

Predicting Security Program Effectiveness in Bring-Your-Own-Device Deployment in Organizations

Alexander O. Akande and Vu N. Tran

School of Business and Technology, Capella University, 225 S 6th St., Minneapolis, MN 55402, U.S.A.

Keywords: BYOD, Policy Awareness, Policy Enforcement, Policy Maintenance, Information Security, Information Security Program Effectiveness.

Abstract: Bring Your Own Device (BYOD) adoption in organizations continues to grow in recent years, with the aim to improve both organization cost-saving, employee job satisfaction, and employee productivity. An effective BYOD security program enhances the chance of success of a BYOD deployment. This study evaluates the applicability of the Knapp and Ferrante's Information Security Policy and Effectiveness model for explaining and predicting BYOD security program effectiveness. The relationships between the fundamental causal factors in the model, namely awareness, enforcement, and maintenance, and program effectiveness, were evaluated using a sample of 119 BYOD users working in the financial sector in the United States. Our investigation shows support for utilizing this model to drive improvement in a BYOD deployment.

1 INTRODUCTION

The term *Bring Your Own Device* (BYOD) refers to the policy of providing organization employees the opportunity to use a personal computer and mobile devices to access the organization's services and data through its secured intranet (Magruder, Lewis, Burks, & Smolinski, 2015). BYOD adoption allows expansion of the organization's infrastructure without a massive increase in investment in its own equipment. Also, BYOD adoption helps individual employees minimizing the need to maintain separate personal and work equipment. The usage of employee-own devices for work has improved both the organization's operating cost control, employee productivity, employee innovation, and employee satisfaction (Loucks, Medcalf, Buckalew, & Faria, 2013). Employee satisfaction research shows 71% in favor of using personal devices for work (Drury & Absalom, 2013). A study of managers and executives finds 34% improvement in productivity when using portable devices at work (Turek, 2016). Another study finds 61% of Gen Y and 50% of 30+ tech-savvy workers believe that their productivity significantly improves when they use technologies in their personal/social life over those used in their work-life (Bless, Alanson, & Noble, 2010). A recent study by (Doargajudhur & Dell, 2019) finds higher employees'

well-being, performance, and commitment among those that utilize their mobile devices for work-related tasks. Today's large organizations implementing a BYOD program include Google, Amazon, and Facebook (Dolata, 2017).

Employees are beneficiaries of the organization's benefits in the BYOD environment. Enforcing BYOD policy in an organization brings multiple technological benefits that are valuable in a competitive environment (Varbanov, 2014; Magruder et al., 2015; Zahadat et al., 2015; Dietz, 2017). Users have the flexibility to determine the type of device to access a corporate infrastructure and can update the software with the latest technologies and features. When users can use personal devices, there can be an increase in after-work collaboration (Dietz, 2017). There is a significant increase in employees' productivity with access to a more comfortable device (Dietz, 2017; Varbanov, 2014). Executing a BYOD policy can save businesses the money required to purchase hardware for the employees, thereby focusing and investing in an organization's human resources development removes the burden of managing hardware breaks and fixes from operational processes (Dietz, 2017). Implementing an effective BYOD policy allows the management of portable devices to focus on the policy management level instead of the device procurement level.

On the contrary, BYOD has its constraints in the business environment. According to Security (2019), the policy lacks device uniformity arising from the various operating systems within the environment. There is employee privacy issue that need to be addressed to have a seamless implementation. In addition, legal issues may arise from the use of proprietary application in a business environment. Therefore, legal stipulations on the application and data is a key portion of BYOD deployment often overlooked.

Companies that have not adopted BYOD cite security concerns as the main reason for their hesitation (Tech Pro Research, 2014). These concerns include security infrastructure deployment, policy establishment, implementation, and cost control (Disterer & Kleiner, 2013; Knapp & Ferrante, 2012; Waterfill & Dilworth, 2014; and Zahadat, 2016). Adopting BYOD requires a greater investment in the organization's infrastructure security to authorize, track, and control employees' access to their resources via their personal devices. Adopting BYOD then requires a careful balance of capability and security, technology and policy, and security risks versus cost savings (Zahadat, Blessner, Blackburn, & Olson, 2015). An effective BYOD security program is needed to ensure a successful BYOD deployment (Doargajudhur & Dell, 2019). Little scientific research was to develop a theoretical foundation for this wide-spread phenomenon (Doargajudhur & Dell, 2019).

This quantitative study attempts to develop a theoretical foundation for the adoption of BYOD in organizations. Specifically, this study investigates the applicability of the ISPPE model introduced by Knapp and Ferrante (2012) in explaining BYOD security program effectiveness. The ISPPE model identifies three fundamental causal factors of an effective security program are: security policy awareness, security policy enforcement, and security policy maintenance. Understanding the relationships between these factors and program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment allows the development of a model for predicting BYOD security program effectiveness.

2 BACKGROUND

Research on how to improve information security program effectiveness continues to report significant findings. Studies on the relationship between security awareness and security compliance, for instance, confirm a positive correlational relation between

awareness and compliance, resulting in increased support for the implementation of security awareness training as a means to enhance security compliance in organizations (Bulgurcu, Cavusoglu, & Benbasat, 2010; Chatterjee, Sarker, & Valacich, 2015; Chu & Chau, 2014; D'Arcy, Hovav, & Galletta, 2009; Dinev & Hu, 2007; Siponen, Adam Mahmood, & Pahlila, 2014). Studies of the relationship between personality and intention to violate security policy, in another instance, find certain personality traits help moderate such intentions in some situations (Johnston, Warkentin, McBride, & Carter, 2016). These studies identify that certain personality traits are more susceptible to policy violations in organizations.

Studies of the relationship between personal ethics and security, like (Dinev & Hu, 2007; Xu & Hu, 2018), find a positive correlation between these constructs, leading to the recommendation that screening employees with a high level of self-control and strong moral beliefs for positions requiring handle of sensitive materials. Studies based on general deterrence theory like (Schuessler, 2009; Theoharidou, Kokolakis, Karyda, & Kiountouzis, 2005) support strong disincentives and sanctions, including punishments, as a means to dissuade security policy violation. Studies based on situational crime prevention theory like (Padayachee, 2016; Safa, Maple, Watson, & Von Solms, 2018) find that lowering the perceived benefits of security policy violation helps decrease employees' chance of committing the actual violation.

Studies on positive reinforcement such as (Chen, Ramamurthy, & Wen, 2015) find that focusing on rewards for security compliance could be a more effective solution than focusing on punishments in enhancing security compliance. Studies investigating the relationship between organizational leadership and information security program effectiveness, such as Grant (2017), find that strong security culture is critical to a successful security program implementation. Studies on the integrative approach to security management like (Zahadat et al., 2015) recommends the combination of people, policy, and technology to ensure security management implementation effectiveness.

Most interesting to this study is the work of Knapp and Ferrante (2012). Using the insight from workplace deviance and organizational learning literature, the authors proposed a model for understanding information security program effectiveness. Their Information Security Policy and Effectiveness model describe three causal factors: security policy awareness, security policy

enforcement, and security policy maintenance, which the authors argued are fundamental factors for measuring security program effectiveness. Security policy awareness reflects the general awareness of the security policies within the organization. Security enforcement reflects how policy violation punishments are enforced. Policy maintenance reflects how well the organization maintains its security policies. Together, these three fundamental factors explain the effectiveness of a security program. Utilized a sample of 297 certified information security experts in the United States, the authors developed an information security policy management model for explaining security program effectiveness in organizations. Their study confirmed the proposed model. Knapp and Ferrante (2012) recommended additional studies investigating the model using non-security professionals to evaluate their model further.

The purpose of this quantitative study is to evaluate the viability of applying Knapp and Ferrante’s ISPPE model in evaluating and predicting the effectiveness of the security program in a BYOD deployment. Specifically, our study evaluates how well the model’s fundamental causal factors can explain the effectiveness of the security program supporting a BYOD deployment. We also seek to develop a specific model for predicting the program’s effectiveness. Follow a recommendation of the model’s authors (2012), and we utilize non-security professionals in our study.

3 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Research Method

Our quantitative study investigated how the ISPPE causal factors, i.e., awareness, enforcement, and maintenance, impact security program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment. Our study's four main constructs were Policy Awareness, Policy Enforcement, Policy Maintenance, and Program Effectiveness. We adopted the definitions of these constructs from (Knapp & Ferrante, 2012). These four constructs were operationalized by the variables in the survey instrument developed in the same study to support the testing of the model (2012). A copy of the instrument is available in Appendix A. Our main research question was: how does the information security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance influence the effectiveness of the security program in a BYOD deployment? This study's specific sub-questions are listed below,

supported by the three pairs of hypotheses documented in Table 1. These hypotheses are similar to those introduced in the Knapp and Ferrante study (2012).

- Sub-question 1: Does information security policy awareness influence information security program effectiveness in a BYOD environment?
- Sub-question 2: Does information security policy enforcement influence information security program effectiveness in a BYOD environment?
- Sub-question 3: Does information security policy maintenance influence information security program effectiveness in a BYOD environment?

Table 1: Hypotheses.

Sub-questi on	Hypothesis
1	H1 ₀ : Information security awareness is not positively associated with information security program effectiveness H1 _a : Information security awareness is positively correlated with information security program effectiveness
2	H2 ₀ : Information security enforcement is not positively associated with information security program effectiveness H2 _a : Information security enforcement is positively correlated with information security program effectiveness
3	H3 ₀ : Information security maintenance is not positively associated with information security program effectiveness H3 _a : Information security maintenance is positively correlated with information security program effectiveness

We adopted the position taken by Knapp and Ferrante (2012) that these relationships are causal relationships. Security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance as causal factors of program effectiveness were also suggested in many of the studies mentioned in the Background section of this study. We expected to find these relationships to be positively correlated, as were found in the original study. Knapp and Ferrante’s ISPPE model (2012) is shown in Figure 1.

3.2 Survey Design

Our study uses the 20-item Likert scale (1-5), a survey questionnaire introduced in (Knapp & Ferrante, 2012). The twenty survey questions are equally divided among the three independent

variables, Policy Awareness (PA), Policy Enforcement (PE), and Policy Maintenance (PM), and one dependent variable, Information Security Program Effectiveness (IE). The five questions for measuring Policy Awareness are labeled as PA1-PA5. The four questions used for measuring Policy Enforcement are labeled as PE1-PE4. The four questions used for measuring Policy Maintenance are PM1-PM4. The ones used for Information Security Program Effectiveness, IE1-IE5. No modification to this instrument was required for our study.

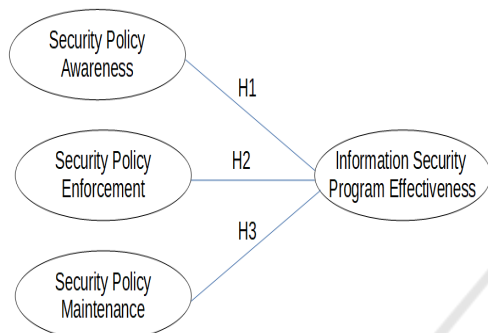


Figure 1: Information Security Management Model.

Knapp and Ferrante’s study (2012) evaluated the instrument’s validity for convergent validity, discriminant validity, intrusiveness, and construct validity. All the correlations between the construct and the composite construct values were significant at the $p < 0.01$ level. All the loadings were considered more significant than the 0.707 threshold value, indicating that the latent construct captured more than half of the variance. Cronbach alpha (α) of each variable supported by the instrument showed $\alpha > 0.70$ demonstrating acceptable reliability. Detailed information on the instrument and its validity can be found in Knapp and Ferrante (2012).

3.3 Population and Sampling

Our study’s target population was adults of at least 18-years old working in the financial sector in the United States. The reason for our focus on the US financial sector was that this sector has continually been one of the most prominent adopters of BYOD (Albinus, 2013). A report from the Department of Labor’s Bureau of Labor Statistics (May 2017 National Occupational Employment and Wage Estimates, 2018) estimates that there are over 2.5 million financial specialists in the US.

Table 2: Participants Demographic Characteristics.

Categories	n (%)
Age	
<18	0 (0.00)
18-29	37 (31.09)
30-44	54 (45.38)
45-60	24 (20.17)
>60	4 (3.36)
Sex	
Female	67 (56.30)
Male	52 (43.70)
Education Level	
Primary School	1 (0.84)
High School but no Diploma	2 (1.68)
High School Diploma	16 (13.43)
College but no Degree	22 (18.49)
2-year college degree	10 (8.40)
4-year college	43 (36.13)
Graduate-level degree	24 (20.17)
Others	1 (0.84)
Average Household Income	
<\$25,000	3 (3)
\$25,000 – \$49,999	17 (14.3)
\$50,000 – \$74,999	23 (19.3)
\$75,000 - \$99,999	34 (28.6)
\$100,000 - \$124,999	11 (9.2)
\$125,000 - \$149,999	11 (9.2)
\$150,000 - \$174,999	10 (8.4)
\$175,000 - \$199,999	2 (1.7)
>\$200,000	8 (6.7)
Mobile Phone Usage	
Much more often for work	16 (13.4)
Somewhat more often for work	17 (14.3)
Slightly more often for work	7 (5.9)
Equal for work and personal use	20 (16.8)
Slightly more often for personal use	13 (10.9)
Somewhat more often for personal use	11 (9.2)
Much more often for personal use	35 (29.4)
Device Type	
IOS Phone	46 (38.66)
Android Phones	37 (31.09)
Other Phones	0 (0.00)
Windows Desktop/Laptop	29 (24.37)
Mac OS Desktop	6 (5.04)

Note. n = number of participants; % = percentage of participants.

Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics considered in the research. Sample data was collected through an online survey company SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey, 2019). Per our contract, the SurveyMonkey service implemented the random sampling strategy, ensuring access to our survey will

be based on a first-come-first-serve basis and is available to its 15 million active survey participating members. Qualified SurveyMonkey service's registered participants were invited to participate in our survey. The SurveyMonkey service ensured that only those who fit our selection criteria would be qualified to participate in our study. The selection criteria we provided to this service were: 1) a person who currently works in the financial sector in the United States, 2) a person who is at least 18 years old, and 3) a person who is using a personal desktop/laptop and/or mobile devices to access his or her organization network.

We utilized G*Power 3.1 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) to determine our study's sample size. This tool required three inputs to estimate a sample size: the required power level ($1-\beta$), the significance level α , and the estimated population effect size (Faul et al., 2007). Power analysis showed that a sample size of 119 was sufficient to estimate a model with an estimated effect size of 0.15, power level 0.95, $\alpha < 0.05$, and 3 predictors. We then asked the SurveyMonkey service to provide us with at least 119 usable survey responses. Usable survey responses are those that were filled out completely by each participant, contained no apparent suspected data, and were not outliers in this sample.

3.4 Data Collection and Analysis

The SurveyMonkey service randomly selected individuals within their database of available participants who met the criteria we provided and sent them an email invitation with a link to participate in our survey. Qualified participants took the survey anonymously on a first-come-first-serve basis until a target number of responses, i.e., 230, were received. The raw data was made available to download and evaluate daily to determine how many good responses were received. If we could not reach our goal of getting 119 good survey responses out of the batch of 230 responses that SurveyMonkey collected, the service will initiate a new round of survey invitations to collect additional responses for us. Microsoft Excel 2010 and IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS©) Statistics Grad Pack version 25.0 was used for the data analysis (SPSS, 2020).

4 RESULTS

4.1 Data Descriptions and Analysis

As the survey responses are pulled down from the SurveyMonkey service, we reviewed each response and rejected incomplete responses and bad responses. Incomplete responses were rejected. Bad responses, those with answers not randomized, e.g., all 1s, were also rejected. Once the number of usable responses reached beyond 119 cases, we started evaluating for outliers. We utilized the SPSS's Mahalanobis Distance calculation to identify and remove outliers based on their relative distance from the mean value derived from all three independent variables (SPSS, 2020). The collection of survey responses stopped once 119 usable responses were received.

Table 3 describes the responses received from individual participants according to the categories of the questions. We observed the following patterns in these 119 responses:

- IE1 – IE5. A high proportion of the participants either agreed or strongly agree with the entire questions in this category. Only a few participants disagree or strongly disagree with all the questions in this category. For instance, 88.3% of the participants agreed (A) or strongly agreed (SA) with statement E1; 84.9% of the participants agreed (A) or strongly agreed (SA) with statement E2; 84.0% agreed with statement E3; and 81.6% for E4; and so forth.
- PA1 – PA5. A high proportion of the participants either agreed or strongly agree with the entire questions in this category. Only a few participants disagree or strongly disagree with all the questions in this category.
- PE1 – PE4. A high proportion of the participants either agreed or strongly agree with the entire questions in this category. Only a few participants disagree or strongly disagree with all the questions in this category.
- PM1 – PM4. A high proportion of the participants either agreed or strongly agree with the entire questions in this category. Only a few participants disagree or strongly disagree with all the questions in this category.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Likert Scale Responses.

State ment	Likert Scale				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
IE1	54 (45.4)	51 (42.9)	12 (10.1)	1 (0.8)	1 (0.8)
IE2	46 (38.7)	55 (46.2)	11 (9.2)	5 (4.2)	2 (1.7)
IE3	58 (48.7)	42 (35.3)	15 (12.6)	3 (2.5)	1 (0.8)
IE4	53 (44.5)	48 (40.3)	12 (10.1)	2 (1.7)	4 (3.4)
IE5	51 (42.9)	46 (38.7)	16 (13.4)	5 (4.2)	1 (0.8)
PA1	59 (49.6)	41 (34.5)	13 (10.9)	4 (3.4)	2 (1.7)
PA2	59 (49.6)	40 (33.6)	15 (12.6)	3 (2.5)	2 (1.7)
PA3	60 (50.4)	39 (32.8)	13 (10.9)	6 (5.0)	1 (0.8)
PA4	54 (45.4)	47 (39.5)	15 (12.6)	2 (1.7)	1 (0.8)
PA5	53 (44.5)	44 (37.0)	14 (11.8)	5 (4.2)	3 (2.5)
PE1	54 (45.4)	42 (35.3)	18 (15.1)	3 (2.5)	2 (1.7)
PE2	48 (40.3)	44 (37.0)	23 (19.3)	2 (1.7)	2 (1.7)
PE3	61 (51.3)	35 (29.4)	19 (16.0)	2 (1.7)	2 (1.7)
PE4	64 (53.8)	35 (29.4)	13 (10.9)	3 (2.5)	4 (3.4)
PM1	54 (45.4)	40 (33.6)	17 (14.3)	7 (5.9)	1 (0.8)
PM2	50 (42.0)	49 (41.2)	14 (11.8)	3 (2.5)	3 (2.5)
PM3	52 (43.7)	42 (35.3)	18 (15.1)	4 (3.4)	3 (2.5)
PM4	52 (43.7)	41 (34.5)	18 (15.1)	7 (5.9)	1 (0.8)

Note: SA = Strong Agree; A = Agree; N = Neither agree nor disagree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree; n = number of participant responses. IE1-IE5 = Information Security Program Effectiveness; PA1-PA5 = Policy Awareness; PE1-PE4 = Policy Enforcement; PM1-PM4 = Policy Maintenance

The sample descriptive statistics were computed and are summarized in Table 4. The Mean represents the center of the data distribution. The average variability of the data set is the standard deviation (SD). The Pearson product-moment correlation measures the monotonic association between two variables (Schober, Boer, & Schwarte, 2018). PA, PE, and PM exhibited a relatively high correlation with

IE, as well as among themselves. The p-value evaluates the statistical significance of the correlational relation between individual independent and dependent variables confirmed the positive correlations between PA, PE and PM, and IE. All three correlations are statistically significant (i.e., p-value <.01).

The Reliability test was used to compute the Cronbach alpha values of 0.891, 0.887, 0.867, and 0.865 for IE, PA, PE, and PM, respectively. Constructs with Cronbach alpha value that is greater than 0.4 have excellent reliability (Tavakol, & Dennick, 2011). All the constructs used in our study had a relatively high Cronbach alpha value, i.e., greater than 0.4, confirming that valid constructs characterized the study items were used in the study.

Table 4: Correlation, Descriptive Statistics, and Cronbach Alpha.

Scale	Mean	SD	IE	PA	PE	PM
IE	1.769	0.72	-	0.816	0.77	0.805
PA	1.751	0.747	0.816**	-	-0.887	0.867
PE	1.782	0.783	0.770**	0.807**	-	0.779
PM	1.842	0.795	0.805**	0.867**	0.779**	-

Note: n = 119. Items in parentheses are Cronbach alpha reliabilities. ** p < .01. IE= Information Security Program Effectiveness; PA = Policy Awareness; PE = Policy Enforcement; PM = Policy Maintenance. SD = Standard Deviation.

4.2 Analysis of Hypotheses

Based on the study results described in Table 5, the null hypotheses H1₀, H2₀, and H3₀ were rejected due to p < 0.01, and the alternative hypotheses H1_a, H2_a, and H3_a, were accepted. Our results support Knapp and Ferrante’s theory that effective information security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance have a positive effect on information security program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment.

To develop a model for predicting BYOD security program effectiveness, we employed multiple linear regression analysis. Stepwise regression forward selection procedure was used to build the model and examine the importance and criteria of variables

entered into the model for testing the research hypotheses (Field, 2018). Table 5 showed the data for constructing a model for predicting the effectiveness of a BYOD security program.

Table 5: Multiple Regression Analysis.

IE	β	S.E	t-value	P	VIF
PA	0.33	0.105	3.153	0.002	4.901
PM	0.285	0.093	3.079	0.003	4.36
PE	0.228	0.079	2.882	0.005	3.086

Note. N=119. The test of hypotheses of $\beta=0$ are based on t-values, $df = 117$. $R^2 = 0.724$, Adj. $R^2 = 0.717$; * $p < 0.05$. IE= Information Security Program Effectiveness; PA = Policy Awareness; PE = Policy Enforcement; PM = Policy Maintenance. β = Beta; S.E = Standard Error; P = Significance; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor; p = probability of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The predictive model derived from the multiple regression analysis is:

$$IE = 0.33PA + 0.23PE + 0.28PM$$

This predictive model indicates that a unit increase in information security policy awareness resulted in a 0.330 unit increase in the information security program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment. A unit increase in policy maintenance resulted in a 0.285 increase in the information security program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment. Finally, a unit increase in policy enforcement resulted in a 0.228 increase in the information security program effectiveness in a BYOD deployment.

Our predictive model was statistically significant at $F(3,115) = 100.42$, $p < 0.001$, with an overall $R^2 = 0.724$, i.e., 72.4% of the information security program effectiveness in a BYOD environment can be explained by the three fundamental information security policy management (awareness, enforcement, and policy maintenance) causal factors.

Cohen statistic was computed from the squared multiple correlation coefficient to measure the model's overall effect size (Cohen, 1992). According to Cohen (1992), an F^2 of 0.5 to be a small effect, F^2 of 1.5 a medium effect, and F^2 of 3.5 a significant effect. With the computed effect size of 2.6, the study found that information security policy awareness, policy maintenance, and policy enforcement have a considerably practical effect on a BYOD environment's information security program effectiveness.

The results of the analysis were further verified by testing the assumptions identified in the regression model. The diagnostics measures included the

variance inflation factor (VIF), heteroscedasticity, and normality tests. Table 5 shows the calculated VIF values using the variables to test for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity occurs when two or more variables relate very closely in a linear fashion (Field, 2018). These values show that the degree of multicollinearity is low across the model; none of the variables has a VIF value greater than 10. It means that the regression model is free of multicollinearity.

Figure 2 shows a visual test of heteroscedasticity conducted by plotting a scattered diagram of the residual value against the predicted value. The scattered diagram revealed that the spread of the residuals plotted against the predicted value was scattered (i.e., the residuals were getting more significant as the predicted value increased), which is a visual indication of the violation of the equal variance assumption. The test was further verified with the Breusch-Pagan test using Table 6. The Breusch-Pagan test examined the null hypothesis of equal variance (Klein, Gerhard, Büchner, Diestel, & Schermelleh-Engel, 2016). As observed from Table 5, the test computed a p value, which is lower than 0.05, $p < 0.022$. The null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that the model faces heteroscedasticity problems.

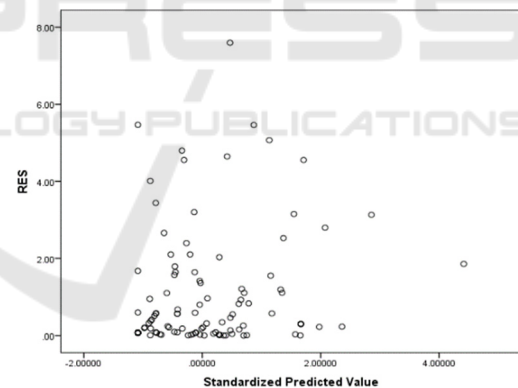


Figure 2: The plot of residuals against predicted value.

