Conservation of Resources, Burnout, and Other Selected Behavioral Variables among Law Enforcement Officers: A Quantitative Analysis

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between personal and social resources and burnout for police officers. Current conceptualizations of the condition of burnout are challenged as being too phenomenological and ambiguous, and consequently, not given to direct empirical testing. The conservation of resources model is based on the supposition that people strive to retain, protect, and build resources as a means to protect them from the impacts of burnout. The model proposes that the effects of stress (i.e. burnout) can be manifested in personal and professional attitudes and attributes, which can measure burnout using self-reports to provide strong support for the conservation of resources model, in that, personal and professional demands are related to the exhaustion component of burnout, whereas personal and professional resources can be compiled to counteract the negative impact of the burnout condition. Highly similar patterns of burnout resistance factors were witnessed in police officers in two department precincts. In addition, results confirmed the positive influence of key demographic variables in burnout resistance using the conservation of resources model. Participants in this study are all sheriff's deputies with a populous county in a Pacific Northwestern state. Four instruments will be used in this quantitative study for data collection (a) a series of demographic questions, (b) the Organizational Citizenship Behavior, (c) the PANAS-X Scale, and (d) The Maslach Burnout Inventory.
Keywords: Conservation of Resources, Burnout, Behavioral Variables, Law Enforcement Officer, Quantitative Analysis

Introduction

Police officers are prone to burnout and suffer significantly from its consequences (Crank & Caldero, 2012). A causal factor associated with the onset of burnout is depersonalization in the framework of the police profession (Hawkins, 2001). The effects of burnout are often manifested in stress symptoms, emotional exhaustion, and negative affect, including workplace cynicism (Bennett & Schmitt, 2002; Neiderhoffer, 1967; Violanti & Marshall, 1983), because the police profession is one that is filled with emotional and psychological stressors (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2002). According to Wagner and Brzeczek (1983), interactions with chronic criminals, vagrants, prostitutes, or juvenile delinquents cause much of the stress of police work. The

constant contact with such troubled individuals can also create and reinforce a negative world view (Lyman, 2008; Nelson, 2000). Additionally, police officers confront divergent reactions from noncriminal segments of the population, which can also be stressful. The emotionally charged incidents that officers are routinely called upon to resolve and adjudicate can essentially produce emotional ups and downs and persistent work-related tension (Arrigo & Garsky, 1997; Regehr, LeBlanc, Jelley, & Barath, 2008).

Hence, police work is considered to be a highly stressful occupation. As stated, law enforcement professionals are frequently exposed to the most violent, antisocial, and distrustful groups in society, and police officers are expected to exercise discretion with members of these groups under critical circumstances (Crank, 1991; Pollock, 2007). Police officer is ranked as the second most dangerous occupation (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Police officers are 73.1 times more likely to be assaulted at work than the overall industrial average (Brandl & Stroishine, 2003). Of every 100 officers that performed in a peace officer capacity, 10 were attacked in the course of their duties. In 2010, 532,395 police officers were assaulted while on duty, and 13,962 suffered injury (U.S. Department of Justice, 2010). One of the more prevalent reasons cited for the high incident of assault is that police officers deal with suspects who may not peacefully acquiesce to police officers' instruction (Brandl, 1996; Conlon, 2004). If defiance is encountered, the police officers must use some counterforce rather than ignore the defiance (Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Garner, Buchanan, Schade, & Hepburn, 1996; Mazoni & Eisner, 2006).

In addition to the emotional strain of police work, the police organization itself may also be stress inducing. Spielberger, Westberry, Grier, and Greenfield (1981) have identified some characteristics of the police organization as significant factors in predicting stress among officers. The bureaucratic nature of police organizations, the imposition of impersonal rules, and the distinct chain of command are characteristics that reduce individual input into the organization to a minimal level and therefore cause stress (Coman & Evans, 1991; Noblet, Rodwell & Allisey, 2009). According to Golembiewski and Kim (1991), the quasimilitary nature of police management tends to breed alienation and stress among police officers. In addition, researchers have found that the demanding rules of the policing profession, internal hierarchical positioning, and limited employee promotional opportunities also contribute to officer job stress inside the police organization (Crank, 2004; Kogan, 2001; Kroes, Hurrell & Margolis, 1974).

The physical and emotional consequences that police officers endure make them vulnerable to symptoms of mental illness, and consequently external they suffer high incidents of suicide, divorce and alcoholism (Gilmartin, 2002; Tuck, 2009; Violanti, 1995). Police officer stress also causes them to generally question the value of the public service role, and to specifically question whether to continue their police career (Chia-huei, 2009). Consequently, it is important for law enforcement agencies to evaluate negative affectivity (NA), and organizational citizenship behavior within the context of burnout that results in turnover among its officers.

Background of the Study

Employee retention is a critical concern for police agencies. The loss of a single trained police officer can seriously impact police agencies. Considering the rigorous selection standards (e.g., 1 in 1,000 is qualified for the position; Siegel & Senna, 2005) and that new police officers must successfully complete a total of 8 months of training, cause significant staffing issues in all police agencies. Therefore, managers should take a greater interest in the physical and emotional well-being of the agency employees that they already have. Today's generation of workers does not seek employment in dangerous and high-pressure organizations. The police officer's function is not viewed as desirable and many skilled people disregard the law enforcement profession as a

whole (Jankiewicz, 2000). Simply put, other employment opportunities are more desirable to this generation (McClenahen, 2003).

Police managers and administrators need to implement proactive strategies to help officers, which would, in turn, aid the department in promoting officer longevity (Torres, 2005). The importance of a retention strategy is further supported by recent job trends indicate that it is now harder to locate suitable and/or qualified police applicants (American Police Beat, 2006). For the first time in decades, police departments observed their best candidates take positions in other vocations because of the multitude of options available to the applicant (McClenahen, 2003). Police agencies are finding it hard to compete with the private sector, despite offering high pay and full benefits (Brock, 2010; Lifsher, 1999).

Nationwide, most police agencies have difficulty recruiting police officers (Jones, 2005). Interest in the job of police officer is waning. Today's generation is not interested in assuming the safety risks, long hours, and stress associated to this position (Koogan, 2001). At the local level, competition for suitable candidates is arduous. A strong localized economy (despite the recent recession) couple with the availability of both manufacturing and high tech positions, impact police department's ability to secure suitable applicants (Sullivan, 2007). Also, the volume of police agencies within the Pacific Northwest serves to diminish the available pool of quality police recruits (Hailey, 2006). In the end, conservative estimates predict that few job seekers are qualified for the position based upon the rigid hiring standards, which includes strict preemployment screening (Finneran, 2000). This translates into a severe labor shortage. Inasmuch, recruiting and retaining suitable applicants is a priority among law enforcement agencies nationwide (American Police Beat, 2004; Brand, 1999).

Literature Review

Burnout is an area of particular concern to the law enforcement profession. The compromise of even a single police officer to the condition serves to undermine workplace stability and morale (Whisenand, 2009). The police profession observes a strict culture and set of customs where officers often derive their overt identity and life satisfaction from the profession. Police departments pride themselves in being close-knit organizations where the professional role often transcends the workplace and into the individual officer's life. The inherent dangers of police work require that officers build trust bonds with fellow employees who they often rely upon for their personal safety and well-being (Torres, 2005). Inasmuch, police organizations are often referred to as "families" or "brotherhoods." The influence of burnout can exponentially cripple moral in a police organization. The compromise of a single officer can quickly transcend the individual and affect large components of the employee group given the influence of fraternal relationships (Gilmartin, 2001).

The research study examines what factors may be involved in the frequent burnout of police officers. The first section of the literature review contains the theoretical framework upon which this study is built. The literature review is then organized around the dependent and independent variables in the study, with the second section including a definition for the term burnout and specific studies on burnout in police officers. The third section will define negative affectivity and how that may play a role in burnout. The fourth section will be a discussion of organizational citizenship behavior. The fifth section will include information about police officer demographics and how marital status, gender, race or geographical area may be b related to burnout. The literature review will close with a summary.

Theoretical Framework/Model

The theoretical framework/model for the study (see Figure 1) is based on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll asserted that as the challenge of employees to manage both family and work demands increases, it is important for researchers to study the consequences of professional role stress, as well as work-family demands using COR. Employee perception of insufficient time and energy to successfully engage in work function have been linked to both work and family dissatisfaction and tension, as well as depression and related life stress (Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997).
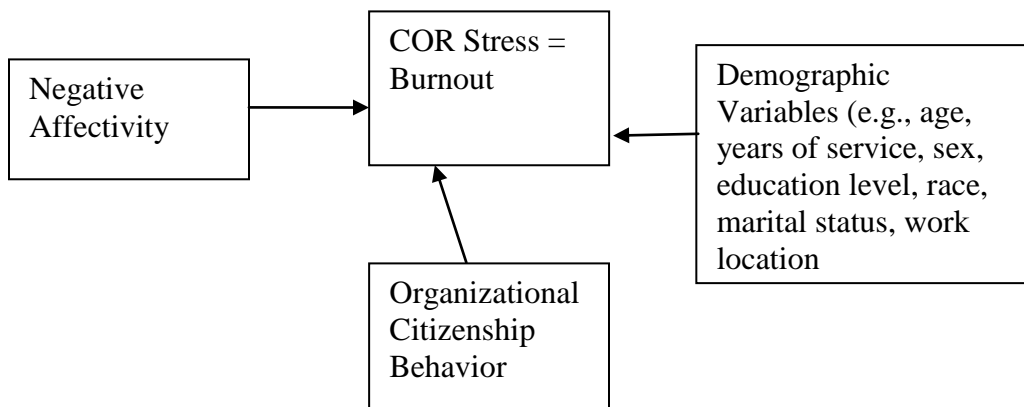

Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

According to Hobfoll (2001), the conservation of resources (COR) theory predicts that resource loss, threatened loss, or lack of replenishment is a primary component of the stress reaction process based on the nature of the environment rather than an individual (McPadden, 2006). The conservation of resources theory recognizes that an individual's environment may be both objectively and socially construed. The ability to both gain and lose resources to address the stress process can be impacted by both internal and external resources to both the collection of actual resources and limitations to access to resources. Both real and implied facilitators and barriers can be uniquely applied to an individual based upon his or her interpersonal status (marital status, education) and also his or her personal make-up (race, gender, sex). Access to resources can be delimiting based upon on a host of internal, as well as, external factors (Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993). As an example, it has been argued that older workers possess more valued resources such as seniority, tenure, and status than younger workers (Parasuraman, Greenhaus & Ganrose, 1992). Women may possess restricted access to resources due to marriage constraints (home pressures), the "glass ceiling" effect, and a lack of suitable mentors (Cooper & Davidson, 1982). Minorities may also face similar restriction in their access to resources based upon lingering discrimination and prejudice. It has been well established that race plays a significant role in the hiring and promotion process in policing (Inciardi, 2007). The advent of the civil service process and affirmative action programs were created in direct response to the lack of opportunity and also access to life resources that minorities experience in the field of criminal justice (Fogelson, 1977).

Hobfall (2001) also states that as greater role conflict is experienced, fewer resources are available to offset the losses. In the end, persons with greater resources access and compilation are better positioned to experience resource gain and avoid the debilitating condition of burnout.

Thus personal, as well as, interpersonal status is predicted to have an effect upon resource acquisition, accumulation, and maintenance (Pleck, 1985).

Hobfall (2001) proposed that people must invest resources to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and resource gain (p. 349). Workplace demands threaten and deplete one's resources. Prolonged exposure to career demands will result in emotional exhaustion, which is a core dimension of the condition of burnout. COR theory has been used to predict a range of stress outcomes in organizational settings including law enforcement. In addition, COR theory includes biological, cognitive, and social components of stress reaction. Consequently, the holistic result of stress among the population of interest in this study (law enforcement officers) is likely to affect and in turn be affected by affectivity, burnout, organizational citizenship behavior, and selected demographic variables.

Burnout

According to Montero-Marin and Garcia-Campayo (2010), burnout has been traditionally defined as a relatively uniform condition in all humans that has basically the same cause and symptoms. Burnout has been defined as the prolonged response to emotional and interpersonal stressors that occur over a prolonged period of time and which are determined by exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy. *Exhaustion* is defined as the feeling that one has nothing left to offer on an emotional level to anyone else. *Cynicism* is defined as feeling disconnected from work, the people served by that work, and colleagues at work. *Inefficacy* is defined as a person's belief that he or she is incompetent at work. These three dimensions have been traditionally considered responsible for burnout (Montero-Marin & Garcia-Campayo, 2010).

Other researchers have defined burnout as a debilitating psychological condition that occurs after a period of unrelieved stress at work (Maslach & Leiter, 2005, 2008; Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2009). Burnout can be seen as a depletion of energy in the individual that leads to emotional exhaustion; burnout also causes a lowered resistance to illness, a noticeable increase in depersonalization in personal relationships, a general increase in the dissatisfaction with life and pessimism, and an increase in absenteeism at work (Maslach & Leiter, 2005; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2009).

Maslach and Leiter (2005) argued that burnout is a systematic disconnect that occurs between a person's real self and his or her expectations of work. As Maslach and Leiter (1997) reported, "Burnout is the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do. It represents an erosion in values, dignity, spirit, and will—an erosion of the human soul" (p. 24). Maslach and Leiter (2005) argued that burnout is not the fault of the individual worker. Instead the fault lies with the impact of the work environment, which either promotes or mitigates burnout. The sources of burnout, according to Maslach and Leiter (2008), are (a) work overload, (b) lack of control, (c) insufficient reward, (d) unfairness, (e) breakdown of a sense of community, and (f) value conflicts. Maslach and Leiter (2008) suggested that leaders in the workplace are responsible for promoting a healthy workplace by determining ways to make the work environment less stressful.

Burnout studies have been conducted on various occupations. A large number of studies have looked at teacher burnout (DeMik, 2008; Schlichte, Yssel, & Merbler, 2005) and burnout in health-care professionals (Marine, Ruotsalainen, Serra, & Verbeek, 2006). Fewer studies have looked at police burnout, which may be, as Kurtz (2009) has reported, because the image society has of the ever-strong police officer, much like the image society projects on fire fighters, is one of an individual who can cope with the stress of the job. The next subsection looks at studies that have focused on police burnout.

Burnout in Law Enforcement

According to GilMartin (2002), "Each year many police officers and their families are devastated by the day-to-day pressures associated with police careers. Stress causes attitude and behavioral changes, impairs family and social relationships, creates a cynical attitude and destroys careers" (p. 48). GilMartin and Harris (2001) stated that stress is the primary factor in law enforcement "burnout." In addition, research conducted over the past several decades has demonstrated that burnout has serious detrimental effects which include depression, a sense of failure, fatigue and loss of career motivation (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Statistics also indicate that continuous exposure to violence significantly contributes to burnout. These affective disorders can lead to early retirement and high suicide rates among police officers.

According to the *American Police Beat* (2004) burnout is ending the careers of many successful and competent police officers. Consequently, American Police Beat concluded that burnout transforms hard-working and productive civil servants into angry and cynical malcontents who underachievers in their roles on a daily basis. Early in their careers, effective street officers learn that the street survival mind set is a necessary tool of the trade (Oglesby, 2003). They begin to interpret the behavior of people and the outside world in general as potentially harmful to their safety and survival (Kappeler, Sluider, & Alpert, 1994). This mind set conditions officers to interpret situations as perilous that most people would not even recognize as potentially dangerous. This perceptual mind-set, which is referred to as *hypervigilance*, creates the capacity to view situations and people as having the capacity to become violent without warning or to create circumstances that threatens an officer's safety and survival (Gilmartin, 2002). Hyper-vigilance, although absolutely necessary for police officer survival, is not without emotional consequences, most notably *burnout*.

Maslach and Jackson (1986) defined burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work in helping professions such as social work, counseling, nursing, and police work. Emotional exhaustion occurs when workers feel emotionally drained by continuous contact with needy people (Richardsen & Martinussen, 2004). Police work is heavily contact oriented, and emotional exhaustion sets in when officers meet with distressed individuals on a daily basis in crisis situations.

Depersonalization is characterized by negative feelings and cynical attitudes toward the recipients of one's services or care (Richardsen & Martinussen, 2004). Over time police officers may depersonalize when they realize their inability to achieve positive outcomes for their service populations (Hawkins, 2001). According to Constant (1992), "Police have a job that must be done well in seemingly impossible circumstances" (p. 1). In addition, police officers frequently assist clients that have learned to depend upon a social system for support and solutions to their problems. People that come into contact with police are often desperate and may use manipulative tactics in order to use the system to their advantage (Segal & Sienna, 2005). As frustration with client behavior begins to grow police officers may begin to view clients not as individuals, but as depersonalized entities. Police officers then begin to view their work and their daily professional contacts in a cynical fashion (Bennett & Schmitt, 2002).

Given the negative outcomes inherent in the delivery of social services, a reduced sense of personal accomplishment may be experienced. According to Richardsen and Martinussen (2004), reduced perceived personal accomplishment results from a tendency to negatively evaluate one's own work. Success in social work, including police work, is often determined by the outcomes in the clients' lives. However, this measure of success is not merely dependent on the work of the

individual police officer but success also on the decisions made by the prosecutor, courts and individual client. Even though officers cannot control the decisions made by others, officers often take responsibility for the poor choices made by the outside entities as their own personal failures. Faced with mounting frustrations, officers often depersonalize to deal with the failures of the system and the client (Hawkins, 2001). All of these factors eventually lead to burnout.

Burnout has been recognized as a serious concern for employers in the criminal justice and all other service industries. Burnout has been linked to negative health effects such as anxiety, depression, decreased self-esteem, cholesterol problems, headaches, diminished psychological well-being, and various other health concerns (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Kahill, 1988; Maslach, 1982, 1993; Shirom, Westman, Shamai, & Carel, 1997). Organizational repercussions are also associated with burnout. Burnout is linked to turnover, decreased employee commitment, and decreased job satisfaction (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Wolpin, Burke, & Greenglass, 1991). Additional symptoms associated with burnout were identified by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) as affective disorders, decreased motivation, and dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors at work.

Negative Affectivity

The second variable of interest in the study is Negative Affectivity (NA), which can be described as a dispositional trait. A dispositional trait is defined as an internalized frame of reference through which a person appraises and reacts to a situation using consistent and stable ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Chiu & Francesco, 2003). NA can also be described as an independent personality trait that can predict attitudes and behavior (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1997; Diener & Emmuns, 1984). Persons high in negative affectivity experience a variety of negative emotions across time and situations (Chiu & Francesco, 2003), and are characterized as being easily distressed, agitated, upset, pessimistic, and dissatisfied. Negative Affectivity is also a chronic mood, state that reflects pervasive individual differences in negative emotionality and self-concept coupled with the tendency to experience negative feelings, such as annoyance and distress (Spector, 2000). Negative affectivity, or neuroticism, encompasses trait anxiety, low self-esteem, and depression. Intuitively, it is a predisposition to view the world in negative terms, leading to self-recrimination, distress, and dissatisfaction (Aaron, 2007).

Individuals high in negative affectivity tend to view themselves negatively and dwell upon mistakes, disappointments, threats and shortcomings (Watson & Clark, 1984). Negative affectivity has been examined in an organizational context to determine the relationship between negative affectivity and turnover (Chiu & Francesco, 2003). Their study was designed to determine the effects of dispositional traits including negative affectivity on the turnover intentions of Chinese managers. The results of the study indicated that high negative affectivity scores were related to high turnover intention. Other studies have measured the effect of negative affectivity on health and on job satisfaction (Agho et al., 1993; Chiu & Kosinski, 1999; Cropanzano, James & Citera, 1993; Levin & Stokes, 1989; Staw, Sutton, & Felled, 1986). The results show that negative affectivity has negative effects on both. Negative affectivity manifests itself in an associated lack of self-worth, which impacts the police officer's capacity to display confidence in critical decision making (Crank, 1991; Klockars, 1980). Although previous research has been designed to assess the relationships between negative affectivity, job satisfaction and turnover intention, no research has assessed the relationship between negative affectivity and burnout. It is hypothesized that high negative affectivity will positively correlate with Burnout and negatively with Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior
The third variable that will be analyzed during the current study is Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). OCB was initially defined by Organ (1988) as discretionary behavior directed at individual organization members or at organizations as a whole, which goes beyond existing role expectations, and benefits an organization and/or is intended to benefit it. Two features of the OCB definition are salient. OCB has been defined as individual helping behaviors and gestures that are organizationally beneficial, but are not formally required (Muchinsky, 2009; Organ, 1990). First, the behavior is voluntary and not assigned by a job description or role in the organization; second, the behavior benefits the organization from the organization perspective (Hui, Lam & Law, 2000; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Lepine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) have suggested that OCB is composed of five dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Altruism consists of discretionary behaviors which are aimed at helping persons with an organizationally relevant task or problem. Employees engaging in high OCB demonstrate high suitability to the professional policing model. Such employees tend to keep themselves informed of topical issues, attend organizational meetings and contribute to discussions, as well as involvement in organizational activities that assist and improve the organization and its subsidiaries.

Other definitions of OCB focus on the target of the behaviors. One such definition divides OCB into two categories; (a) OCBI behaviors that immediately benefit particular individuals, and; (b) OCBO, or behaviors that benefit the organization as a whole (Podakoff, MacKenzie & Moorman, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). This definition is essentially an examination of the antecedents and levels of targets in the organization (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Other researchers have found that OCBO had contextual antecedents (e.g., reward, equity) and OCBI had personal disposition antecedents (e.g., empathy; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). These definitions provide more of an insight into the possible motivations that result in the observable behavior.

After an extensive review of available research, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (2000) defined organizational citizenship behavior by grouping OCB behaviors into seven different categories. The seven categories are helping behaviors, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. For the purposes of the present study, this definition of OCB, which focuses on specific types of behaviors, will be employed. It is hypothesized that police officers engaging in these behaviors will be more likely to experience burnout due to the higher likelihood that they will exhaust themselves. Specifically, officers who take on more responsibility than they are asked to take on for a specific job could run the risk of overburdening themselves.

Summary
Public expectations of police are quite high; the public expects police to respond to their problems 24 hours a day and 7 days a week. Society has come to expect police to respond immediately to problems, to be courteous, and to solve problems satisfactorily. Many police officers initially internalize this expectation. In fact, the desire to help people and achieve positive outcomes for others is often cited as reasons for entering policing (Raganella & White, 2004). However, the ability to achieve these outcomes is often controlled by others. Police administrators, prosecutors, judges, and legislators generally decide the outcomes of law enforcement encounters with the public. The decision to decline to prosecute a case, impose a less than favorable outcome to a case, or to legislate controversial laws are directives outside of the control of police officers (Thibault, Lynch, & McBride, 2004). These decisions can

sometimes undermine police officer decision making and morale, leading to officer negative affect and burnout.

Some police officers take their public responsibilities more seriously than others. Within police agencies there are individual differences in OCB. Some officers go well beyond their job descriptions and do everything they can to satisfy public expectations. Other officers do the minimum to avoid getting fired, and most are somewhere in between (Manning, 1978).

It is hypothesized that those officers that are higher in OCB will manifest greater symptoms of burnout than those lower in OCB. Perhaps officers higher in OCB are more negatively affected by the numerous obstacles to effective police work discussed above; the indifference and sometimes hostility shown by the public toward police officers; the complexities of the criminal justice process that sometimes negates police work; and of course the ongoing efforts by criminal to violate laws and evade police control. Officer lower in OCB may be less adversely affected by these constant frustrations.

Hypotheses

HO1. There are no statistically significant relationships between burnout (MBI) and negative affectivity (PANAS-X).

HO2. There are no statistically significant relationships between burnout (MBI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

HO3. There are no statistically significant relationships between age and burnout (MBI).

HO4. There are no statistically significant relationships between years of service and burnout (MBI).

HO5. There are no statistically significant relationships between education level and burnout (MBI).

HA1. There are statistically significant relationships between burnout (MBI) and negative affectivity (PANAS-X).

HA2. There are statistically significant relationships between burnout (MBI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

HA3. There are statistically significant relationships between age and burnout (MBI).

HA4. There are statistically significant relationships between years of service and burnout (MBI).

HA5. There are statistically significant relationships between education level and burnout (MBI).

The study examined differences in burnout as delineated by selected personal/internal resources (i.e., race and gender) among police officers in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State

Hypotheses Testing Burnout and Selected Personal/Internal Resources

HO 6. There are no statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by male and female participants.

HO7. There are no statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by Caucasian and non-Caucasian participants.

HA6. There are statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by male and female participants.

HA7. There are statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by Caucasian and non-Caucasian participants.

The study also examined differences in burnout as delineated by selected social/external resources (i.e., precinct location, marital status) among police officers in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State.

Hypotheses Testing Burnout and Selected Social/External Resources
HO8. There are no statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by North and South precincts.
HO9. There are no statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by married and not married participants.
HA8. There are statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by North and South precincts.
HA9. There are statistically significant differences between Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by married and not married participants.

Methodology

This research design is classified as a quantitative descriptive survey study design, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005). The research study will utilize survey instruments for data collection. Nardi (2003) explained that surveys are efficient and effective research tools to use when researchers want to obtain a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time.

The methodology utilized is based upon the conservation of resources model (Hobfall, 1989). The model encompasses several stress theories and proposes that persons seek to acquire and maintain adequate personal resources to address both family and workplace demands. Resources that are sought include conditions (married status and workplace tenure), personal characteristics (self-esteem), and energies (time, money, and knowledge). The variables represented in this study serve to represent these resources. Stress represents a natural consequence to the real or perceived loss of these resources. The perceived loss of resources can lead to a negative state of mind, which may manifest itself in a variety of behaviors to include depression, anxiety, or dissatisfaction. Behaviors such as workplace separation may be initiated as a coping mechanism to address the real or perceived threat to the loss of resources. If some behavior is not engaged in a person's resources may become so depleted that burnout will ensue (Hobfoll & Shriom, 1993, Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Burnout, and key resources represent the tenets of this research study.

Sampling
Participants in this study are all sheriff's deputies a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State ($N = 274$). The department is delineated by North and South precincts, which have nearly equivalent staffing. The median age of personnel is 45 years of age. The department's race composition is predominately White (97%), with Hispanic (2%), Black (1%), rounding out the ranks (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2008). Gender representation is largely male (92%). The average years of experience for personnel are 12 years of law enforcement service (Niebusch, 2005).

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) indicate that, although survey participation rates vary widely depending on the nature and length of the survey questionnaire, participation averages 20%. Police officers, as a population, exhibit assertive and altruistic personality traits (Kurke & Scrivner, 1995). Therefore, it was expected that this research population will exceed the average return rate. As a result, it was approximated that 72 completed surveys would be returned to the researcher. The estimate exceeded the minimum requirement for parametric statistical assumptions ($N = 30$) based on the Central Limit Theorem (Berenson, Levine, & Krehbiel, 2006). However, a small sample does serve to limit external validity of the findings (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

In order to maximize participation rates and corresponding external validity of the findings, the sampling method included probability and nonprobability procedures. First, the research agency provided information regarding the survey to all deputies, which provided an authoritative motivation. Consequently, there is a simple random characteristic of probability that everyone in the available population had an equal chance of participating. Second, nonprobability sampling characteristics of convenience and purpose are part of the sampling method (Nardi, 2003). More details on the data collection procedures are reported later in this chapter.

Measures

Burnout (MBI). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986), which is one of the most widely used measures of burnout (Richardsen & Martinussen, 2004). The scale of measurement for the MBI survey is ratio in nature. The MBI, shown in Appendix A, was designed to categorize burnout into three subscales: (a) Emotional Exhaustion; (b) Depersonalization; and (c) Personal Accomplishment. There are 22 questions on the survey that are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale of frequency, ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the subscales are (a) .90 for Emotional Exhaustion; (b) .79 for Depersonalization; and (c) .71 for Personal Accomplishment (Richardsen & Martinussen, 2004). These values exceed the baseline metric associated with highly reliable survey instruments according to Nardi (2003). The test-retest reliability coefficients for the subscales are also excellent: (a) .82 for Emotional Exhaustion; (b) .80 for Personal Accomplishment; and (c) .60 for Depersonalization ($p < .001$; Leiter & Maslach, 1988, Maslach, 1993).

The Emotional Exhaustion subscale (nine items) measures personal over-extension at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). An example of an item from this subscale is "I feel used up at the end of the day." Scores of 16 or less are considered low, 17 through 26 are moderate, and scores above 26 are high. Questions 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16, and 20 of the MBI address Emotional Exhaustion.

The Depersonalization subscale (five items) measures an unfeeling response towards those receiving services from the respondent (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). An example of this subscale is "I don't really care what happens to some recipients." On this subscale, a score of 6 or less is low, 7 through 12 is moderate, and 13 or higher is considered high. Questions 5, 10, 11, 15, and 22 address Depersonalization. The Personal Accomplishment subscale (eight items) assesses feelings of competence and achievement from one's work with people (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). An example of this is "I feel I'm positively influencing other people lives through my work." The scale of measurement for the MBI survey is interval in nature. However, when the subcategory ratings are averaged for the applicable question responses, the data becomes ratio level.

Overall, cumulative scores for all questions of 39 or higher reflect low levels of burnout, 32 through 28 moderate levels, and 31 or lower indicate high levels of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Questions 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19, and 21 address Personal Accomplishment.

MBI scoring was performed cumulatively according to the authors' directives (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Each question's average rating, the subcategory cumulative average rating (e.g., emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization), and the total cumulative average of all question/subcategory ratings were reported descriptively. Then, the total cumulative average by all participant ratings for all questions was averaged (i.e., cumulative score divided by the number of participants) and evaluated by demographic variable delineation. MBI total cumulative average ratings by participant were used in the inferential statistical

calculations from which to test the corresponding hypothesis. This variable utilized interval level data.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The scale used to measure OCB has 24 questions divided into five subcategories (e.g., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue) and was authored as public domain by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). The individual statements are rated on a 7-point Likert scale from ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree),* to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). The subcategory *sportsmanship* is reverse scored to increase the validity of the survey representation of organizational citizenship behavior. The scale of measurement for the OCB survey is interval in nature. However, when the subcategory ratings are averaged for the applicable questions, the data becomes ratio level. The overall Cronbachs alpha coefficient was .87 and exceeds the benchmark for internal consistency among survey questions of .70 as reported by Berenson, Levine and Krehbiel (2006). Saathoff (2009) also concluded that the OCB scale by Podsakoff et al. (1990) is the most widely used instrument in research. This variable will utilize interval level data. See Appendix C for a reprint of the OCB instrument questions and rating scale.

OCB scoring was performed cumulatively according to the authors (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Each question's average rating, the subcategory cumulative average rating (e.g., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue), and the total cumulative average of all question/subcategory ratings were reported descriptively. The sportsmanship subcategory was reverse scored. Then, the total cumulative average by all participant ratings for all questions was averaged (i.e., cumulative score divided by the number of participants) and evaluated by demographic variable delineation. OCB total cumulative average ratings by participant were used in the inferential statistical calculations from which to test the corresponding hypothesis.

Negative affectivity. The PANAS-X scale measures 60 emotions. The participant rates how they usually feel in regard to the emotions presented. The anchors of the survey are based on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). The scale of measurement for the PANAS-X survey is interval in nature. However, when the ratings are averaged for all question responses among all survey participants, the data becomes interval level.

Negative affectivity is evaluated by a modified version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X scale). The modification of the scale consisted of a reduction of the amount of items on the scale for the current study from 60 to 20; 10 descriptors for positive affect (PA) scale (attentive, interested, alert, excited, enthusiastic, inspired, proud, determined, strong and active); and 10 descriptors for negative affect (NA) scale (distressed, upset-distressed; hostile, irritable-angry; scared, afraid-fearful; ashamed, guilty; nervous, and jittery). The validity for the negative affect portion of the PANAS scale ranges from .92 to .95 (Watson & Clark, 1999). The Cronbachs alpha reliability coefficients for the scale range from .85 to .90 for negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1999). See Appendix B for a reprint of the PANAS-X scale questions and rating system.

Each rating on the PANAS-X positive and negative affect descriptions were totaled, averaged, and reported descriptively and evaluated by demographic variable delineation. Next, the positive and negative affect cumulative scores (i.e., sum of all ratings by all participants) were averaged (i.e., cumulative score divided by the number of participants) and compared. The cumulative negative affect average rating by participant was used in the inferential statistical calculations from which to test the corresponding hypothesis.

Demographic variables. Demographic information were obtained from the sample via survey responses that includes age (in years), sex (male, female), race (Caucasian, non-Caucasian),

years of service, education level (high school, some college, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctorate), marital status (married, not-married, divorced), and precinct location. The scale of measurement for the demographic variables examined in this survey were measured at multiple levels to include, age, education, and years of service at the ordinal level. Race, sex, marital status, and precinct location were measured at the nominal level.

Each of the demographic variables were numerically scored for data analysis purposes associated to the SPSS software platform. Each of the measures produced a numerical score associated and entered to facilitate statistical analysis. For each ordinal and nominal measure, numeric association corresponded to each of the demographic choices offered to study participants. The variable of age was separated into four categories to include ages 21-30 = 1, ages 31-40 = 2, ages 41-50 = 3, ages 51 and over = 4. Education level was scored using a similar system: high school diploma/GED = 1, some college = 2, associate's degree = 3, bachelor's degree = 4, master's degree = 5, doctorate = 6. Year of service was scored: years 1-2 = 1, years 3-4 = 2, years 5-10 = 3, years 11-15 = 4, years 16-20 = 5, 21+ years of service = 6. Race was scored: White = 1, Black = 2, Hispanic = 3, Asian = 4, Native American = 5, Other = 6. Marital status utilized the same numerical model: never married = 1, married = 2, divorced = 3. Precinct location followed the same nominal model: North Precinct = 1 and South Precinct = 2.

Data Collection and Analysis
Description of the Sample
Data sets were collected using a questionnaire survey (posted on Surveymonkey.com) and was available to participants from September 6th, 2011 through September 30th, 2011. Invitations to participate in the survey were distributed via email to 274 active officers for both the North and South precincts on September 6, 2011 using the internal Microsoft Outlook e-mail exchange server. To encourage participation, a full-color flyer was posted in high traffic locations at both precincts (North and South). Additionally, participation was verbally endorsed by the Sheriff of a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State in staff meetings for the duration of the survey. When the participants accessed the survey, they were asked to read and electronically sign a consent form for their responses to be used in the study. On completion of the questions, they were asked to submit the survey electronically. Upon submission of the survey, the results were then e-mailed from surveymonkey.com to the researcher's personal email address. The data was then transferred into SPSS and the appropriate statistical tests were run to determine significance. This study included participants ($n = 81$) employed as sheriff's deputies in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State. Table 1 presents demographic data related to the subjects included in the sample:

Table 1 Summary of the Demographic Variables of the Study

Variable	Response Options	N
Precinct	North	36
	South	45
Gender	Men	75
	Women	6
Race	White	75
	Non-White	6
Marital Status	Married	42
	Non-Married	39
Age	21 – 30	19
	31 – 40	26
	41 – 50	24
	51 and over	12
Tenure	1 – 2 Years	16
	3 – 4 Years	26
	5 – 10 Years	21
	11 – 15 years	13
	16 – 20 years	5
Education	HS Diploma/GED	23
	Some College	19
	Associates Degree	27
	Bachelor's Degree	10
	Master's Degree	1
	Doctorate	1

The North precinct represented 44.4% of the sample, and the South precinct represented 55.6% of the sample. The age ranges were as follows: 21 - 30 (23.5%), 31 - 40 (32.1%), 41 - 50 (29.6%), 51 and over (14.8%). 92.6% were Caucasian and 7.4% were non-white. 51.9% of the participants were married and 48.1% were not married. The years of experience were as follows: 1 - 2 years (19.8%), 3 - 4 years (32.1%), 5 - 10 years (25.9%), 11 - 15 years (16%), and 16 - 20 years (6.2%). The education levels were as follows: HS Diploma/GED (28.4%), Some College (23.5%), Associates Degree (33.3%), Bachelor's Degree (12.3%), Master's Degree (1.2%) and Doctorate (1.2%).

The response rate between the two precincts (North v. South) was anticipated. Although there are similar numbers of Deputy Sheriff's working at the two locations, the placement of Deputies is predicated on a seniority based, employee bid system. The North Precinct experiences a lower call for service load. As previously mentioned the North Precinct population cache resides in a more rural environment and attracts more senior labor pool. Violanti and Aron (1993) state that the more senior the officer the more pronounced the "burnout" behavior. Lower survey return rates would present a natural outcome given the seniority disparity. The gender representation is not unanticipated. Hickey (2007) estimates the percentage of women in policing at 8 percent, which was consistent to the survey agency in percentage of female workforce among commissioned personnel (Niebusch, 2005). Nearly 78% of the surveys were returned by Deputies that possessed less than 11 years of experience. The average year of service within the research agency is 12 years of experience (Niebusch, 2005). Once again, the experience level of the Deputies that returned the survey would consistent with the complacency that occurs following 11 year of service, or the "realism" phase described by Schlnick and Bayler (1986) and represented in table 1: Police syndromes. The educational attainment of the participants is remarkable. