Retaining Prison Staff:

The Influence of Leader Emotional Intelligence on Employee Job Satisfaction

By

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Dedication

I am particularly honored to have the privilege of recognizing the nation's correctional professionals. This research is dedicated to your work; without you, public safety would be compromised and potentially dangerous people would not be secure. You provide offenders with opportunities to change their own lives so that they have different outcomes upon their return to society. *You make a difference; you change lives every day when you go to work.* Thank you for all that you do. I admire and respect you and hope that in some small way this research will make an impact on your daily work environment. I especially honor the staff of the Tennessee Department of Correction under the leadership of Commissioner Tony Parker – thank you for making my home state a safe place for my family and friends. May God bless you all and keep you.

Sadly, many correctional employees have lost their lives while in service. This research was conducted in honor of fallen employees from the states participating in this project. The following staff lost their lives in the line of duty during the past 20 years. My thoughts and prayers are with their families and teammates.

Alabama Department of Corrections

Correctional Officer Kenneth Bettis, 2016
Correctional Officer Rodney Kelley, 2008
Correctional Officer Elizabeth Franklin, 2007
Correctional Officer Teresia Wheeler, 2001

Georgia Department of Corrections

Transfer Sergeant Curtis Billue, 2017
Transfer Sergeant Christopher Monica, 2017
Sergeant James McCrystal, Sr., 2015
Correctional Officer/Maintenance Staff Gregory Mitchell, 2015
Correctional Officer Da'Jhaun Gaitors, 2014
Transport Officer Terry Burden, 2014
Correctional Officer Larry Stell, 2012
Probation Officer Tiffany Bishop, 2011

Georgia Department of Corrections (continued)

Correctional Officer William Waterman, 2010
Correctional Officer Jack Cannon, 2009
Probation Officer Eugene "Tal" Groover, 2004
Correctional Officer James Henderson, 2002
Correctional Officer Alphonso Twitty, 1997

Oklahoma Department of Corrections

Probation/Parole Officer Jeffery McCoy, 2012
Correctional Sergeant Allen Gamble, 2000
Food Services Supervisor Gay Carter, 1998

Tennessee Department of Correction

Correctional Officer Wayne "Cotton" Morgan, 2005
Correctional Officer Frederick Hyatt, 2003
Correctional Officer Delbert Steed, 2002

West Virginia Division of Corrections

Training Coordinator Betty Slayton, 2003

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First and foremost, I am thankful to serve a God who gave His life for me—with all of my victories and flaws—who loves and supports me anyway. In Jeremiah 29:11 we are reminded, "For I know the plans I have for you," declares the Lord, "plans to prosper you and not to harm you, plans to give you hope and a future." Of this I have no doubt!

I am so thankful for my family who has supported me throughout this journey: thanks Mom, Dad, Granny Mabel, Mandy, Abe, Ava, Ghi, Gena, Greg, Olivia, and Andrew! My husband Robert consistently encourages and supports me; I thank God every day for bringing us together. I am also blessed with two amazing step-children, Alex and Emily Claire. I cannot forget Spencer, Sammie, and Peek-a-Boo, who warmed my lap during long nights studying.

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Abstract

Correctional leadership faces staffing challenges that potentially compromise safety and security and cause stress for remaining prison staff. Leadership is especially crucial in prisons due to threats of danger and stress. Leaders exhibiting emotional intelligence control their own emotions and manage interactions with others. Staffing shortfalls and the significance of prison leadership motivated a quantitative investigation of the relationship between leader emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction. The researcher disseminated electronic surveys to prison staff in 5 southern states, which resulted in 1,174 surveys for analysis. Participants completed a survey that included the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory and the Job Satisfaction Survey. Results from a hierarchical linear regression revealed that both select demographic factors of prison employees and employee perception of their supervisor's emotional intelligence are significantly predictive of prison employee job satisfaction. Findings provide both practical and theoretical implications for correctional leaders and support further research in the area of correctional leadership.

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Definition of Key Terms

Emotional intelligence: Emotional intelligence is an individual's recognition and understanding of his or her personal emotions and how those emotions affect other people. Further, people exhibiting emotional intelligence use this awareness to manage their behavior and their interactions with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Job satisfaction: Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs.

Prison: Prisons are state or federally owned facilities that house convicted felons and inmates with sentences of more than 1 year (compared to jails, which typically house offenders with sentences less than 1 year, but the time period can vary by state). Some private prison corporations exist to operate facilities on a contractual basis with local, state, and federal governmental entities (U.S. Department of Justice, 2017).

Prison employee: Prison employees are staff paid to work in a prison who perform a wide variety of duties, including responsibilities for safety and security within the facility (officers and ranking security personnel), providing food service, medical and mental health services, rehabilitative programming (such as counselors and teachers), maintenance (facility operations), and administration (leadership, business office, human resources, training, and information technology staff; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

Retention: Retention refers to the ability of an organization to keep qualified staff and is indicated by levels of job satisfaction (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Nink, 2010).

Chapter 1

Introduction

Crime is inevitable in society; members of groups have deviated from societal norms since Biblical times. In some cases, violations of formally established norms codified into law necessitate the use of systems for punishment ranging from fines, service to the community, community supervision (such as probation and parole), incarceration in jails and prisons, or even death (Cornelius, 2010). At the end of 2015, one in every 37 adults in the United States was under some form of correctional supervision (Kaeble & Glaze, 2016). Because of the significance of corrections in the United States, the present research endeavor considered the relationship between prison leadership style and employee job satisfaction to retain qualified and experienced employees who effectively manage the correctional population and maintain public safety.

Prison populations are declining across the country, which is a result of public policy initiatives designed to divert nonviolent, nonsexual offenders from prisons to local jails, community supervision, or specialty programming (drug courts or reentry programs, for example). The total number of prisoners housed in federal and state correctional facilities decreased by more than 2% between December 31, 2014 and December 31, 2015 (Carson & Anderson, 2016). Despite reductions in inmate populations, prison operations have become a critical conversation in the United States, with an emphasis on safety and security. Staffing prisons is of concern considering the difficult nature of the job and competing employment opportunities as economic conditions improve (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). Prison staffing is crucial to the safety of the public, prison employees, and the offenders housed in prisons.

Prison leadership in correctional departments is facing staffing challenges, which can

compromise safety and security and cause additional strain on remaining prison staff (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Lommel, 2004). In an environment where correctional entities are challenged with shrinking budgets and inmates are increasingly difficult to manage, prison leaders must find ways to retain trained correctional professionals to operate effective and efficient institutions (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). According to the Association of State Correctional Administrators (2016), correctional agencies face five key issues (in order of urgency): (a) staffing, (b) restrictive housing, (c) inmate mental health, (d) budget, and (e) overcrowding. Staffing issues consistently rank among the highest priorities, which include vacancy rates, recruitment, retention, inexperienced officers, staffing shortages, attrition, and staff wellness.

Understanding the causes of attrition among prison staff is crucial for reversing the pattern and retaining trained staff. Correctional staff often have shorter tenures, as demonstrated by turnover rates in southern correctional departments, which ranged from 15.7% to 48.2% in 2015 (Appeaning, 2016). Correctional staff turnover affects the safety and security of the facility and diminishes the institutional knowledge of experienced correctional officers who can help train new staff (Gomez, 2007). Significant financial costs relate to correctional turnover (recruitment, training, overtime), as well as indirect consequences, including decreased performance, poor service, and low morale among remaining employees (Mitchell, Mackenzie, Styve, & Gover, 2000). The U.S. Department of Justice (2011) estimated it costs $66,650 to train federal correctional officers during their first year of employment. Additionally, Gibbons and Katzenbach (2006) noted correctional turnover and poor performance among staff have implications outside of prison walls; inmates may not be prepared for reentry into society at the end of their prison sentence.

Researchers found job satisfaction and organizational commitment were predictors of correctional officer turnover (Udechukwu, Harrington, Manyak, Segal, & Graham, 2007). Barrett and Greene (2014) contended that in competitive fiscal environments, salaries for correctional officers often rank below other governmental priorities, resulting in wages insufficient to attract and retain talented men and women to work in this challenging environment. The improving economy also contributes to increased vacancies among prison employees. Lower stress and higher paying jobs are available in the private sector. Additionally, many county and federal correctional organizations pay higher salaries than state government systems offer, exacerbating vacancy rates (Fitfield, 2016). Nink (2010) noted work schedules, salary and benefits, a lack of comradery among staff, and staffing prisons with employees not suited to be correctional officers contributed to correctional officer turnover.

Prison staff is responsible for incarcerating offenders and ensuring safety while providing offenders with opportunities for rehabilitative programming to help them improve their personal situations; these two responsibilities sometimes result in competing goals (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). The nature of the corrections industry presents unique challenges for staff. Gladwin and McConnell (2014) noted the increased influence of gangs and changing social conditions, which contribute to more violent inmates and increasingly dangerous work environments. Stressors unique to the correctional environment, including inmate-related stressors, occupational stressors, organizational/administrative stressors, and psychosocial stressors further challenge correctional staff (Brower, 2013). Job-specific stressors make employee responsibilities imperative and require training, commitment, and accountability to enhance the safety and security of the prisons and the public (Konda, Reichard, & Tiesman, 2012). Effective leadership is important in all organizations, but plays a crucial role in safety and

security in demanding correctional environments because of the potential for danger and inherent stress (Wilson, 2013). Leaders, Wilson argued, must understand the challenges facing staff and relate to them, communicate effectively, and serve as mentors.

Leadership plays a significant role in organizational turnover (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Emotional intelligence is a leadership style associated with enhanced organizational performance (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012; Goleman, 2015; Rosenbach, Taylor, & Youndt, 2012; Yadav, 2014). Emotional intelligence is an individual's capacity to understand human emotions in him or herself and others and then use that cognizance to manage interactions (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as "being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping one's ability to think; to emphasize and to hope" (p. 34). Human beings are emotional creatures; an individual's first response to an external stimulus is emotional. Although people are unable to control the initial emotional reaction, thoughts and behavioral reactions can be controlled (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012). Because emotions play a fundamental role in human behavior, it is crucial that leaders recognize their power and how to capitalize on it; leaders who fail to recognize and successfully channel their emotions will be unable to reach higher levels of success (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Goleman (2015) reported emotional intelligence proved to be twice as important among successful leaders when compared to technical skills and IQ. Although research concerning the use of emotional intelligence in correctional settings has been limited, Ohrberg (2010) found no correlation among prison employee emotional intelligence and correctional officer intent to resign. However, researchers have linked emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction,

which is attributed to employee retention (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012; Goleman, 2015; Rosenbach et al., 2012; Yadav, 2014).

Background

Leadership is at the core of organizational performance, influencing all aspects of business—operations, finance, and personnel. The significance of leadership holds true in both private- and public-sector organizations, including prisons. Fairholm (2004) noted that public organizations have historically emphasized operations and the implementation of policy instead of leadership development. Although leadership development is often overlooked, Dilulio (1990) argued leadership practices are the most significant predictor of quality of life within prisons and jails. Considering 1,526,792 prisoners were housed in federal and state correctional facilities in the United States at the end of 2015 and one in 37 adults were under some sort of correctional supervision, it is crucial to understand the influence leadership practices have on prison operations for governmental entities charged with safely housing inmates (Carson & Anderson, 2016; Kaeble & Glaze, 2016). Many corrections professionals refer to correctional officers as the most critical resource in the prison system (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Nink, 2010).

Correctional departments exist to incarcerate adult convicted felons sentenced to prison and supervise adult convicted felons on probation and parole in the community (although there may be some variation in scope of responsibility among states). In addition to the basic custodial and supervision responsibilities, correctional departments engage in related responsibilities for offender care, such as clinical and mental health services, food service, religious services, education, occupational training, substance abuse treatment, and administrative tasks necessary for operation (Cornelius, 2010; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). The societal need for public safety justifies the existence of the field of corrections. Federal, state, and local law enforcement

initially arrest and charge individuals following the commission of criminal offenses. The judicial branch of government facilitates decisions regarding guilt or innocence and the appropriate sentence for those convicted of crimes against society. Correctional entities are then responsible for carrying out the sentence imposed by the court, which could range from short-term probation in the community to capital punishment (Cornelius, 2010).

Problem Statement

Ensuring prisons are adequately staffed is crucial to the safety of the public, the safety and security of prison employees, and the safety of offenders in prisons (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Nink, 2010). Prison systems across the country are experiencing problems staffing their facilities (Association of State Correctional Administrators, 2016; Fitfield, 2016). Retaining qualified, trained, and experienced employees could enhance the safety and security of prisons (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Leadership plays a crucial role in prison operations, including retaining qualified staff—a role that is more significant in prisons than it is in other organizational contexts (Wilson, 2013). Because of the seriousness of the issue and significant gaps in the current knowledge (particularly research performed within the last 5 years), the relationship between leader emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of prison employees is under investigation.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to increase the effectiveness of prison leaders and to inform correctional administrators in the United States of strategies that may increase job satisfaction to retain experienced, qualified, and well-trained employees. Subsequently, the results of the present research will aid correctional leaders in enhancing the safety and security of prisons, which affects staff, inmates, and the public. The researcher assessed the relationships

between supervisory use of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction of prison employees, and selected staff demographic variables to determine potential approaches for increasing prison employee job satisfaction.

Significance of Research

As of December 31, 2015, federal and state departments of correction housed a total of 1,526,792 inmates in U.S. prisons, which amounts to 458 prisoners per every 100,000 U.S. residents (Carson & Anderson, 2016). The five southern states included in the present study housed a total of 146,840 inmates as of December 31, 2015 in 88 prisons, which represents 9.62% of inmates in the United States (Carson & Anderson, 2016). These inmates are convicted felons who are incarcerated as punishment for law violations, including crimes against people, drug offenses, and property crimes. Although not every inmate represents a threat to public safety, departments of correction must take action to minimize risk to prison staff, inmates, and the public to enhance safety. In Fiscal Year 2015, the five southern states under investigation reported expenditures of more than 3.1 billion dollars (Appeaning, 2016).

This research contributed to the knowledge on correctional leadership practices, helped fill in existing gaps in the literature, and informed correctional leaders and policymakers of research-driven best practices. U.S. correctional agencies can benefit from information concerning prison leadership and its relationship to employee job satisfaction. If a connection exists between prison leadership's use of emotional intelligence and prison staff job satisfaction, correctional departments can tailor training and development courses and programs around emotional intelligence to successfully enhance employee job satisfaction, with a goal of enhancing employee retention. Further, staff could assess supervisory candidates and new hires for emotional intelligence as part of the promotional and hiring processes to select candidates

that will contribute to the overall success of the prison. Although this research was specific to the field of corrections, results may also generalize to other organizations, whether the environments are high stress, as in corrections, or low stress levels. Understanding the influence that a specific leadership style, in this case emotional intelligence, has on employee job satisfaction can inform leaders about strategies for enhancing employee satisfaction and ultimately increase employee retention.

Nature of the Study

For the present study, the researcher assessed prison employees in participating correctional systems in the southern United States. Specifically, employees in participating southern states were administered the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Palmer et al., 2009) to rate their assessment of their supervisor's emotional intelligence. The participants also completed the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985), which provided information regarding employee job satisfaction. The intent was to determine whether perceived levels of leader emotional intelligence affect job satisfaction of prison staff. Additionally, the researcher gathered demographic factors from corrections employees to determine whether these factors were associated with staff job satisfaction. The study did not include assessment of staff in privately operated prisons or by local or federal governmental entities. The study was designed to identify possible strategies to reduce turnover among prison staff and to enhance public safety in the field of corrections.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The primary purpose for this study was to determine if the perceived use of emotional intelligence among prison leaders had a statistically significant relationship with the job satisfaction of prison employees, to identify strategies for increasing prison employee retention,

and to enhance safety and security. The research questions of this study provide a framework for asking the following: if the emotional intelligence levels of prison leadership increased, would job satisfaction of prison employees increase as well? The following questions guided this research.

Research Question 1. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between employee perception of supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States?

$H_0 1$.There is no statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_a 1$.There is a statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Research Question 2. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between prison employees' demographic factors and their job satisfaction?

