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Employee Turnover Intentions in Correctional Facilities

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Walden University 2021

Abstract

Employee Turnover Intentions in Correctional Facilities

by

Mary L. Miller

MSA, Central Michigan University, 2003 BS, Franklin University, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

July 2021

Abstract

Employee turnover reduces organizational performance through the increased financial and human resources required to hire and train new employees. Because correctional officers are essential to reducing the inmate recidivism rate, understanding the correlates of correctional officers' intent to leave is essential to reduce turnover. Grounded in Herzberg's two-factor motivation-hygiene theory, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the likelihood of employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception predicting correctional officer turnover intentions. The participants were 68 correctional officers who worked in correctional facilities in Ohio and completed the Job Satisfaction Survey and Turnover Intention Scale surveys. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicated the full model containing the two predictor variables (employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception) was significant in predicting turnover intentions, F(2, 65) = 11.056, p < .001, $R^2 = .231$. Recommendations include providing leadership training programs for correctional leaders and developing programs to improve job satisfaction among correctional officers. The implications for social change include reduced inmate recidivism rates with more inmates returning to the community and becoming positive, productive citizens.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my mother, Mrs. Constance Thurmon, and my son, Rickey Harris, Jr., who, from the time I decided that I wanted to pursue a DBA degree, have been a constant source of support during this challenging journey. Their unwavering love and support during my pursuit of this degree have been amazing. This study is also dedicated to my Aunt Loretta Wells and my cousin Kelly Wells, whose love, support, and encouragement—especially during the imposter syndrome days—always made a huge difference. In addition to my family, I dedicate this study to the rest of my village—

Christine Kidd, Sandra Kellam, Kimberly Williams, Katina Minter, and LaKisha

Tucker—who have supported me throughout this journey. You ladies stuck with me through thick and thin, reminding me that I can overcome any obstacle. I will always be grateful to my entire village for the unconditional love, every word of encouragement, push for greatness, shoulder to cry on, and reminder that with God, all things are possible. You all are awesome cheerleaders, and I am truly blessed.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Research on turnover intention is increasing (Chung et al., 2017; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016; Li et al., 2016; Olasupo et al., 2019; Shahpouri et al., 2016; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). The cost to replace employees can equal up to 200% of the annual salary of the departing employee depending on the position (Elliott, 2021). Nonmonetary and monetary costs associated with voluntary turnover can be substantial, including the loss of human capital and organizational knowledge, recruitment, selection, and new employee training.

Managers should be prepared to address employee turnover intentions at the earliest stage possible (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). In the criminal justice realm, correctional officers play a role in recidivism rate reduction and returning inmates to society as positive, productive members of the community. Understanding achievement, recognition, organizational culture, advancement, organizational policy, leadership, and work conditions is paramount to prison operations (Lambert et al., 2016).

Background of the Problem

Turnover intention is an employee's desire or thought to leave an organization (Chung et al., 2017; Ferdik & Hills, 2018; Larkin et al., 2016; C.-Y. Lin et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2018). Research on employee turnover and retention dates before World War II, increasing after Maslow (1943) proposed the hierarchy of needs theory (Allen & Bryant, 2012; Chung et al., 2017; Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016; Rast & Tourani, 2012; Shahpouri et al., 2016). Organizations must understand the challenges with the disruption and recovery associated with retention and turnover (Hale et al., 2016). But managers do

not fully understand the factors that influence an employee's intent to quit a job (Zhang, 2016), and leaders lack a clear understanding of their influence on employees (LePine et al., 2016).

There have been significant shifts in needs, aspirations, values, and beliefs, changing people's behavior at all organizational levels (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013). Many employees follow a traditional path to turnover in which they become dissatisfied with their job or some important facet thereof, such as the nature of the work, rewards, supervision, opportunities for advancement, or coworkers, leading to quit intentions and actual separation (Allen & Bryant, 2012; Böckerman et al., 2011; O'Connor, 2018; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020). No two employees are the same; therefore, the motivators to remain with an employer differ (Stachowska & Czaplicka-Kozlowska, 2017). The lack of understanding of what causes an employee to develop quit intentions can ultimately affect organizational sustainability (Anvari et al., 2014).

Correctional officer turnover has become a concern for prison managers as there has been an increase in incarcerated inmates (Botek, 2019). Correctional officer turnover costs are also substantial to the organization. Correctional officer positions are vastly different than the non-custody administrative positions within the prisons. For example, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020), reported correctional officers' jobs are stressful and dangerous due to confrontations with inmates, resulting in injuries and illnesses. Understanding why correctional officer's voluntary terminate employment may assist prison managers with reducing the correctional officer turnover rate.

Problem Statement

Employee turnover is often disruptive and can have severe consequences for the organization (Ferdik & Hills, 2018). Depending on the position, employers pay an average cost between 20% to over 200% of the annual salary to replace an employee (Elliott, 2021). The general business problem is that correctional officer turnover costs are substantial to the organization, including the loss of human capital and organizational knowledge, recruitment, selection, and new employee training. The specific business problem is that some prison managers do not understand the relationship between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. The target population for this study was correctional officers working in an Ohio prison. The independent variables were perceptions about job satisfaction and perceptions of leadership behaviors, measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1985). The dependent variable was employee turnover intention, measured using the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) developed by Rosin and Korabik (1991). The data from this study will contribute to social change by providing managers with a better understanding of job satisfaction and employee turnover rates. Retaining correctional officers contributes to the well-being of the community because continuity of care, socialization, welfare, and security will reduce

mistakes, in turn keeping the inmates secured and the community safe (Bergier & Wojciechowski, 2018). Correctional officers play a role in reducing inmate recidivism rates; therefore, less correctional officer turnover helps ensure that the inmates returned to society are positive and productive members of the community.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative approach was appropriate to conduct this study. Quantitative methodology allows researchers to reduce and explain precise, specific conditions (House, 2018). Quantitative data are replicable, reliable, and statistically tested by validated test instruments.

In comparison, researchers use qualitative inquiry to explore meaning, interpretations, and individual experiences (Birchall, 2014). Qualitative research methods are apt to investigate environments, situations, and processes that cannot be studied using quantitative methods (Hazzan & Nutov, 2014; Patton, 2013). A qualitative researcher can use three kinds of data: (a) in-depth, open-ended interviews; (b) direct observation; and (c) written communication (Patton, 2013). Because the goal of this study was to explore the relationship, if any, between variables, the qualitative method was not appropriate.

A mixed methods approach combines qualitative and quantitative research inquiries (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Conducting mixed methods research develops insights into phenomena that are challenging to understand using only a quantitative or qualitative approach. Because mixed methods entails using qualitative methods, it was also not appropriate for this study, the goal of which was to explore the variables related to an employee's desire to quit.

A correlational design was chosen for this study. Researchers seeking statistical control to display more precise estimates of relationships among variables conduct correlational studies (Becker et al., 2016). Correlational methods allow for testing hypotheses to rule out the effects of extraneous variables. Because descriptive statistics are experimental (Ivey, 2016), they were inappropriate for this study, with the data derived from surveys to ascertain the relationship, if any, between two variables. Causal-comparative and quasi-experimental designs incorporate control groups (George et al., 2017), which was also the wrong approach for this study. Experimental research establishes cause-and-effect relationships (Vargas et al., 2017). The goal of this study was not to enact control over variables via experimentation; therefore, I did not use experimental research.

Research Question and Hypothesis

What is the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities?

 H_0 : No statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities.

 H_a : A statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities.

Theoretical Framework

Many researchers have used Herzberg's (1974) two-factor theory to ground their research on turnover intention (Deri et al., 2021). Motivation-hygiene theory was the theoretical framework selected to examine the factors that predict correctional officer quit intentions in Ohio. Herzberg performed studies to determine which factors in an employee's work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These are the motivation factors related to the job itself and the results of performing the job.

The perception of leadership through Herzberg's work impacts job satisfaction (Holliman & Daniels, 2018). Organizations have a key role in the careers of their employees (Li-Fen & Chun-Chieh, 2013; Sinden et al., 2013; Visagie & Koekemoer, 2014). Employee motivators include achievement, recognition, organizational culture, and advancement (Herzberg, 1974). Employees also have hygiene factors, which are organizational policy, leadership, work conditions, and relationship with the boss. Organizations must understand the concept of retaining manpower as part of the organization's structure (Chitra & Badrinath, 2014).

The work environment can also affect an employee's performance. There can be factors other than salary and working conditions that influence employees' intention to stay in the organization (Chitra & Badrinath, 2014). Employees can become motivated when given the proper tools to overcome workplace challenges, leading to the ability to promote within the organization (Olasupo et al., 2019). Using Herzberg's theory, the current he study may effect positive social change and impact business practices by

providing managers a better understanding of the voluntary turnover of correctional officers.

Operational Definitions

Continuance commitment: Continuous commitment describes an employee's degree of commitment to an organization based on the personal fear of loss (Borkowska & Czerw, 2017).

Emotional commitment: Emotional commitment describes an individual's positive emotions, passion, and purpose are directly related to the organization (Borkowska & Czerw, 2017).

Employee turnover intention: Employee turnover intention is an individuals' estimated probability of leaving the organization soon (In-Jo & Heajung, 2015).

Extrinsic job satisfaction: Extrinsic job satisfaction describes an employee's satisfaction with the supervision, institution policies and practices, compensation, advancement, opportunities, and recognition (Hancer & George, 2004).

Intrinsic job satisfaction: Intrinsic job satisfaction describes an employee's satisfaction with certain factors in the job setting that offer prospects for activity, independence, variety, social status, moral values, security, social service, authority, ability utilization, responsibility, creativity, and achievement (Hancer & George, 2004).

Job dissatisfaction: Job dissatisfaction is the absence of factors such as fair pay, status, and working conditions that produce an acceptable work environment (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state that is a function of the perceived relationship between what individuals want from a job and what they perceive the position is offering (Locke, 1969).

Motivators: Motivators are factors intrinsic to the job that push an employee to pursue excellence (Phillips & Gully, 2013).

Transactional leadership: Transactional leadership is a short-term leadership style used to motivate employees through contingent rewards, management by exception, and laissez-faire systems (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leadership: Transformational leadership is a leadership style used to motivate followers to transcend their self-interests to accomplish collective goals while inspiring them to discard their self-interests and believe in the leader's vision (Bass, 1985).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

An assumption represents what the researcher takes for granted (Theofanidis & Fountouki, 2018). For example, an assumption was that the employees were straightforward and provided truthful responses to the survey. Another assumption was that the participants interacted with their managers enough to comprehend leadership behaviors to participate in the study.

Limitations

Limitations are uncontrollable threats to the internal validity of a study that researchers cannot control (Ellis & Levy, 2009). Limitations can occur during the study

design, data collection, data analysis, or study results stage as weaknesses within a study (Ross & Bibler Zaldi, 2019). The first limitation was the use of self-administered surveys, which prevented opportunities to clarify participant responses. The second limitation was that study participants were limited to correctional officers currently employed within prisons in Ohio.

Delimitations

Delimitations are the factors, constructs, or variables a researcher consciously sets for the study themselves (Theofanidis & Fountouki, 2018). The first delimitation was that the span of this study included correctional officers within Ohio. The participants did not include employees who were not correctional officers working in correctional facilities in Ohio. The results of the study did not apply to non-correctional officer classifications.

The second delimitation was only correctional officers in Ohio participated because the population would encompass county, state and federal prisons providing access to a larger population.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

Employee turnover is often disruptive and expensive (Bryant & Allen, 2013), and the costs associated with replacing employees can be significant (Frankel, 2016).

Notwithstanding the changing organizational processes, organizational leaders need to make concerted efforts to understand employee's needs and retain their loyalty (Chitra & Badrinath, 2014). Organizational leaders should develop and implement employee reward systems to foster employee loyalty (Michael et al., 2016).

