfaction with coworkers. Satisfaction with coworkers refers to how satisfied employees are with the majority of people whom they meet in connection with their work (Carter & Dalal, 2010). Satisfaction with coworkers was a predictor variable for Research Questions 4 through 6 of this study, measured as the Satisfaction With Coworkers subscale of the JDI. Items 55 through 72 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Eight positive adjectives and 10 negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as the sum of all answers to the Satisfaction With Coworkers subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 54. Items 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 16 through 18 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Overall feelings about the job. Overall feelings about the job was a predictor variable for Research Questions 1 through 3 of this study, measured as the JIG subscale of the JDI. Items 73 through 90 of the JDI were used (Bowling Green, 2009; Smith et al., 2009). The scale of measurement was interval. Ten positive adjectives and eight negative adjectives were presented to the user, with possible answers of 3 (*yes*), 0 (*no*), and 1 (*cannot decide*). The variable was computed as the sum of all answers to the JIG subscale, with possible answers ranging from 0 to 54. Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, and 18 of the subscale were reverse coded.

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

After approval was received from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Northcentral University, data collection for the study began. Respondents accessed the link directly through the websites of the Orlando chapter of ASIS, the FASCO, and ASIS

International LinkedIn. The combined survey questionnaire was posted to a link on the Mind Garden website, with a data file assigned to the researcher and accessed through the researcher's Mind Garden account. The personal data files had a password-protected data download tab with a Microsoft Excel file, with raw scores in a spreadsheet format. Data were transferred from the Excel file into a SPSS (Version 22) spreadsheet for analysis. Descriptive statistics were generated for the demographic factors of gender, age, ethnicity, education, and location of responders.

All predictor variables were examined for intercorrelation. The assumptions for parametric statistics for bivariate correlations were examined. These assumptions included normal distribution of the variables and linearity. Next, the assumptions for parametric statistics for the multiple linear regressions were examined. The assumptions checked were normal distribution of the residuals, equality of variances of the residuals, linearity, and absence of multicollinearity. Bivariate correlations were then used to measure the relationship of overall feelings about the job to each of the perceived leadership styles. Finally, multiple linear regressions were used to evaluate the extent to which each of the five facets of job satisfaction (pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself) predicted the perceived leadership styles.

Assumptions

It is assumed that employees will be able to describe the leadership style of their leader accurately. Employee perceptions and workplace experiences may lead to bias in the description of the leadership styles of the leaders, who are not being surveyed directly. However, employees, using the MLQ5X, have been found to identify their leaders' leadership styles and behaviors accurately (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al.,

1999; Edwards et al., 2010; Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Leong & Fischer, 2010; Salter et al., 2010; Sahaya, 2012; Xirasagar, 2008).

For the bivariate correlations computed in this study, the statistical assumptions required for the use of parametric statistics included normal distribution and linearity. Normal distribution was verified by means of an examination of the skew and kurtosis of the histograms. Linearity was verified by means of an inspection of scatterplots (Antonakis & Dietz, 2011).

For the multiple linear regressions, the statistical assumptions required included normal distribution of the residuals, linearity, equality of variances, and an absence of multicollinearity. The normal distribution of the residuals was verified by means of an examination of P-P plots. Linearity and equality of variances were verified by means of an inspection of scatterplots of the residuals (Antonakis & Dietz, 2011).

Multicollinearity was investigated by means of the variance inflation factors (VIF). VIFs lower than 10 ensured that the variables in the regression analysis were not multicollinear.

Limitations

A potential limitation is that the majority of the participants were recruited from the State of Florida; thus, limiting the results to one geographic location, which, may not be generalizable to security officers outside of the State of Florida. However, while the results may not be generalizable, controlling for extraneous factors is accomplished as Florida requires specific licensing, training, and qualification requirements. The Florida-based security officer population is 159,256 officers (Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, 2016), and there are 1.1 million security officers in the United

States (SEIU, 2015). Additionally, using participants recruited from the ASIS International Linked-in website, the potential exists for a greater number of participants from more than 290 security-related organizations both within and outside of the United States.

An additional limitation is that this study will only focus on a few variables, such as relationships with co-workers, promotion, pay, the work itself, and supervision, but not other variables that may play a role in job satisfaction and retention not related to the full range leadership model. However, this limitation and focus on the facets and full range of leadership is typically done in the literature (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009; Hamstra , Van Yperen, Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010; Wisse, & Sassenberg 2011). Despite these limitations, the proposed research design and method appear as the most appropriate to the specified variables and for answering the selected research questions

Lastly, a final limitation is that the survey will not be measuring turnover directly, which, is typically done in the literature (Abdullah et al., 2013; Piccolo et al., 2012). However, turnover is an indicator in determining the extent to which security officers' overall job satisfaction and retention differ based on security supervisors' leadership styles (Murrell-Jones, 2012). Despite this limitation, results of the study comparing leadership effectiveness and leadership styles along with the predictors of job satisfaction may be helpful to predict turnover intentions (Hoxsey, 2010). Examining the ratings of leadership effectiveness and leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2012), and the predictors of job satisfaction may predict turnover intentions of security guards (Hoxsey, 2010).

Delimitations

The focus of the survey participants is from the State of Florida. Security officers in Florida are required licensing by Florida State Statute 493, and follow similar training, policies, procedures and regulations, which minimizes the differences in state licensing and training. Moreover, the focus of the survey is on employees and not supervisors. Therefore, only followers will participate and not managers. Proposed number of surveys was 200, in an attempt to collect results beyond the minimum required and enhance statistical power.

In an effort to further delimit this study, three specific survey instruments define the variables, and are most used in the literature in the criminology and criminal justice fields (Kleck, Tark, & Bellows, 2006). The survey instruments of the MLQ5X, JSI, JDI/JIG focus on subordinates perceptions of specific leadership behaviors of their leaders' relating to their leadership styles, and the respondents' responses to job satisfaction observing and reporting using five specific job facets (Hamstra et al., 2011). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X to measure the leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Bass & Jung, 1999), the Job Satisfaction Index to measure the dependent variable of job satisfaction and retention (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), the Job Description Index to measure overall job satisfaction and job satisfaction with five specific job facets (Carter & Dalal, 2010; S Yang et al., 2011), and the Job in General Scale to measure overall feelings about the job (Lake et al., 2012).

Ethical Assurances

No data was collected before the Northcentral University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval for research using human participants was granted. The researcher adhered to the ethical standards stipulated by the Doctoral Candidacy Resource Guide (2013) and the NCU Dissertation Guidebook Applied Degrees (2013). Basis for participation was on a voluntary basis, including a statement that participants are being asked to participate in a research study along with an informed consent document with explanation of the purpose in clear language. Consent forms that describe the study and use of data collected were used for informed consent of all participants. Data collected is used only for the purposes of this research. Electronic media is password-protected and access to electronic media will be restricted. Respondents were notified of their right to privacy. The research procedure, purpose, and risks were clearly communicated and neither the participants' name or company are identified in the study. Participants were informed of their ability to not participate in the study or to withdraw from the study at any time without reprisal. Other aspects included in the informed consent declaration are: screening criteria, expected duration of the survey, assurance of nondisclosure and confidentiality of records, researcher's detailed contact information with phone number and email address, and finally, a statement that participation is voluntary, and refusal to participate does not involve any penalty or loss of benefits. Raw data will be kept confidential and only the researcher will have access to the information. Data is presented in aggregate form to avoid any disclosure of the identity of participants. With regards to the scaled instruments, permission from Mind Garden for the MLQ5X online survey, including permission from Bowling Green State University for the use of the JDI

and JIG, and permission from Dr, Booth for the modified JSI survey are obtained. The data will be kept for 7 years and disposed of by shredding.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. Participants were recruited on a voluntary basis requested through the websites of several security-oriented organizations associated with members of the Orlando Florida Chapter of the American Society for Industrial Security (ASIS), Florida Association of Security Companies (FASCO), and the American Society of Industrial Security International LinkedIn website. Members of these organizations specialize in the industry of armed and unarmed guards, providing a variety of security support to private and commercial clients and to state and federal government agencies. Invitations to participate was disseminated by the security organizations site administrators posting a link to a web-based survey instrument developed by Mind Garden, Inc. (Bass & Avolio, 2004) to members of ASIS, FASCO, and ASIS International LinkedIn membership web link. The web-based link was the method to conduct and score the survey with instructions reiterating the voluntary nature of the study along with detailed instructions, consent form and the survey instruments.

The JSI was used to provide measures of job satisfaction. The JDI was used to measure overall job satisfaction and job satisfaction with five specific job facets, including pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, the work itself, and overall feelings about the job, as measured by the JIG. The MLQ5X survey was used to measure employee's perception of their leader's leadership styles. A multiple regression was

conducted to determine the predictability of turnover, as measured by the JSI, by the predictor variables of satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the JDI, overall feelings about the job, as measured by the JIG, and whether these predict turnover differently based on the leaders' leadership styles, as measured by the MLQ5X.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. A sample of 157 officers was recruited through the websites of security-oriented organizations associated with the Orlando, Florida Chapter of the ASIS; the FASCO; and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. Armed or unarmed security officers or guards in a nonsupervisory position were eligible to participate in the study. Participation in the survey was voluntary. The screening criteria included the minimum age for a security guard by law, which is 18, and employment in an unarmed or armed nonsupervisory security-guard or officer position.

The JDI (Carter & Dalal, 2010; S. Yang et al., 2011; see Appendix A) was used to measure overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with five specific job facets, including pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG (Lake et al., 2012; see Appendix B) scale is commonly used with the JDI and was used to measure overall feelings about the job. The MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; see Appendix C) was used to measure employees' perceptions of three leadership styles of their leaders: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant (Xirasagar, 2008). Bivariate correlations were computed to measure the relationship between overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JIG, and each of the three types of leadership, as measured by the respective subscales of the MLQ5X. Multiple linear regressions were then computed to determine the extent to which the five components of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself), as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted each of the three types of leadership.

In this chapter, the results of the study are reported. An evaluation of the findings is then presented. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Results

A sample of 157 security officers was recruited through the websites of security-oriented organizations to participate in the study. The sample included 133 males (84.7%) and 24 females (15.3%). The ages of the participants ranged from 20 to 71, with a mean age of 47.3 and a median age of 49. Approximately 43% of the sample (68 participants) had earned at least a bachelor's degree. Almost half of the participants (47.8%) reported their ethnicity as White or Caucasian. A majority (55.4%) were located in Florida. Table 1 shows the demographic distributions of the participants.

Job satisfaction scores, as measured with the JIG and the subscales of the JDI, were reported as the sum of all responses for each subscale. Possible scores for satisfaction with work, satisfaction with the supervisor, satisfaction with coworkers, and overall job satisfaction ranged from 0 to 54. Possible scores for satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with promotion ranged from 0 to 27. Leadership style scores, as measured with the three subscales of the MLQ5X, were reported as the mean scores of responses on the respective Likert-type scales, with possible scores ranging from 0 to 4. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for all measures in the study.

Table 1
Demographic Distributions of Participants

Characteristic	<i>N</i>	Percent
Gender		
Male	133	84.7
Female	24	15.3
Age		
20 to 35	38	24.2
36 to 45	26	16.6
46 to 55	46	29.3
Over 55	47	29.9
Education		
High school graduate or less	20	12.7
Some college	69	43.9
College graduate	37	23.6
Masters degree	17	10.8
Other	14	8.9
Ethnicity		
White	75	47.8
Hispanic	32	20.4
Black	35	22.3
Native American	2	1.3
Asian	3	1.9
Other	10	6.4
Location		
Florida	87	55.4
Other U.S. state	64	40.8
Outside of United States	6	3.8

Note. *N* = 157.

Table 2

Distributions of Job Facets, Job in General, and Leadership Styles

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Med.	Skew (<i>SE</i>)	Kurtosis (<i>SE</i>)	Min.	Max.
Job satisfaction							
Satisfaction with pay	13.01	9.20	12	0.11 (0.19)	-1.28 (0.39)	0	27
Satisfaction with work	34.32	15.30	36	-0.55 (0.19)	-0.70 (0.39)	0	54
Satisfaction with supervisor	39.08	16.52	45	-1.04 (0.19)	-0.24 (0.39)	0	54
Satisfaction with coworkers	41.02	15.79	48	-1.25 (0.19)	0.47 (0.39)	0	54
Satisfaction with promotion	9.08	9.15	6	0.77 (0.19)	-0.71 (0.39)	0	27
Job in general	42.54	11.91	45	-1.62 (0.19)	2.66 (0.39)	0	54
Leadership style							
Transformational leadership	2.25	1.12	2.50	-0.40 (0.19)	-0.96 (0.39)	0	4.00
Transactional leadership	2.21	0.86	2.25	-0.18 (0.19)	-0.63 (0.39)	0	4.00
Passive-avoidant leadership	0.98	0.88	0.75	0.83 (0.19)	-0.32 (0.39)	0	3.25

Note. $N = 157$; Med. = median; *SE* = standard error; Min. = minimum; Max. = maximum.

Assumptions for bivariate correlations. Bivariate correlations were used to address the relationship between overall job satisfaction, as measured with the JIG, and each of the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant), as measured with the three subscales of the MLQ5X. The statistical assumptions required for the use of parametric statistics were normal distribution and linearity. Normal distribution was investigated by examining the histograms. Overall job satisfaction had a strong left skew, peaking at the highest values on the scale. Figure 1 shows the histogram for overall job satisfaction. Because overall job satisfaction was not normally distributed, Spearman's rho correlations statistics were used to compute the bivariate correlations for this study.

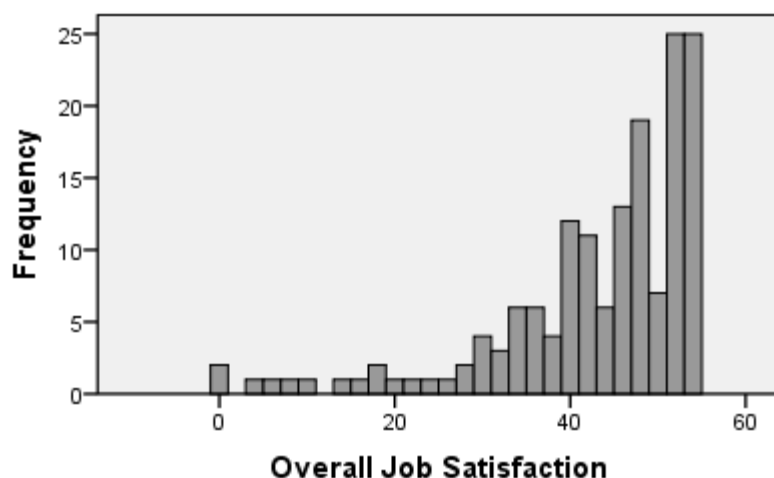


Figure 1. Score distribution for overall job satisfaction.

Assumptions for multiple linear regressions. Multiple linear regressions were used to measure the extent to which satisfaction with each of the job facets (pay, work, the supervisor, the coworkers, and promotion) predicted each of the three leadership styles. The statistical assumptions required included normal distribution of the residuals, linearity, equality of variances, and an absence of multicollinearity. P-P plots indicated

normal distributions for all multiple regression analyses. Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the P-P plots for the multiple linear regressions performed in this study.

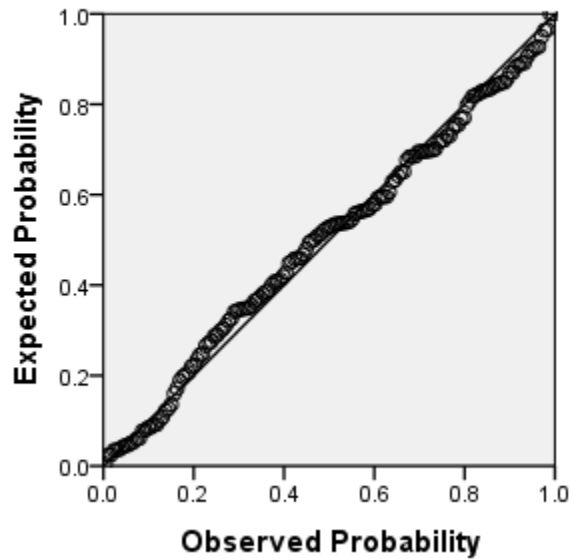


Figure 2 P-P plot for multiple linear regression, with the criterion variable of transformational leadership.

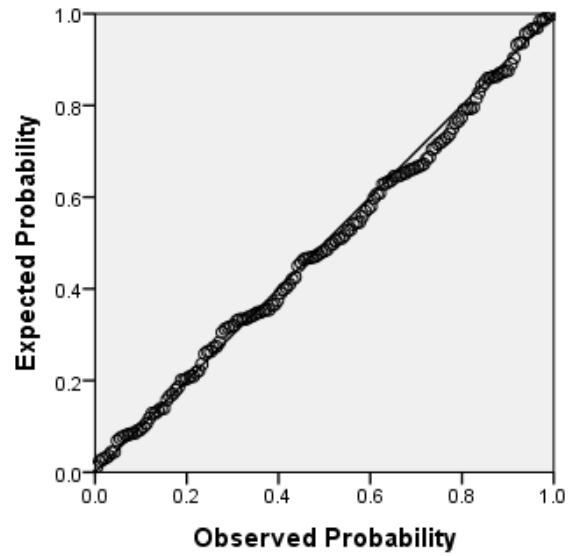


Figure 3. P-P plot for multiple linear regression, with the criterion variable of transactional leadership.

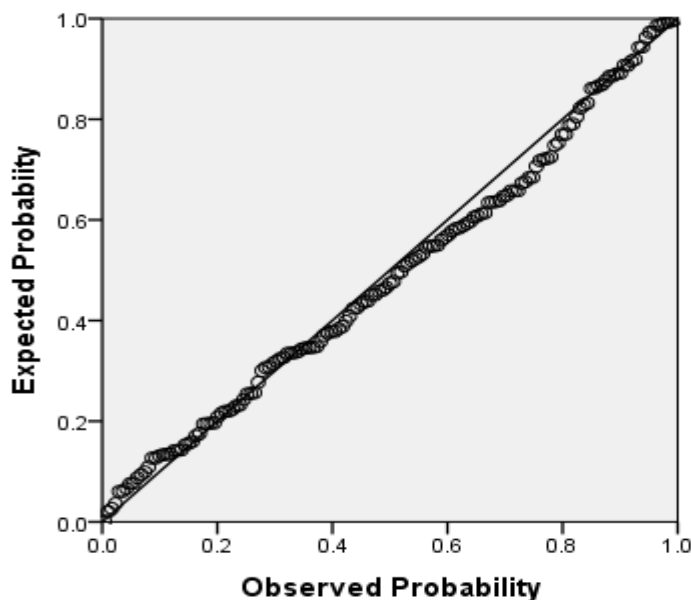


Figure 4. P-P plot for multiple linear regression, with the criterion variable of passive-avoidant leadership.

Linearity and equality of variances were verified by means of an inspection of scatterplots of the residuals. Multicollinearity was investigated by means of tolerance values and variance inflation factors (VIF). All tolerance scores were greater than the lower threshold of 0.1, and all VIF's were less than the higher threshold of 10.

Therefore, no multicollinearity was found in the predictor variables. Table 3 shows the tolerance values and the VIFs for the five predictor variables for the multiple linear regression analyses in this study.

Table 3
Collinearity Measures for Job Satisfaction Scores

Variable	Tolerance	Variance inflation factor
Satisfaction with pay	.73	1.36
Satisfaction with work	.54	1.86
Satisfaction with supervisor	.48	2.10
Satisfaction with coworkers	.51	1.95
Satisfaction with promotion	.58	1.72

Note. $n = 157$.

Intercorrelations of variables. In a multiple linear regression, predictor variables are best combined if the bivariate correlation between them exceeds .7 (Pallant, 2013). An examination of the intercorrelations of job satisfaction scores showed that no bivariate correlations exceeded this threshold. Table 4 shows the intercorrelations of all job satisfaction scores.

There was a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership, $r_s(155) = .76, p < .001$. Because the bivariate correlation between these two variables exceeded .7, the two variables may be combined, or one of the variables may be omitted, for the purposes of certain statistical analyses. Although such analyses were not performed in the current study, the strong correlation between the two variables is noteworthy for the purposes of interpreting the results. There was a strong inverse relationship between transformational leadership and passive-avoidant leadership, $r_s(155) = -.53, p < .001$. The relationship between transactional leadership and passive-avoidant leadership was also strongly negative, $r_s(155) = -.33, p < .001$.

Table 4

Intercorrelations of Job Satisfaction Scores

Variable	Satisfaction with pay	Satisfaction with work	Satisfaction with supervisor	Satisfaction with coworkers	Satisfaction with promotion
Satisfaction with work	.28***	--	--	--	--
Satisfaction with supervisor	.35***	.59***	--	--	--
Satisfaction with coworkers	.31***	.53***	.66***	--	--
Satisfaction with promotion	.48***	.55***	.52***	.45***	--
Satisfaction with job in general	.40***	.65***	.67***	.59***	.54***

Note. $n = 157$. Values represent Spearman's rho correlation coefficients.

*** $p < .001$.

Research questions. Following is a restatement of the research questions addressed in this study, together with the associated hypotheses and the results for each research question.

Research Question 1. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H1a. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H1_a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Spearman's rho correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The relationship was positive and significant, $r_s(155) = .51, p < .001$, indicating that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of perceived transformational leadership. The null hypothesis H_{10} was rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. There was a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. Table 5 shows the nonparametric correlations of all job satisfaction scores with three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant).

Table 5

Nonparametric Correlations of Job Satisfaction With Leadership Styles

Variable	Transformational leadership		Transactional leadership		Passive-avoidant leadership	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Satisfaction with pay	.24	.003	.18	.029	-.06	.423
Satisfaction with work	.56	<.001	.44	<.001	-.27	.001
Satisfaction with supervisor	.72	<.001	.56	<.001	-.49	<.001
Satisfaction with coworkers	.47	<.001	.36	<.001	-.34	<.001
Satisfaction with promotion	.44	<.001	.37	<.001	-.33	<.001
Overall job satisfaction	.51	<.001	.41	<.001	-.38	<.001

Note. $n = 157$. Values represent Spearman's rho correlation coefficients.

Research Question 2. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H2_a. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2_b. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Spearman's rho correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The relationship was positive and significant, $r_s(155) = .41, p < .001$, indicating that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of perceived transactional leadership (see Table 5). The null hypothesis H_{20} was rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. There was a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Research Question 3. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H3_a There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3_a There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant

leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Spearman's rho correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The relationship was inverse and significant, $r_s(155) = -.38, p < .001$, indicating that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with lower levels of perceived passive-avoidant leadership (see Table 5). The null hypothesis H_{30} was rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. There was a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Research Question 4. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

A multiple linear regression was computed to determine the extent to which the five predictor variables (satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself) predicted the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The five predictor variables were measured by the respective subscales of the JDI. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = .54$, adjusted $R^2 = .52$, $F(5, 151) = 34.99$, $p < .001$, indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of transformational leadership was significant.

Within the model, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with the supervisor were the individual variables that contributed significance to the model. Satisfaction with work predicted the transformational leadership style, $\beta = 0.02$, $B = 0.24$, $t = 3.19$, $p = .002$. Satisfaction with the supervisor predicted the transformational leadership style, $\beta = 0.04$, $B = 0.59$, $t = 7.38$, $p < .001$. For both variables, the value of t was positive, indicating a positive relationship between the JDI score and transformational leadership. Table 6 shows the results of the multiple linear regression analysis. The null hypothesis H_{40} was rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with

coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Transformational Leadership Style From Job Satisfaction

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	0.33	0.19		1.68	.095
Satisfaction with pay	-0.00	0.01	-0.04	-0.62	.538
Satisfaction with work	0.02	0.01	0.24	3.19	.002
Satisfaction with supervisor	0.04	0.00	0.59	7.38	<.001
Satisfaction with coworkers	-0.01	0.00	-0.10	-1.23	.222
Satisfaction with promotion	0.01	0.01	0.09	1.21	.229
$R^2 = .54$, adjusted $R^2 = .52$, $F(5, 151) = 34.99$					<.001

Note. $n = 157$. SE_B = standard error of the standardized β score.

Research Question 5. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H5a Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as

measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5_a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

A multiple linear regression was computed to determine the extent to which the five predictor variables (satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself) predicted the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The five predictor variables were measured by the respective subscales of the JDI. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = .35$, adjusted $R^2 = .33$, $F(5, 151) = 16.27$, $p < .001$, indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of transactional leadership was significant.

Within the model, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with the supervisor were the individual variables that contributed significance to the model. Satisfaction with work predicted the transactional leadership style, $\beta = 0.01$, $B = 0.23$, $t = 2.54$, $p = .012$. Satisfaction with the supervisor predicted the transactional leadership style, $\beta = 0.04$, $B = 0.43$, $t = 4.56$, $p < .001$. For both variables, the value of t was positive, indicating a positive relationship between the JDI score and transactional leadership. Table 7 shows the results of the multiple linear regression analysis. The null hypothesis H5₀ was

rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Transactional Leadership Style From Job Satisfaction

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	0.98	0.18		5.58	<.001
Satisfaction with pay	-0.00	0.01	-0.05	-0.60	.546
Satisfaction with work	0.01	0.00	0.23	2.54	.012
Satisfaction with supervisor	0.02	0.00	0.43	4.56	<.001
Satisfaction with coworkers	-0.00	0.00	-0.04	-0.46	.648
Satisfaction with promotion	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.80	.423
$R^2 = .35$, adjusted $R^2 = .33$, $F(5, 151) = 16.27$					<.001

Note. $n = 157$. SE_B = standard error of the standardized β score.