$H_0 1$.There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_a 1$.There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Conceptual/Theoretical Framework

Prison Staffing

Correctional departments in the United States are facing staffing shortages, which presents challenges for operating safe and secure facilities. Prison staff are no longer charged with guarding inmates and keeping the peace in institutional settings (Cornelius, 2010). Correctional officers of the 21st century must be highly trained professionals who not only work

toward safety and security, but also ensure inmates receive rehabilitative programming, physical and mental health care, and other opportunities in an ever-changing correctional environment (Cornelius, 2010). Ensuring posts within prisons are covered is essential to everyday operations. Regardless of the occupational field, employee turnover is costly; training in correctional and other law enforcement environments is especially costly (Nink, 2010). Gladwin and McConnell (2014) indicated prison staffing levels could significantly affect existing staff and changes to scheduling in particular can affect morale, turnover, use of sick time, and the quantity and quality of work.

Retaining Correctional Employees

Keeping high-performing employees is crucial, especially considering the high cost of replacing those employees (Nink, 2010). Retaining experienced, well-trained, and qualified correctional employees affects the safety and security of prisons, has fiscal and budgetary implications (recruitment, training, and overtime), and affects other facility staff (performance, service, and morale; Gomez, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2000).

Leadership

According to Sanders (2007), leadership encompasses influence; it is an individual's ability to impel others to follow him or her. Similarly, Yukl (2012) defined leadership as a process of influencing others to agree on the organizational mission and strategies, how best to accomplish them, and facilitating efforts to complete shared goals. Some of the core concepts in defining leadership include personal traits, characteristics, and skills, needs and characteristics of followers, relationships between leaders and their followers, and ways in which leaders can adjust to enhance organizational success. Researchers have made efforts to define the essential qualities of effective leaders; as such, theories have emerged to explain characteristics that

contribute to individual leadership success (Northouse, 2013). The present research pertained to the leadership theory of emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotions drive human behavior and are the foundation of successful leadership. Leaders who are unable (or unwilling) to recognize the significance of emotions in the workplace will fail in all aspects of their organizational operations (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2015). Leaders exhibiting emotional intelligence recognize and understand their personal emotions and engage that awareness to manage their behavior and interactions with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Leaders who exhibit emotional intelligence can have a significant effect on staff retention (Mohammad, Chai, Aun, & Migin, 2014).

Definition of Terms

The following are key terms used throughout this research study:

Emotional intelligence: Emotional intelligence is an individual's recognition and understanding of his or her personal emotions and how those emotions affect other people. Further, people exhibiting emotional intelligence use this awareness to manage their behavior and their interactions with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Job satisfaction: Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs.

Prison: Prisons are state or federal owned facilities that house convicted felons and inmates with sentences of more than 1 year (as compared to jails, which typically house offenders whose sentences are less than 1 year, but the time period can vary by state). Some private prison corporations operate facilities on a contractual basis with local, state, and federal governmental entities (U.S. Department of Justice, 2017).

Prison employee: Prison employees are staff paid to work in a prison to perform a wide variety of duties, including responsibilities for safety and security within the facility (officers and ranking security personnel), providing food service, medical and mental health services, rehabilitative programming (such as counselors and teachers), maintenance (facility operations), and administration (leadership, business office, human resources, training, and information technology staff; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

Retention: Retention refers to the ability of an organization to keep qualified staff and is indicated by levels of job satisfaction (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Nink, 2010).

Limitations and Scope of the Research

The scope of the research was limited to state prisons within the southern United States. To avoid calling attention to individual facilities or state systems, this researcher considered a cross-section of prison employees as opposed to coupling leaders with the employees from their individual prisons.

The researcher conducted surveys using SurveyMonkey, an online survey platform. Using the Internet to collect data may have limited responses to prison employees who have access to computers with Internet and who have knowledge about technology. SurveyMonkey provides a mobile application that can be used on a smart phone, which may negate limited access to the Internet among prison employees. Because of the geographic distance between participating states and prisons and the number of prison staff invited to participate, paper surveys collected in person, mailed surveys, or phone interviews were not feasible, nor did they provide anonymity for participants.

Delimitations

Delimitations describe the boundaries or parameters established for the research endeavor and typically include an explanation of the related topics the researcher did not intend to address, the population excluded from the analysis, and an explanation of methodological procedures not used during the study (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). For this research, the researcher analyzed state prisons in the southern United States. The assessment provided data analysis to inform personnel practices for practical application. The inclusion of southern states was important because these states face similar circumstances in terms of staff demographics, economy, and regional labor and workforce trends. Additionally, the researcher focused solely on prisons operated by state departments of correction and did not include prisons operated by private corporations or locally or federally operated facilities.

Summary

The intent of Chapter 1 was to provide an overview of the current research endeavor. Specifically, background information was provided to justify the significance of the research question. Although a wide range of information exists explaining connections between workplace conditions and correctional employee job satisfaction and retention, significant gaps exist in the research concerning the relationship between the use of emotional intelligence among prison leadership and employee job satisfaction. Working with inmates is a difficult job that is not a good fit for everyone (Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato, & Dewa, 2013). Although the nature of prison work and clientele remain consistent, leadership styles can be changed. Informing correctional organizations about emotional intelligence among prison leaders and how that influences the job satisfaction of prison employees is crucial. The researcher presents the

existing literature concerning emotional intelligence, prison leadership, job satisfaction, and prison employees in Chapter 2.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the perceived level of emotional intelligence in prison leaders within the southern United States is correlated to the job satisfaction of prison employees. Correctional facility employee turnover is high and can have a significant effect on departmental budgets through costs associated with recruiting and training new employees, and overtime for existing staff (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Additionally, high turnover among prison staff can lead to staff shortages, which can create safety and security issues for prison staff, inmates, and the public (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

Researchers have linked leaders' emotional intelligence to employee job satisfaction, which can contribute to employee retention (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012; Goleman, 2015; Rosenbach et al., 2012; Yadav, 2014). In this chapter, the researcher discusses the search strategies used to locate relevant literature. The literature review is organized based on the four primary concepts under investigation: emotional intelligence, prison leadership, job satisfaction, and prison employees. The researcher defines each concept and presents background information to illustrate the need for the current study. The chapter concludes with a section on the need for the study followed by a summary.

Literature Search Strategy

The researcher conducted a thorough online search and review of the relevant literature on several related topics in preparation for an analysis of the literature. Search terms included the following: *prison staffing, prison employees, job satisfaction, correctional officers, retention, turnover, prison leadership, leadership,* and *emotional intelligence*. The researcher gathered

information through general Internet searches and extensive reviews of academic databases, including Proquest Dissertations and Theses Global, EBSCOhost Databases, Thomson Gale InfoTrac, FirstSearch Databases, Sage Databases, Newsbank Databases, Google Scholar, and Questia.

Additionally, industry-specific websites were searched for contextual and background material, including the websites of the American Corrections Association, the National Institute of Corrections, the Association of State Correctional Administrators, the Southern States Correctional Association, the U.S. Bureau of Justice, Corrections.com, the Correctional Technology Association, the International Correctional and Prison Association, the European Prison Association, and various state correctional department websites. However, the researcher gave precedence to peer-reviewed journal articles.

Although the researcher conducted an extensive search for recent publications, much of the relevant work on related topics was outdated. Readers will note a gap in pertinent works from the last 5 years. Additionally, original sources with older citation dates are referenced to establish the theoretical foundation of emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as “a form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). In 1997, Mayer and Salovey revised their definition: “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to effectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (p. 5).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) posited emotional intelligence was necessary for rational thought and that it enhances one's ability to handle demands and uncertainties faced throughout life.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

In addition to a focus on emotions, Goleman (2001) considered an individual's personality and cognate factors. According to Goleman (1998, 2001), leaders who exhibit emotional intelligence have a significant effect on organizational success. These leaders can understand and manage their own emotions, sense their employees' feelings, mediate issues when necessary, and have a broader understanding of the social and political environments within the organization. Leaders also affect the climate and culture of an organization (Goleman, 2001). Emotional intelligence is significant for leaders to possess, as one's cognitive ability is not fully capitalized upon without the management of his or her emotions (Stein & Book, 2006). Emotional intelligence is twice as important as technical skills and aptitude; intellect is meaningless if people are unable to connect and communicate with others, which often depends on an awareness of the emotional context of the situation (Goleman, 2015).

Human beings are naturally emotional creatures because of brain functions; a person's first response to external stimulus is emotional. Although humans are unable to control that initial emotional reaction, they can control their thoughts and behavioral responses (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012). Because emotions play such a fundamental role in human behavior, it is critical that leaders recognize the power of emotions and how to capitalize on that power. Leaders may fail if they are unable to control emotions and manage them in a constructive manner (Goleman et al., 2002).

Leadership entails influencing others to follow a leader's direction (Northouse, 2013). Exercising leadership involves managing relationships with subordinates and others;

organizations cannot be successful without acknowledging and nurturing the people aspects of business, including all stakeholders involved inside and outside the organization (Gini & Green, 2014). Emotional intelligence refers to an individual's ability to identify and comprehend not only personal emotions, but also those of others, followed by the capacity to manage these emotions and corresponding relationships (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Leaders must make emotional management their primary focus (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002). Leaders can influence their team's dedication and performance by their own behaviors more than any other variable—all of which contributes to the organization's ability to accomplish its mission (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Emotional intelligence is critical for effective decision-making and leading during change initiatives (Yadav, 2014). Emotional intelligence can be acquired through training (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, & Adler, 1998; Clarke, 2006).

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) noted companies were recognizing an increased need for emotionally intelligent leadership in all types of organizations. Research indicated when a team's collective emotional intelligence increased, team effectiveness and performance also increased (Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006). Similarly, in their study of employees in the financial and service sectors, Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) found when employees have higher levels of emotional intelligence, workplace conflict decreases, social relationships improve, and cooperation among staff improves.

Research conducted by the U.S. General Accounting Office (1998) demonstrated the cost-effectiveness of organizational utilization of emotional intelligence. The U.S. General Accounting Office (1998) assessed financial savings realized in the U.S. Air Force when emotional intelligence assessments were used while hiring program recruiters. When candidates

with higher levels of emotional intelligence were selected as recruiters, they were more successful overall, realizing $3 million dollars in savings annually for the organization.

In addition to influencing work performance and organizational success, researchers found that people with low emotional intelligence experience social problems in their personal lives. For example, males with low emotional intelligence have poor quality social relationships and are more likely to engage in harmful behaviors, such as illegal drug use and alcohol abuse (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2003).

Components of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Emotional intelligence theorists agree on four components of emotional intelligence that can be grouped into two categories: personal competence and social competence. Personal competence entails self-awareness and self-management, or skills that focus inward from an individual perspective, as opposed to how people interact with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012). Self-awareness is an individual's ability to accurately assess personal moods and emotions and understand how those emotions can affect others (Goleman et al., 2015). Once an individual is aware of his or her emotions, he or she must manage emotional reactions; self-management refers to the ability to control one's behaviors (Goleman et al., 2015). According to Bradberry and Greaves (2012), social competence includes social awareness and relationship management and encompasses one's capacity to comprehend other people's moods and emotions and use that understanding to improve relationships between themselves and others. The four components of emotional intelligence are crucial to effective leadership (Goleman, 2015).

Researchers have considered additional components, or subscales of emotional intelligence. Palmer et al. (2009) identified seven subscales of emotional intelligence: emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning,

emotional self-management, emotional management of others, and emotional self-control. These subscales align with the four accepted components of emotional intelligence and are included in the subsequent discussion. Additionally, each of the four primary components of emotional intelligence is comprised of leadership competencies, which are identified by component (Goleman, Kohireser, Davidson, Boyatzis, & Druskat, 2017).

Self-awareness. Self-awareness refers to the ability to gauge one's emotions and recognize the effect emotions have on oneself, as well as others, and is the most important component of emotional intelligence (Goleman et al., 2015). Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) found people with self-awareness had higher perceived self-control of their lives; self-awareness is the foundation on which the other components of emotional intelligence are based. Goleman (2015) defined self-awareness as understanding an individual's strengths, weaknesses, goals, and values, as well as the effect that they have on others. Leaders who are self-aware are honest with themselves and with others; they recognize the influence of their feelings on themselves, others, and their job performance (Goleman, 2015). Emotional self-awareness provides leaders with an effective way to approach and address circumstances that arise (Gambill, 2009). Leaders exhibiting emotional self-awareness commonly display several characteristics, including self-confidence, the ability to perform realistic self-assessments, understanding their reactive tendencies, a self-deprecating sense of humor, making decisions based on personal values, being candid, being authentic, passionately speaking about their vision, and a thirst for constructive criticism from others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Goleman, 2015; Goleman et al., 2002; Goleman et al., 2017).

According to Shipper and Davy (2002), self-awareness is the keystone to emotional intelligence. Having a sound understanding of an individual's actions, motivations, and how

these actions influence others is important—people must be aware of themselves before they can improve themselves (Weinstein, 2013). Employees respect leaders who are aware of their strengths and are adaptable enough to experiment with different job roles, and understanding their strengths and weaknesses is the key to adapting based on the situation (Weinstein, 2013).

To be successful, it is crucial that leaders are aware of their emotions so they can control and use them to contribute to the success of the team, the organization, and society (Weinstein, 2013). Leaders' ability to recognize their emotions and appropriately express them to others is important because this skill allows leaders to use their emotions to promote enhanced organizational performance (Gardner & Stough, 2002). In a study regarding the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational climate, Momeni (2009) found that self-awareness and self-management were correlated with enhanced organizational climate. Manager awareness of the influence they have on the perceived culture and the significance of that culture on overall organizational performance is crucial (Momeni, 2009).

Self-management. Self-management involves the ability to control one's behaviors. Leaders exhibiting self-management are able to use their self-awareness to control what they say and how they behave (Goleman et al., 2015). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) contended that people, similar to volcanoes, have emotions rumbling under the surface, which can culminate in an eruption or emotional outburst. The authors purported leaders can influence their subsurface activity by engaging in self-management strategies, which first requires an awareness of the emotions and appropriate reactions. Self-awareness is critical to self-management; people must first be aware of their emotions to control them (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman et al. (2017) identified core leadership competencies associated with self-management, including emotional balance, adaptability, achievement orientation, and having a positive outlook.

Emotional self-control is a critical facet of self-management and is defined as the ability to manage emotions and impulses (both positive and negative) using various mechanisms (Palmer et al., 2009). Leaders exhibiting self-control have the ability to stay composed and sensible while under stress or during crisis; they have the ability to maintain emotional balance during challenging conditions (Goleman et al., 2017). Outstanding leaders are able to read their emotions before reacting, which is contradictory to human nature, wherein people generally experience emotions prior to reacting (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Leaders who demonstrate self-management control their reactions in an effort to eliminate behaviors that damage their potential for success (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). These leaders commonly display flexibility, transparency, adaptability, initiative, optimism, integrity, comfort during ambiguity and change, and are achievement-oriented (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Goleman, 2015; Goleman et al., 2002).

Better self-management gives people more control of difficult situations and interactions with difficult people. As noted by Zimmerman (2013), self-management entails the appropriate expression of emotions to realize positive results. Self-management also prepares people to be more successful during change because they are more flexible and able to control their reactions (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Leaders skilled at emotional self-management demonstrate appropriate emotional expression, meaning they display the appropriate verbal and nonverbal emotions at the right time (Palmer et al., 2009). These leaders are open and congruent in the messages that they send to others (Stein & Book, 2006). Finally, they express their emotions appropriately, even when someone or something has upset them in the workplace (Palmer et al., 2009).

Social awareness. Social awareness refers to one's ability to accurately identify other people's emotions and entails assessing other people's emotions and understanding their sincere feelings and intentions, which often entails putting one's own opinions and feelings aside to truly grasp another's perspective (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012). Leaders exhibiting social awareness engage in a process of emotional reasoning, or using emotional information in decision-making. These leaders gather input from others when problem solving and then demonstrate to others that their feelings were considered (Palmer et al., 2009). These leaders are characterized by demonstrating listening and observational skills, are service-oriented, attract and retain quality employees, have an ability to develop others, and are sensitive to cross-cultural differences (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Goleman, 2015; Goleman et al., 2002).

When leaders are able to see another's perspective, the relationship is strengthened and interactions become more cooperative and less confrontational (Bradberry & Greaves, 2012). Once the relationship becomes more collaborative, leaders and subordinates are better able to work through differences and work together to accomplish organizational goals (Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005). People generally desire to have input in decision-making and feel they have made a contribution to the organization. Emotionally intelligent leaders recognize this innate desire and appropriately elicit discussion, which empowers staff and encourages organizational commitment (Goleman et al., 2002). Core competencies required for social awareness include empathy and organizational awareness (Goleman et al., 2017).