Correctional staffing is a reciprocal relationship based on its impact on workplace and prison operations (Lambert et al., 2020). Understanding and implementing organizational changes based on Herzberg's (1974) employee motivation and hygiene factors may result in decreased exit numbers. The results of this study may add to the literature on public service voluntary retention rates.

Implications for Social Change

Organizational commitment and employee job satisfaction must work in tandem, otherwise organizational sustainability is at risk (Aulibrk et al., 2018). Correctional officers rehabilitate convicted felons (Lambert et al., 2016). By providing managers with a more in-depth understanding of the correlations associated with employee turnover intentions, this study contributes to social change. Correctional officers play a role in achieving the goal of recidivism rate reduction and ensuring that inmates returned to society are positive, productive members of the community. Understanding achievement, recognition, organizational culture, advancement, organizational policy, leadership, and work conditions is significant to prison operations.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship among employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. Research is available on retention rates and job satisfaction (Basinska & Gruszczynska, 2017; Borkowska & Czerw, 2017; Hairr et al., 2014; He et al., 2014; Lambert et al., 2018; Lim, 2014; Lin et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2018). This literature review addresses the topics of turnover intention, job satisfaction,

leadership, and employee stress. Accessing the peer-reviewed literature entailed using Thoreau, ProQuest, Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, government websites and Google Books. Keyword searches of *turnover*, *turnover* intention, *turnover* rate, intention to leave, turnover rates and retention, turnover rates in prisons, correctional officer, leadership behavior, effective leadership, leadership behavior and culture, job satisfaction, job satisfaction and performance and job satisfaction and turnover produced 246 relevant sources, which included 225 (91%) peer-reviewed journal articles, eight (3%) non-peer-reviewed journal articles, nine (4%) books, two (1%) dissertation, and two (1%) government sites.

Turnover Intentions

Turnover can be a critical issue for organizations (Jauhar et al., 2017; Makarius et al., 2017). Thus, growing numbers of researchers have explored employee turnover (Chung et al., 2017; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Ferdik & Hills, 2018; Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016; Li et al., 2016; C.-Y. Lin et al., 2021; Olasupo et al., 2019; Shahpouri et al., 2016; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). The significant amount of research on this topic indicates the importance of understanding and mitigating employee turnover and turnover intentions. Turnover research incorporates empirical knowledge that introduces strategies to reduce unwanted employee turnover and traditional strategies that have plateaued with limited utility (S. H. Lee & Jeong, 2017).

Employees do not make decisions to leave in haste but with an alternative in mind. For example, turnover intention of correctional officers begins when they are exploring other options once they no longer become invested in the prison (Ferdik & Hill,

2018). Two types of individuals intending to leave are (a) reluctant leavers who lack control of their present situations yet have control over leaving and (b) enthusiastic leavers who have no hesitation and are excited about the next chapter in their journey (Li et al., 2016).

Turnover can be voluntary or involuntary (Dotun, 2014; Kashmoola et al., 2017). The general causes of employee turnover are (a) external factors that include current unemployment rates and job availability; (b) organizational factors comprised of reward systems, work environment, and differing leadership styles; and (c) individual factors, such as coworker performance and overall dissatisfaction of the workplace (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). External factors include unemployment levels and job opportunities; organizational factors comprise leadership styles, environment, and rewards systems; and individual factors consist of coworker performance and dissatisfaction with the work itself (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Further, external factors can include employment perceptions, union presence, and unemployment rates; work-related factors include role clarity, pay, promotional opportunities, and organizational commitment; and personal factors include age, gender, education, marital status, number of children, and biographical information (Dubey et al., 2016). These factors are important to understand the relationship between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and turnover intentions, which was the purpose of this study. Additionally, reasons most employees choose to depart from organizations include (a) unmet expectations, (b) unsuitable person-job fit, (c) an absence of mentoring, coaching, and counseling of employees toward success, (d) poor opportunities for advancement, (e) devalued feelings, (f) improper work—life balance, and (g) lack or loss of trust of organizational leaders (Fibuch & Ahmed, 2015). With many reasons for employees' decisions to leave, leaders must understand the importance of voluntary job turnover (Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016).

To begin to understand turnover intention, job satisfaction research suggests that turnover is modestly predicted by satisfaction (Li et al., 2016). For example, Kashmoola et al. (2017) examined the relationship between turnover and job satisfaction by understanding how workplace issues and the environment affect employees and found that there is limited evidence to support how turnover and job satisfaction are related to each other. Zito et al. (2018) also identified influences on turnover intention, such as quality of work life and relational variables. In researching civil servants, Lin et al. (2021) found that mediating effects to turnover intentions included job satisfaction. Personal shock such as the death of a loved one can lead to turnover, but job satisfaction can mediate the effect of organizational shocks, which include organizational changes (Holtom et al., 2017).

Research has also suggested several influences on turnover intention such as wages, race, and commitment to the organization. Organizations compensating workers lower wages face obstacles with employee turnover (He et al., 2014). When their salaries align with their perceived worth, employees feel invested in and are inclined to remain with the organization. Ensuring that it is financially lucrative for employees to stay can reduce turnover rates (Whitfield et al., 2017). Turnover rates are also higher for minority employees (Buttner & Lowe, 2017), which indicates a need for strategies to reduce employee turnover on all levels in every demographic. A multipronged approach

involving a multidisciplinary team can change an organization's culture. Corporate social responsibility also correlates to employee turnover intention as it lends to the employee's purpose in the workplace; if an employee does not feel meaning in their work, turnover can increase (Carnahan et al., 2017). When employees commit to the organization, they do not exhibit behaviors that will cost the organization, as they are invested in the team and take ownership of their place in it (Wombacher & Felfe, 2017).

There is also a relationship between employee engagement and employee turnover intentions (Caesens et al., 2016). Turnover intentions at the line staff levels are associated with work engagement with front-line managers. Based on a study of autonomy, skill variety, and performance feedback, work engagement affects job resources in a direct and positive manner (Kim, 2017). Engaged employees reconsider the option to quit their jobs when they feel capable of meeting the job's demands (Gabel Shemueli et al., 2016). The feeling of connection with colleagues could also positively affect employees' views of the organization and reduce turnover (Porter et al., 2016).

Regardless of the reason for turnover, disruption can arise in many forms when an employee departs (Hale et al., 2016). Human resources professionals have found turnover effects on the organization to include human capital, productivity, and training (Lin et al., 2021). The costs to replace correctional officers can be substantial, including overtime, recruitment, and the corrections training academy to prepare the officers to work in prison. Correctional officers' disposition could also be affected due to working conditions (Ferdik & Hills, 2018). Disruption and recovery can be significant influences depending on the interdependence and role of the departed employee.

The cost to replace unproductive employees can high (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017; Carlson et al., 2017; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). Financial impacts to replace employees can be up to 150% of the base salary of the exiting employee (Frankel, 2016). Other costs associated with voluntary turnover include the loss of human capital and organizational knowledge, recruitment, selection, and new employee training. The expense of replacing employees can ultimately affect the bottom line. Organizational costs related to turnover fall into two categories (a) direct costs consisting of recruitment, selection, training, and onboarding new employees and (b) indirect costs that comprise reduced employee morale, cultural shifts, and doing more work with less (Dotun, 2014). When employers face turnover, they should look beyond the internal environment to develop strategies to address workers' departure (Dotun, 2014). The costs to replace employees is a significant percentage of the organizational operational budget. In research on correctional staff and job stress, Lambert et al. (2020) identified annual percentages for correctional staff replacement costs of \$49 to \$56 billion.

In addition to the high employee replacement costs, organizational leaders need to be aware that reductions in performance, productivity and morale are adverse effects of employee turnover (Huffman et al., 2014). Organizations should also consider the costs to replace organizational leaders and understand investing in human potential (Richards, 2016). Turnover causes employers to lose knowledge transfer across the organization (Cho & Song, 2017). Other adverse effects of losing functional employees include the harm to productivity and performance (Meddour et al., 2016).

One of the greatest threats to organization sustainability is employee turnover (Schlechter et al., 2016). Workforce planning and succession initiatives must be in place to address turnover events (Ali & Mehreen, 2019). Organizational leaders need to identify the antecedents of employee turnover intentions (Dotun, 2014), which can help address turnover intentions at the earliest stages (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). Leaders should examine turnover rates across the enterprise rather than at an individual level related to company outcomes (Makarius et al., 2017). Leaders addressing employee well-being will help to reduce employee turnover (Zito et al., 2018). Leaders must strategically develop targeted approaches to ascertain which employees have the potential to quit and provide incentives or customized plans to garner their commitment (Schlechter et al., 2016). Retention approaches developed to address and manage voluntary turnover are important strategic initiatives to sustainability, supporting the need for this study.

Employers should utilize contingent rewards to reduce voluntary turnover of younger leaders in managerial positions as it helps to build credibility on the sphere of influence to legitimize them (Buengeler et al., 2016). Contingent rewards also show the team that the organization is trustworthy and reliable. By consulting with and obtaining feedback from the team members, leaders can influence the outcomes and reduce voluntary turnover. Thus, organizational intrinsic and extrinsic rewards decrease employees' turnover intentions (Rani & Samuel, 2016). For example, pay increases and job security are extrinsic rewards that affect correctional officers' turnover intentions as well as when a correctional officer experiences intrinsic rewards in the form of a sense of achievement and receives recognition for their work.

Work Attitudes

The foundation of employees' behavior is their attitude. The underlying issue with negative behaviors is a negative attitude (Kaur et al., 2017). Employees' attitudes toward work influence their motivation, which has implications for retention (Czerw & Grabowski, 2015). Dissatisfied employees exhibit behaviors that include increased absences, decreased performance, aloofness, and complete withdrawal from all work activities (Bennedsen et al., 2019). These behaviors can become costly for organizations. In contrast, happy employees are productive employees (Jena et al., 2018). Organizations should invest in leaders of high ethical fortitude, creating an environment built on loyalty and trust (Wang & Yang, 2016).

Managers can find it challenging to influence employees when attempting to influence attitudes (Vito, 2020). But management practices and procedures aimed at increasing positive feelings toward the organization can reduce the intent to quit (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). Because work attitudes have an impact on turnover intentions, managers should act to increase positive feelings and work attitudes to reduce intention and increase retention.

Commitment

Employee commitment contains three distinct characteristics (a) identification or accepting influence to establish relationships; (b) internalization, which occurs when the influence aligns with the employee value system; and (c) compliance, with the adoption of organizational behaviors and attitudes (Dotun, 2014). Commitment derives from employees with high levels of job satisfaction (Pérez-Pérez et al., 2017). Employees are

more likely to commit to the organization when they are satisfied with their jobs.

Employee motivation increases when organizations place a higher value on job satisfaction (Arekar et al., 2016). Commitment to employees along with resources, both tangible and intangible, shape the culture and climate of an organization (Yavas et al., 2015), such as company family-friendly policies (Bae & Yang, 2017). Employees are committed to employers that offer policies and practices to assist families, including those specific to maternity leave, childcare leave, and personal leaves of absence to pursue secondary education. Because organizational commitment has been linked to decreased turnover intent, correctional officer organizational commitment is essential for successful prison operation.

As employees' commitment to the organization decreases, turnover rates will increase. For instance, employees who are not secure with their job are not committed to the organization, strengthening turnover intentions (Griffith et al., 2018; Lee & Jeong, 2017), as the fear of losing a job can be as damaging as losing the job (Vander Elst et al., 2016). Employees faced with unfair processes and procedures, including abusive supervision, also tend to have decreased job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016). Such behaviors also stifle employee creativity, reduce performance, and increase deviance (Mulki & Wilkinson, 2017; Osman et al., 2015; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Further, management's inability to provide supportive behaviors to employees can dismantle the reciprocal relationship between employer and employee (S. H. Lee & Jeong, 2017). Without an emotional bond, there is no sense of obligation to the organization and, therefore, no duty to stay

(Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020). Thus, leadership style can impact commitment and turnover intention (Eberly et al., 2017; Osman et al., 2015).

Employees also become invested in organizations that fit their value system, so organizational justice contributes to turnover intentions (Çelik et al., 2016). Additionally, employees become invested in the processes they help create. Organizational commitment in correctional facilities and explained affective commitment is also related to the positive outcome for correctional staff (Lambert et al., 2020). Once employees begin to trust the organization, they develop a commitment bond with the organization. As organizations make improvements in the workplace, employee commitment improves; thus, turnover intentions decrease.

Employee Stress

Stressors include daily life work tension intrinsic to the job (Sultan & Rashid, 2014). Occupational stressors (e.g., job dissatisfaction and organizational commitment) can influence employee attitudes and employee behaviors that have implications for organizational effectiveness (Newton & Jimmieson, 2009). Generally consistent with conclusions in existing occupational stress research, role ambiguity related to increased tension and burnout indicators (e.g., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and less-favorable levels of job-related attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover; Newton & Jimmieson, 2009). Finally, role overload related to higher tension, exhaustion, depersonalization, propensity to quit, and a reduced commitment to the organization.

Additionally, increased interpersonal stress can promote diminished job performance, increasing an employee's desire to leave (Mulki & Wilkinson, 2017). Interpersonal stress is not as easy to identify from a management perspective. Employees consciously decide to discontinue their relationship with the organization, with multiple stages to turnover intention, including cognitive, behavioral, and psychological. The stronger the relationship, the stronger the employee's attitude, resulting in better performance and a decreased desire to exit (Osman et al., 2015).

Correctional officers face stressful work conditions due to close proximity with inmates and varying shifts (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Further, correctional staff workloads have become burdensome due to increased turnover, which leads to more job stress (Lai, 2017). Correctional officers face job stressors that include worry, tension, frustration, and anxiety. Other stressors are associated with employee role identity stress, interpersonal stress, career development, and environmental stress in the work, climate, and organizational workplace. Correctional officers are tasked with ensuring the safety and security of the prison and inmates. Therefore, understanding and mitigating correctional officer stress is important for reducing correctional officer turnover.

Employee Retention

Several factors affect an employee's decision to leave employment by resignation or transfer to another location. Due to the work environment, retaining correctional officers is challenging for prison facilities. Leadership behavior and job satisfaction are concerns in the correctional environment, as violence between offenders is unpredictable A crucial correlate of employees' feeling of well-being in the organization is their

emotions, either positive or negative (Basinska & Gruszczynska, 2017). Prison Managers face critical issues related to retention, including basic officer safety, officer complacency, and inmates assaulting correctional officers' dignity. The degree of need satisfaction depends on structural or social aspects of the environment (De Cooman et al., 2013). De Cooman et al. (2013) identified the drive for autonomy as the need to experience ownership of behavior and overcome any sense of violation. The need for relatedness refers to the need to feel connected to others, and the need for competence refers to the need to be effective and to manage various challenges.

Lambert et al. (2017) identified three phases of a correctional officer's career: entry, establishment, and maintenance. The establishment phase begins when the correctional officer seeks promotion to a supervisory or management position. The ability to effectively communicate and provide support with correctional officer's promotion inclusion is paramount to employee retention (Yang & Wei, 2019). Cottrill et al. (2014) examined how organizations encouraged their employees via perceptions of inclusion and related factors. In addition, Cottrill et al. (2014) collected data from 107 primary and 219 peer participants in various industries throughout the United States and found that authentic leadership positively related to inclusion ($\beta = 0.58$, p < 0.01) and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = 0.63$, p < 0.01). Cottrill et al. also found inclusion positively associated with organization-based self-esteem ($\beta = 0.48$, p < 0.01) and self-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = 0.63$, p < 0.01). Therefore, prison managers should communicate and promote feelings of inclusion to entry level

correctional officers to decrease the likelihood of turnover prior to reaching the establishment phase.

Jungyoon et al. (2014) examined the relationship between organizational structure (centralization, formalization, and span of control) and human resources practices (training, horizontal communication, and vertical communication) on job satisfaction and turnover intent. Jungyoon et al. (2014) collected data from 58 long-term care facilities in five states, using latent class analysis to group facility characteristics into organic, mechanistic, and minimalist combinations. Multivariate regression was the analysis used to examine the effect of each group on job satisfaction and turnover intent, which showed a positive relationship with job satisfaction and a negative relationship with quit intentions. In addition, Lambert et al. (2017) contended that organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement significantly affect employee intentions. Future researchers could examine organizational structure and commitment to identify outcomes associated with job stress.

Researching the unfolding model of turnover and the dual-process theory of information processing, Palanski et al. (2014) examined the roles of ethical leadership and abusive supervision in the turnover process. Surveys from 1,319 participants showed a domino effect of influences on quit intentions. Palanski et al. concluded that ethical leadership influences job satisfaction, which then affects intention to quit. Likewise, Newton and Jimmieson (2009), noted the lack of supervisor support is also associated with job dissatisfaction and intentions to leave. The higher the equivalence of employees' perceptions of treatment similar and favorable to others', the more likely employees will

enjoy their work and remain with their current employer (Frenkel et al., 2013). Reilly et al. (2014) examined hiring rates and employee transfer rates as distinct system components alongside voluntary turnover rates to affect job demands and, ultimately, patient satisfaction of healthcare workers.

Leadership Behavior Perception

Leadership theories have been a topic of discussion among theorists for years. Ma et al., (2017) reported results consistent with findings consistent in Cheng et al., (2020) and Gökyer (2020) studies examining leadership behavior as having a transformational role in the organization, coupled with the need to provide true leadership for employees to excel. Some scholars suggested that leadership correlates with job satisfaction (L. F. Lin & Tseng, 2013; Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013; Oakman & Howie, 2013). Boddy (2017) identified potential links among traits, attitudes, behaviors, and leadership. According to Buengeler et al. (2016), for leaders to be successful, they must have followers. Yang (2014) found that when leaders motivate employees and cultivate internal task attitudes, higher levels of job satisfaction can result. Y Yang noted that job satisfaction is a mediator within the leadership process, allowing employees to realize their roles in job involvement. Leaders who place value on employee engagement will benefit from reduced employee quit intentions (Reina et al., 2018). Jauhar et al. (2017) contributed to the literature on the impact on leadership and job satisfaction related to turnover intention, finding a significant negative relationship between transformational leadership and quit intentions. Furthermore, Jauhar et al. contended that the intention to quit would remain when leaders fail to emphasize job satisfaction. Roberts-Turner et al.

(2014) asserted that the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership is understudied.

Skogstad et al. (2014) investigated the job satisfaction of subordinates based on constructive or destructive leadership behaviors. Constructive leadership comes from leaders who support their subordinates, giving them the ability to influence followers; in contrast, destructive leadership is abusive supervision. Skogstad et al. found two distinct conclusions: (a) the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles differs specifically in cross-sectional designs, and (b) the influence of active destructive leadership grows over time. Participative leadership utilizes a holistic approach.

Buengeler et al. (2016), suggested consulting with and obtaining feedback from the team members the leaders can influence the outcomes.

A quality leader must possess many traits, such as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability, to invest in human capital (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017). According to Surlyamurthi et al. (2013), leadership is ultimately about creating a way for people to contribute to making something extraordinary happen. Participative leadership entails employee involvement in day-to-day, work-related decisions (El-Nahas et al., 2013). Leadership is the innate ability to influence others in achieving goals. The 21st century brought many challenges for leaders, forcing them to adapt and redefine what it takes to succeed (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013). Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) found that leaders could influence employee perceptions by maintaining an environment focused on ethical leadership and an ethical climate, leading to affective commitment and

reduced turnover. Organizations benefit when employees believe they work in highly ethical environments.

Positive leadership links to organizational fairness (Shim & Rohrbaugh, 2014).

According to Frenkel et al. (2013), employees' perceptions of their relationships with management functionaries significantly impact employee well-being and, by implication, organizational performance. Most leaders are competent, experienced, and ethical in their behaviors; however, leaders who are self-serving, arrogant, and incompetent remain, leading to organizational dysfunction (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013). Oleszkiewicz and Lachowicz-Tabaczek (2016) stated that along with competence, sincerity, and support, leaders should relay warmth toward their employees, encouraging a relationship of trust.

Once trust is earned, that trust will remain even during chaotic working conditions. Leadership is twofold, as leaders must claim the identity of a leader in the organization and followers must affirm the leaders by granting them the role (Buengeler et al., 2016). Schwendimann et al. (2016) found managerial behaviors and practices are associated with the workplace; specifically, employee satisfaction and participative behaviors are beneficial to follower satisfaction. Oleszkiewicz and Lachowicz-Tabaczek (2016) identified the need for future research in the interpersonal relations of respect, liking, and trust in the workplace.

Leaders provide direction and motivate employees. Authentic, servant, transformational, and transactional leadership were the classifications used for the present study. Walumbwa et al. (2008) described authentic leaders as exhibiting a pattern of behavior, pulling from and promoting positive psychological capacities and a positive

ethical climate. Authentic leadership fosters increased self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced information processing, and relational transparency among leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development. Servant leaders have six key characteristics: empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship (Parris & Peachey, 2012). Specific leadership styles are necessary to achieve employee empowerment and engagement. Huertas-Valdivia et al. (2019) identified the need for further research to investigate additional styles of leadership and empowerment.

Transformational and transactional leadership are opposites in the underlying theories of management. Transformational leaders can motivate followers to transcend self-interest and accomplish collective goals while believing in the leader's vision (Bass, 1985). Jauhar et al. (2017) suggested that leaders using transformational leadership strategies would increase organizational sustainability through increased employee retention but also noted transformational leadership style is ideal for retaining and transferring institutional knowledge. Bass (1985) described transformational leadership as leaders stimulating followers' interests to achieve greater potential. Transformational leadership was the focal style in much of the cross-cultural leadership research behaviors on employee workplace outcomes (Mustafa & Lines, 2013).

Transactional leaders direct employees with clear goals, using punishment and rewards as motivational tools (Hargis et al., 2011). Mustafa and Lines (2013) argued that to leverage the positive effects of leadership, leaders need to learn how individual-level cultural values shape follower workplace reactions to leadership. It is also essential for

leaders to recognize how various leadership styles and subordinate cultural value orientations influence follower workplace attitudes and behaviors. Ethical leadership is crucial to an organization's sustainability.

Haslam et al. (2019) indicated leaders are trusted to influence employees as they develop their social identity. Ethical leadership matters in the context of organizational change because of the need for followers to trust the integrity of their leaders (Sharif & Scandura, 2014). Sharif and Scandura (2014) argued that one important source of employees' response to change could be the ethicality of their leader. The employee's perception of the leader may shift if change requires compromising moral principles. Credibility is often a component of leaders, inducing positive subordinate attitudes and behaviors. Sharif and Scandura argued that positive, ethical, and trustworthy leaders could reduce employee turnover during times of organizational instability. According to Ma et al. (2017), leaders should act appropriately at all times, as employees will mimic their behaviors.

Job Satisfaction

G. Wang et al. (2017) defined job satisfaction as a positive attitude toward work and the employment environment. O'Connor et al. (2018) indicated that job satisfaction stems from an employee's commitment, performance, and turnover intention. Sharma (2017) described it as a multidimensional construct with a myriad of definitions because of the impact on employee commitment and job performance. Guoping et al. (2017) found few common definitions of job satisfaction within the literature, deeming it an abstract concept. Kashmoola et al. (2017) contended that although there is no generally

agreed-upon definition for job satisfaction, researchers agree that it is one of the most complex supervisory areas for managers.