Table 6: Breusch-Pagan Test.

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	5.181	1	5.181	5.373	.022
Residuals	112.819	117	.964		
Total	118.000	118			

Note. df = degree of freedom; F = F Statistic; Sig. = Significance.

A histogram is used for the normality test to show the frequency distribution (Field, 2018). The

histogram shown in Figure 3 indicates that the residual of the fitted model was approximately normal and did not violate the normality assumption. A Normal P-P plot, as shown in Figure 4 was tested to determine further if the data set is approximately normally distributed. Since the points formed an approximately straight line, the distribution is normal.

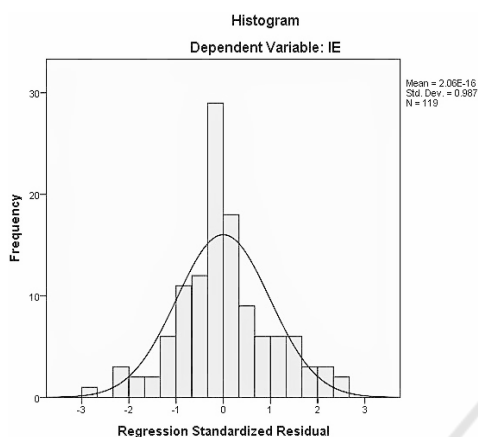


Figure 3: Normality plot.

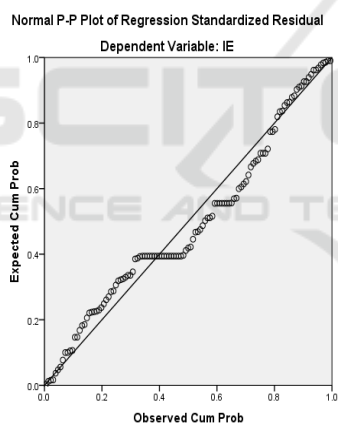


Figure 4: Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual.

4.3 Interpretations of Findings

The results indicate that information security policy awareness has a more significant effect on the information security program effectiveness than information security policy enforcement and maintenance. This finding matches what was reported from Knapp and Ferrante’s study (2012). In addition to confirming the results of the Knapp and Ferrante (2012) previous study, this finding also supports the position that organizations can maximize the return on investment in security policy management by putting more resources into

improving security awareness among their employees. Knapp and Ferrante suggest that greater investment in awareness training can help lower the need to invest in enforcement (2012). Organizations adopting BYOD should emphasize implementing security policy awareness and training as a priority.

Information security policy enforcement has the smallest effect on information security program effectiveness. This finding does not match what was reported from Knapp and Ferrante’s study (2012). The Knapp and Ferrante (2012) study found information security policy maintenance having the smallest effect. This difference could be due to domain-specific factors associated with the deployment of BYOD within the financial sector. Further testing of the model with BYOD deployments in non-financial sectors can confirm if this finding is related to BYOD deployment in the financial sector.

This study further validates the model originally developed by Knapp and Ferrante (2012). One extension to the original study is using BYOD users who are not security experts to evaluate the proposed model. The second is the focus on a specific application domain, BYOD, in the financial sector. The results show that the three relationships are positively correlated, statistically significant, and practically significant, similar to the findings reported in Knapp and Ferrante’s (2012) study. This finding confirms that the ISPPE model’s fundamental security policy management factors can explain 72% of the effectiveness of the BYOD security program.

The model $IE = 0.33PA + 0.23PE + 0.28PM$ derived from this study can predict the effectiveness of the information security program associating with a BYOD deployment based on measuring BYOD users’ perceptions of the strength of the information security awareness, enforcement, and maintenance within their organizations.

Our findings show a recognition among BYOD users within the financial sector that security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance are essential factors for an effective BYOD security program. This acceptance suggests that financial organizations rolling out security policy management measures to bolster BYOD security will not likely receive significant employee resistance.

Finally, our study contributes to the call for more scientific research studies in support of the BYOD phenomenon (Doargajudhur & Dell, 2019). Our results demonstrate the applicability of the ISPPE model (2012) to explaining and predicting the effectiveness of the security policy program of a BYOD deployment. Security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance are fundamental

causal factors in implementing an effective BYOD security program.

5 CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

BYOD deployment poses security challenges to organizations that want to broaden their infrastructure to include employee-own networked devices. Failure to implement an effective information security program can expose the organization to significant security breaches and data loss (Magruder et al., 2015). An effective information security program is needed to ensure the success of a BYOD deployment. This study investigates the use of the Information Security Policy and Effectiveness model to explain the performance of a BYOD deployment's information security program. The results of our study confirm the theory behind the model that focusing on enhancing security policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance can improve the effectiveness of an information security program in a BYOD deployment in organizations.

Although there is sufficient evidence supporting the theory investigated, there are several limitations worth mentioned. First, our study contributes only one data point to confirm the theory being evaluated. More studies are necessary to confirm the applicability of the model in a BYOD deployment. Second, our findings came from a survey of non-security participants; we could share them with security experts for their perspectives. Third, we utilized only BYOD users' perception of the effectiveness of the BYOD program implementation instead of more objective approaches, such as evaluating hard evidence collected by the organizations. Analysis of organization data helps confirm the usefulness of our model. Fourth, this study relies only on participants from within the financial industry in the United States. New studies using participants from other industries will help test the generality of the model.

Finally, the scope of this study was limited to only three possible contributing factors of an information security policy program effectiveness. There are many other possible contributing factors to uncover and evaluate. These possible factors include security risk assessment, employee monitoring, managerial approval, organizational culture, and policy development. Researchers are encouraged to expand on this study to include these potential contributing factors.

REFERENCES

- Albinus, P. (2013). *Industry continues support of BYOD initiatives*. Fierce Finance IT. Retrieved from ProQuest Database. (Order NO. 1466199562).
- Bless, E., Alanson, M., & Noble, C. (2010). Consumerization: What is in store for IT? http://i.dell.com/sites/content/business/solutions/white_papers/it/Documents/intel-imr-consumerization-wp_it.pdf
- Bulgurcu, B., Cavusoglu, H., & Benbasat, I. (2010). Information security policy compliance: an empirical study of rationality-based beliefs and information security awareness. *MIS Quarterly*, 34(3), 523-548.
- Chatterjee, S., Sarker, S., & Valacich, J. S. (2015). The behavioral roots of information systems security: Exploring key factors related to unethical IT use. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 31(4), 49-87. doi:10.1080/07421222.2014.1001257.
- Chen, Y., Ramamurthy, K., & Wen, K. (2015). Impacts of comprehensive information security programs on information security culture. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 55(3), 11-19. doi:10.1080/08874417.2015.11645767.
- Chu, A. M. Y., & Chau, P. Y. K. (2014). Development and validation of instruments of information security deviant behavior. *Decision Support Systems*, 66, 93-101. doi:10.1016/j.dss.2014.06.008.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155.
- D'Arcy, J., Hovav, A., & Galletta, D. F. (2009). User awareness of security countermeasures and its impact on information systems misuse: a deterrence approach. *Information Systems Research*, 20(1), 79-98.
- Dietz, L. (2017). Avoiding BYO policy and security pitfalls. Five practical case studies to help you recognize and address potential threats from using personal devices at work. Citrix. Retrieved from https://www.citrix.com/content/dam/citrix/en_us/documents/products-solutions/avoiding-byo-policy-and-security-pitfalls.pdf
- Dinev, T., & Hu, Q. (2007). The centrality of awareness in the formulation of user behavioral intention toward protective information technologies. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 8(7), 386-408.
- Disterer, G., & Kleiner, C. (2013). "BYOD bring your own device", *Procedia Technology*, 9, 43-53, doi: 10.1.1016/j.protcy.2013.12.005.
- Doargajudhur, M. S., & Dell, P. (2019). Impact of BYOD on organizational commitment: an empirical investigation. *Information Technology & People*, 32(2), 246-268. doi: 10.1108/ITP-11-2017-0378.
- Dolata, U. (2017). *Apple, Amazon, Google, Facebook, Microsoft: Market concentration-competition-innovation strategies* (Report No. 2017-01). Retrieved from Stuttgarter Beiträge zur Organisations-und Innovationsforschung, SOI website: <http://hdl.handle.net/10419/152249>.
- Drury, A., & Absalom, R. (2013). BYOD: An emerging market trend in more ways than one. Retrieved from

- <https://www.logicalis.com/globalassets/group/pdf-files/logicalisbyodwhitepaperovum.pdf>.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A. G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 39, 175–191.
- Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using SPSS statistics* (5th ed.), (pp. 334–368). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- G*Power (2020). G*Power: Statistical power analyses for Windows and Mac. Retrieved from <https://www.psychologie.hhu.de/arbeitsgruppen/allgemeine-psychologie-und-arbeitspsychologie/gpower.html>.
- Grant, R. L. (2017). Exploring effects of organizational culture upon implementation of information security awareness and training programs within the defense industry located in the Tennessee valley region (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (Order No. 10646759).
- Johnston, A. C., Warkentin, M., McBride, M., & Carter, L. (2016). Dispositional and situational factors: Influences on information security policy violations. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 25(3), 231–251. doi:10.1057/ejis.2015.15.
- Klein, A. G., Gerhard, C., Büchner, R. D., Diestel, S., & Schermelleh-Engel, K. (2016). The detection of heteroscedasticity in regression models for psychological data. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modeling*, 58(4), 567–592.
- Knapp, K. J., & Ferrante, C. J. (2012). Policy awareness, enforcement, and maintenance: Critical to information security effectiveness in organizations. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, 13(5), 66–80. Retrieved from http://www.nabusinesspress.com/JMPP/KnappKJ_Web13_5_.pdf.
- Loucks, J., Medcalf, R., Buckalew, L., & Faria, F. (2013). The financial impact of BYOD: A model of BYOD's benefits to global companies. Retrieved from https://www.cisco.com/c/dam/global/ru_ua/assets/pdf/byod-economics_econ_analysis.pdf.
- Magruder, J. S., Lewis, S. X., Burks, E. J., & Smolinski, C. (2015). Bring your own device (BYOD): Who is running organizations? *Journal of Accounting and Finance*, 15(1), 55–61. Retrieved from http://www.nabusinesspress.com/JAF/BurksEJ_Web15_1_.pdf
- May 2017 National Occupational Employment and Wage Estimates. (2018, March 30). Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/oes/current/oes_nat.htm#15-0000.
- Padayachee, K. (2016). An assessment of opportunity-reducing techniques in information security: An insider threat perspective. *Journal of Decision Support Systems*, 92, 47–56. doi: 10.1016/j.dss.2016.09.012.
- Safa, N. S., Maple, C., Watson, T., & Von Solms, R. (2018). Motivation and opportunity-based model to reduce information security insider threats in organisations. *Journal of Information Security and Applications*, 40, 247–257. doi:10.1016/j.jisa.2017.11.001.
- Schober, P., Boer, C., & Schwarte, L. A. (2018). Correlation coefficients: Appropriate use and interpretation. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 126(5), 1763–1768. doi:10.1213/ANE.0000000000002864.
- Schuessler, J. (2009). General deterrence theory: Assessing information systems security effectiveness in large versus small businesses. Ph.D. dissertation, University of North Texas, United States. (Publication No. AAT 3377466).
- Security, R. (2019, November 01). Pros & Cons of Bring Your Own Device (BYOD). Retrieved from <https://blog.rsisecurity.com/pros-cons-of-bring-your-own-device-byod/>
- Siponen, M., Mahmood, M. A., & Pahlila, S. (2014). Employees' adherence to information security policies: An exploratory field study. *Information & Management*, 51(2), 217–224. doi:10.1016/j.im.2013.08.006.
- SPSS (2020), IBM SPSS Statistics. Retrieved from <https://www.ibm.com/products/spss-statistics>.
- SurveyMonkey, (2019). SurveyMonkey Inc., Retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com, San Mateo, CA: SurveyMonkey Inc.
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53–55. doi:10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd
- Tech Pro Research (2014). BYOD booming with 74% using or planning to use. Retrieved from <https://www.techrepublic.com/article/research-byod-booming-with-74-using-or-planning-to-use/#:~:text=Tech%20Pro%20Research%20conducted%20a,what%20part%20they%20are%20playing.>
- Theoharidou, M., Kokolakis, S., Karyda, M., & Kiountouzis, E. (2005). The insider threat to information systems and the effectiveness of ISO17799. *Journal of Computer & Security*, 24(6), 472–484. doi: 10.1016/j.cose.2005.05.002.
- Turek, M. (2016). Employees say smartphones boost productivity by 34 percent: Frost & Sullivan research. Retrieved from <https://insights.samsung.com/2016/08/03/employees-say-smartphones-boost-productivity-by-34-percent-frost-sullivan-research/>
- Varbanov, R. (2014). Applications of the BYOD conception: Benefits, risks, and approaches. *Business Management / Biznes Upravljenje*, 24(2), 80–99. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10610/1498>
- Waterfill, M. R., & Dilworth, C. A. (2014). BYOD: Where the employee and the enterprise intersect. *Employee Relations Law Journal*, 40(2), 26–36. Retrieved from <https://www.jdsupra.com/legalnews/expanded-byod-where-the-employee-and-34259/>
- Xu, Z., & Hu, Q. (2018). The role of rational calculus in controlling individual propensity toward information security policy non-compliance behavior. *Proceedings of the 51st Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*. Retrieved from

<https://aisel.aisnet.org/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1482&context=hicss-51>

- Zahadat, N. (2016). *Mobile security: A systems engineering framework for implementing bring your own device (BYOD) security through the combination of policy management and technology*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (Order No. 10024089)
- Zahadat, N., Blessner, P., Blackburn, T., & Olson, B. A. (2015). BYOD security engineering: A framework and its analysis. *Journal of Computer & Security*. 55, 81–99. doi:10.1016/j.cose.2015.06.011.

Policy Maintenance

- PM1 Information security policy is consistently updated on a periodic basis.
- PM2 Information security policy is updated when technology changes require it.
- PM3 An established information security policy review and update process exists.
- PM4 Security policy is properly updated on a regular basis.

APPENDIX A

Survey Instrument

Items used a 5-point Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree (Knapp, Marshall, Rainer, & Ford, 2005). Each item begins with the phrase, “In the organization”.

Information Security Program Effectiveness

- E1 The information security program achieves most of its goals.
- E2 The information security program accomplishes its most important objectives.
- E3 Generally speaking, information is sufficiently protected.
- E4 Overall, the information security program is effective.
- E5 The information security program has kept risks to a minimum.

Policy Awareness

- PA1 Employees clearly understand the ramifications of violating security policies.
- PA2 Necessary efforts are made to educate employees about new security policies.
- PA3 Information security awareness is communicated well.
- PA4 An effective security awareness program exists.
- PA5 A continuous, ongoing security awareness program exists.

Policy Enforcement

- PE1 Employees caught violating important security policies are appropriately corrected.
- PE2 Information security rules are enforced by sanctioning the employees who break them.
- PE3 Repeat security offenders are appropriately disciplined.
- PE4 Termination is a consideration for employees who repeatedly break security rules.