Relationship management. Good relationships are necessary and essential for professionals in the workforce. People are inherently emotional creatures and their first responses to most situations are emotional. Although people cannot control that their first responses are emotional, they can control how they respond (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Leaders skilled at relationship management couple their emotional self-awareness and their social awareness to successfully manage interactions with others; relationship management enables clear communication and is conducive to effective conflict resolution (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Relationship management includes the bond people build with others throughout the course of the relationship. Gardner and Stough (2002) characterized relationship management as one's ability to encourage desirable reactions from others. Strong relationships are important because they facilitate discussion whereby both participants understand each other and successfully receive messaging from the other (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman et al. (2017) identified five core competencies required for successful relationship management: influence, conflict management, inspirational leadership, coaching and mentoring, and teamwork.

Leaders with high relationship management skills are able to manage situations and get the most benefit out of interactions with others. They are able to positively influence others, develop the people around them, successfully navigate conflict, enhance communication within the organization, cultivate a culture of collaboration and teamwork, and successfully navigate change (Keating, Harper, & Glew, 2013). Relationship management is important to resolving conflict and capitalizing on interactions and relationships with others. Effective relationship management, regardless of the presence of stress, is crucial for leading change, persuading people, and building and leading teams (Goleman, 2015). Characteristics of emotionally intelligent leaders who are skilled in relationship management include the ability to influence others, inspire others, promote teamwork and collaboration, act as catalysts for change, clearly communicate, effectively manage conflict, build bonds with others, persuade others, give

attention to networking, and have an expertise in building and leading teams (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; Goleman, 2015; Goleman et al., 2002).

Prison Leadership

Prisons tend to function as quasi-military organizations with rank structures, staff uniforms, structured training, detailed policies and procedures, and codes of conduct (Dess & Picken, 2000). Prisons generally operate with strict hierarchies and are often bureaucratic (Moller, Stover, Jurgens, Gartherer, & Nikogoshian, 2007). Correctional employees perform a wide-range of duties, including: health care, mental health care, maintenance, food service, teaching, counseling, administrative work (e.g., accounting, budgeting, payroll, personnel, procurement, training, information technology), and the security series. The security series is organized in a hierarchy, with increasing duties and supervisory responsibilities among higher ranks (Dess & Picken, 2000; Moller et al., 2007). The typical rank structure begins with correctional officers who do not supervise other employees, but are responsible for inmate supervision. Employees who supervise correctional officers in prison security positions (including all ranks—Corporal, Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain, Deputy Warden, Associate Warden, and Warden) often supervise inmates in addition to their supervisory responsibilities for other staff (Dess & Picken, 2000). Titles and duties may vary by organization, but most emphasize a command-and-control organizational culture. Leadership positions exist within each of the various job functions in prisons, with the warden serving as the senior ranking official in the facility. Prison leadership is defined as any employee working in the prison who supervises another employee, regardless of functional area (Dess & Picken, 2000).

Wright (1994) enumerated four characteristics of successful prison leaders: (a) they should understand institutional operations and what is needed for success; (b) they should be

visible, aware, and involved in daily operations; (c) they should exude confidence and be aware of the influence they have within and outside the prison; and (d) they should be committed and loyal to the organization, the prison itself, and their staff. These characteristics are consistent with several components of emotional intelligence: organizational awareness, personal awareness, the ability to develop others, having influence, managing conflict, and eliciting teamwork and collaboration (Goleman, 2001). Additionally, effective leaders play different roles at different times, depending on who they are interacting with. Correctional leaders have the difficult challenge of balancing flexibility with discipline, traits that are often contradictory in nature (Wilson, 2013). Emotionally intelligent leaders are able to recognize the need to change roles and the appropriate role to use in particular contexts (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000).

Leadership, Wilson (2013) argued, is more important in correctional environments than other types of organizations because of the seriousness of the work. The most significant interactions for prison employees must be with leadership (Wilson, 2013). Wilson (2013) found organizational culture plays a significant role in job satisfaction and turnover among correctional officers. Officers interviewed supported the tenet that the field of corrections as a whole should become more professional, which could be accomplished by higher pay, enhanced training, and increased communication. In fact, the officers consistently cited communication as the most important issue they encounter in the prison, which includes communication at all levels. Officers also discussed concerns about staff turnover, leader inconsistency, and waning organizational commitment.

Prisons present opportunities for violence or abuse among inmates and between inmates and staff (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). Wardens who promote a culture of mutual respect between leadership, staff, and the inmate population in their prison often have less violence and

abuse (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). Specifically, correctional leaders who abandon “us versus them” mentalities with regard to relationships between staff and inmates are able to create cultures that foster ethical conduct, respect, and communication. Leaders must set the example that they expect from their staff and the inmate population. Additionally, wardens who emphasize the recruitment and retention of highly qualified staff are more likely to build a positive culture. Recruiting highly qualified staff is often difficult because turnover rates in prisons remain high and leaders must frequently settle on hiring candidates who may not meet all of their preferred criteria (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). Finally, leadership development and training for all supervisors within the prison is important, with a special consideration on developing mid-level managers to become leaders who understand the significance of establishing a culture of mutual respect and the effect it can have on the broader goal of the safety and security of the facility (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006).

Gibbons and Katzenbach (2006) noted that as staff are promoted up the chain of command in correctional environments, the challenges often change, but stress and demands persist. Prison leaders are often faced with aging facilities; staffing shortages; a young workforce, which means a lack of experienced employees with institutional knowledge; and are required to serve more people with fewer resources. Further, Gladwin and McConnell (2014) argued most supervisors in correctional environments wear two hats—that of the supervisor and that of a worker—which presents challenges when trying to accomplish either role. Correctional supervisors are responsible for the safety and security of their staff as well as the offenders housed in their facility (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Prison leaders are also faced with demands from the public and policymakers that may conflict with reality. People demand punishment for inmates, but the overwhelming majority of inmates will return home to their

communities and require rehabilitative programming to encourage behavioral changes upon return (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006).

In conjunction with the U.S. Department of Justice and the National Institute for Corrections, Campbell (2006) sought to identify the skills and abilities of effective correctional leaders to aid in the development of leadership training curricula. The researcher conducted focus groups and administered surveys to develop core competencies for four levels of correctional leaders: executives, senior-level leaders, managers, and supervisors. Profiles for each level of leadership were developed, which included an assessment of authority, responsibilities, tasks, and positions. Core competencies emerged for correctional leaders, including ethics and values, interpersonal relationships, motivating others, developing others, managing conflict, team building, collaboration, managing change, strategic thinking, self-awareness, vision and mission, and managing the external environment (Campbell, 2006). Many of these competencies identified as critical for correctional leaders are attributes of leaders who exhibit emotional intelligence, which emphasizes being aware of one's moods and emotions, how those moods and emotions affect others, being aware of the moods and emotions of others, and the ability to manage relationships (Goleman, 2015).

Job Satisfaction

Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs. An employee's job satisfaction influences job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, counter-productive work behavior, physical and psychological health outcomes, and withdrawal cognitions and behaviors (Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2011). Factors influencing job satisfaction can be intrinsic (e.g., personal motivators within an individual) or extrinsic (e.g., external motivations). Intrinsic factors contributing to job

satisfaction include employee independence, task variety, social status, moral values, security, serving others, authority, creativity, and achievement (Spector, 1997). Extrinsic factors, such as supervision, compensation, recognition, policies and procedures, and advancement, can also enhance employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). In Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey, nine facets of job satisfaction are measured that add up to a composite job satisfaction score: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication.

Researchers have indicated that job satisfaction is a key predictor of employee retention and turnover intentions (Lambert, Hogan, & Cheeseman Dial, 2011; Spaulding, 2014). Researchers have also identified connections between leaders' emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction (Essary, 2010; Glodstein, 2014; Goleman et al., 2015; Meisler, 2014; Miao, Humphrey, & Oian, 2016; Mohammad et al., 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007). However, researchers have not examined the relationship between prison leaders' emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among employees. Understanding the connections between the emotional intelligence of prisoner leaders and job satisfaction in prison employees is important because the demands of prison work lead to high turnover rates among correctional employees (Barrett & Greene, 2014; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

Prison Employees

Prisons are staffed with various positions, including health care professionals, maintenance workers, food service staff, teachers, counselors, administrative professionals, and the security series, such as correctional officers. Prison employees have the responsibility for maintaining safety and security in the facility by monitoring and supervising inmates. These employees are additionally responsible for meeting inmates' daily needs, which involve food

service, health care, and mental counseling activities (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Prison staff has the responsibility of preparing inmates for their reentry back into society by offering rehabilitative programming and conducting the daily administrative tasks necessary to operate a prison (Cornelius, 2010; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Accomplishing these broad-sweeping goals is often challenging, particularly considering the clientele is being incarcerated against their will and may potentially be dangerous (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Within the various job functions in prisons, Kauffman (1988) noted staff in the security series often develops a subculture that distinguishes them from treatment staff or administrators. In addition to their formally established duties, Cornelius (1995) suggested correctional officers also play informal roles in relation to the inmate population, including acting in capacities similar to psychologists, legal advisors, parents, information agents, counselors, and diplomats.

Stress is a major factor in the corrections field (Brower, 2013); several studies demonstrate increased leader emotional intelligence can decrease organizational stress (Becker, 2011; Gupta & Kumar, 2015; Yadav, 2014). Stress among correctional officers can lead to decreased job satisfaction and can be derived from four primary sources: (a) inmate-related stressors, (b) occupational stressors, (b) organizational/administrative stressors, and (d) psychosocial stressors (Brower, 2013). Inmate-related stressors are those directly related to the inmates they supervise and the threat of violence or injury posed (Konda et al., 2012). Specific inmate-related stressors in the correctional environment include violence/threat of injury, gang activity, overcrowding, mental illness among the inmate population, substance abuse, inmate suicide, and other inmate deviance, such as sex and the presence of contraband (Brower, 2013). Data regarding correctional officer injuries from 1999–2008 indicate this perceived stress is valid; correctional officers experience more nonfatal injuries than any other profession, with the

exception of police officers (Konda et al., 2012). These stressors can lead to diminished job satisfaction and eventually lead to correctional officers leaving their positions.

Additionally, correctional officers face occupational stressors, which include working in a closed environment, role ambiguity (rehabilitative versus punitive roles), meeting the physical demands of the job, the code of silence or machismo among officers, and necessary hyper-vigilance (Brower, 2013). Organizational and administrative job stressors include poor leadership, unfair policies and procedures (as perceived by correctional officers), lack of input in the decision-making process, poor performance evaluation or disciplinary processes, inadequate selection/hiring processes, ineffective employee training, inadequate salary and benefits, mandatory overtime or shiftwork, understaffing and turnover, conflict with coworkers, and a lack of confidential support services available to correctional officers (Brower, 2013).

Researchers further noted officers also experience stress and job burnout when trust is lacking between staff, supervisors, and administrators (Brower, 2013; Lambert, Hogan, Barton-Bellessa, & Jiang, 2012). This is a situation that could be mitigated by emotionally intelligent prison leaders. Psychosocial stressors for correctional officers include individual characteristics and stress from external sources: personal fears, lack assertiveness, aggression, lack of familial support, public misperceptions about the job and negative media, and political scrutiny (Brower, 2013). These stressors can lead to diminished job satisfaction and increased attrition in correctional officers.

Job Satisfaction and Retention in Prison Employees

Prison employee retention continues to be a challenge for prison leaders, necessitating examination of whether a relationship exists between emotional intelligence in prison leaders and the job satisfaction of prison employees. Emotional intelligence in leaders has been linked to

increased job satisfaction among employees (Essary, 2010; Glodstein, 2014; Goleman et al., 2015; Meisler, 2014; Miao et al., 2016; Mohammad et al., 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007), but has not been explored in relation to the job satisfaction of prison employees. Attrition among correctional officers can be attributed to numerous factors (Barrett & Greene, 2014). Researchers have found job satisfaction (Udechukwu et al., 2007), organizational commitment (Udechukwu et al., 2007), salaries and benefits (Barrett & Greene, 2014), work schedules and staffing issues (Nink, 2010), a lack of comradery among correctional officers (Nink, 2010), stress (Brower, 2013), threat of inmate-related violence and injury (Konda et al., 2012), and leadership all play significant roles in general organizational turnover (Brower, 2013; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Job satisfaction, however, may be one of the most salient components of retention of prison employees (Barrett & Greene, 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007).

Organizational culture plays a significant role in the likelihood that high-performing employees will stay with the organization. Specifically, organizational cultures emphasizing values, such as teamwork, job security, and respect for individual employees, are more likely to retain quality staff (Finney et al., 2013). Conversely, those organizations that foster personal initiative and individual rewards instead of recognizing teams are more likely to experience higher turnover (Kerr & Slocum, 1987).

Employees are likely to stay longer at firms that emphasize interpersonal relationship values, such as team orientation and respect for people (Cornelius, 2010). Although Kouzes and Posner (2012) stated leaders must capitalize on and respect each individual employee's strengths, leaders must connect the individual's talents with the larger goals of the organization. Employees who feel they are part of team are more likely to stay longer at an organization. A leader's mood

leads to higher job satisfaction, increased retention, and overall enhanced organizational performance (Goleman et al., 2015).

In their quantitative assessment of South Korean correctional officers, Yang, Brown, and Moon (2011) analyzed the factors that contributed to job satisfaction. Surveys were administered to 400 correctional officers to evaluate the effect of the following five factors on overall levels of job satisfaction: pay, promotional opportunities, the nature of the job itself, the role of supervisors, and the role of coworkers. Findings revealed all five factors significantly and positively affected the level of job satisfaction of the correctional officers, which can lead to attrition.

Employee stress and burnout are factors that influence prison employee's job satisfaction; additionally, their attitudes, physical and mental health, and increased substance abuse are often affected by difficult working conditions (Finney et al., 2013). Although job stress and burnout are common in any type of occupation, considering the working conditions and clientele that prison employees are faced with, the rates of job stress and burnout are higher for those working in correctional settings (Finney et al., 2013). Occupational stress can also lead to decreased organizational commitment and absenteeism (Lambert, Edwards, Camp, & Saylor, 2005). When staff members take unplanned sick leave, it causes problems staffing posts at the prison and frequently requires mandatory overtime for staff when their relief does not come (Lambert et al., 2005). Improved human resources management, professionalization of the prison employee's job, and improvement of the social work environment could alleviate some of the turnover resulting from stress and burnout (Finney et al., 2013). Additionally, social support systems have proven to have a positive effect on stress and burnout, indicating supportive relationships could

be a way to enhance staff retention in correctional settings (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999).

Lambert et al. (2005) studied correctional employee absenteeism within the Federal Bureau of Prisons. Specifically, the researchers investigated relationships between the use of sick leave by staff, prison culture, employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job stress, and personal characteristics (e.g., gender, tenure, age, and education level). Data were gathered from responses to the 1994 Prison Climate Survey (as cited in Lambert et al., 2005), which is collected by the Federal Bureau of Prisons. Of the 25,625 employees, 8,115 responses were received. Results indicated the culture of the prison did not have a significant effect on whether officers used sick leave. However, significant negative relationships existed between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the likelihood that the employee would use his or her sick leave; the higher the job satisfaction and the organizational commitment, the less likely the employee was to take sick leave. Job stress was also related to the use of sick leave; the higher the level of stress, the more sick leave the employee was likely to take (Lambert et al., 2005).

In a qualitative study of correctional officers in two New Jersey prisons, Tracy (2004) considered the goals, policies, and procedures governing the work of correctional officers and how the officers managed these tensions. The researcher performed participant observations, which involved shadowing correctional officers, conducting in-depth interviews, reviewing documents, and participating in training. Tracy found four areas of contradiction that led to correctional officer tension and challenged their work with inmates and their relationships with coworkers and leadership: (a) respect versus suspect; (b) nurture versus discipline; (c) consistency versus flexibility; and (d) solidarity versus autonomy (Tracy, 2003).

Officers are required to treat inmates with respect, but at the same time, they must suspect them and be alert to the possibility of illegal activities (e.g., the use and trade of drugs or contraband) among the inmate population. Additionally, officers must simultaneously nurture inmates without becoming too close personally with them and utilize disciplinary measures when necessary. Consistently following rules and procedures is mandated for officers, but they are also challenged with gray areas that have not been clearly defined in which they might offer some flexibility to inmates. Finally, officers are encouraged to be part of a unified team, but are also discouraged from being seen as needing assistance and are discouraged from telling superiors if a fellow officer is having trouble or acting inappropriately (Tracy, 2003).