Obeid et al. (2017) contended that job dissatisfaction is related to an employee's premature desire to depart the company. Deri et al. (2021) identified motivation as one of many contributors to job satisfaction. Individual and organizational stress contribute to how an employee reacts to the organization. Individual stresses include those based on demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, education, and tenure) and job stress; organizational factors that affect job satisfaction include role conflict and role ambiguity (Kashmoola et al., 2017). Giles et al. (2017) identified characteristics that influence job satisfaction as job variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and feedback. Regardless of the demographics and characteristics of job satisfaction, employees who have healthy outlooks on the workplace, receive promotions, and feel a sense of community will experience high levels of job satisfaction (Guoping et al., 2017).

Many scholars have linked leadership behaviors to job satisfaction (e.g., Adamska et al., 2015; El-Nahas et al., 2013; Locke, 1969; Mustafa & Lines, 2013; Palanski et al., 2014; Schwendimann et al., 2016). Job satisfaction has received extensive research because of its significant implications for both organization and employee (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Job satisfaction is easy to sense yet difficult to manage (Frampton, 2014). Labor is one of the costliest expenditures that organizations face (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Akeke et al. (2015) found normative and affective commitment positively influenced by job satisfaction. Undesirable outcomes associated with decreased job satisfaction include reduced commitment, inefficiency, absenteeism, and turnover.

According to Schaumberg and Flynn (2017), guilt proneness is one of the impediments to fulfilling normative expectations. Obeid et al. (2017) proposed that some employees are genetically predisposed to be negative or positive about job satisfaction. Employees dissatisfied in the workplace will not return to the organization.

Job satisfaction represents one psychological factor influencing individual performance (Davis, 2012). Schwendimann et al. (2016) examined job satisfaction and its association with the work environment. Organizations face high costs due to low job satisfaction (Diestel et al., 2014). Kai et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between self-control and job satisfaction based on research suggesting that employees with high self-control have high levels of job satisfaction. Individuals' ability to override their dominant responses and change by interrupting the tendencies to act is the definition of self-control (Kai et al., 2016). Employees must exhibit levels of self-control in the workplace at all times. Kai et al. found that employees with higher levels of self-control could handle challenging situations in the workplace, leading to higher levels of job satisfaction.

Factors relevant to the effects of job satisfaction fall into two groups: individual (e.g., age, sex, education, work and service periods, and marital status) and organizational (e.g., supervision, work conditions, and work environment). Güçer and Demirdağ (2017) examined the relationship between the variables of job satisfaction and trust perception. Employees need to be able to trust their leaders and the strategic direction of the organization. Güçer and Demirdağ (2017) defined trust as an employee's confidence that the organization's and representatives' goals will be successful.

Roberts-Turner et al. (2014) presented three factors to employee job satisfaction: personal, organizational, and interpersonal. Schwendimann et al. (2016) contended that antecedents of job satisfaction include both organizational and personal factors.

According to Locke (1969), developing emotions that give rise to job satisfaction is a three-step process: (a) workers must experience some element of the work environment, (b) employees must use a value standard on which work elements are judged, and (c) workers must evaluate how the perceived work element facilitates or inhibits the achievement of preferred values. Babalola et al. (2016) ascertained employees do not acclimate to frequent changes in the workplace, and those changes may lead to increased uncertainty toward job satisfaction. Gertsson et al. (2017) found job satisfaction determinants in three categories: work conditions, work environment, and perceptions of the profession.

Psychological empowerment is a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (L. F. Lin & Tseng, 2013). Employees can derive significant benefits from experiences that enhance the personal value of their work, and feelings of self-efficacy will exert positive effects on their job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction can result from the impact of leaders' behavior on their followers (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013).

Adamska et al. (2015) stated employees' behaviors derive from cognitive schema based on their beliefs of whether organizational promises are met or unmet. Employees' engagement in the organization depends on their level of job satisfaction. According to Borkowska and Czerw (2017), symptoms of employee engagement develop from

organizational roles. If individuals value discretion to determine the best way to complete their work, overbearing supervision limiting perceived authority will lead to job dissatisfaction. Conversely, satisfaction could result if an individual values the attention and feedback from direct supervision (Davis, 2012). When employees perceive favorable trade-offs concerning the elements of the work environment, job satisfaction increases. J. Ball et al. (2017) identified an association between working 12-hour shifts and job satisfaction through a multilevel regression model. Organizational decisions that affect employees in contradiction to the employee value system reduces workers' sense of commitment (Adamska et al., 2015). When employees confirm their value in the organization, they will feel proud and develop additional abilities.

Bonte and Krabel (2014) assessed job satisfaction related to gender differences and determined that women are slightly less satisfied with their employment than men. Two possible reasons for the result are adjusted expectation levels and the age of the women sampled. Because career progression is important for many people, it seems likely that the positive relationship between hope and life and job satisfaction is partially due to the relationship between hope and career development (Hirschi, 2014). As employees age, they prepare for retirement. High levels of job satisfaction and financial situations become deciding factors to those eligible for retirement (Oakman & Linsey, 2013). Based on the two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1974), job content, its nature, and the tasks themselves are crucial for motivating employees to do their jobs. Three psychological states (i.e., meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results)

emerge when employees experience a high level of job satisfaction (Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2013).

Parveen et al. (2017) studied job satisfaction among health care professionals, specifically nurses, to understand the factors that reduce job satisfaction and increase turnover rates to develop initiatives to retain employees. Parveen et al. conducted a multivariate analysis of variance to test the differences between professions and dimensions of job satisfaction, finding no significant differences between professions and job satisfaction. The researchers could not differentiate between the registered nurses and qualified health care professionals related to job satisfaction, personal growth, and leadership support. However, Parveen et al. did find the qualified health care professionals were satisfied with their salaries, whereas the registered nurses were dissatisfied.

Significant differences have emerged from studying private-sector versus public-sector employment. Public employee research was lacking in the area of employee turnover—specifically, mobility within the organization (Sharma, 2017). According to Agarwal and Sajid (2017), the differences include job security, pay, benefits, and taking risks within the employment contexts of both sectors. It is imperative to understand the dimensions of labor supply and demand in the public sector. Employers must identify factors, such as budget restrictions, staffing decisions, compensation, and performance reviews, to fully understand turnover intentions (Sharma, 2017).

Organizations have a collaborative role in employees' careers (Li-Fen & Chun-Chieh, 2013; Sinden et al., 2013; Visagie & Koekemoer, 2014). One important aspect of

the employment relationship in modern business is psychological, based on the perceived expectations and obligations, significantly affecting employees' behavior (Jafri, 2014). The definition of job satisfaction as the totality of the level of contentment employees have toward their jobs is the most acceptable for the content sampled by job satisfaction instruments (Locke, 1969). Job satisfaction is an ongoing challenge for organizations with regard to decreased productivity and organizational sustainability. The incongruity of poor person—work environmental fit reflects low job satisfaction and stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 2014).

Van Ryzin (2014) argued that job satisfaction was a key outcome of interest in the study of organizations, including public ones. Böckerman et al. (2011) noted various channels through which job satisfaction can affect productivity (e.g., direct impact in measured productivity, organizational citizenship, positive productivity effects through decreased absenteeism, and retention). Islam and Ali (2013) suggested that employee satisfaction ultimately impacts the organization's productivity and effectiveness. In two studies to test the prediction that absenteeism and job satisfaction are somewhat associated with guilt proneness, Schaumberg and Flynn (2017) found that employees with low job satisfaction tend to have increased absences due to guilt proneness. Further, Schaumberg and Flynn found absenteeism was a crucial concern for management, warranting further research on this topic.

Although job satisfaction might not be the single source of employee turnover rates, it is significant, with employees' performance matrix driven by satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace. With organizational sustainability at the forefront,

leadership should also focus on all aspects that negatively or positively affect employee life cycle in the workplace. Gertsson et al. (2017) argued that employees in good work conditions and overall suitable work environments experience increased job satisfaction, thus reducing the employee's intention to quit. Table 1 presents a review of Herzberg's (1974) two-factor theory, existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory, and expectancy theory.

Table 1A Review of the Theories

Theory	Relevance
Two-factory theory (Herzberg, 1974)	Explores the dominant factors that employees identify as imperative to their job satisfaction
ERG theory (Alderfer, 1969)	Divides an individual's human needs into three categories: existence, relatedness, and growth
Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964)	Focuses on management and motivation and assumes that conscious choices are made to minimize pain and maximize pleasure

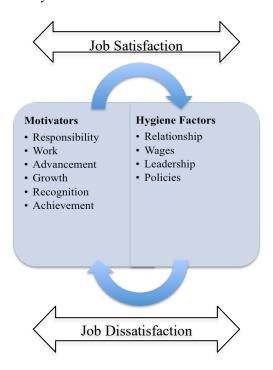
Herzberg Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's (1974) motivation-hygiene theory includes the dominant factors that employees identify as imperative to their job satisfaction. Herzberg performed studies to establish which factors in an employee's work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The researcher believed in a continuum of satisfaction, as shown in Figure 1. According to Hur (2018), Herzberg identified the opposite of satisfaction as no satisfaction versus dissatisfaction. Herzberg also held the same argument with dissatisfaction being at opposite ends of the same continuum as satisfaction. Ahmed et al.

identified Herzberg's argued causes of job dissatisfaction does not increase job satisfaction however, it causes lessens job dissatisfaction.

Figure 1

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory



Herzberg (1974) identified four employee motivators: achievement, recognition, organizational culture, and advancement. Employees also have hygiene factors, which are organizational policy, leadership, work conditions, and relationship with the boss (Herzberg, 1974). Brenner et al. (1971) argued that company policies, technical competence, salary, working conditions, and interpersonal relations affect job dissatisfaction. These components, which Herzberg called hygiene factors, are related to the environment of the job. Motivation-hygiene theory has been studied so often (more than 200 times) that it is now possible to recognize employee morale problems from a

motivation-hygiene theory study of an organization (Herzberg, 1974). Herzberg refined this work for over 24 years (Holliman & Daniels, 2018). The two-factor theory provided an opportunity to explore public sector job satisfaction in the present study.

ERG Theory

Alderfer (1969) categorized human needs into three types: existence, relatedness, and growth (see Figure 2), explaining an individual's feelings of satisfaction, primary needs, and desires. Employees' level of productivity or organizational buy-in depends on their needs and desires. Van der Schyff et al. (2018) stated that physical and maternal needs are related to the ERG theory's existence need. Individuals can move up and down the hierarchy with either satisfaction-progression going up or frustration-regression going down (Van der Schyff et al., 2018). Alderfer's ERG theory reflects growth, relatedness, and existence needs, as indicated in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Alderfer's ERG Theory

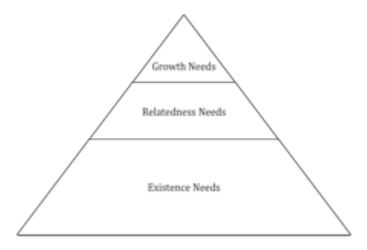


Table 2 shows Aldefer's (1969) ERG framework of financial needs by category.

 Table 2

 Alderfer's ERG Framework of Financial Needs

ERG theory	ERG theory needs by category
Growth	Education
	Taking trips/vacations
Relatedness	Contributions
	Utilities
	Entertainment
	Family and friends
Existence	Food
	Shelter
	Clothes
	Transportation
	Insurance (life, health, disability)
	Emergencies
	Personal care

Venter and Botha (2014) studied the financial needs of individuals through the theoretical framework of the ERG theory. Their findings showed that individuals' life stage influences their financial stability (see Table 2). Existence needs comprise the safety and physiological need for an individual's existence (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002). The desire for interpersonal relationships is also an important factor, as it focuses on relatedness. Managers responsible for guiding and directing employees for organizational success need to understand the root causes of motivation: social, acceptance, belongingness, and status desires (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002). Individuals exhibit growth upon achieving self-fulfillment and self-actualization and yearning for personal growth.