Research Question 6. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H6a Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

A multiple linear regression was computed to determine the extent to which the five predictor variables (satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself) predicted the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X. The five predictor variables were measured by the respective subscales of the JDI. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = .37$, adjusted $R^2 = .35$, $F(5, 151) = 17.70$, $p < .001$, indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of passive-avoidant leadership was significant.

Within the model, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with the supervisor, and satisfaction with promotion were the individual variables that contributed significance to the model. Satisfaction with pay predicted the passive-avoidant leadership style, $\beta = 0.02$, $B = 0.22$, $t = 2.93$, $p = .004$. Satisfaction with the supervisor predicted the

passive-avoidant leadership style, $\beta = -0.03$, $B = 0.55$, $t = -5.89$, $p < .001$. Satisfaction with promotion predicted the passive-avoidant leadership style, $\beta = -0.02$, $B = -0.20$, $t = -2.37$, $p = .019$.

The value of t was positive for satisfaction with pay, indicating a positive relationship between the JDI score for satisfaction with pay and passive-avoidant leadership. However, for satisfaction with the supervisor and satisfaction with promotion, the values of t were negative, indicating inverse relationships between the two JDI scores (satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with promotion) and passive-avoidant leadership. Thus, lower values for satisfaction with supervisor and promotion predicted higher values of passive-avoidant leadership. Table 8 shows the results of the multiple linear regression analysis. The null hypothesis H_0 was rejected, and there was support for the alternative hypothesis. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Passive-Avoidant Leadership Style From Job Satisfaction

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	2.03	0.18		11.33	<.001
Satisfaction with pay	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.93	.004
Satisfaction with work	0.01	0.00	0.12	1.34	.183
Satisfaction with supervisor	-0.03	0.00	-0.55	-5.89	<.001
Satisfaction with coworkers	-0.01	0.00	-0.10	-1.10	.275
Satisfaction with promotion	-0.02	0.01	-0.20	-2.37	.019
<i>R</i> ² = .37, adjusted <i>R</i> ² = .35, <i>F</i> (5, 151) = 17.70					<.001

Note. *n* = 157. *SE_B* = standard error of the standardized *β* score.

Evaluation of Findings

A quantitative, correlational study was conducted to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of their supervisors. The data were examined using bivariate correlations and multiple linear regressions. The results of the study indicated a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership, $r_s(155) = .76, p < .001$. Because the bivariate correlation between these two variables exceeded .7, the two variables may be combined, or one of the variables may be omitted, for the purposes of certain statistical analyses (Pallant, 2013). Although such analyses were not performed in the current study, the strong correlation between the two variables is noteworthy for the

purposes of interpreting the results. Passive-avoidant leadership also had a strong inverse relationship with both transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Additionally, the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome was significant for all three forms of leadership: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant.

The theoretical framework for this study was based on the full-range leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999) and facets of job satisfaction (Carter & Dalal, 2010). The full-range leadership model is a concept used to identify and define transactional, passive-avoidant, and transformational leadership styles, which encompass leader-related skills, personal characteristics, and behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; Edwards, Knight, Broome, & Flynn, 2010; Salter, Green, Duncan, Berre, & Torti, 2010; Sahaya, 2012; Hamstra et al., 2011; Xirasagar, 2008). The facets of job satisfaction include employee satisfaction with five aspects of a job, including work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Carter & Dalal, 2010).

According to the results of this study, transformational and transactional leadership styles were sufficiently highly correlated to be interchangeable in certain statistical models (Pallant, 2013). In contrast, most existing literature on transformational and transactional leadership indicates that transformational leadership is significantly more effective than transactional leadership for enhancing job performance, motivating subordinates, and reducing turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Lord & Shondrick, 2011). Transactional leadership refers to a leadership style in which followers receive task-specific duties and experience rewards or punishment from the leader (Bucic et al., 2010). Transformational leadership is widely held to predict employee job satisfaction with

(Piccolo et al., 2012). The findings in this study indicate respondents found both transformational and transactional leadership styles interchangeable. Leadership training and mentoring in the security industry has traditionally been absent because of lack of and priority of funding (Brooks, 2010; Magestro, 2013). The study findings indicate the importance of leaders and their employees' perception of their leadership style relative to job satisfaction and reducing turnover. The descriptive statistics of the study indicate satisfaction with pay is not the leading cause of turnover in the security industry as described in previous studies (Gupta, 2011; Law Enforcement – Private Security Consortium, 2012; Kish & Lipton, 2013; Lim & Nalla, 2014).

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors. Leadership style (transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant) were the outcome variables and the predictor variables consisting of the facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers, the work itself, and overall feelings about the job). The demographic variables of gender, age, ethnicity, education, and location were reported descriptively and were not measured in the research questions. The participants in this study were recruited through the websites of security-oriented organizations associated with the Orlando, Florida Chapter of the ASIS, the Florida Association of Security Companies (FASCO); and the ASIS International LinkedIn website. A sample of 157 respondents was used for the analysis.

A combined survey instrument was developed using previously validated survey instruments, the Job Description Index (JDI), the Job in General Scale JIG, the Job

satisfaction Index (JSI), and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X). The JDI had five subscales to measure job satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG measured overall feelings about the job. The JSI measured job satisfaction. However, data analysis showed that the JIG and the JSI were multicollinear, and therefore the JSI was eliminated from the data analysis. The MLQ5X had three subscales to measure the extent of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership in the supervisors, as perceived by the employees.

Satisfaction with co-workers, the work itself, and satisfaction with supervisors were relatively even in descriptive scoring. Pay is usually one of the highest reasons much of the literature states as contributing to security officer turnover, but the results of this study found pay relatively low on the job satisfaction scale (Law Enforcement - Private Security Consortium, 2012; Gupta, 2011; Kish & Lipton, 2013; Lim & Nalla, 2014). The results of the study indicated a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership, indicating that transformational and transactional leadership styles are highly correlated and would be interchangeable in a different statistical analysis. This positive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership indicates a difference in the majority of the literature review that view transformational leadership as the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, reduce turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Lord & Shondrick, 2011).

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Turnover rates for security guards are a significant problem as turnover was estimated between 100%-200% per year, identifying economic and security vulnerabilities (Everson, 2014; Parsa et al., 2009). Overall job satisfaction consistently affects turnover (Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011), and leadership behavior is an important predictor of job satisfaction and perceived performance (Fernandez, 2008). Leadership behaviors, along with leadership styles, are key aspects in employee perception of job satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine the extent to which job satisfaction among security officers was related to the perceived leadership styles of the supervisors.

The survey used for this study was designed to provide an in-depth summary of how subordinates perceive their leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). The survey instruments for the current study were developed to measure leadership behavior and facets of job satisfaction using numerical data from Likert-type measurement scales (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). The instruments used for this study included the MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; see Appendix A); the JDI (Carter & Dalal, 2010; B. Yang et al., 2011; see Appendix B), the JIG (Lake et al., 2012; see Appendix B); and the Job Satisfaction Index (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; see Appendix C). The JDI had five subscales to measure job satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself. The JIG measured overall feelings about the job. The MLQ5X had three subscales to measure the extent of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership in the supervisors, as perceived by the employees (Xirasagar, 2008). The survey instruments were combined

into a single survey created and administered by Mind Garden, Inc. (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

A quantitative method for this study enabled a focus on employee attitudes and perceptions toward their supervisors, using statistics to measure variation and predict outcomes (Yilmatz, 2013). This study was correlational and nonexperimental. The proposed sampling pools of private security officers were located primarily in Orlando, Orange County, Florida. A sample of 157 security officers completed the surveys for this study. Post hoc power analyses (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009) were computed for both bivariate correlations and multiple linear regressions to measure the relationship between overall job satisfaction, as measured by the JIG, and each of the three types of leadership, as measured by the respective subscales of the MLQ5X. Multiple linear regressions were then computed to determine the extent to which the five components of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the work itself), as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predicted each of the three types of leadership.

A potential limitation was that the majority of the participants were recruited from the State of Florida; thus, limiting the results to one geographic location, which, may not be generalizable to security officers outside of the State of Florida. However, the demographic distribution of participants revealed 55.4% were from Florida, with 40.8% of participants throughout the United States and 3.8% from the international community. An additional limitation is that this study will only focus on a few variables, such as relationships with co-workers, promotion, pay, the work itself, and supervision, but not other variables that may play a role in job satisfaction and retention not related to the full

range leadership model. However, this limitation and focus on the facets and full range of leadership is typically done in the literature (Avolio & Bass, 1995; 2000, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010; Wisse, & Sassenberg 2011). A final limitation is that the survey will not be measuring turnover directly, which, is typically done in the literature (Abdullah et al., 2013; Piccolo et al., 2012). Moreover, turnover is an indicator in determining the extent to which security officers' overall job satisfaction and retention differ based on security supervisors' leadership styles (Murrell-Jones, 2012).

No data was collected before the Northcentral University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval for research using human participants was granted. The screening criteria included the minimum age for a security guard by law, which is 18, and employment in an unarmed or armed nonsupervisory security-guard or officer position. Each participant was required to complete an online consent form (Appendix D), before being allowed to continue with the online survey. Data was acquired through an online survey from Mind Garden, and no identifiable information was collected. This chapter includes a discussion of implications, recommendations for practical applications of the study, suggestions for future research, and conclusions.

Implications

Based on a sample of 157 respondents from the security guard industry, data was collected using a combined survey instrument. Bivariate correlations were computed to measure the relationship between overall job satisfaction and each of the three types of leadership. Multiple linear regressions confirmed the significance of both transformational and transactional leadership to predict job satisfaction. The passive-

avoidance leadership style was found to have a negative effect on job satisfaction, confirming previous studies on the negative effects of passive-avoidance leadership compared with transformational and transactional leadership styles (Buch, Martinsen, & Kuvaas, 2015; Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011; Nielsen, 2013). All null hypotheses were rejected, and findings indicated a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The next part of the chapter provides a discussion of each research question and the implications of the findings for each of the research questions addressed in the study.

Research Question 1. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H1a. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H1a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

The relationship between overall job security and perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor was positive and significant, indicating that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of perceived transformational

leadership. The findings of the study was consistent with previous studies describing transformational leadership as one of the prominent theories related to employee job satisfaction and performance outcomes (Gunderson, Hellesoy, & Raeder, 2012; McCleskey, 2014; Wright, Moynihan, & Panday, 2012). Research indicated the impact of leadership focus on employee engagement results in 39% higher employee retention and 37% increased employee job satisfaction (Wallace & Trinkka, 2009) and has a measureable effect on employee morale and job satisfaction (Tsai, 2011). Supervisors, who exhibit encouraging leadership skills, report a positive relationship exists between supervisors and employee job satisfaction (Jernigan & Beggs, 2010; Lim & Nalla, 2014). Retention is also related with leadership development and management programs (Everson, 2014). Leadership, therefore, is an important factor maintaining morale and group performance (Ayoko & Konrad, 2012). Dissatisfied officers are far more likely to leave an organization (Udechukwu, 2009), and excessive turnover can negatively affect the morale of the remaining employees (Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Minor, Wells, Angel, & Katz, 2011). Transformational leaders are viewed as motivational, influencing employees to accomplish organizational goals, and are associated with job satisfaction (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). Many security guards perceive their low economic and social situations as indicative of their failure to achieve higher paying positions and being exploited by management (Briken, (2011). The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training programs can promote and include transformational leadership styles. Moreover, transformational leadership can improve employee morale and have a positive impact on reducing turnover and increasing retention (Allen et al., 2010; Hoxesy, 2010).

Research Question 2. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H2a. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H2a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

The relationship between the overall job satisfaction and perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor was positive and significant. This indicated that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of perceived transactional leadership. This finding is significant as previous studies have shown transformational leadership is considered the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, and reduce turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011). Important to note, that employees in the security industry and criminal justice organizations, tend to be rule followers who perform their duties to standard (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Transactional leaders focus on structure and adherence to guidelines (Quiesenberry & Burrell, 2012), and are effective in actual task performance by setting and communicating specific goals and objectives (Hargis, Watt,

& Piotrowski, 2011). The findings indicated transformational and transactional leaders in the study were comparable – one was not significantly more effective than the other one. Since the security industry focus is on specific job functions that confirm strictly to established rules and regulations, the implications are transactional leadership is more suited for employees in the security industry. Perhaps transformational leadership style, with the focus on employee morale and job satisfaction is not the best suited for the security industry, with strict adherence to rules and leaders who focus on structure and guidelines, as indicated in this study. The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training programs in the security industry can promote and include transactional leadership styles.

Research Question 3. What, if any, is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H3_a. There is no significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H3_a. There is a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers, as measured by the JIG, and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the security supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

The relationship between the overall job satisfaction of security officers and the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor was inverse and significant. This indicated that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with lower levels of perceived passive-avoidant leadership. The findings are consistent with recent research, indicating passive-avoidant leadership is a negative leadership style and creates frustration and tension in groups (Buch, Martinsen, & Kuvaas, 2015; Nielsen, 2013). Passive-avoidant forms of leadership are generally thought of as the most ineffective leadership styles (Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011). Most employees in the security industry seem to focus on specific tasks, rules, and guidelines. The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training programs should discourage the use of passive-avoidant leadership styles in enhancing job satisfaction and motivating employees.

Research Question 4. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H4a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transformational leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transformational Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Findings indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of transformational leadership was significant. Satisfaction with work and satisfaction with the supervisor indicated a positive relationship between the study scores and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has a positive effect associated with job performance and job satisfaction (Keskes, 2014). Transformational leadership behavior responds to employee's goals, needs, and values and has a positive influence on employee attitudes (Antoni & Syrek, 2012), and noted as the most effective type of leadership style (Leong & Fischer, 2010). The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training programs can promote and include transformational leadership styles to maintain and improve satisfaction with work and the supervisor.

Research Question 5. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H5a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as

measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H5_a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Transactional Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Findings indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of transactional leadership was significant. Satisfaction with work and satisfaction with the supervisor indicated a positive relationship between the study scores and transactional leadership. Since employees in the security industry and criminal justice organizations tend to be rule followers, transactional leadership is effective with employees who perform their duties to standard (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training programs in the security industry can promote and include transactional leadership styles to maintain and improve satisfaction with work and the supervisor.

Research Question 6. To what extent, if any, do satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X?

H6a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, do not predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

H6a. Satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the work itself, as measured by the respective subscales of the JDI, predict the extent of perceived passive-avoidant leadership of the supervisor, as measured by the Passive-Avoidant Leadership subscale of the MLQ5X.

Findings indicating that the combined effect of the five predictor variables on the outcome of passive-avoidant leadership was significant. Satisfaction with pay, the supervisor, and promotion all indicated a positive relationship between the study score for satisfaction with pay and passive-avoidant leadership. However, for satisfaction with the supervisor and satisfaction with promotion, findings inverse relationships between the two scores (satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with promotion) and passive-avoidant leadership. Passive-avoidant leadership behavior is sometimes viewed as an alternate for transformational and transactional leadership as the passive-avoidant leaders allows conflict to resolve itself (Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009). Recent findings indicate passive-avoidant leadership is a negative leadership style and creates frustration and tension in groups (Nielsen, 2013), and tends to relate negatively with a subordinates job satisfaction and satisfaction with the leader (Buch, Martinsen, & Kuvaas, 2015). The implications of these results show that future leadership and supervisory training

programs should discourage the use of passive-avoidant leadership styles in enhancing job satisfaction and motivating employees.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the practical application of this study include using the findings to assist in leadership and training development for supervisors to reduce turnover and retain employees. Though work environment and job attitude variables have strong associations with turnover intent, job satisfaction has been highly correlated with intentions to leave the organization (Matz et al., 2014). Supervisors' attitudes towards employees are an important job satisfaction factor (Chaudhuri & Naskar, 2013), and job satisfaction has long been used as an important research construct in organization and group management (Thompson & Phua, 2012; Van Ryzin, 2012).

The findings in this study may assist managers in understanding employees' attitudes and perceptions that may affect their job satisfaction. Evidence indicates job satisfaction and employees' perception of their supervisors support is a major contribution to reducing turnover in the workplace (Darolia, Kumari, & Darolia, 2010). Leadership training programs in the security industry should emphasize the importance of both the transformational and transactional leadership style having a positive effect on job satisfaction. Moreover, the passive-avoidant leadership style, although insignificant, has shown a negative relationship in the facets of job satisfaction.

The focus of this study was on security officers in Florida; however, 40.8 of the respondents were from other States, and 3.8% from the international community. These responses from other than the State of Florida indicate a good mix of respondents to highlight the scores. Future studies might attempt to replicate the findings to validate the

effects of the Full Range Leadership Theory leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant), along with job satisfaction facets (satisfaction with pay, promotion, coworkers, supervisors, and the work itself) in the security industry.

Conclusions

Most job satisfaction research indicate *pay* is the most significant contributing factor related to turnover. However, this study concluded when measuring job satisfaction compared with the five facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with pay, promotions, supervisors, coworkers, and the job itself); pay as a significant factor for job satisfaction was the second lowest median score at 12, with satisfaction with supervision being second to the highest median score at 45. The findings of a different response other than pay for measuring job satisfaction relative to turnover are significant, particularly with respect to leadership behaviors.

The Full Range Leadership Model theory suggests that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, reduce turnover (Long & Thean, 2011; Lord & Shondrick, 2011) and is a predictor of employee job satisfaction with ratings of leadership effectiveness (Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duer, & Judge, 2012). Transformational leaders are viewed as motivational, influencing employees to be above self-interests to accomplish organizational goals, and are associated with job satisfaction (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011).

Transactional leadership, conversely, builds on punishment and rewards as a leader does not take action until made aware of mistakes or errors by the employee (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003); Zagorsek, Dimovski, & Skerlavaj,

2009). Transactional leadership is more common in organizations, as employees and team members are not expected to go beyond the supervisors and team leaders expectations (Liu, Liu, & Zeng, 2011). However, transactional leadership is effective by providing positive outcomes to employees who perform their duties to standard, while focusing on employee mistakes and complaints, thus assuring organizational success (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010).

The findings of the study show the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and perceived transactional leadership of the supervisor being positive and significant, indicating that higher levels of overall job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of perceived transactional leadership. This finding is significant as previous studies in the literature review has shown transformational leadership is considered the most effective leadership style to enhance job performance, motivate subordinates, and reduce turnover. Important to note, that employees in the security industry and criminal justice organizations, tend to be rule followers who perform their duties to standard. Transactional leaders focus on structure and adherence to guidelines and are effective in actual task performance by setting and communicating specific goals and objectives. The findings are consistent with recent research, indicating passive-avoidant leadership is a negative leadership style and creates frustration and tension in groups (Buch, Martinsen, & Kuvaas, 2015; Nielsen, 2013), and this form of leadership is generally thought of as the most ineffective leadership styles (Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011).

The results of the study make important contributions to the security industry relative to employee perceptions of their supervisors' leadership style and job satisfaction. The study confirms the conclusions of prior studies that transformational

and transactional leaders are the most effective leaders (Abdullah et al., 2013; Gupta, 2011). The study findings show a strong relationship of job satisfaction and supervisory leaderships, which may affect employee turnover and retention. The study validates the importance of the Full Range Leadership Model theory of leadership, and provides a different perspective from previous research of the interchangeable results of leaders who exhibit either transformational or transactional leadership styles, as the study scores indicated positive relationships between both transformational and transactional leadership. The implications of these findings are that future leadership selection and supervisory training in the security industry should focus on attributes that both promote and include transactional leadership styles. Conversely, selection processes should discourage passive-avoidant leadership behaviors, as this style is viewed as ineffective and detrimental to organizations. Since the security industry focus is on specific job functions that strictly follows established rules and regulations, transactional leadership may be more suited for employees in the security industry.

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Appendix A: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

For use by Brice Gyurisko only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on August 15, 2013

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Leader Form

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4
1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.....	0	1	2	3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.....	0	1	2	3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious.....	0	1	2	3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.....	0	1	2	3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.....	0	1	2	3 4
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs.....	0	1	2	3 4
7. I am absent when needed.....	0	1	2	3 4
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.....	0	1	2	3 4
9. I talk optimistically about the future.....	0	1	2	3 4
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me.....	0	1	2	3 4
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.....	0	1	2	3 4
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.....	0	1	2	3 4
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.....	0	1	2	3 4
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.....	0	1	2	3 4
15. I spend time teaching and coaching.....	0	1	2	3 4

Appendix B: The Job Descriptive Index and Job in General

People on Your Present Job

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work
N for "No" if it does not describe them
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- Stimulating
- Boring
- Slow
- Helpful
- Stupid
- Responsible
- Likeable
- Intelligent
- Easy to make enemies
- Rude
- Smart
- Lazy
- Unpleasant
- Supportive
- Active
- Narrow interests
- Frustrating
- Stubborn

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- Pleasant
- Bad
- Great
- Waste of time
- Good
- Undesirable
- Worthwhile
- Worse than most
- Acceptable
- Superior
- Better than most
- Disagreeable
- Makes me content
- Inadequate
- Excellent
- Rotten
- Enjoyable
- Poor

Supervision

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or

- Has favorites
- Tells me where I stand
- Annoying
- Stubborn
- Knows job well
- Bad
- Intelligent
- Poor planner
- Around when needed
- Lazy

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your pay
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- Income adequate for normal expenses
- Fair
- Barely live on income
- Bad
- Comfortable
- Less than I deserve
- Well paid
- Enough to live on
- Underpaid

Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your work
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- Fascinating

phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on the job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- Supportive
- Hard to please
- Impolite
- Praises good work
- Tactful
- Influential
- Up-to-date
- Unkind
- Routine
- Satisfying
- Boring
- Good
- Gives sense of accomplishment
- Respected
- Exciting
- Rewarding
- Useful
- Challenging
- Simple
- Repetitive
- Creative
- Dull
- Uninteresting
- Can see results
- Uses my abilities

Opportunities for Promotion

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion
N for "No" if it does not describe

Appendix C: Job Satisfaction Index Questionnaire

1. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored. _____
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work. _____
3. I feel my job is more interesting than others I could get. _____
4. I find real enjoyment in my work. _____
5. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people. _____
6. I feel fairly well-satisfied with my present job. _____
7. I am satisfied with my job for the time being. _____
8. I like my job better than the average worker does. _____
9. My job is like a hobby to me. _____
10. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs. _____
11. My job has a fair (impartial) promotion policy. _____
12. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time. _____
13. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work. _____
14. I consider my job rather unpleasant. _____
15. I am disappointed that I took this job. _____
16. My job is pretty interesting. _____
17. Each day of work seems like it will never end. _____
18. I am adequately paid for the job I do. _____
19. I am often bored with my job. _____
20. I definitely dislike my work. _____

Scale: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 = undecided; 4 = disagree; 5 = Appendix F:

Appendix D: Informed Consent

Introduction: My name is Brice Gyurisko. I am a doctoral candidate at Northcentral University. I am conducting a research study on security officers' overall job satisfaction and turnover. Job satisfaction and turnover are based on supervisors' leadership style and employee satisfaction with the job. I am completing this research as part of my doctoral degree. I invite you to participate.

Activities: If you participate in this research, you will be asked to respond to questions in an online survey. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete.

Eligibility: You are eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are or were employed as an armed or unarmed security officer or security guard.
2. Are in a non-supervisory role.

You are not eligible to participate in this research if you are in a supervisory role.

I hope to include 159 people in this research.

Risks: There are minimal risks associated in participating in this study. However, if you feel uncomfortable answering any of the questions, you can stop participation at any time. If any of the questions raise some level of uncomfortable reflection or memories, many employers offer through human resources or health services employee assistance programs, which may address your concerns.

Benefits: If you decide to participate, there are no direct benefits to you. Potential benefits to others are providing awareness of how officers perceive their leaders' leadership style. Potential contributions may include increased job satisfaction, improved retention, and reduced turnover.

Confidentiality: The information you provide will be kept confidential to the extent allowable by law. Some steps I will take to keep your identity confidential are not using names or your organization. The people who will have access to your information are my dissertation chair and I. The Institutional Review Board may also review my research and view your information.

I will secure your information by locking the computer with a password. I will keep your information for seven years. Then, I will delete electronic data and destroy paper data.

Contact Information: If you have questions for me, you can contact me at: B.Gyurisko1517@email.NCU.edu. 407-470-6933.

My dissertation chair's name is Dr. Thomas Wilson. He works at Northcentral University and is supervising me on the research. You can contact him at twilson@NCU.edu

If you have questions about your rights in the research, or if a problem has occurred, please contact the Institutional Review Board at: irb@ncu.edu or 1-888-327-2877 ext 8014.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation is voluntary. There are no penalties if you decide not to participate, or if you stop participation after you start.