For officers to be successful in difficult work environments and satisfied in their jobs, leaders must be attuned to stressful contradictions facing correctional officers (Tracy, 2004). The findings of Tracy's study also indicated correctional officers handle stress in three primary ways: selection/vacillation/splitting, attending to multiple norms at the same time, or withdrawal. Selection/vacillation/splitting involves choosing one norm instead of the other to uphold, switching between the two contradictory norms, or splitting the norms with a partner. Some officers are able to meet both of the norms simultaneously. Other officers, however, withdraw and ignore both of the norms. Tracy (2004) suggested correctional administrators should acknowledge and explain the contradictory rules on the front end, which will let staff know that they are not alone in navigating conflicting roles. Furthermore, role play can be incorporated into training to give officers practice in handling the ambiguity.

The work of prison employees can be emotionally demanding, which can influence their job satisfaction. Morgan, Van Haveren, and Pearson (2002) noted employees in prisons are faced with emotionally strenuous responsibilities, which can affect the employees' job satisfaction,

organizational commitment, and job performance. Based on a quantitative examination within a southwestern U.S. department of corrections, researchers disseminated 800 surveys to gather information on correctional officer burnout and demographic factors of respondents (Morgan et al., 2002). From 248 valid responses, the researchers found the primary source of stress for correctional officers came from a lack of support from leadership and a lack of recognition for good work, but not from the inmate population (Morgan et al., 2002). Emotional intelligence in prison leaders may help them to exhibit support and recognition of their employees, which may in turn lead to enhanced job satisfaction.

Researchers have also studied the connections between job involvement and job satisfaction in correctional staff. Lambert et al. (2011), for example, investigated the relationship between job involvement and job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, and turnover intentions among private correctional staff. Job involvement was defined as an employee's identification with the job, which encompasses employee engagement and employees whose job becomes part of their self-identity. The researchers hypothesized job involvement would have a negative effect on job stress, a positive effect on job satisfaction, a positive effect on organizational commitment, a negative effect on absenteeism, and a negative effect on turnover intentions. To test their hypotheses, Lambert et al. surveyed 160 employees at a private correctional facility in the Midwestern United States. Employees surveyed at the prison included staff in all job titles, except for upper administration.

Lambert et al. (2011) found job involvement had significant correlations with all of the outcome variables and hypotheses were supported for job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, and turnover intentions. When employees have high job involvement, they are less likely to experience stress, take time off from work, or leave their position. In

addition, employees with high job involvement are satisfied with their work and have high levels of commitment to the organization. Lambert et al. considered the affect job involvement had on employees in private correctional settings, including job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, and turnover intentions. Similarly, the researcher of the present study was concerned with job satisfaction and, ultimately, turnover of prison employees. The purpose of the present study, however, was to examine the relationship between prison leaders' emotional intelligence and prison employees' levels of job satisfaction—a connection that researchers have not investigated.

Researchers have found low job satisfaction in prison employees can lead to prison employees leaving their jobs. For example, Leip and Stinchcomb (2013) investigated the effect of work-related variables and personal characteristics regarding the intention of correctional officers working in jails to resign. Leip and Stinchcomb conducted a national survey of 1,924 correctional officers, with representation from 46 states. Surveys gauged several independent variables, including work-related measures (e.g., job satisfaction, work environment) and demographic characteristics (e.g., salary and benefits, gender, race, education, age, and job tenure). Intent to quit was the dependent variable.

Findings indicated the majority of participants (62%) did not intend to leave their positions (Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013). Additionally, variables, such as job satisfaction and work environment, contributed more to turnover intentions than static demographic characteristics of officers (gender, age, or race) did. Leip and Stinchcomb (2013) also noted the majority of the respondents (70%) reported no college experience, and this lack of higher education could influence officers' job options, leading to a desire to stay at their positions despite low job satisfaction. Overall, Leip and Stinchcomb found positive organizational climate, fair treatment,

having input, and good relationships with their supervisors were strong factors related to an officer's level of job commitment, further reinforcing that emotional intelligence in prison leaders may be connected to prison employees' job satisfaction. Leip and Stinchcomb concluded correctional administrators could be proactive in shaping job satisfaction and work environments for correctional officers working in jails. Although most correctional entities cannot compete with private-sector employers in terms of salary and benefits, they can strive to influence organizational culture and the relationships between leaders and employees.

Jails typically house inmates with shorter sentences, but those inmates sentenced to longer periods of incarceration are typically housed in prisons. Although Leip and Stinchcomb (2013) focused specifically on jail staff as opposed to prison staff, the findings were relevant to this study because the field is similar despite inmates' length of sentence. Employees in both types of facility are involved in the challenges of housing and managing individuals convicted of crimes and sentenced to incarceration.

In an effort to understand staff turnover in correctional facilities, Spaulding (2014) analyzed the effect of correctional officer tenure on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and instrumental communication. In a quantitative study, Spaulding surveyed 241 correctional security staff who had held their jobs for more than 1 year. Employees from 14 state-operated prisons in the Georgia Department of Corrections were assessed using the Prison Social Climate Survey (see Saylor, 1991). Spaulding sought to understand whether relationships existed between instrumental communication, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Additionally, Spaulding questioned whether correctional officer tenure predicted instrumental communication, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

Statistical analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between officer tenure and all three independent variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and instrumental communication (Spaulding, 2014). Further, tenure significantly predicted the participating correctional officers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Employees with longer tenure felt more satisfied with their job, as well as increased organizational commitment, compared to employees with less tenure or who had left the organization. Spaulding's (2014) study provided valuable insight into factors that have an influence on correctional officer job satisfaction, which was the focus of this study.

Leader Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence can have a positive influence on their employees, leading to enhanced employee job satisfaction (Goleman, 2001). Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence can understand and manage their own emotions, sense their employees' feelings, and mediate issues when necessary (Goleman, 2001). Recent research confirms connections between employee job satisfaction and leaders' emotional intelligence, as explained below.

To investigate the influence of emotional intelligence training and employee awareness and employees' perception of their supervisor's level of emotional intelligence, Essary (2010) conducted a study on mid-level managers in a city government organization. Specifically, the research entailed pre- and posttest surveys for mid-level managers before and after attending emotional intelligence training to gauge the effect of the training. The researcher administered surveys to managers' direct subordinates to evaluate whether the employees perceived changes in their supervisors' behavior following emotional intelligence training. Interviews were then conducted with the managers, and information was gathered from their direct reports to add

detail to managers' responses. Results revealed a strong relationship between training and awareness, both on part of the supervisors and their direct reports. Overall, the research demonstrated offering emotional intelligence training to supervisory staff could increase their awareness, as well as their behavior, in the work place and their employees' perceptions of their level of emotional intelligence. Essary reported a significant correlation between the training of supervisors and the resulting perceived level of emotional intelligence and effect on employees' job satisfaction.

Essary's (2010) research supported the research question in this study concerning the effect of emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction. Additionally, the employees of Essary's study were members of a governmental organization, like those of the present study. Public sector employees often have different motivational factors than their private sector counterparts; salaries, bonuses, and other rewards are not traditionally offered in the public sector, where employees are frequently driven by a desire to serve others. Essary's findings support the contention that emotional intelligence among leadership matters to employees and can affect their job satisfaction. Specifically, employees reported as their supervisors became more aware of their emotions, they experienced more teamwork, increased communication, trust, and appreciation from their supervisor. In governmental settings where monetary incentives and rewards are uncommon, appreciation and satisfaction can often provide employees an enhanced sense of reward and motivation (Essary, 2010). These factors can also be important in prison leadership; teamwork and trust can contribute to enhanced safety and security in often stressful work environments (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Essary's findings also showed emotional intelligence can be acquired through training, which was also significant to the investigation of

this study. This finding is consistent with Clarke's (2010) longitudinal study that demonstrated leaders can improve emotional intelligence through training.

According to Essary (2010), employees with higher job satisfaction also have lower levels of turnover. Lower turnover decreases hiring costs and periods with vacant positions, which can be severely detrimental to safety and security in correctional environments (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Essary further reported satisfied employees have higher job performance and better attendance because they are more committed to the organization and to their coworkers. Finally, retaining employees longer over time contributes to a more experienced staff with a larger knowledge base (Essary, 2010). This finding is also significant for the field of corrections as more experienced prison staff are less likely to make mistakes or to be manipulated by inmates (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

Need to Study Emotional Intelligence in Prison Leaders

Researchers have demonstrated emotional intelligence in leaders can lead to enhanced job satisfaction in employees (Essary, 2010; Glodstein, 2014; Goleman et al., 2015; Meisler, 2014; Miao et al., 2016; Mohammad et al., 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007), which can, in turn, lead to increased employee retention. Although researchers have studied emotional intelligence in prison employees (Ohrberg, 2010), researchers have not examined the relationship between emotional intelligence in prison leaders and job satisfaction in prison employees.

Emotionally intelligent leadership may be especially important in correctional environments because of the challenging and serious nature of the work associated with (a) inmate-related stressors, (b) occupational stressors, (c) organizational/administrative stressors, and (d) psychosocial stressors (Brower, 2013). These stressors can lead to diminished job satisfaction and prison employees leaving their positions. Consequently, it is important to

understand the connections between the emotional intelligence of prison leaders and job satisfaction of prison employees. The demands of prison work lead to high turnover rates in correctional facility employees (Barrett & Greene, 2014; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Brower's (2013) findings highlight the need for emotional intelligence training in prison leaders, as well as hiring and promotional practices that emphasize emotional intelligence to help enhance job satisfaction in prison employees and potentially lead to increased retention of prison employees.

Summary

The current chapter included a review of literature relevant to the present study. Specifically, the researcher considered the following topics: corrections in the United States, prison staffing, correctional officer retention and job satisfaction, prison leadership, leadership, and emotional intelligence. The review demonstrated the relationships among correctional officer retention and prison leadership style. The chapter further revealed the significance of conducting the present study to determine whether statistically significant correlations exist between correctional officer job satisfaction and the perception of emotional intelligence among prison leaders. Chapter 3 presents the research design and methodology of the study.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Chapter 3 includes a description of the research design and methodology of this study. First, the research design is explained in detail with a description of the variables and research question. The following section presents a description of the instrumentation and population. The researcher explains actions taken to recruit participants and collect data, followed by a data analysis plan.

This research endeavor is designed to determine whether a relationship exists between the perceived emotional intelligence of prison leadership and the job satisfaction of the staff who work in prisons. This study pertained to the state prison systems in the southern United States. The researcher sent a letter inviting states comprising the membership of the Southern States Correctional Association to participate: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. Specifically, departmental commissioners were mailed an introductory letter, a copy of the informed consent form, the drafted survey, a form to mark their response regarding participation (“yes” or “no”) and write in the departmental designee’s name and contact information, and a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher to return their response form. Of the 14 states, five states gave written consent to participate in the research: Alabama, Georgia, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia. The researcher only focused on prisons operated by state departments of correction and did not include leadership or staff working in prisons operated by the federal government, local governments, or private corporations (even if they were under contract with and acting under the authority of the state department of corrections).

Research Methodology and Design

Researchers employ one of three approaches when conducting research: quantitative, qualitative, or a mixed method approach, which utilizes both quantitative and qualitative components. Methodology selection is driven by the researcher's theoretical perspective, strategies of inquiry, and methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative methodology relies on the scientific method, in which researchers begin with theory, gather data and information, and revise their theory based on results (Creswell, 2003). Conversely, qualitative researchers make observations and interpret reality to build theory to explain the situation; information is based on individual interpretations and meanings, but theory is based on patterns and themes that emerge (Newman & Benz, 1998). The researcher in the present study used quantitative research techniques to determine whether the perceived level of emotional intelligence among prison leadership (all staff who supervise other employees) and selected staff demographic factors are associated with prison employee job satisfaction.

The researcher used a quantitative research methodology because it enabled the generalization of findings from sample groups to the broader population of prison employees (see Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Although it is less personal and the information received is not as robust, quantitative research methods were the most appropriate for the present assessment due to the size and geographic location of the target population. Additionally, because data from multiple states were gathered, performing qualitative techniques, such as interviews or focus groups, was logistically impossible.

A nonexperimental, correlational design with a survey method guided this study. Nonexperimental correlational designs are appropriate when the goal of the research is to assess

existing relationships without any experimental manipulation involved and without in-depth assessment of causal reasons for the relationship (Field, 2013; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013).

The researcher used surveys hosted on the website SurveyMonkey to gather information from respondents. Surveys conducted through SurveyMonkey do not require any face-to-face contact with the researcher or the provision of any identifying information to the researcher, such as emails or other contact information. Electronic surveys provided an additional level of anonymity for the staff under investigation, as well as for the individual departments included in the study, as opposed to surveying participants by phone, mail, or personal interview (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). The use of electronic surveys was important to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality. As Patenaude (2001) noted, research in the field of corrections is often difficult and complicated because of a general mistrust of outside researchers among prison administration, staff, and inmates.

The researcher assessed prison employees in participating southern states for the present study. This sample was asked to take the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Palmer et al., 2009), which measured employee perception of their supervisors' emotional intelligence. The researcher also administered the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985), which provides information concerning employee level of job satisfaction. Regression analyses helped to determine whether emotional intelligence among prison leadership has a statistically significant relationship with employee job satisfaction and select demographic variables.

Variables

The continuous predictor variable in the present study was emotional intelligence, which the researcher defined as the perceived use of emotional intelligence among supervisors in state

prisons in the southern United States. The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory measured emotional intelligence (Palmer et al., 2009).

Demographics

In addition to the variable of interest, other demographic factors were used as variables where correlations existed. The following sections present the variables.

Gender. Gender was a dichotomous, categorical variable.

Race. Race was a categorical variable, including categories of Caucasian, African American, Hispanic/Latino, and other. For race to appear in the analysis, dummy coding was necessary. This variable was dummy coded into three variables (Caucasian, African American, and Hispanic/Latino), with other as the reference category.

Education. Education was a categorical variable dummy coded into two variables (some college, and college graduate), with high school diploma as the reference category.

Type of prison. Type of prison was dummy coded into two variables (male population and female population), with mixed population as the reference category.

Security level. Security level consisted of two dummy coded variables (medium and maximum), with a reference category of minimum.

Type of inmate. Type of inmate was dummy coded into two variables (juvenile and mixed), with a reference category of adult.

Length of employment. Length of employment consisted of three dummy coded variables (less than 1 year, 1–2 years, and 3–5 years), with 5+ years as the reference category.

Type of position. Type of position was dummy coded into five variables (administration, food service, maintenance, medical/mental health, and rehabilitative programming), with security as the reference category.

Commute. Commute was a dichotomous variable categorized as less than 30 minutes and more than 30 minutes.

Spousal employment. Spousal employment was a dichotomous variable categorized as spouse works outside of home or spouse does not work outside of home.

Criterion Variable

The criterion variable in this study was job satisfaction, defined specifically as job satisfaction among prison employees in state facilities in participating departments in the southern United States. The Job Satisfaction Survey measured job satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The primary purpose for this study was to determine if the perceived use of emotional intelligence among prison leadership had a statistically significant relationship with the job satisfaction of prison employees. The researcher constructed the following questions for this research.

Research Question 1. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between employee perception of supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States?

$H_0 1$.There is no statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_a 1$.There is a statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Research Question 2. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between prison employees' demographic factors and their job satisfaction?

H_01.There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation had two separate surveys—the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory and the Job Satisfaction Survey—which were given to staff working in participating state-operated prisons in the southern United States. Following this paragraph, the researcher discusses each survey instrument. The instruments also appear in the appendices.

Measuring Emotional Intelligence

The researcher used the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory to measure perceived emotional intelligence among prison leadership (all staff designated as supervisors; Palmer et al., 2009). The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory is different from other emotional intelligence survey instruments because it pertains to behaviors, as opposed to competencies and traits (Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2016). The Genos tool is ideal for measuring an individual's perception of his or her supervisor's actions in terms of emotional intelligence because the measurements focus on the behaviors of supervisors (Palmer et al., 2009). This tool has been externally validated and is reliable, as documented in multiple peer-reviewed publications (Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2016). Specifically, reliability measures are high for the total scale ($\alpha = .97$), and good for the subscales of emotional intelligence ($\alpha = .76 - .88$); test-retest reliability for the total scale correlations were .83 after 2 months and .72 after 8 months (Gignac, 2010).

Several versions of the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory are available, including short, concise, and full. The concise rater-assessment was used in the present study (see Appendix A). The concise rater-assessment allows a researcher to investigate seven factors defining emotional intelligence, including emotional self-awareness, expression, awareness of others, reasoning, self-management, management of others, and self-control (Palmer et al., 2009). The concise assessment includes 31 items that result in scores in seven emotional intelligence subscales and an overall emotional intelligence score and takes 5 to 7 minutes to complete (Palmer et al., 2009). Responses are coded on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*). All three versions of the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory are available free of charge to students and researchers (Genos International, 2016).