Expectancy Theory

Many researchers have studied Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory (as cited in Chen et al., 2016; Chou & Pearson, 2012; S. Lee, 2007; Vroom, 1964; Yeheyis et al., 2016). Vroom introduced expectancy theory to integrate and organize existing knowledge in motivation and vocational psychology. Vroom defined expectancy as a temporary

belief followed by an individual outcome. Subsequent researchers (Chou & Pearson, 2012; S. Lee, 2007; Chou & Pearson, 2012; Yeheyis et al., 2016) stated that Vroom's theory explained the motivational factors of employees applicable to various types of situations or settings, as well as the motivation factors related to the workers and their work.

S. Lee (2007) described expectancy as individuals' assessment of the chance that their effort will lead to effective performance. This belief stems from employees' confidence in their personal capabilities to use their skills to influence different outcomes, including self-efficacy, self-concept, and locus of control. The range of expectancy can be from 0 to 1, with 0 representing a person's subjective probability that the act will not lead to a desired outcome and 1 being a person's subjective certainty that the outcome will follow the act. Expectancy theory provides a framework for assessing, interpreting, and evaluating employee behaviors related to decision-making (Yeheyis et al., 2016). Expectancy represents the "momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular [desired] outcome" (Vroom, 1964, p. 17).

Expectancy theory is based on the supposition that, when faced with behavioral alternatives, the actor will choose the alternative that maintains the highest positive or lowest negative motivational force. Like decision theory, expectancy theory holds that "people choose in a way that maximizes expected utility" (Vroom, 1964, p. 19). Employees have varying motivation related to the organization, not sharing the same levels of confidence or expectations in the workplace (Conroy et al., 2017). The premise of expectancy theory is that if employees believe their hard work will lead to increased

productivity and garner a reward, the reward will satisfy them (Nimri et al., 2015).

Although I did not use expectancy theory as the theoretical framework for this study, it provided an additional perspective of the need to understand employee behavior that could lead to turnover and turnover intention.

Transition

Section 1 presented the foundation of the study, including the background of the problem, problem statement with both general and specific business problems, purpose statement, nature of the study, research question and hypotheses, theoretical framework, operational definitions, assumptions, limitation, delimitations, and significance. In addition, there was a review of applicable literature related to employee turnover.

Section 2 included the purpose statement, role of the researcher, participants, and research method and design. In addition, Section 2 presented the population and sampling, guidelines for ethical research, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis. Lastly, this section includes information about study validity. Section 3 includes the presentation of findings, application to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action, recommendations for further research, reflections, and the conclusion of the study.

Section 2: The Project

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. The target population for this study was correctional officers working in an Ohio prison. The independent variables were perceptions about job satisfaction and perceptions of leadership behaviors, measured using the JSS developed by Spector (1985). The dependent variable was employee turnover intention, measured using the TIS developed by Rosin and Korabik (1991). The data from this study will contribute to social change by providing managers with a better understanding of job satisfaction and employee turnover rates. Retaining correctional officers contributes to the well-being of the community because continuity of care, socialization, welfare, and security will reduce mistakes, in turn keeping the inmates secured and the community safe (Bergier & Wojciechowski, 2018). Correctional officers play a role in reducing inmate recidivism rates; therefore, less correctional officer turnover helps ensure that the inmates returned to society are positive and productive members of the community.

Role of the Researcher

There is a global concern with the quality of research (Twining et al., 2017), and there are several ethical considerations researchers encounter while collecting data (Mealer & Jones, 2014). Quantitative researchers might overlook the effect of data derived from surveys or quasi-experimental manipulation on quantitative observations.

Researchers must be aware of potential communication influences and ensuring that the participants respond accurately and truthfully (Mealer & Jones, 2014). Individuals must also take National Institutes of Health web-based training before conducting research. I completed the National Institutes of Health Protecting Human Research Participants and the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative Student Researcher courses to ensure the protection of participants' rights while researching human subjects. Though the research topic is related to my current employment as a chief human resources officer in Ohio, I did not have a direct relationship with the participants, as they were not employees at my place of employment. I observed the Belmont Report ethical principles of respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979) related to informed consent, risk/benefit assessment, and participant selection.

Participants

The eligibility to participate in this study was being a correctional officer in Ohio. All participants who volunteered to participate met the eligibility criteria, as determined by their response to the question "Are you a correctional officer in the state of Ohio?" before beginning the survey distributed via SurveyMonkey. The SurveyMonkey platform allows individuals to create user-friendly, web-based surveys (Helft, 2016; McDowall & Murphy, 2018). I obtained permission from the Walden University Institutional Review Board prior to recruiting participants (approval no. 06-17-20-0479249).

The strategy for gaining access to participants was the use of social media, specifically LinkedIn. I posted the invitation to participate on my professional page,

offering access to all LinkedIn members. The invitation included a direct link to the SurveyMonkey survey, which included the consent form detailing participants' rights, expectations, and the confidential nature of the survey. Participants had to click "agree" to confirm they had read the consent form; if they had not, they would have been ineligible to complete the survey. As a researcher obtaining anonymous participants through social media, I did not have access to the names of volunteer participants; however, I openly informed potential participants the intended purpose and outcome of my study. In addition, the invitation to participate and consent form included pertinent information regarding the nature of the research and their rights and roles in the study. The participants could contact me via my LinkedIn or Walden University email if they had questions.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

Quantitative researchers explain phenomena using statistics and strategies of inquiry to analyze numerical data collected from surveys and experiments and examine the relationships or correlations between variables (Yilmaz, 2013). Researchers can accumulate strong evidence in many ways through meta-analysis and controlled experiments (Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). Strengths of quantitative research include the ability to utilize a larger sample and reduced data collection time (Rahman, 2017). However, researchers continue to debate which is the correct methodology to use for social research (Park & Park, 2016). Serious methodological considerations based on the nature of the investigated phenomenon are means to determine which method is

appropriate to understand, explain, or describe the phenomenon (Park & Park, 2016). For example, researchers seeking statistical control use correlational studies to display more precise estimates of relationships among variables (Becker et al., 2016). Researchers also use correlational methods and produce tests of hypotheses ruling out the effects of extraneous variables (Becker et al., 2016). Therefore, a correlational design was appropriate for this study.

Qualitative methods are focused more on words and less on numbers; in contrast, quantitative methods focus on numerical data (Leppink, 2017). Qualitative research incorporates individuals' lives, experiences, emotions, phenomena, and multiple realities (Rahman, 2017). Four misleading beliefs about research methodology are: (a) qualitative assumes multiple truths, whereas quantitative assumes a single truth; (b) qualitative is exploratory and quantitative is confirming; (c) thinking and due diligence occur before data collection in quantitative research and after data collection in qualitative research; and (d) because both qualitative and quantitative research are good methods, mixed methods research is better (Leppink, 2017).

Research Design

Researchers conduct correlational studies when seeking statistical control to display more precise estimates of relationships among variables (Becker et al., 2016). In addition, correlational designs allow researchers to test hypotheses, ruling out the effects of extraneous variables (Becker et al., 2016). Therefore, the correlational design was appropriate for this study. With descriptive statistics often viewed as experimental (Ivey, 2016), that was not the correct design for this study in which I derived data from surveys

to ascertain the relationship between two variables. Causal-comparative/quasi-experimental research utilizes control groups (George et al., 2017), which I rejected because I did not have a control group. Experimentation research establishes cause-and-effect relationships (Vargas et al., 2017). Because I did not intend to enact control over variables via experimentation, experimental research was also inappropriate.

Population and Sampling

The selected population for this study consisted of line staff correction employees—specifically, correctional officers who work in rehabilitation and correction facilities in Ohio. This broad population provided a sufficient number of participants to achieve the required sample size of 68. Correctional employees are subject matter experts working face-to-face with offenders. The prison system includes correctional officers, sergeants, lieutenants, captains, majors, and deputy wardens. As the correctional officers receive promotions, they transition out of the day-to-day operations with the inmates and into supervisory roles over other correctional officer staff. This population was both available and accessible.

The sampling method should be based on the research question (Setia, 2016). Two commonly used sampling methods are probability (based on chance, random numbers, etc.) and nonprobability (the researcher's choice when working with an accessible and available population; Setia, 2016)). I conducted a correlational study to examine the relationship between the factors influencing correctional officers to voluntarily terminate employment from state correctional facilities; therefore, a nonprobabilistic, purposeful sampling method was appropriate for this study. G*Power

software 3.1.9.3 allowed me to conduct an a priori sample size analysis using F tests and linear multiple regression. A fixed model computation with an R^2 deviation from 0, a medium effect size of .15, a standard alpha level of .05, and a power of .80 showed a required sample size of 68. The sampling strategy resulted in participants who represented the population, which was essential to achieve valid and reliable findings (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017).

Ethical Research

Researchers must protect participant privacy and confidentiality and avoid disclosing sensitive information (Mealer & Jones, 2014). Each participant in the present study was a current correctional officer in Ohio. Individuals could not advance to the survey until acknowledging their professional position. In compliance with ethical research, I introduced the purpose of the study, inviting individuals to participate based on their experience working in rehabilitation and corrections. Each potential participant received an informed consent form describing the study, participant requirements, that participation was voluntary, and their right to stop at any time without recourse. Informed consent is the most important thing a researcher must introduce to the participant (Lantos, 2017). I identified participation in the study as voluntary in the invitation and the informed consent. The participants received instructions before beginning the survey and could cease participation and exit the survey at any time. Any participant interested in receiving the study's findings could request a copy of the results. There was no conflict of interest because I did not ask for any information that would place participants' organization at risk, in accordance with the APA Ethical Code of Conduct (2002). I also

completed the required National Institutes of Health and Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative training and obtained Walden University Institutional Review Board approval to conduct the study. I will store all collected data for 5 years in accordance with Walden University guidelines.

Data Collection Instruments

The survey incorporated the JSS (Spector, 1985) and the TIS (Rosin & Korabik, 1991). I sought and received permission to use both instruments in this study (see Appendices B and C). Prior doctoral students (Daniel, 2013; Edwards-Dandridge, 2019) utilized both the TIS and JSS in their dissertations to examine job satisfaction and turnover. According to Weiss et al. (1967), evidence of validity is limited to the few studies that have construct validity applied.

Job Satisfaction Scale

Spector (1985) developed the JSS to measure an employee's satisfaction in the workplace (see Appendix D). Measurement entails calculating the scores for pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The coefficient alphas were pay = .75, promotion = .73, supervision = .82, fringe benefits = .73, contingent rewards = .76, operating procedures = .62, coworkers = .60, nature of work = .78, and communication = .71, for a total of .91 for all facets. Al-Mahdy et al. (2016) used the JSS with 356 teachers to examine job satisfaction in the education field. Due to the nature of the study, Al-Mahdy et al. used three facets of the instrument—promotion, nature of work, and supervision—with the findings indicating moderate levels of job satisfaction. Instrument

reliability using Cronbach's coefficient alpha was promotion = .787, nature of work = .843, and supervision = .676.

Turnover Intention Scale

The TIS is a measure designed to determine individuals' intention to quit their job within a specified period (Gordon et al., 2007). Cammann et al. (1999) found turnover intention operationalized via the three-item Turnover Intention Subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Among the scale's reaction statements were "I often think of leaving my organization," "It is very possible that I will look for a new job soon," and "If I may choose again, I will choose to work for my current organization." TIS responses are on a 7-point Likert-type scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to measure turnover intention. The abbreviated six question TIS-6 scale was the one used in this study (see Appendix E).

Demographic Survey

The demographic survey contained six questions to identify gender, age range, education level, work location, work shift, and years of service (see Appendix F). I conducted a descriptive analysis to determine the distribution and frequency of the variables. Green and Salkind (2013) recommended using statistical indices to summarize the distribution of quantitative variables.

Data Collection Technique

An online survey was the means of data collection in this study. The online survey technique enables researchers to promptly deliver data collection instruments to study participants (Brandon et al., 2014). I administered web-based surveys through a

SurveyMonkey link posted on LinkedIn to ensure confidentiality. Online surveys are useful to collect data from a population to which the researcher does not have access (Regmi et al., 2016). H. L. Ball (2019) identified flexibility, minimal expenses, and the ability to rapidly deploy to social media as advantages to utilizing online surveys. I obtained Walden University Institutional Review Board approval prior to recruiting participants and collecting data. Upon survey completion, I downloaded all data and input them into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 27 (SPSS 27) for analysis. The storage of all data is on an external hard drive in a locked box. The survey closed after obtaining the desired number of usable responses, with the data available from a SurveyMonkey study link. All participants' identities remained confidential.

Data Analysis

The research question for this study was, What is the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities?

Hypotheses

H₀: No statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in Ohio correctional facilities.

H_a: A statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in Ohio correctional facilities.

The scale for the variables in this study was ordinal, as it reflects what is important or significant. The JSS utilizes a 6-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree), with the TIC responses based on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). An ordinal scale can measure concepts including happiness, discomfort, and satisfaction, making it appropriate for this study. Bivariate linear regression is effective to analyze two variables simultaneously. When determining a relationship between two variables, bivariate linear regression is a straightforward technique (Beck & Beck, 2015). Because a Pearson correlation is useful to compare two variables (Zhi et al., 2017), it was inappropriate for the present study, which contained more than two variables. The Pearson correlation coefficient could be an ideal variable with parametrical intervals (Prion & Haerling, 2014).

Although it is a nonparametric test utilized with ordinal scales of measurement summarizing a positive or negative relationship between two variables, Spearman's rho correlation was also not appropriate for this study. Spearman's rho allows the researcher to quantify the direction and strength of the presumed relationship between two nonparametric variables (Prion & Haerling, 2014). The study had two independent variables and one dependent variable, making Spearman's rho inappropriate.

Data analysis was via multiple linear regression analyses. Bangdiwala (2018) discussed the statistical interpretation of multiple regression models when the researcher has more than one independent variable. $Y = B_0 + B_1 X$ is the simple linear model that reflects B_0 as the intercept and B_1 as the slope, with Y representing the dependent variable and X representing the independent variables. With two independent variables in

this study, the equation was $Y = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2$. I chose to utilize SPSS 27 to analyze the survey data. Because this study was a correlation, SPSS 27 was the appropriate analysis tool.

According to Mertler and Reinhart (2016), there are four main purposes for screening data: collecting accurate data, assessing and dealing with missing data, assessing outliers, and assessing the fit between data and the basic assumptions (normality, homoscedasticity and linearity). I printed the surveys, proofread and compared them to each data set. If the data set was large, I used the frequency distribution and descriptive statistics in SPSS 27.

An absence of one or more values in a data set qualifies as missing data, most of which stem from participants' failure to respond to survey items (Bannon, 2015). I inspected all surveys for missing data, and I ensured that the data uploaded to SPSS 27 were correct and complete. Mertler and Reinhart (2016) offered three options to address missing data: (a) delete the variable or case that caused the issue, (b) provide a well-educated guess of the means for variables with missing values, or (c) estimate the value while utilizing the regression approach.

Study Validity

Quantitative researchers apply statistical methods to establish the validity and reliability of their findings (Noble & Smith, 2015). Noble and Smith (2015) described validity as the degree to which the findings accurately reflect the data. Zyphur and Pierides (2017) identified relational validity as ethically connecting purposes, orientations, and the means of making inferences. Validity has three categories: construct

(convergent and divergent), content, and criterion (predictive and concurrent; Young, 2014). TIS-6 can measure turnover intentions reliably ($\alpha = 0.80$) and significantly distinguish between actual turnover (stayers and leavers), thus confirming its criterion-predictive validity (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

Statistical Conclusion Validity

Type I errors, known as false positives, occur when researchers incorrectly accept a rejected null hypothesis. To avoid the risk of Type I errors, researchers reduce the alpha level from 0.05 to 0.01. Modifying the alpha level provides the opportunity to control the Type I error rate across a myriad of studies (Trafimow & Earp, 2017). Type II errors, known as false negatives, occur when the researcher fails to reject the null hypotheses when the alternate is actually true. Type II errors can be extremely costly; in some cases, less-stringent alpha levels will reduce those errors (Emerson, 2020; Trafimow & Earp, 2017).

I used G*Power 3.1.9.3 to conduct the a priori sample size analysis. The F tests, linear multiple regression (fixed model, R^2 deviation from 0 with a medium effect size of .15, standard alpha level of .05, and a power of .80) reflected 68 as the required sample size. The sampling strategy resulted in participants representing the population, which is important to the research findings (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017).

External Validity

External validity is the extent to which a study is generalizable to other groups, events, or situations (Leviton, 2017). Leviton (2017) identified the need for further research on external validity due to confusion over its definition, the logic of causal

generalization, and sampling problems. In addition, Andrade (2018) insisted that external validity was not a computed statistic but a determination based on judgment and not adequate for sociodemographic restrictions. A nonprobabilistic, purposeful sampling method was appropriate for this study. Charlotte et al. (2016) identified purposeful sampling as selecting cases that provide information from which researchers can garner an in-depth understanding versus an empirical generalization. Corrections officers in Ohio volunteered to participate in this study in response to a social media posting and completed a survey. The survey was anonymous and confidential, which supported the nonprobabilistic, purposeful sampling strategy.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included the purpose statement, role of the researcher, participants, research method and design, population and sampling, ethical research, data collection instruments and techniques, data analysis, and validity. The participants who volunteered for this study were correctional officers in Ohio. Data collection for this correlational study was through the administration of the TIS and JSS instruments. Data analysis occurred utilizing SPSS 27.

Section 3 comprised the presentation of findings, application to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action, and recommendations for further research. In addition, I discussed reflections on my experience within the DBA Doctoral Study process and the conclusion of the study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship among employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. The independent variables were leadership behavioral perceptions and job satisfaction; the dependent variable was turnover intention. Prior to conducting the multilinear regression and Pearson correlation coefficient analysis, it was necessary to satisfy three conditions to assess assumptions of normality, linearity, absence of outliers, and multicollinearity. Turnover intentions were significantly predicted through the model summary, F(2, 65) = 11.056, p < .000, $R^2 = .231$. The R^2 indicated there was approximately a 23% variability in turnover intentions.

Presentation of the Findings

This section contains an analysis of the data along with the test reliability and model fit. In addition, the results of the tests for assumptions appear along with the descriptive analysis and inferential statistics results. Participants completed the JSS and TIS. Previously established reliability of the JSS showed internal consistencies at .71 and above (DeLay & Clark, 2020). The Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .883$ for the TIS.

I used SPSS 27 to conduct the multiple regression analysis model fit. The software allowed me to test the hypothesis to determine what relationship, if any, there was among employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities. I administered web-based surveys through a SurveyMonkey link posted on LinkedIn to ensure confidentiality. Social media

is an efficient and cost-effective approach to recruit participants for online surveys (H. L. Ball, 2019), and online surveys are useful to collect data from a population to which the researcher does not have access (Regmi et al., 2016). Advantages to online surveys include not needing to conduct face-to-face interviews, reduced costs, consistent questions for participants, rapid deployment, and automation (H. L. Ball, 2019).

The participants responded to the survey invitation, agreed to the informed consent, and completed the online survey, with only several participants missing data. The surveys yielded responses from 83 correctional officers who work in Ohio.

Ultimately, 68 correctional officers met the inclusion criteria and completed the entire survey.

Test Reliability and Model Fit

During the multilinear regression analysis, coefficients analysis included collinearity statistics to determine if there was a linear relationship in the regression model (see Table 3). The variance inflation factor statistics for each variable ranged between .90 and 1.10. The model fit adjusted R^2 (see Table 4) returned a value of .231, which indicated an approximate 23% variability in turnover intentions.

Table 3Coefficients

Model		dardized ficient	Standa	ardized coeff	icient	Collinearity	statistics
	В	Std. error	В	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-8.598	6.523		-1.318	.192		
Leadership behavior	.604	.220	.309	2.744	.008	.907	1.102
Job satisfaction	.161	.057	.315	2.800	.007	.907	1.102

Note. Dependent variable = turnover intention.

Table 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R ²	Std. error of the estimate
1	.504ª	.254	.231	4.727

Note. Predictors: (constant), job satisfaction, leadership behavior. Dependent variable: turnover.

The TIS has a Likert scale of 1 to 5. The subscale designations are as follows: consideration, needs, frustration, dreams, potential, and anticipation. The mean and standard deviation for each TIS subscale appear in Table 5; Table 6 presents the standard deviation for the descriptive statistic study variables.

Table 5

TIS Mean/Standard Deviation

Variable	Mean	Std. deviation	N
Consideration	3.25	1.042	68
Needs	2.68	1.071	68
Frustration	3.35	1.103	68
Dreams	3.29	1.185	68
Potential	2.66	1.277	68
Anticipation	3.06	1.091	68

Note. N = 68.

Table 6Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. deviation	N
Turnover intention	19.29	5.389	68
Job satisfaction	116.34	10.554	68
Leadership behavior	15.21	2.757	68

Note. N = 68.

Description of the Participants

The sample was 68 correctional officers currently working in Ohio in county, state, and federal prison facilities. The respondents were men and women of various ages, shift assignments, years of service, and educational backgrounds. See Tables 7–10 for participant demographics and the valid and cumulative percentages.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics: Gender

Variable	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Female	25	36.8	36.8
Male	43	63.2	100.0
Total	68	100.0	

Note. N = 68.

Table 8 depicts the descriptive statistics for the correctional officers' ages. Most were 30 to 34 (12; 17.6%) and 40 to 44 (12; 17.6%). Table 9 shows the distributions for correctional officers' race, with most being 32 (47.1%) White (32; 47.1%), followed by 27 (39.7%) who were Black, and only two (2.9%) who were Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiians.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics: Age

Age (years)	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
20–24	5	7.4	7.4
25–29	5	7.4	14.7
30–34	12	17.6	32.4
35–39	8	11.8	44.1
40-44	12	17.6	61.8
45–49	10	14.7	76.5
50-54	10	14.7	91.2
55–59	4	5.9	97.1
60–64	2	2.9	100.0
Total	68	100.0	

Note. N = 68.

 Table 9

 Descriptive Statistics: Race

Race	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Black	27	39.7	39.7
White	32	47.1	86.8
Hispanic	7	10.3	97.1
Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian	2	2.9	100.0
Total	68	100.0	

Note. N = 68.

The detailed frequency of participant education accomplishments was showed that most had some college (19; 27.9%), and only three (4.4%) with some graduate or professional school (see Table 10).

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics: Education

Education	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
High school diploma	6	8.8	8.8
Some college	19	27.9	36.8
Technical school	12	17.6	54.4
Community college	13	19.1	73.5
Bachelor's degree	15	22.1	95.6
Some graduate school or professional school	3	4.4	100.0
Total	68	100.0	100.0

Note. N = 68.

Figure 3 depicts descriptive statistics for the distribution of correctional officer shift assignments: 23 (33.8%) worked the first shift, 19 (27.9%) worked the second shift, 14 (20.6%) worked the third shift, and 12 (17.6%) worked special duty. The distribution of years of service in the correctional service appears in Table 11, showing that most had 1 to 5 years of service (15; 22.1%), followed by a 14 (20.6%) who had 16 to 20 years of service.

Figure 3
Shift Assignments

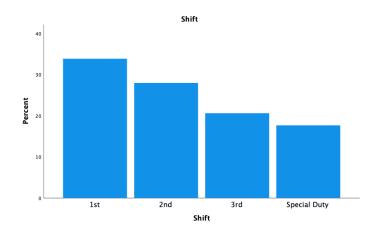


 Table 11

 Descriptive Statistics: Years of Service

Years of service	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
1–5	15	22.1	22.1
6–10	11	16.2	38.2
11–15	10	14.7	52.9
16–20	14	20.6	73.5
21–25	11	16.2	89.7
26–30	7	10.3	100.0
Total	68	100.0	

Note. N = 68.