Measuring Employee Job Satisfaction

The researcher used the Job Satisfaction Survey to measure the levels of job satisfaction among prison employees (see Appendix D; Spector, 1985). The instrument has been used in a variety of research endeavors since it was developed in 1985 (Chou, Kroger, & Lee, 2010; Haggard, Robert, & Rose, 2011; Jex & Spector, 1989). Researchers have shown the survey is reliable and valid with internal reliability of $\alpha = .91$ for the total scale and a test-retest correlation of .71 at an 18-month interval (Spector, 1985). The researcher selected this instrument because norms were established for correctional employees, which provided a comparison for the present research (Spector, 2011). Additionally, researchers developed the survey for measuring job satisfaction of public service employees, which was one of the goals of the present study.

The Job Satisfaction Survey has 36 questions that participants respond to using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). This survey evaluates nine categories to create a comprehensive job satisfaction score: pay, promotion, supervision,

fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1985). This survey should take 10 minutes to complete.

Population and Sampling

In the southern United States, the participating five state departments of correction investigated in the present analysis housed a total of 146,840 inmates (Carson & Anderson, 2016). Correctional departments in the participating southern states had a total of 37,454 authorized positions department-wide. Of all statewide justice employees (including police, judicial, and corrections), the percentage of correctional employees ranged from 50.4% to 74.9% in the five states under investigation (Kyckelhahn, 2015).

Because of the number of prison staff and the geographic distance between the prisons in the five participating states investigated, the researcher used an electronic survey from SurveyMonkey to gather data from prison employees. First, leaders from 14 southern states were contacted via mail to introduce the study and request their participation. The researcher mailed a packet to the 14 departmental commissioners, including an introductory letter, the informed consent form, the drafted survey, a form for them to note their response and departmental contact, and a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher to return their response form. Of the 14 states invited, five states agreed to participate: Alabama, Georgia, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia. After these commissioners (or their designees) granted permission, the researcher asked them to distribute the survey link to the state prison employees under their purview. The link to the SurveyMonkey survey page was emailed to the designated departmental contact who then distributed the link to prison employees across the department. The researcher did not have direct contact with any departmental staff.

The researcher used G*Power 3.1.9.2 to calculate the necessary sample size for this study. When no indication exists regarding what size effect to expect, a medium effect size is appropriate (Cohen, 1988). For a multiple linear regression with 23 predictors, a medium effect size, an alpha of .05, and an accepted power level of .80, a minimum sample size of 166 was required to achieve empirical validity (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2014).

Data Collection

Potential participants received an emailed link to the SurveyMonkey survey page from their commissioner (or commissioner's designee). If potential participants followed this link, they were taken to a page that introduced the study and explained participation is strictly voluntary, any information received would be treated with strict confidentiality, and they may choose to leave the study at any time. The participants were notified that continuing to the survey indicated they were providing their informed consent to participate in the study. The SurveyMonkey survey page remained open until at least the minimum sample size was achieved. The researcher then downloaded the data from SurveyMonkey and imported it into IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The data are on the researcher's password protected computer, and will remain for a minimum of 3 years until the researcher securely destroys the information.

Data Analyses

First, the researcher assessed the data for missing cases and outliers. Cases with more than 50% of missing data were removed. Outliers were those cases with standardized values (or Z-scores) ±3.29 beyond the mean, and were removed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Descriptive statistics were performed on demographic data to describe the participant sample. The researcher

calculated the means and standard deviations for continuous data and calculated frequencies and percentages for categorical data.

To address the research questions, the researcher conducted a hierarchical linear regression. Hierarchical linear regression is the appropriate analysis to perform when the aim of the research is to assess the relationship between a set of predictor variables, which may be categorical or continuous, and a continuous criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). For this analysis, the predictor variables corresponded to emotional intelligence and the 10 demographic variables previously described. The outcome variable corresponded to job satisfaction.

In the first step of the regression, the researcher entered demographic variables. In the second step of the regression, the researcher added emotional intelligence to the model. Before conducting the regression, the researcher analyzed the assumptions of the analysis. The researcher assessed normality through visual examination of a Normal P-P Plot and assessed homoscedasticity through visual examination of a scatterplot of the residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores were examined to assess for issues of multicollinearity; VIF scores above 10 indicated multicollinearity in the predictor variables (Stevens, 2016).

Ethical Consideration

The Tennessee Department of Correction (TDOC) employed the researcher from 2011 through 2016, and prior to that, the researcher worked for the Tennessee Board of Probation and Parole. In that time, she served as the Director of Budget and Fiscal Services and was promoted to the role of Deputy Commissioner of Administration, which included a leadership role and responsibility for statewide business functions, food service, maintenance, human resources,

information technology and security electronics, training, and talent management. During her tenure with the department, the researcher traveled across the state and interacted with staff at various prisons and community supervision locations.

In 2016, the researcher left employment at the TDOC and began working for another agency within the Tennessee state government. This researcher did not work for the TDOC while conducting the present research. As such, there was no pressure on existing staff at the TDOC to complete the survey. Further, the researcher took additional steps to ensure that TDOC staff felt no obligation to participate or respond in a certain manner. These steps included conducting a completely anonymous survey in which participants never gave their name, state of employment, or any other identifying information. Participants were also assured that any information received by contacting the researcher with questions would be confidential. As there was no way to ascertain which states participants were from, the researcher's previous role did not bias any results or interpretations.

Summary

This research was designed to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence among prison leaders, selected demographic factors, and the job satisfaction levels of employees who work in prisons. Hierarchical linear regression was used to assess the relationship between the variables. Specifically, the researcher combined two instruments, the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory and the Job Satisfaction Survey, to form a survey for prison employees to measure the variables. The researcher used a priori power analysis to determine the target sample size of at least 166 participants. The next chapter details the results of the analyses.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the perceived level of emotional intelligence of prison leaders and selected demographic factors of prison staff are associated with job satisfaction of prison employees. This chapter includes the results of the analyses described in the previous chapter. First, the researcher details the pre-analysis data cleansing procedures and outcomes. Next, the researcher describes the sample characteristics and reports the results of the analyses.

Pre-Analysis Data Cleaning

The original sample consisted of 1,525 participants from Alabama, Georgia, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia. First, the researcher assessed the data for missing cases. A total of 350 cases were missing a substantial amount of data and were subsequently removed. Next, the researcher assessed standardized scores for outlying values. There was one extreme high score, which had an associated standardized score more than ±3.29, which is indicative of an outlying value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Subsequently, a total of 351 cases were removed for containing outliers or missing data for a final sample of 1,174 participants.

Composite Scoring

To represent the supervisor's emotional intelligence, a mean composite score was created from Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory Items 1–31, which were appropriately reverse coded. Because of an error in data collection through SurveyMonkey, all participants were missing data for emotional intelligence Items 2 and 7. The researcher used Cronbach's alpha to assess the reliability of these scores. According to George and Mallery (2016), reliability is acceptable if $\alpha = .70$ and above, good if .80 and above, and excellent if .90 and above. Despite

the two dropped items, the total score for emotional intelligence still exhibited excellent reliability (α = .98). To represent job satisfaction, the researcher created a mean composite score of the appropriately reversed scored Job Satisfaction Survey Items 1–36. This score also exhibited excellent reliability (α = .91). The subscales of each score were calculated and ranged from acceptable (α = .75) to excellent (α = .92). Two job satisfaction subscales exhibited poor reliability (contingent rewards: α = .48; operating conditions: α = .58). As such, results pertaining to these two subscales should be treated with caution. Table 1 presents the full results of the reliability analysis.

Table 1

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients

Composite Score	Items	α
Emotional Intelligence	1–31	.98
Self-Awareness	2, 4, 24, 28	.75
Expression	5, 7, 9, 18	.82
Awareness of Others	11, 12, 19, 22	.88
Reasoning	1, 8, 15, 16, 17	.92
Self-Management	3, 6, 13, 20, 21	.83
Management of Others	14, 25, 27, 31	.85
Self-Control	10, 23, 26, 30	.87
Job Satisfaction	1–36	.91
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28	.72
Promotions	2, 11, 20, 33	.77
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30	.88
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 29	.75
Contingent Rewards	5, 14, 23, 32	.58
Operating Conditions	6, 15, 24, 31	.48
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34	.73
Nature of Work	8, 17, 27, 35	.70
Communication	9, 18, 26, 36	.76

Dummy Coding

All demographic variables with more than two categories needed to be dummy coded. The researcher dummy coded variables as described in Chapter 3. However, because of small group frequencies for juvenile inmate type (n = 3), juvenile and mixed inmate type were combined into one category. As such, the inmate type variable consisted of two categories: juvenile and mixed, and adult, with adult as the reference category.

Sample Characteristics

The sample included 1,174 prison employees who worked in prisons in five participating states in the southern United States. The sample consisted of a slight majority (54.5%) of women. The largest grouping (70.4%) were Caucasian, 22.9% were African American, and 1.2% were Hispanic/Latino. The largest grouping was college graduates (46.3%). Most worked with a male prison population (76.2%). Of the participants, 42% worked in a medium-security level prison, 33.4% worked in a minimum-security prison, and 24.4% worked in a maximum-security prison. Most participants worked in administration (40.1%) or security (37.3%). The majority had a commute less than 30 minutes (58.9%), although 41.1% had a commute that was more than 30 minutes. Finally, most participants' spouses worked outside of the home (64.8%). Table 2 presents the frequencies and percentages.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Sample Characteristics

Variable		*n*	%
Gender			
	Male	534	45.5
	Female	640	54.5
Race			
	African American	269	22.9
	Caucasian	827	70.4
	Hispanic/Latino	14	1.2
	Other	64	5.5
Education			
	High School Graduate	188	16.0
	Some College	443	37.7
	College Graduate	543	46.3
Prison Type			
	Male Population	895	76.2
	Female Population	161	13.7
	Mixed Population	118	10.1
Security Level			
	Minimum	392	33.4
	Medium	495	42.2
	Maximum	287	24.4
Inmate Type			
	Juvenile	3	0.3
	Mixed	114	9.7
	Adult	1057	90.0
Length of Employment			
	Less than 1 year	75	6.4
	1–2 years	119	10.1
	3–5 years	187	15.9
	5+ years	793	67.5
Position			
	Administration	471	40.1
	Security	438	37.3
	Food Service	17	1.4
	Maintenance	23	2.0
	Medical/Mental Health	67	5.7
	Rehabilitative Programming	158	13.5
Commute			
	Less than 30 minutes	692	58.9
	More than 30 minutes	482	41.1
Spousal Employment			
	Spouse does not work outside of home	413	35.2
	Spouse works outside of home	761	64.8

On average, participants rated their supervisors at 3.39 (*SD* = 1.01) in emotional intelligence, which corresponds to an average response of slightly higher than sometimes (leader sometimes performs this behavior). For comparison, Palmer et al. (2009) found a higher normative score of 3.93 (*SD* = 0.45). Participants rated their supervisors the highest in the self-control subscale (*M* = 3.55, *SD* = 1.12). Participants rated their job satisfaction as 3.48 (*SD* = 0.73), indicating average satisfaction (i.e., between satisfied and dissatisfied; Spector, 1994). For comparison, Spector (2011) found a normal job satisfaction score of 3.49 (*SD* = 0.19) from a sample in the U.S. corrections sector, which is about the same as the participant job satisfaction rating in the present analysis. Participants were most satisfied with the nature of their work (*M* = 4.66, *SD* = 1.00). Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of participant scores.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Variables of Interest

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
Supervisors' Emotional Intelligence	1.00	5.00	3.39	1.01
Self-Awareness	1.00	5.00	3.46	1.03
Expression	1.00	5.00	3.10	0.72
Awareness of Others	1.00	5.00	3.37	1.15
Reasoning	1.00	5.00	3.22	1.15
Self-Management	1.00	5.00	3.35	1.05
Management of Others	1.00	5.00	3.44	1.13
Self-Control	1.00	5.00	3.55	1.12
Job Satisfaction	1.00	6.00	3.48	0.74
Pay Satisfaction	1.00	6.00	2.02	1.03
Promotion Satisfaction	1.00	6.00	3.03	1.20
Supervision Satisfaction	1.00	6.00	4.45	1.42
Fringe Benefits	1.00	6.00	3.36	1.19
Contingent Rewards	1.00	6.00	3.27	1.03
Operating Conditions	1.00	6.00	3.25	1.00
Coworkers	1.00	6.00	3.92	1.08
Nature of Work	2.00	6.00	4.66	1.00
Communication	1.00	6.00	3.34	1.23

Before main inferential statistics were considered, the researcher conducted Spearman's correlations between the subscales of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction to ascertain any relationships between the subscales. Every correlation was significant at the .01 level (see Table 4). Correlations may be interpreted using Cohen's (1988) standard, where correlations between .10 and .29 represent a weak relationship, correlations between .30 and .49 represent a medium relationship, and coefficients .50 and above represent a large relationship. The strongest correlations were between awareness of others and supervision ($r = .81$, $p < .001$), and between reasoning and supervision ($r = .81$, $p < .001$). Table 4 presents the full correlation matrix.

Table 4

Spearman's Correlations between the Subscales of Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-Awareness	.19**	.29**	.74**	.12**	.36**	.20**	.42**	.33**	.46**
Expression	.16**	.22**	.65**	.10**	.29**	.13**	.40**	.28**	.38**
Awareness of Others	.21**	.33**	.81**	.11**	.42**	.21**	.47**	.35**	.50**
Reasoning	.22**	.33**	.81**	.11**	.40**	.19**	.46**	.36**	.49**
Self-Management	.20**	.31**	.77**	.11**	.37**	.18**	.45**	.31**	.44**
Management of Others	.22**	.35**	.79**	.12**	.42**	.23**	.48**	.35**	.49**
Self-Control	.20**	.30**	.74**	.13**	.36**	.20**	.44**	.31**	.45**

Note. **denotes significance at < .001. 1 = Pay, 2 = Promotion, 3 = Supervision, 4 = Fringe Benefits, 5 = Contingent Rewards, 6 = Operating Conditions, 7 = Coworkers, 8 = Nature of Work, 9 = Communication

Results of the Analysis

Research Question 1. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between employee perception of supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States?

*H_01.*There is no statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Research Question 2. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between prison employees' demographic factors and their job satisfaction?

H_01.There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

To answer both research questions, the researcher performed a hierarchical linear regression. The predictor variable of interest was perception of supervisor's emotional intelligence. The covariates were the demographic factors described in Chapter 3. The criterion variable was job satisfaction. In the first step of the regression, the covariates were entered into the model, which enabled hypothesis testing for Research Question 2. In the second step of the regression, the researcher added the supervisor's emotional intelligence to the model, which allowed hypothesis testing for Research Question 1.

Prior to the analysis, the researcher assessed the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. The researcher assessed normality through a Normal P-P plot, which showed data that conformed to the normality line (see Figure 1). As such, the assumption was met. The researcher assessed homoscedasticity through a scatterplot of the residuals, which showed data with no apparent pattern and an even distribution of zero, indicating the assumption was met. Absence of multicollinearity was assessed through VIF values; no VIF value was larger than 10 (see Tables 5 & 6), indicating the assumption was met.

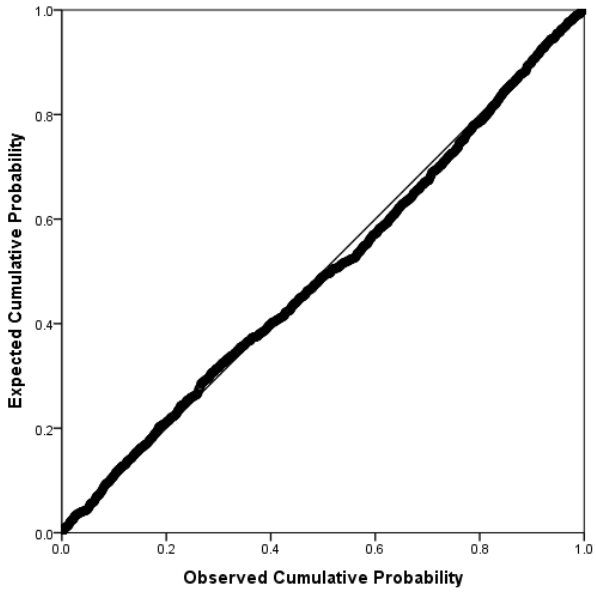

Figure 1. Normal P-P plot.

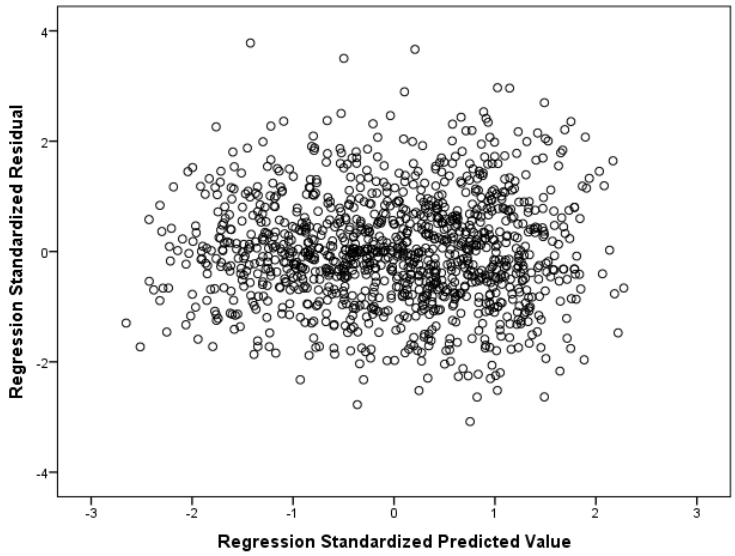

Figure 2. Scatterplot of the residuals.

The results of the first step were significant overall, $F(21, 1152) = 7.54$, $p < .001$, $R^2_{adj} = .11$, which suggests the demographic covariates, when assessed collectively, significantly predict

job satisfaction. The coefficient of determination (R^2_{adj}), adjusted for the number of predictors in the model was .11, which indicates approximately 11% of the variability in job satisfaction is accounted for by the demographic variables. Because the overall model was significant, the researcher assessed the individual predictors. Having an employment length of less than 1 year (B = 0.38, p < .001), an employment length of 1 to 2 years (B = 0.15, p = .035), working in medical or mental health (B = 0.39, p < .001), working in administration (B = 0.39, p < .001), working in rehabilitative programming (B = 0.25, p < .001), and having a commute more than 30 minutes (B = -0.09, p = .035) were individually significantly predictive of job satisfaction. As indicated by the unstandardized beta coefficients (B), those who had an employment length of less than 1 year were predicted to have 0.38 units more job satisfaction than those who have worked for 5 or more years. Those who had an employment length of between 1 and 2 years were predicted to have 0.15 units more job satisfaction than those who worked for more than 5 years. Those who worked in a medical or mental health position were predicted to have 0.39 units more job satisfaction than those who worked in security. Those who worked in administration were also predicted to have 0.39 units more job satisfaction than those who worked in security, although those who worked in rehabilitative programming were predicted to have 0.25 units more job satisfaction than those who worked in security. Finally, participants who had a commute longer than 30 minutes were predicted to have 0.09 units less job satisfaction than those who had the shorter commute. Null Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Table 5 presents the full results of this step of the regression.

Table 5

Results of Step 1 of the Hierarchical Linear Regression

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*	VIF
Gender (ref: male)						
Female	-0.04	0.05	-0.02	-0.75	.453	1.27
Ethnicity (ref: other)						
Caucasian	-0.17	0.09	-0.11	-1.86	.063	4.19
African American	0.16	0.10	0.09	1.64	.102	4.12
Hispanic/Latino	0.28	0.21	0.04	1.34	.181	1.23
Education						
Some College	-0.09	0.06	-0.06	-1.45	.147	2.16
College Graduate	-0.07	0.06	-0.05	-1.13	.261	2.44
Type of Prison (ref: mixed)						
Male Population	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.14	.891	2.13
Female Population	0.03	0.09	0.01	0.32	.753	2.18
Security Level (ref: minimum)						
Medium Security	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.26	.795	1.37
Maximum Security	-0.05	0.06	-0.03	-0.88	.379	1.35
Type of Inmate (ref: adult)						
Mixed and Juvenile	0.13	0.07	0.05	1.83	.068	1.05
Length of Employment (ref: 5+ years)						
< 1 Year	0.38	0.09	0.13	4.48	< .001	1.05
1-2 Years	0.15	0.07	0.06	2.11	.035	1.08
3-5 Years	-0.03	0.06	-0.01	-0.45	.650	1.07
Type of Position (ref: security)						
Medical/Mental Health	0.39	0.10	0.12	4.01	< .001	1.25
Administration	0.39	0.05	0.26	7.62	< .001	1.50
Food Service	0.17	0.18	0.03	0.96	.336	1.06
Maintenance	0.02	0.15	0.00	0.12	.903	1.05
Rehabilitative Programming	0.25	0.07	0.11	3.50	< .001	1.40
Commute (ref: < 30 minutes)						
More than 30 minutes	-0.09	0.04	-0.06	-2.12	.035	1.04
Spousal Employment (does not work outside home)						
Spouse works outside home	-0.01	0.04	-0.01	-0.27	.785	1.02

The second step of the hierarchical linear regression was also significant, $F(22, 1151) = 44.37$, $p < .001$, $R^2_{adj} = .45$, indicating that when assessed collectively, the demographic

variables plus supervisor's emotional intelligence significantly predicted job satisfaction, accounting for up to 45% of the variability in job satisfaction. The addition of supervisor's emotional intelligence accounted for an additional 34% of the variability in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Because the overall model was significant, the researcher examined the individual predictors. The researcher controlled for the supervisor's emotional intelligence. Only working with juvenile and mixed populations ($B = 0.16$, $p = .004$), having an employment length of less than 1 year ($B = 0.22$, $p = .001$), working in medical or mental health ($B = 0.26$, $p = .001$), working in administration ($B = 0.25$, $p < .001$), and working in rehabilitative programming ($B = 0.17$, $p = .002$) were significantly predictive of job satisfaction. After the researcher controlled for variability accounted for by supervisor's emotional intelligence, having an employment length of 1 to 2 years, and having a commute more than 30 minutes were no longer significantly predictive of job satisfaction.

Supervisor's emotional intelligence was significantly predictive of job satisfaction ($B = 0.43$, $p < .001$). For every unit increase in supervisor's emotional intelligence, an increase of 0.43 units of job satisfaction was predicted. Null Hypothesis 1 was rejected. Table 6 presents the full results of this analysis.

Table 6

Results of Step 2 of the Hierarchical Linear Regression

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*	VIF
Gender (ref: male)						
Female	-0.02	0.04	-0.02	-0.61	.546	1.27
Ethnicity (ref: other)						
Caucasian	-0.12	0.07	-0.07	-1.62	.105	4.19
African American	0.15	0.08	0.08	1.91	.056	4.12
Hispanic/Latino	0.24	0.16	0.04	1.49	.136	1.23
Education						
Some College	-0.07	0.05	-0.04	-1.36	.175	2.16
College Graduate	-0.04	0.05	-0.03	-0.76	.449	2.44
Type of Prison (ref: mixed)						
Male Population	0.06	0.06	0.03	1.00	.317	2.13
Female Population	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.76	.447	2.19
Security Level (ref: minimum)						
Medium Security	0.00	0.04	0.00	-0.08	.933	1.37
Maximum Security	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.04	.966	1.36
Type of Inmate (ref: adult)						
Mixed and Juvenile	0.16	0.06	0.06	2.88	.004	1.05
Length of Employment (ref: 5+ years)						
< 1 Year	0.22	0.07	0.07	3.33	.001	1.06
1-2 Years	0.06	0.06	0.02	1.06	.289	1.09
3-5 Years	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.27	.785	1.07
Type of Position (ref: security)						
Medical/Mental Health	0.26	0.08	0.08	3.39	.001	1.26
Administration	0.25	0.04	0.17	6.17	< .001	1.53
Food Service	0.09	0.14	0.01	0.63	.531	1.06
Maintenance	-0.08	0.12	-0.02	-0.69	.491	1.05
Rehabilitative Programming	0.17	0.06	0.08	3.09	.002	1.40
Commute (ref: < 30 minutes)						
More than 30 minutes	-0.05	0.03	-0.03	-1.52	.130	1.05
Spousal Employment (does not work outside home)						
Spouse works outside home	-0.02	0.03	-0.01	-0.57	.572	1.02
Supervisor's Emotional Intelligence	0.43	0.02	0.60	26.82	< .001	1.05

Summary

The results of the study indicate both null hypotheses were rejected. Select demographic covariates and employee perception of supervisor's emotional intelligence were significantly predictive of job satisfaction. In the following chapter, the researcher examines the results in terms of the extant literature. Additionally, the researcher discusses the strengths and limitations of the study and recommends future directions for research.

Chapter 5

Discussions and Conclusions

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief overview of the study conducted, including the problem, purpose of study, research questions, historical concepts, research methodology, results, limitations, practical implications, and recommendations for future research. Prison staffing is crucial for public safety, the safety and security of prison employees, and the offenders housed in prisons. Ensuring that prisons are staffed appropriately is vital to facility safety and security, as well as containing prison operational costs associated with turnover (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Because leadership plays a vital role in prison operations, the researcher considers this assessment of the job satisfaction of prison staff as a critical component of public safety in relation to perception of emotional intelligence among prison leaders.

Introduction

The satisfaction level of prison employees in the United States affects the safety and security of the staff and inmates within the individual prison and public safety (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014; Lommel, 2004). Although the inmate population in the United States is declining, correctional leadership across the country has reported that staffing challenges threaten the safety and security of prisons (Association of State Correctional Administrators, 2016). Major staffing challenges that face correctional leaders include vacancy rates, recruitment, retention, inexperienced officers, staffing shortages, attrition, and staff wellness (Association of State Correctional Administrators, 2016). Understanding the causes for attrition among prison staff is critical for reversing the pattern and retaining trained staff.

Problem

Correctional agencies in the United States are currently faced with staffing challenges in prisons (Association of State Correctional Administrators, 2016; Fitfield, 2016). Understanding job satisfaction of employees working in prisons is crucial for reversing the pattern and retaining staff members who have been properly trained. The researcher investigated the relationship between the perception of leader's use of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of prison employees to inform correctional leaders of possible strategies to enhance job satisfaction and improve employee retention.

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore whether a relationship exists between the perceived levels of emotional intelligence among prison leadership in the southern United States and prison employee job satisfaction. Additionally, the researcher designed the study to examine the relationship between selected demographic variables of staff and their levels of job satisfaction. Statistical analysis revealed whether relationships existed between leader's use of emotional intelligence, selected demographic variables, and employee job satisfaction. Surveys were sent to prison employees working for participating correctional departments in the southern United States. The researcher used SurveyMonkey to administer the instrument that included the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, the Job Satisfaction Survey, and questions regarding selected demographic factors (Palmer et al., 2009; Spector, 1985). Both survey instruments used have been shown to be valid and reliable. The researcher analyzed the resulting data using a hierarchical linear regression.

Research Questions

The following are the primary questions for research and the associated hypotheses.

Research Question 1. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between employee perception of supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States?

H_01.There is no statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Research Question 2. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between prison employees' demographic factors and their job satisfaction?

H_01.There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Overview of Methodology

The researcher used electronic surveys to gather information from prison staff in the five participating southern states: Alabama, Georgia, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia. Departmental staff distributed the survey link to employees, who then completed the survey after granting consent. The survey instrument included the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory and the Job Satisfaction Survey to measure the perception of emotional intelligence among leadership, employee job satisfaction, as well as selected demographic variables (Palmer et al., 2009; Spector, 1985). Statistical analyses, described in Chapter 4, included descriptive statistics and a hierarchical linear regression to address the research questions.

Summary of Findings

The original sample consisted of 1,525 respondents from the five participating southern states. The researcher removed a total of 351 cases because of missing data (350) or being an outlier (1), resulting in a final sample of 1,174 participants. Data analysis indicated both select demographic characteristics and perception of leader emotional intelligence were significantly predictive of employee job satisfaction. The results of the study supported the rejection of both null hypotheses, described in the following.

Research Question 1. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between employee perception of supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States?

According to statistical analysis of the data, for every 1-unit increase in supervisory emotional intelligence, an increase of .43 units of job satisfaction was predicted.

$H_0 1$.There is no statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_0 1$ Conclusion: The null hypothesis was rejected. A statistically significant relationship exists between employee perception of supervisory emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_a 1$.There is a statistically significant relationship between perception of supervisors' emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

$H_a 1$ Conclusion: The alternative hypothesis was accepted. A statistically significant relationship exists between employee perception of supervisory emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

Research Question 2. To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between prison employees' demographic factors and their job satisfaction?

Data analysis revealed that when assessed collectively, demographic factors of prison employees significantly predict job satisfaction.

H_01.There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_01 Conclusion: The null hypothesis was rejected. A statistically significantly relationship exists between demographic factors and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1.There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic factors and the job satisfaction of prison employees in the southern United States.

H_a1 Conclusion: The alternate hypothesis was accepted. A statistically significantly relationship exists between demographic factors and job satisfaction among prison employees in the southern United States.

Limitations

All studies are subject to limitations, and the present study was no exception. The findings of the study should be considered with the following limitations in mind. The narrow scope limited the study, including the focus on a cross-section of prison employees, the use of employee perception of their supervisor's emotional intelligence, and the reliance on electronic surveys.

Instead of inviting all states in the United States to participate, the focus of this study was limited to southern states because of the similarities they share in economic conditions. Of the 14 southern states invited, five states agreed to participate. The limited number of states did not

affect participation; a broad range of prison staff in various positions completed the survey. This regional focus may limit the generalizability of the research findings because the study did not have a national scope. Because of the demographics and incarceration trends of the region, findings may not generalize to other regions of the country.

Additionally, the present research involved a cross-section of prison employees opposed to coupling leaders with the specific employees they supervise. This strategy ensured anonymity for prison staff and supervisors. Instead of assessing supervisors directly, the researcher asked prison employees for their perception of their supervisor's emotional intelligence. Again, this was to enhance anonymity of the employees, supervisors, and the participating state department of correction.

Finally, the researcher conducted surveys electronically using SurveyMonkey. Not all prison staff has access to computers, particularly security staff. Because of this, the study may have limited participation from employees in certain roles. However, as described in the demographical data, 40.1% of respondents were from administration and 37.3% were from security. Those two groups of employees have drastically different work experiences; security staff members primarily have direct contact with inmates, but administrative staff members have limited contact with inmates. The participation rates from each group demonstrate that computer access may not have limited participation significantly.

Interpretation of Findings

Findings in the present study are consistent with previous findings indicating a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction (Essary, 2010; Glodstein, 2014; Goleman et al., 2015; Meisler, 2014; Miao et al., 2016; Mohammad et al., 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007). Leaders who are aware of their emotions, can control them, are

aware of the emotions of others, and are effective at building relationships, have employees who are more satisfied. Although these findings are important, previous researchers have not specifically assessed this relationship in prison settings. Correctional settings are command-and-control or militaristic in nature and typically do not foster environments where emotions are shared and emotional intelligence skills are valued (Dess & Picken, 2000; Moller et al., 2007).

Yang et al. (2011) found the role of leadership is one of five factors contributing to employee job satisfaction. The findings from the present research also support this work. When considering correlations between the subscales of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, the strongest correlations were between awareness of others and supervision, and between reasoning and supervision. These relationships indicate when prison leaders exhibit social awareness and reasoning skills, or they gather input from others when problem solving and demonstrate to others that their feelings have been considered, prison staff are more likely to have a higher level of job satisfaction (Palmer et al., 2009). Additionally, of the job satisfaction subscales, participants were most satisfied with the nature of their work and their supervision, which demonstrates how important supervision is to prison employees.

The findings of the present study support Bradberry and Greaves's (2009) argument that strong, positive relationships facilitate communication between two parties, contribute to mutual understanding, and support the ability to successfully send and receive messages. Relationship management is a critical component of emotional intelligence and is characterized by communication and positive interaction with others (Goleman et al., 2015). Similarly, Wilson (2013) found that in prison management, organizational culture had a significant effect on employee job satisfaction and turnover. Wilson found correctional officers wanted more professionalism in the field of corrections, higher pay, more training, and increased

communication. According to Spector (1997), communication is a subscale of job satisfaction; findings of the present research indicate satisfaction with communication ranked less than average satisfaction among prison employees (M = 3.34, SD = 1.23). Strengthening communication with prison employees could be an area for correctional leadership to make improvements in job satisfaction.

Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) found increased emotional intelligence led to decreased conflict, stronger relationships, and more cooperation among surveyed staff in the financial and service sectors. The data from the present research supports this finding: as emotional intelligence increased, job satisfaction among employees also increased. Conflict management and teamwork are core competencies required for successful relationship management (Goleman et al., 2017). Satisfaction with coworkers is a subscale on the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1997). In this study, participants rated their satisfaction with coworkers above average satisfaction (M = 3.34, SD = 1.23). When prison leaders cultivate cooperation among their team members and reduce conflict, employees may have higher levels of job satisfaction and are less likely to leave their positions. Previous researchers have demonstrated a relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee retention (Barrett & Greene, 2014; Lambert et al., 2011; Spaulding, 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007).

Findings of the present study also support Gibbons and Katzenbach (2006), who stated leadership in prisons must establish a culture of mutual respect between all parties, including leadership, staff, and the inmate population. Overall, a culture of mutual respect can lead to less violence and abuse within the prison. Wardens who focus on recruitment and retention of highly qualified staff are more likely to build a positive organizational culture. As found in the present research, when leaders exercise emotional intelligence in their supervision of prison employees,

employee job satisfaction is higher and employees are less likely to leave their positions with the prison. Leaders who are cognizant of the organizational culture and cultivate a culture that is positive and characterized by mutual respect are exhibiting characteristics of emotionally intelligent leaders. Promoting an organizational culture based on mutual respect requires skills of emotionally intelligent leadership—self-awareness, self-management or control, optimism, social awareness, and relationship management.

Working in a prison environment is not easy and is often stressful for staff. Among those stressors, Brower (2013) noted organizational and administrative stressors, such as poor leadership, perception of unfair policies and procedures, lack of input in decision-making, and conflict among coworkers, were significant contributors to decreased job satisfaction for prison staff and higher rates of turnover. Correctional officers experience stress and burnout when there is a lack of trust between staff and their leadership (Brower, 2013; Lambert et al., 2012). To reduce stress, leaders could focus on enhancing skills associated with emotional intelligence, including communication, transparency, integrity, empathy, and teamwork. The present study supported Brower's (2013) and Lambert et al.'s (2012) work on stress and burnout of prison employees, indicating leadership is related to employee job satisfaction.

Spector (1997) found several extrinsic factors enhance employee job satisfaction: supervision, recognition, and advancement. Morgan et al.'s (2002) findings were consistent. Prison employees are faced with stressful and emotionally demanding work conditions because of their contact with inmates, institutional conditions, shift, and prison security level, which can negatively affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (Morgan et al., 2002). Morgan et al. found the primary source of stress for prison staff came from lack of support from leadership and a lack of recognition for good work, despite the challenging

conditions associated with working around inmates. The current research supported these findings: emotionally intelligent leaders possess social awareness, which enables them to assess the emotions and needs of individual staff. Leaders translate their assessments into support tailored to specific employees. Leaders exhibiting emotional intelligence also understand employee needs, including the need for recognition of good work.

Lambert et al. (2011) found increased job involvement significantly related to increased job satisfaction, which positively correlated with increased organizational commitment. Both job involvement and job satisfaction are correlated with decreased turnover intent (Lambert et al., 2011). Lambert et al.'s findings relate to the current research in that leaders skilled in emotional intelligence reduce conflict, consider the opinions of others during decision-making, build a spirit of teamwork and cooperation among staff, set goals to drive organizational and individual achievement, and communicate. Each of these competencies contributes to an employees' job involvement, which Lambert et al. concluded enhanced employee job satisfaction. Organizational cultures fostering collaborative relationships can facilitate positive relationships between leaders and staff, as well as among staff when people are working together to accomplish common goals (Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005).

According to Leip and Stinchcomb (2013), low job satisfaction among prison employees leads to those employees leaving their jobs in the prison. Factors, such as a positive organizational climate, fair treatment, having input, and good relationships with leaders, can lead to higher job commitment and job satisfaction (Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013). Relationship management is a core component of emotional intelligence. Emotionally intelligent leaders cultivate positive cultures, are skilled listeners and observers, exercise empathy, consider others' input in decision-making, and build bonds and relationships within the organization (Leip &

Stinchcomb, 2013). As findings in the present study indicate, supervisors' levels of emotional intelligence are positively correlated with employee job satisfaction.

Regarding the demographic characteristics of employees, Spaulding (2014) found a correlation between longer tenure among correctional officers and higher job satisfaction, which Spaulding attributed to organizational identification, physical and psychological investments, and stakes with the organization. Each of these factors contributes to organizational commitment, which affects job satisfaction (Spaulding, 2014). The results of the present assessment did not support these findings; longer employee tenure was not significantly predictive of job satisfaction. When considered individually, tenure of less than 1 year ($B = 0.38$, $p < .001$) and employment lengths between 1 and 2 years ($B = 0.15$, $p = .035$) were significantly predictive of job satisfaction, as opposed to longer rates of tenure. The demanding nature of working in a correctional environment may explain this result; employee satisfaction may diminish over time because of the challenging conditions. When the researcher controlled for emotional intelligence of supervisors, employment tenure of 1 to 2 years was no longer significantly predictive of job satisfaction. In relation to Spaulding's work, findings in this area are inconclusive and may warrant further study.

Essary (2010) found strong relationships among emotional intelligence training for supervisors and staff's perception of emotionally intelligent behaviors in their supervisors. Supervisors who completed emotional intelligence training were more aware of their actions and demonstrated changed behavior in the workplace, which employees recognized. Employees reported increases in teamwork, communication, trust, and appreciation when supervisors engaged in emotionally intelligent leadership, which enhanced employee job satisfaction (Essary, 2010). The present study supports Essary's work; staff who reported their supervisors exhibited

higher levels of emotional intelligence were more likely to have higher job satisfaction. Essary further found high job satisfaction was correlated with decreased staff turnover.

Implications for Practice

This study added to the body of knowledge available regarding the importance of emotional intelligence in prison leadership and the findings further demonstrate the important role employees play in the success of the field of corrections. Emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of job satisfaction among prison staff in the participating southern states. These results have both practical and theoretical implications.

Practical Implications

The present research demonstrated a significant relationship exists between perception of leader emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction within prisons. As such, correctional leaders may experience increased job satisfaction and higher retention rates among their prison staff if they can successfully cultivate emotionally intelligent leaders. Cherniss (n.d.) suggested guidelines for acquiring support to introduce emotional intelligence into an organization, which is crucial, considering the practical implications of the present study. Some strategies include linking emotional intelligence to a business need, finding a powerful sponsor, establishing an implementation team, using research to evaluate the program and demonstrate its value, ensuring the program's quality, using multiple mechanisms to infuse emotional intelligence into the organization, identifying emotionally intelligent leaders within the organization to participate in the implementation, and planning implementation timing.

Past researchers found emotional intelligence can be cultivated through training and professional development (Cherniss et al., 1998; Clarke, 2006; Clarke, 2010; Essary, 2010). Walter, Cole, and Humphrey (2011) recommended incorporating emotional intelligence skills in

leadership education, supervisory training, and development programs. Introducing or enhancing emotional intelligence training programs for leadership staff in prisons can be an inexpensive yet effective strategy for positively affecting employee job satisfaction and retention rates.

Leadership development programming in emotional intelligence can be general (targeted toward entire classes of leaders) or customized based on individual employees' level of emotional intelligence and their strengths and weaknesses (Goleman et al., 2002). Stys and Brown (2004) noted a 70% improvement in emotional intelligence competencies 1 and 2 years after participants completed a customized leadership development program. Pre- and posttests for leaders may yield data that would allow for customized training. Additionally, 360-degree assessments, which consist of feedback from direct reports, peers, and supervisors, may offer personal insight for leaders as they begin to consider their own emotional intelligence and leadership. Patenaude (2001) recommended correctional organizations address leadership and managerial concerns by assessing and redesigning existing training programs when necessary to ensure several fundamental topics are included: race, ethnic, and gender relations; effective communications; supervising staff differently from inmates; on-the-job coaching; and leadership within a correctional environment. Training, as recommended by Patenaude, is consistent with emotional intelligence competencies, including communication, supervisory coaching, leadership, and leaders' ability to recognize and meet the needs of their staff.

In addition to addressing emotional intelligence levels of existing departmental leadership, department leaders should place increased emphasis on hiring new employees with emotional intelligence and consider levels of emotional intelligence among employees up for promotional opportunities, particularly in supervisory positions. Brief assessment tools may provide correctional leadership insight into the current levels of emotional intelligence and the

potential for development. The intentional hiring and promotion of candidates with existing emotional intelligence skills could strengthen the organization's leadership team and contribute to an organizational culture that values emotionally intelligent leadership.

Prison leaders interact with their employees and are in contact regularly with the inmate population at their facilities (Gladwin & McConnell, 2014). Increased emotional intelligence among leaders can positively affect relationships with staff, and could have an influence on staff members' relationships with inmates. The ability to become aware of emotions and then manage responses could change interactions between all parties. Further, supervisors lead by example; they demonstrate behavior for their subordinates, whether the behavior is good or bad (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). If departmental leaders are trained in emotional intelligence and are using it in their daily interactions, subordinates are exposed to that positive behavior and not only feel good about how they are being treated, but also witness the positive interactions between supervisory staff and the inmate population. Staff sees that the relationships do not always have to be adversarial between staff and inmates, but they have some flexibility in determining the appropriate style for specific situations. This finding is consistent with Gibbons and Katzenbach (2006), who stated prison leaders who cultivate mutual respect between leadership, staff, and the inmate population experience less violence and abuse.

In addition to developing emotionally intelligent leaders through training, assessment, and hiring practices, findings of the present study indicate communication is an area that could be further developed within prison settings, which could enhance staff job satisfaction and retention rates. State prisons are typically spread out geographically, meaning that although there are leaders on-site at each facility, the senior leadership team (commissioner-level staff and directors) do not work in the same building, or even city, as most departmental staff (Dess &

Picken, 2000). Therefore, effective communication between people at the top of the organization and line-level staff in the prisons is challenging. This dilemma is further compounded because many prison staff (particularly those in security roles) do not have access to a computer, or in some cases, access to an organizational email account. These challenges mean that it is critical for mid-level managers (those stationed on-site at prisons) to effectively communicate the organization's mission, vision, strategic direction, policies and procedures, good news (employee recognition), and other essential information to staff members. In the absence of executive leadership, site-level leaders must assume senior leadership roles to ensure the staff is engaged, committed, trained, and informed about organizational priorities; leaders must also ensure the message is accurate and consistent with information disseminated from executive leadership. Leaders demonstrating emotionally intelligent behaviors understand that communication is a core competency of emotional intelligence and a significant factor in employee job satisfaction. Staff members want to be heard and want input on organizational decisions. Employees want to understand the organizational direction and feel they are part of the larger plan. Leaders must ensure staff are heard, understand, and know their role in that plan. Leaders at all levels, whether they are an executive in agency headquarters or are the senior-level manager on-site at a facility, must recognize this need among staff and enhance communication despite geographic barriers.

According to the Association of State Correctional Administrators (2016), correctional leaders recognize issues related to staffing are the most significant challenges they face, and the present research demonstrated extrinsic motivators of job satisfaction were important to prison staff. Pay (M = 2.02, SD = 1.03), opportunities for promotion (M = 3.03, SD = 1.20), operating conditions (M = 3.25, SD = 1.00), and contingent rewards (M = 3.27, SD = 1.03) scored below average satisfaction among survey participants. Correctional leaders must compete for funding

with other governmental agencies (i.e., departments of education, social services, and transportation) if they want to raise employee salary. Further, contingent rewards are typically not in practice in government settings. Although these motivators are often more difficult to fulfill, correctional leaders can listen to their staff's concerns and communicate rationale for decisions, which may help employees understand the circumstances.

Theoretical Implications

Through this study, the researcher introduced an area of study not previously conducted: emotional intelligence among prison leaders and the influence it has on staff job satisfaction. The findings of the present study are consistent with previous research findings in other organizational settings. Previous researchers indicated a positive relationship between leader emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction (Essary, 2010; Glodstein, 2014; Goleman, et al., 2015; Meisler, 2014; Miao et al., 2016; Mohammad et al., 2014; Udechukwu et al., 2007).

Findings from the present study indicate understandings pertaining to organizational culture in hierarchical, militaristic organizations may be different considering employee job satisfaction. Traditionally, correctional environments have been structured with ranks, uniforms, policy-driven training programs, processes and procedures outlined clearly in policy, and detailed codes of conduct (Dess & Picken, 2000). These types of command-and-control organizations often have little tolerance for open displays of emotion. Because correctional departments across the country are experiencing higher turnover among prison staff, it may be time to introduce emotional intelligence among supervisors (without changing the cultural foundations, such as rank, structure, uniforms, or policy) as the preferred style of leadership to enhance job satisfaction and retention of qualified prison staff.

Prisons are high-demand organizations for both staff and leadership. Both parties must be concerned with their relationship with one another; supervising an inmate population adds complexity to the relationship. Further, prisons have the potential to be emotionally tense environments; emotional intelligence may be suitable for an environment where supervisors need to quickly change roles. Supervisory staff in prisons, particularly those who work directly with the inmate population, have many roles: counselor, social worker, disciplinarian, teacher, leader, enforcement officer, maintenance work, medical support, food service, etc. These workers may be required to quickly transition from a professional discussion with a subordinate to a role in which they need to break up a fight between inmates. Emotional intelligence skills would provide them with the ability to quickly assess themselves, the people they are interacting with, and the situation. Further, the employees would recognize the need for flexibility in changing their role based on the emotions involved in the present situation (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000). This study may supplement theory on correctional leadership; the results provide insight for understanding leadership[style in hierarchical, high-pressure organizations where supervisors need to be able to quickly switch from administrative roles to handling tense, confrontational situations.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present research focused on the emotional intelligence of prison leaders. Future study of emotional intelligence could be conducted on all prison staff to determine if relationships exist between the levels of emotional intelligence of prison staff and incidents within the prison, job satisfaction, and turnover. Meisler (2014) concluded increased emotional intelligence among staff at all levels may decrease turnover. Future researchers should assess emotional intelligence levels of all prison employees and the relationship with job satisfaction.

Because this is the first research to consider the relationship between leadership levels of emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction within prison settings, more research is needed in the area to confirm findings. Further, because findings on tenure and employee job satisfaction are inconclusive, more work should be performed to determine whether relationships exist between tenure and job satisfaction, as found by Spaulding (2014).

Additional research may also include a survey of leaders directly to gauge self-reported levels of emotional intelligence, as opposed to staff perceptions, and determine if differences exist. Comparison between results of leaders' personal assessments and staff perceptions may reveal whether the assessments are consistent and whether self-reported emotional intelligence scores affect employee job satisfaction.

The present study relied solely on quantitative data gathered through an electronic survey with set questions. Future researchers may consider qualitative methods to gain in-depth information about the experiences of prison staff and their relationships with their leadership. Researchers should additionally employ qualitative research techniques to study the experiences of prison leaders themselves. This may include, for example, a case study in which researchers observe interactions between leaders, staff, and possibly the inmate population, although appropriate approvals concerning inmates would be necessary and may be difficult to obtain.

In addition to operating prisons, some correctional departments handle supervising probationers and parolees in the community. Although the scope of the present study focused on the relationship between emotional intelligence of prison leadership and staff job satisfaction, future researchers may shift the attention to community supervision. Working with offenders in the community is drastically different than in a prison environment. Probation and parole officers experience workplace stress similar to correctional officers, but the challenges are different.

Conclusion

Growing concerns regarding adequately staffed prisons in the United States incited the present study. Although inmate populations are declining, prison operations continue to be a significant focus for correctional administrators who strive for the safety and security of staff, the inmate population, and the public. Prison staffing is of concern considering the difficult nature of the job and competing employment opportunities as economic conditions improve in the United States (Gibbons & Katzenbach, 2006). Leaders in the field of corrections face staffing challenges, which can compromise the safety and security of the prisons that house convicted felons (Association of State Correctional Administrators, 2016).

Although leaders in all organizational contexts influence employees, the role of correctional leadership is significant because of the potentially volatile environment of prisons (Wilson, 2013). Prisons have the potential to be dangerous and stressful settings for leadership, staff, and the inmate population. Historically, prisons have had dysfunctional organizational cultures, poor communication from leadership, and inconsistent decision-making by leaders (Wilson, 2013). Considering the retention challenges and the implications for safety and security, it is critical that correctional leaders understand the influence of their leadership style on employee job satisfaction and the safety and security of the facility.

The researcher designed this study to examine the relationship between employee perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and prison employee job satisfaction to inform correctional leaders of strategies that could aid employee retention. Based on data obtained from prison employees in five participating southern states, the researcher concluded both employee demographic characteristics and employee perceptions of their leader's emotional intelligence are significant predictors of employee job satisfaction. Although correctional leaders cannot

change the demographic characteristics of their employees, they can strive to affect levels of emotional intelligence among prison leaders. Small increases in leader emotional intelligence correlate with significant increases in the job satisfaction of prison employees. Job satisfaction is a key predictor of employee retention and turnover intentions (Lambert et al., 2011; Spaulding, 2014). If correctional leaders want to retain qualified staff, increasing the leaders' levels of emotional intelligence through training and hiring practices can help accomplish this goal.

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Appendix A

Genos Emotional Intelligence Concise (Rater)

Emotional Intelligence Rater-Assessment Version

Instructions

The Genos 360 EI Assessment (Concise) has been designed to measure how often you observe the person you are rating to demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviors. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. However, it is essential that your responses truly reflect the extent to which you believe the person you are rating typically demonstrates the behavior in question.

The person whom I am rating.....

Q. Displays appropriate emotional responses in difficult situations.

You are required to indicate on the response scale the extent to which you believe the person you are rating typically demonstrates the behavior in question. There are five possible responses to each question (shown below). You are required to circle the number that corresponds to your answer where.....

1 = Almost Never

2 = Seldom

3 = Sometimes

4 = Usually

5 = Almost Always

When considering a response, it is important not to think of the way the individual you are rating behaved in any one situation. Rather your responses should be based on the person's typical behavior observed during the last 6 months. If you are not sure, choose a response that feels most likely. Some of the questions may not give all the information you would like to receive. In this case, please choose a response that seems most likely. There is no time limit, however, it should take between 5-7 minutes to complete.

Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory – Concise

Below are a series of statements. Please circle the number corresponding to the statement that represents how often the behavior in question is typically demonstrated by the person you are rating. If you make a mistake, simply cross it out and fill in the correct response.

The person whom I am rating…	Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
1. Demonstrates to others that s/he has considered their feelings in decisions s/he makes at work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fails to recognize how his/her feelings drive his/her behavior at work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Responds to events that frustrate him/her appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Finds it difficult to identify his/her feelings on issues at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Expresses how s/he feels to the wrong people at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Fails to handle stressful situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When someone upsets him/her at work, s/he expresses his/her feelings effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Considers the way others may react to decisions when communicating them.	1	2	3	4	5
9. When s/he gets frustrated with something at work, s/he discusses his/her frustration appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
10. When s/he is under stress, s/he becomes impulsive.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Fails to identify the way people respond to him/her when building rapport.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Understands the things that make people feel optimistic at work.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Takes criticism from colleagues personally.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Is effective at helping others feel positive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Communicates decisions at work in a way that captures others' attention.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Gains stakeholders' commitment to decisions s/he makes at work.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Appropriately communicates decisions to stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Expresses how s/he feels at the appropriate time at work.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Understands what makes people feel valued at work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Effectively deals with things that annoy him/her at work.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Appropriately responds to colleagues who frustrate him/her at work.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Finds it difficult to identify the things that motivates people at work.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Fails to keep calm in difficult situations at work.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Is aware of his/her mood state at work.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Helps people deal with issues that cause them frustration at work.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Remains focused when anxious about something at work.	1	2	3	4	5

27. Fails to resolve emotional situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Is aware of how his/her feelings influence the decisions s/he makes at work.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Has trouble finding the right words to express how s/he feels at work.	1	2	3	4	5
30. When upset at work, s/he still thinks clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Does not know what to do or say when colleagues get upset at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring

Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA): 2*, 4*, 24, 28

Emotional Expression (EE): 5*, 7, 9, 18, 29*

Emotional Awareness of Others (EAO): 11*, 12, 19, 22*

Emotional Reasoning (ER): 1, 8, 15, 16 17

Emotional Self-Management (ESM): 3, 6*, 13*, 20, 21

Emotional Management of Others (EMO): 14, 25, 27*, 31*

Emotional Self-Control (ESC): 10*, 23*, 26, 30

Total EI Score: ESA+EE+EAO+ER+ESM+EMO+ESC

* item that needs to be reverse coded prior to calculating scale scores

See Table 3 (p. 114) from Palmer, Stough, Hamer, and Gignac (2009) for normative information (mean, SD, coefficient alpha) associated with the Genos EI Concise-Form scores.

Palmer, B. R., Stough, C., Hamer, R., & Gignac, G. E. (2009). The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory: A measure designed specifically for the workplace. In C. Stough, D. Saklofske, & J. Parker (Ed.), *Assessing emotional intelligence: Theory, research & applications* (pp. 103-118). New York: Springer.

Appendix B

Permission to use the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory

Genos International allows students and researchers to use assessments at no charge. The following is posted on the organization's website (https://www.genosinternational.com/emotional-intelligence/researchers).

Genos makes available its workplace based emotional intelligence questionnaires free of charge for the purposes of research. Individuals and organizations are strictly forbidden from using these questionnaires for any type of commercial purpose.

There are three versions of Genos EI questionnaires:

- Genos EI Short Inventory (14 items)
- Genos EI Concise Inventory (31 items)
- Genos EI Full Inventory (70 items)

Each version exists in both self-report and rater-report format. The short version of Genos EI yields only a total score. The concise and full versions yield seven subscale scores and one total EI score. The concise version is recommended for research scenarios where a total EI score is of principal interest and there are some exploratory type hypotheses related to one or more of the individual seven dimensions. If there are primary hypotheses relevant to one or more of the seven dimensions, then the full version is recommended.

The basic psychometric properties, as well as the normative sample means and standard deviations, associated with the three versions of the Genos EI inventory can be found in Palmer, Stough, Hamer and Gignac (2009), as well as Gignac (2010). Genos does not make available the normative sample percentile scores. For research purposes, raw scores should be sufficient.

Appendix C

Data on the Three Versions of the Genos EI (Long, Concise, and Short) and Corresponding Reliabilities, Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Number of items that make up the three versions of Genos EI (Long, Concise, Short) and corresponding reliabilities, means, standard deviations and correlations with the long version.

Subscale	Number of Long Items	Number of Concise Items	Number of Short Items	Cronbach's alpha Long	Cronbach's alpha Concise	Cronbach's alpha Short	Mean (SD) Long	Mean (SD) Concise	Mean (SD) Short	*r* with long form Concise	*r* with long form Short
ESA	10	4	2	.83	.75	.56	41.94 (4.56)	16.60 (4.79)	8.46 (1.45)	.90	.83
EE	10	5	2	.81	.72	.59	39.53 (4.85)	18.89 (8.59)	7.73 (1.45)	.93	.82
EAO	10	4	2	.87	.74	.63	40.22 (4.79)	16.01 (4.68)	7.72 (1.22)	.92	.82
ER	10	5	2	.74	.72	.53	39.29 (4.44)	20.16 (6.65)	8.36 (1.18)	.89	.76
ESM	10	5	2	.79	.74	.60	38.36 (4.72)	18.65 (7.94)	7.72 (1.36)	.82	.82
EMO	10	4	2	.86	.74	.54	40.29 (4.89)	15.80 (5.23)	7.92 (1.25)	.92	.84
ESC	10	4	2	.78	.71	.53	39.51 (4.80)	15.75 (5.89)	7.97 (1.38)	.87	.79
TOTAL EI	70	31	14	.96	.93	.87	279.13 (27.76)	121.86 (13.84)	55.88 (6.67)	.97	.94

Note. N = 4775; ESA = Emotional Self-Awareness; EE = Emotional Expression; EAO = Emotional Awareness of Others; ER = Emotional Reasoning; ESM =Emotional Self-Management; EMO = Emotional Management of Others; ESC = Emotional Self-Control.

Appendix D

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida 	
	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 Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	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 very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS is a 36 item, nine facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance based rewards), Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The norms provided on this website include a wide range of organization types in both private and public sector.

Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870.

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

For more information about the development and psychometric properties of the JSS, consult the following sources:

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *13*, 693-713.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.

Appendix E

Scoring the JSS

Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS
Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida

The Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS, has some of its items written in each direction--positive and negative. Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each, can range from 4 to 24; while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Each item is scored from 1 to 6 if the original response choices are used. High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction, so the scores on the negatively worded items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded into facet or total scores. A score of 6 representing strongest agreement with a negatively worded item is considered equivalent to a score of 1 representing strongest disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing them to be combined meaningfully. Below is the step by step procedure for scoring.

1. Responses to the items should be numbered from 1 representing strongest disagreement to 6 representing strongest agreement with each. This assumes that the scale has not be modified and the original agree-disagree response choices are used.

2. The negatively worded items should be reverse scored. Below are the reversals for the original item score in the left column and reversed item score in the right. The rightmost values should be substituted for the leftmost. This can also be accomplished by subtracting the original values for the internal items from 7.

1 = 6

2 = 5

3 = 4

4 = 3

5 = 2

6 = 1

3. Negatively worded items are 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, 36. Note the reversals are NOT every other one.

4. Sum responses to 4 items for each facet score and all items for total score after the reversals from step 2. Items go into the subscales as shown in the table.

Subscale	Item numbers
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28
Promotion	2, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 29
Contingent rewards	5, 14, 23, 32
Operating conditions	6, 15, 24, 31
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34
Nature of work	8, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18, 26, 36
Total satisfaction	1–36

5. If some items are missing you must make an adjustment otherwise the score will be too low. The best procedure is to compute the mean score per item for the individual, and substitute that mean for missing items. For example, if a person does not make a response to 1 item, take the total from step 4, divide by the number answered or 3 for a facet or 35 for total, and substitute this number for the missing item by adding it to the total from step 4. An easier but less accurate procedure is to substitute a middle response for each of the missing items. Since the center of the scale is between 3 and 4, either number could be used. One should alternate the two numbers as missing items occur.

Appendix F

JSS Terms of Use

All of my scales are copyrighted. I allow free use under two conditions.
1. The use is for noncommercial educational or research purposes. This means no one is charging anyone a fee. If you are using any of my scales for consulting purposes, there is a fee.
2. You agree to share results with me. This is how I continue to update the norms and bibliography.

What Results Do I Need?

1. Means per subscale and total score

2. Sample size

3. Brief description of sample, e.g., 220 hospital nurses. I don't need to know the organization name if it is sensitive.

4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., the language used. I am especially interested in non-American samples.

5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional)

6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional)

I would love to see copies of research reports (thesis, dissertation, conference paper, journal article, etc.) in which you used the JSS. Summaries are fine for long documents (e.g., dissertation), and emailed documents are preferred (saves copy and mail costs). Be sure to indicate how you want the work cited in the bibliography.

You can send the material to me via email: pspector@usf.edu or via regular mail: Paul Spector, Department of Psychology, PCD 4118, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620 USA.

Last modified January 7, 2011.

Appendix G

Permission to Use the JSS

Dear Emily:

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of the JSS. 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 Scales section of my website (link below). 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
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
813-974-0357
Pspector@usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector

Appendix H

Demographic Questions Included in Survey

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONS

Instructions: *This survey asks 10 questions about your background, but does not ask you to give any personally identifying information about yourself. Please select the choice that best describes your status as you answer all of the questions outlined below. Thank you so much for your participating.*

1. Gender:
   - Male
   - Female

2. Race:
   - Caucasian
   - African American
   - Hispanic/Latino
   - Other

3. Education Level:
   - High School Graduate
   - Some College
   - College Graduate

4. Which of the following best describes the type of prison you work in?
   - Male Inmate Population
   - Female Inmate Population
   - Mixed Inmate Population

5. Which of the following best describes the security level of the prison you work in?
   - Minimum Security Facility
   - Medium Security Facility
   - Maximum Security Facility

6. Which of the following best describes the type of inmates housed in the prison you work in?
   - Juvenile Offenders
   - Adult Offenders
   - Mixed Population

7. How long have you worked for the department of corrections?
   - Less than 1 year
   - 1–2 years

- 3–5 years
- More than 5 years

8. Which of the following best describes your position in the prison?
    - Administration (leadership, business office, human resources, training, information technology)
    - Food Service
    - Maintenance
    - Medical/Mental Health Provider
    - Rehabilitative Programming
    - Security/Officers (correctional officers, ranking security staff, investigator, special operations)

9. How long does it take you to get to work (one way)?
    - Less than 30 minutes
    - More than 30 minutes

10. Does your spouse work outside of the home?
    - Yes
    - No

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

Appendix I

Prison Employee Participant Informed Consent

Dear Study Participant,

Hello, my name is Emily Gibson and I am a doctoral candidate studying Leadership and Organizational Development at Piedmont International University. Additionally, I am a former employee of the Tennessee Department of Correction, where I gained a great appreciation for the work of correctional employees and a desire to help in an area of concern for many departments across the country – retaining good prison staff. The purpose of this survey is to provide data for the study, *Keeping Prison Staff: The Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction.* The primary purpose of this study is to determine whether a relationship exists between your perception of your supervisor's emotional intelligence and your job satisfaction.

Your contribution to this study is invaluable as we seek to provide research to assist in improving prison operations and success. If you decide to participate, you will take a 15-minute survey that includes the Job Satisfaction Survey and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory. There are no correct answers and your score is anonymous, so please select the responses that best describe you.

At no time will you be asked to provide any information that would give away your identity (including name, state you work in, prison you work in, or your supervisor's name).

Below is an informed consent form; please review it carefully and let me know if you have any questions. Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Emily Gibson

Supervising Faculty
Dr. Lori Robertson
Piedmont International University
Winston-Salem, NC
robertsonl@piedmontu.edu

Researcher
Emily Gibson
Piedmont International University
Winston-Salem, NC
gibsonesh@piedmontu.edu
(615) 772-5443

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this quantitative study is to explore the perceived levels of emotional intelligence in prison supervisors and compare rate of satisfaction amongst prison employees. This correlation will determine whether employee satisfaction is dependent on the emotional intelligence quotient of the supervisor. Ensuring prisons are adequately staffed is critical to the safety of the public, the safety and security of prison employees, and the offenders housed in prisons. Prison systems across the country are experiencing problems staffing their facilities. Understanding the causes for attrition among staff is critical for reversing the pattern and retaining trained and qualified employees (Fitfield, 2016; Gladwin & McConnell, 2014).

The Genos Emotional Intelligence Survey (concise, rater assessment) and Spector's (1986) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) will be administered to prison employees working for state correctional departments in the southern United States electronically via SurveyMonkey (Palmer, B., Stough, C., Hamer, R., & Gignac, G., 2009). Both surveys are valid and reliable and are outlined in detail within the methodology section. In order to address the research questions, a hierarchical linear regression will be conducted.

The results of this study will determine whether future study is necessary in recruiting, promoting, teaching, and coaching emotional intelligence for supervisors in prisons in order to increase employee satisfaction. If there is no correlation between employee satisfaction and the emotional intelligence level of their supervisor, then future study would not be advised. However, should a correlation be discovered, future and expanded study would be recommended.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:

1. Electronically sign this consent form.
2. Fill out a survey.

Total participation time: 15 minutes

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

In addition to aiding and guiding future research, the results will assist correctional departments in understanding the extent to which supervisory levels of emotional intelligence play a role in employee satisfaction. Correctional departments will be aware of the importance of assessing levels of emotional intelligence among candidates for supervisory positions and providing ongoing training in emotional intelligence for all supervisors in prisons based on the results of this study. In return, staff who works in prisons will benefit and will experience higher levels of job satisfaction. Ultimately, if prison staff are more satisfied with their jobs, employee turnover will decrease, which will enhance the safety and security of prisons.

All research results will be available under the title of the dissertation or can be acquired through contacting the researcher.

CONFIDENTIALITY

There will be no information obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you. No questions will be asked during the study that will personally identify you, the state you work in, the prison facility that you work in, or your supervisor. As such, you will remain confidential.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether or not to be in this study. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please contact Emily Gibson (Principal Investigator) at (615) 772-5443 or Dr. Lori Robertson (PhD Committee Chair) at robertsonl@piedmontu.edu.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

The Piedmont International University Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved my request to conduct this project. If you have any concerns about your rights in this study, please contact the Piedmont International University Institutional Review Board.

Thank you for your participation; it is an invaluable and necessary component of this research that will benefit you, your supervisor, and departments of correction across the United States.

Sincerely,

Emily Gibson

By clicking *yes*, I am agreeing that I have been provided informed consent, that I understand its contents, and that I agree to participate in the study.

- Yes
- No