Tests of Statistical Assumptions

SPSS 27 was the software used to evaluate assumptions of multiple linear regression. Assumptions when conducting a multiple regression analysis include sample size, normality, absence of outliers, linearity between independent and dependent variables, and absence of multicollinearity between the independent variables. When determining the sample size, a common rule is to utilize a minimum of 20 records per each predictor variable. Some experts determine sample sizes according to the effect size

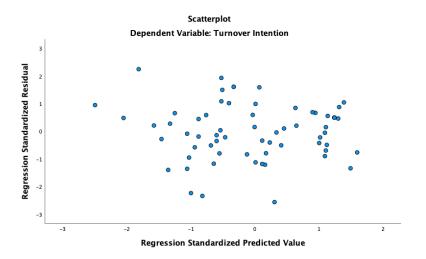
(Bujang et al., 2017). My data consisted of three predictor variables, 68 records, and a normally distributed dependent variable (see Table 4). The significance of .009 is greater than .005 and reflects a normally distributed variable. The Shapiro–Wilk test for normality indicates the normal distribution of errors in the multiple linear regression model (Jurečková & Picek, 2007), which in this case was a statistic of .951 for turnover intention.

The next assumption was to determine if there was linearity between the independent and dependent variables. The scatterplot for the regression standardized residual is on the y-axis and the standardized predicted value is on the x-axis. None of the points fell outside of -3 to 3 on either the x- or y-axis. Residual statistics showed a standardized residual of -2.564 (minimum) and 2.249 (maximum), which was within the standard range of -3 to 3. The Cook's distance minimum (.000) and maximum (.184) were within the standard range of less than 1.

Another alternative to diagnosing linearity is determining if each independent variable appeared to be linearly related to the dependent variable. The standardized residual scatterplot was a means to determine the assumption of homoscedasticity. The data were scattered, which indicated that variables are constant regardless of whether the predictor variables are large or small. The data met the assumption of homoscedasticity because of the data spreads were scattered, as reflected in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Scatterplot Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention



Using a scatterplot matrix, researchers look for normally distributed data among all variables, as indicated in Figure 5. The scatterplot matrix contained the histograms for the y-axis, which included leadership behavior perception, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The strongest relationship appeared between turnover intention and job satisfaction, as the data points are the most tightly clustered. The standardized coefficients shown in Table 12 allowed for a comparison of the variables in this study, reflecting .309 for leadership behavior and .315 for job satisfaction; both scores are statistically significant.

Figure 5
Scatter Matrix

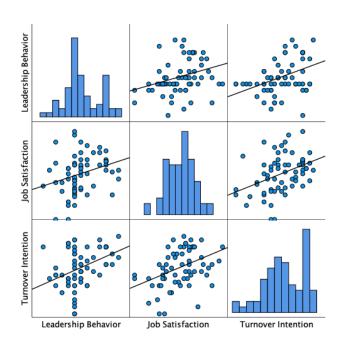


Table 12Pearson Correlations

		Turnover	Job satisfaction	Leadership
Predictor Variables		intention		behavior
Turnover intention	Pearson correlation	1	.409**	.405**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.001
	N	68	68	68
Job satisfaction	Pearson correlation	.409**	1	.305*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.011
	N	68	68	68
Leadership behavior	Pearson correlation	.405**	.305*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.011	
	N	68	68	68

Note. N = 68. * = correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). ** = correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

I tested the assumption of multicollinearity through the correlation matrix. The question I answered was "Were the correlations between each of the independent variables and each of the other independent variables low?" The correlation between the

independent variables job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception was .305, which is an acceptable range (see Table 13). Figure 6 reflects the normal distribution line over the data set, and Figure 7 follows the diagonal line on the plot. Residuals generally follow distribution on the histogram, indicating normal distribution.

Table 13Correlations of Associations Between Turnover Intention, Job Satisfaction, and Leadership Behavior

Variable	Turnover intention	Job satisfaction	Leadership behavior
Turnover intention	1	.409**	.405**
Job satisfaction		1	.305*
Leadership behavior			1

Note. N = 68. * p < .05 level (2-tailed). ** p < .01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 6

Regression Standardized Residual: Turnover Intention

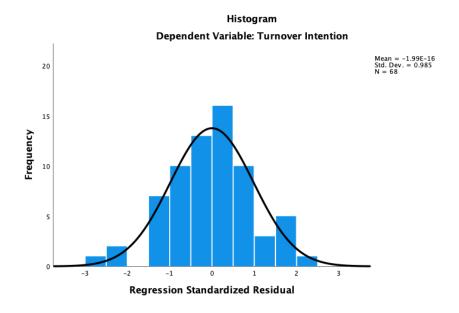
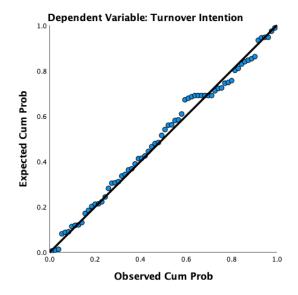


Figure 7Normal P-P Plot Regression Standardized Residual



Inferential Statistics Results

I used G*Power 3.1.9.3 to conduct the a priori sample size analysis for this study. The research question was, What is the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities? The null hypothesis (H₀) was, No statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities. The alternative hypothesis (H_a) was, A statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities.

I conducted a multiple linear regression, standard alpha level = .05 (two-tailed), to examine the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior

perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. The dependent variable was turnover intentions, and the two independent variables were job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception. Preliminary analysis showed that there were no violations of assumptions.

I conducted an analysis of the dependent and independent variables, finding a statistically significant relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction $(r = .409, p \le .01)$. Also, there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction $(r = .305, p \le .05)$. Additionally, the analysis showed a statistically significant relationship between turnover intention and leadership behavior $(r = .405, p \le .01)$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, as a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities. The results of this study were that the null hypothesis was rejected due to the statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions. The alternative hypothesis was affirmed, in that a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities.

Analysis Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. I utilized multiple linear regression with the

standard alpha level = .05 (two-tailed) to determine if the relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception could have an impact on correctional officer turnover intentions. I tested the multiple regression analysis assumptions of sample size, normality, absence of outliers, linearity between independent and dependent variables, and absence of multicollinearity between the independent variables, finding the assumptions were met. The analysis summary is that turnover intentions were significantly predicted through the model summary, F(2, 65) = 11.05, p < .000, $R^2 = .231$.

Theoretical Conversion on the Findings

This study showed that a statistically significant relationship existed between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions. Findings from this study demonstrated consistency with Herzberg's (1973) two-factor theory, for which the theorist performed studies to determine if employees were influenced by motivation or hygiene factors. Herzberg (1974) identified employee motivators, including achievement, recognition, organizational culture, and advancement. Furthermore, employees also have hygiene factors: organizational policy, leadership, work conditions, and relationship with the boss. Holliman and Daniels (2018) explained that certain factors (motivation or hygiene) could influence employee behavior and affect job satisfaction. According to Hur (2018) and Ann and Blum (2019), Herzberg identified the opposite of satisfaction as no satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction. Herzberg also held the same argument, with dissatisfaction being at opposite ends of the same continuum (Hur, 2018). Egcas (2017) found the critical determinants to improving

job satisfaction and decreasing turnover are recognizing Herzberg's two-factor theory in its entirety.

This study is supported by Larkin et al. (2016), who defined turnover intention as the employee's intention to discontinue long-term employment with the organization. As many researchers have found, there are countless reasons employees depart organizations (Ahmed et al., 2017; Deri et al., 2021; Larkin et al., 2016; O'Connor, 2018; Olasupo et al., 2019; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020). Larkin et al. noted that lacking the motivators outlined in Herzberg's two-factor theory could lead employees to a state of neutrality rather than automatic dissatisfaction; however, dissatisfaction is likely with the introduction of hygiene factors. When employees are motivated by intrinsic factors, such as the need for achievement, they will achieve self-actualization, increasing job satisfaction.

The results of this study are also supported by Ferdik and Hills (2018). They researched correctional officer turnover intentions and argued that correctional officers are no longer invested in the organization once they intend to leave and explore other opportunities. Y. Lin (2017) examined turnover intentions of correctional officers in Taiwan and found that job satisfaction correlated with correctional officer turnover intentions. In addition, my study is supported by Botek (2019), who researched correctional officers in a Prague prison with regard to job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Botek identified a relationship between job satisfaction and correctional officer turnover intention. My study is grounded in Herzberg's two-factor theory, and the researchers identified in the theoretical conversion of findings support my study.

Applications to Professional Practice

The research question for this study was, What is the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities? Based on the research, the null hypothesis was rejected, as a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities (see Table 14). The application to professional practice provides correctional management the opportunity to improve leadership behavior perception and job satisfaction and, in turn, reduce employee turnover intention.

Correctional leadership is a position based on the trust that workers will conduct themselves appropriately and ethically at all times. There is a vast difference between the employment experiences of a correctional officer working in prison versus non-correctional staff-related employment settings (Haynes et al., 2020).

Correctional careers are complex and working in prisons as correctional officers can be very demanding. Correctional officers can experience major life strains when feeling at risk of injury, even if it is only perceived (Lambert, Minor, et al., 2018). Prison managers face critical issues related to recruitment and retention to include basic officer safety, officer complacency, and dignity assaults. Leadership behavior and job satisfaction are of concern in the correctional environment, as violence between offenders is unpredictable. Job burnout and increased turnover intentions are some of the consequences when employees face violence in the workplace (Isenhardt & Hostettler, 2020). Employees are often overtaxed in those conditions; although recruitment is a

human resources function, management has a significant role in employee turnover.

Leaders must improve practices and relationships with correctional officer staff.

Employees need safe havens, and leaders need to emphasize with correctional officers the workplace factors that affect them, including being understaffed and overtasked.

Application of the findings to professional practice could encourage training managers to identify appropriate retention strategies by including the management focus groups. Such strategies could include (a) effective exit interview questions to address key issues as to what is causing employees to leave, (b) stay surveys that allow employees to provide input to the organization, (c) review benefits packages and/or add incentives if benefit option changes are not available, and, most importantly, (d) mandatory leadership training to improve skills and emotional intelligence. Leadership behavior correlated with turnover intention, which aligns with Lambert et al.'s (2021) observation of the critical need for suitable, supportive supervisors in the workplace.

Organizational executives can apply this study to professional practice, understanding that correctional leaders play a dual role in the organization as active members of the leadership team and are the first line of leadership to the correctional officers, responsible for ensuring the safety and security of the facility. Job satisfaction and leadership behavior can either contribute to or impede employee turnover intentions. Finally, this study has application to professional practice in informing managers of the importance of turnover intention and how it affects the organization as a whole. Lambert et al. (2021) asserted that quality supervision is essential to employees from the onset.

Organizations must create cultures that have a positive effect on job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception, thereby reducing turnover intention.

Implications for Social Change

The data from this study will contribute to social change by providing managers with a better understanding of job satisfaction, how employees view leadership behaviors, and employee turnover rates. Retaining correctional officers contributes to the security and safety of the community. Vose et al. (2020) indicated that this will ensure the safety of staff and inmates and provide the ability to accommodate the needs of the smaller populations still under their control. Continuity of care, socialization, welfare, and security may reduce correctional officers' mistakes, keeping the inmates secured and the citizens safe (Bergier & Wojciechowski, 2018). Community reentry is a journey for the incarcerated individual (McCuish et al., 2018). McCuish et al. (2018) continued to state that the incarcerated individual experience will reduce the likelihood of recidivism. Correctional officers play a role in lowering inmate recidivism rates; therefore, less correctional officer turnover improves the likelihood that the inmates returned to society become positive and productive members of the community. The contribution to social change is providing managers with a more in-depth understanding of the factors associated with employee-quit intentions.

With the rise of COVID-19, correctional facilities reduced sentences and began returning inmates to the communities sooner than expected. There has been a rise in positive COVID-19 cases among inmate residents and correctional officers; it is difficult to provide the protection and instruction needed to keep everyone safe during these

unprecedented times. Correctional officers are expected to provide the same services to prepare inmates for release while practicing social distancing and adhering to prevention and mitigation strategies. Correctional officers contribute to the interdisciplinary team, group sessions, and education, along with reinforcing positive social behaviors to prepare inmates to re-enter society as positive and productive members. Facilities adopt evidence-based approaches with offender management to determine who is ready to enter the community (Vose et al., 2020). Involving offenders in reentry programs while incarcerated reduces recidivism rates and enhances community safety (Lugo et al., 2019). Byrne (2020) explained that effective pre- to post incarceration treatment will yield positive community integration, thereby promoting positive social change.

Recommendations for Action

There was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities. Based on those findings, leaders should devote considerable attention to correctional officer job satisfaction and leadership behavior perception. Correctional officers play a significant role in prison operations and the criminal justice system (Lin, 2017). One recommendation is for correctional leadership to conduct climate surveys to evaluate the employees' perspectives on work-related issues and concerns.

Ma et al. (2017) identified the need to focus on employees to develop trust to decrease fear and embolden employees to leave their comfort zones, thus increasing productivity. Lambert et al. (2021) found management trust extends throughout the

organization. Encouraging and influencing employee motivation and bringing about change requires support from leadership (B. Yang & Wei, 2019). Recommendations for action include providing leadership training for correctional leaders and developing programs to improve job satisfaction among correctional officers. Leaders must be aware that, as stated by Akhtar and Nazarudin (2020), their behaviors have an impact on performance and organizational commitment. I recommend training in emotional intelligence, decision-making, leadership, coaching, and mentoring, among other areas.

The act of decision-making is one of the most important duties of a corrections leader, as it includes the ability to remain level-headed during a crisis, exhibiting subject matter expertise and displaying emotional intelligence (Basu, 2016). Correctional managers could use the results of this study to gain a deeper understanding of job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and turnover intention to attract and retain correctional officers. The results of this study will improve managers' knowledge about employee views on turnover intentions, including (a) consideration to leave the job, (b) if the job fulfills personal needs, (c) how many times employees are frustrated by a lack of opportunities for personal work-related goals, (d) the likelihood to accept another position at the same compensation rate, and (d) looking forward to coming to work each day.

The dissemination of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge of turnover intentions among correctional officers in Ohio. Due to the unprecedented COVID-19 outbreak, participants completed an electronic survey via SurveyMonkey.

Upon survey completion, the participants received a notification that the findings would

be available on a website created solely for this purpose after publication of the study. In addition, I anticipate presenting the study's findings during organizational conferences and with colleagues throughout my human resources career.

Recommendations for Further Research

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship, if any, between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions. Based on the findings, researchers should conduct further inquiry on correctional officer turnover intentions related to job satisfaction and leadership behaviors. Future research could distinguish correctional officer turnover intentions among county, state, and federal prisons. Future researchers should distinguish correctional officer turnover intentions separately among the county, state, and federal prisons.

Additional research at each governmental level would help examine the different facilities and security levels that contribute to correctional officer turnover intentions. I collected data via an online survey administered to correctional officers in Ohio. I recommend researchers collect data from correctional officers working within a specific rehabilitation department in Ohio. County, state, and federal prisons could produce different employee turnover intention results related to the facility types or offender security levels.

I identified a limitation: use of self-administered surveys. Another recommendation is to utilize a mixed methods approach to examine correctional officer turnover intentions. Mixed methods would allow correctional officers to provide their

perspectives and the researcher to complete the necessary hypothesis testing for future studies. I utilized the JSS and TIS surveys for this study; I recommend future researchers add additional data collection instruments to measure employee turnover. It would also be valuable to examine other work-related factors that could contribute to turnover intentions, such as organizational commitment, organizational stress, and burnout, as well as factors that decrease turnover intent. Future researchers should consider additional inquiry into the reliability and validity of psychometric instruments, which could strengthen conclusions and clarify how participants evaluate their lives (Lucas, 2018). Additional research is needed, as correctional officers face critical and complex issues daily that continue to affect turnover intentions.

Reflections

As I reflect upon my doctoral journey, I would be remiss if I did not admit that it was definitely challenging yet ultimately fulfilling. The biggest challenges were work-life balance and personal health crises throughout the lengthy course of my journey.

However, I am incredibly proud that I could overcome every obstacle to meet the requirements and complete the study. I also reflect upon the fantastic mentorship of my chair, Dr. Beehner. I am grateful for his expertise, constructive criticism, and the extra push when I needed it. It was a benefit to have a chair like Dr. Beehner to guide me through the dissertation journey.

Because I work in the field of human resources, the topic of employee turnover has long been of interest to me. I initially believed that employees—specifically, correctional officers are retained through retirement based on the specialty required in

that field. Before completing this study, I thought the survey results would reflect those correctional officers were satisfied with their jobs and somewhat satisfied with their leaders' behaviors. After analyzing the data and reporting the findings, I have a better understanding of turnover intention and how it differs from one employee to the next. Compensation could be more of a motivator for employee turnover intentions to employees who feel their supervisor does not care about their potential to promote in the organization.

I believe collecting data during a pandemic could have had a negative effect on the survey responses. COVID-19 might have compounded the critical nature of the correctional officer's framework of duties and the living quarters of offenders under the correctional officer's authority, creating the possibility of response bias on the survey responses. Completing this DBA journey has provided me with greater insight into turnover intentions, specifically for correctional officers in Ohio, as I examined the relationship between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in correctional facilities.

Conclusion

The findings of this study confirmed the alternate hypothesis that a statistically significant relationship existed between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and correctional officer turnover intentions in Ohio correctional facilities.

Ohio correctional leaders can use these data to reduce correctional officer turnover intentions by creating retention strategies. Correctional leaders should conduct annual culture assessment surveys to address the TIS -6 questions:

- 1. How often have you considered leaving your job?
- 2. How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?
- 3. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?
- 4. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?
- 5. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?
- 6. How often do you look forward to another day?

The findings from this study support the statistical relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, the study showed that there is a statistical relationship between leadership behavior and turnover intention. The findings will provide correctional management the opportunity to create programs, policies, and procedures to improve leadership behavior perception and job satisfaction and, in turn, reduce correctional officer turnover intentions.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use Job Satisfaction Survey

RE: Request and Permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey

Paul Spector Sun 8/18/2019 12:52 PM

To: Mary Miller

Dear Mary:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms, in the Assessments/Our Assessments section of my website: paulspector.com. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, 'Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.' Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor Department of Psychology From: Mary Miller [mailto:

Sent: Sunday, August 18, 2019 12:48 PM To: Paul Spector <

Subject: Request and Permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey

Greetings Professor Spector,

I am a doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business in Administration degree with a specialization in Human Resources Management. I am writing my doctoral study focusing on turnover intentions of correctional officers working in correctional facilities within the state of Ohio. I am requesting to utilize and reproduce the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) for my research. I addition, I will cite the instrument appropriately in the body of my study as well as in the reference section of the dissertation. I will gladly send a copy of my doctoral study with the instrument promptly to your attention upon completion. If this is acceptable, please reply via email providing your written consent of the use.

Sincerely,

Mary L. Miller, MSA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix B: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

RE: Request and Permission to use Turnover Intention Scale

Roodt, Gerhard

Mon 8/19/2019 3:16 AM

To: Mary Miller

1 attachments (59 KB)

Turnover intentions questionnaire - v4.doc;

Dear Mary

You are welcome to use the TIS for your research.

For this purpose please find attached the 15 item version of the TIS. The six items for the TIS-6 are the ones that are high-lighted. You may use any one of these two scales. The TIS is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Scoring the TIS-6 is simple. You merely add the item scores to get a total score. If you use a five-point response scale, the scores may range between 6 and 30. 18 will be the mid-point of the scale. Scores higher than 18 will indicate a higher intention to leave and scores lower a higher intention to stay.

I recommend that you conduct a CFA on the scores to determine the dimensionality of the scale. Normally a single dimension is obtained. We have found that respondents with a secondary school qualification level (matric) tend to understand the questions better which contributes to obtaining a uni-dimensional structure.

If you wish to translate the TIS into a local language you are free to do so. I recommend that you use the translate – back translate method by using a language expert.

The only condition for using the TIS is that you acknowledge authorship. Please see the article by Bothma and Roodt (2013) in the SA Journal for Human Resource Management for a proper reference of the TIS. You may not use the TIS for commercial purposes please.

Good luck with your research!

Best regards

Prof Gert Roodt

From: Mary Miller [mailto:

Sent: Sunday, 18 August 2019 18:37 To: Roodt, Gerhard

Subject: Request and Permission to use Turnover Intention Scale

Greetings Professor Groodt,

I am a doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business in Administration degree with a specialization in Human Resources Management. I am writing my doctoral study focusing on turnover intentions of correctional officers working in correctional facilities within the state of Ohio. I am requesting to utilize and reproduce the TIS in my research. I addition, I will cite the instrument appropriately in the body of my study as well as in the reference section of the dissertation. I will gladly send a copy of my doctoral study with the instrument promptly to your attention upon completion. If this is acceptable, please reply via email providing your written consent of the use.

Sincerely,

Mary L. Miller, MSA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix C: Job Satisfaction Survey

	IOD CATICEACTION CUDVEY		
	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector		
	Department of Psychology University of South Florida		
	Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.		
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately	
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	123456	
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	123456	
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	123456	
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	123456	
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	123456	
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	123456	
7	I like the people I work with.	123456	
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	123456	
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	123456	
0	Raises are too few and far between.	123456	
1	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	123456	
2	My supervisor is unfair to me.	123456	
3	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	123456	
4	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	123456	
5	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	123456	
6	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	123456	
7	I like doing the things I do at work.	123456	
8	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	123456	

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree wery much	
9	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	123456	
0	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	123456	
1	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6	
2	The benefit package we have is equitable.	123456	
3	There are few rewards for those who work here.	123456	
4	I have too much to do at work.	123456	
5	I enjoy my coworkers.	123456	
6	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	123456	
7	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	123456	
8	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	123456	
9	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	123456	
0	I like my supervisor.	123456	
1	I have too much paperwork.	123456	
2	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	123456	
3	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	123456	
4	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	123456	
5	My job is enjoyable.	123456	
6	Work assignments are not fully explained.	123456	

Appendix D: Turnover Intention Scale

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (TIS-6)

Copyright © 2004, G. Roodt

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation.

Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS.....

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	Never	15	Always
2	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	Very satisfying	15	Totally dissatisfying
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	Never	15	Always
4	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Never	15	Always
5	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	Highly unlikely	15	Highly likely
6	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	15	Never

Appendix E: Demographic Survey

Gender	Age		
Male	18–25		
Female	25–31		
	32–38		
Shift	39–45		
1st	46–52		
2nd	53–59		
3rd	60 and Over		
Education Level	Ethnicity		
High School Diploma/GED	African American		
Some College	Asian/Pacific Islander		
Technical School (certificate)	Caucasian		
Community College (e.g. A.A., A.S.,	Hispanic		
A.A.S)			
Bachelor's Degree	Native American		
Some Graduate or Professional	Two or More		
School			
Master's Degree (e.g., M.A., M.S.)	Other		
Doctorate or Professional Degree			
(e.g., Ph.D., M.D., J.D.)			
Work Location	Years of Service		
Zone A	1–5		
Zone B	6–10		
Front Entry	11–15		
OSU	16–20		
Transportation	21–25		
Visitation	26–30		
Mail Room			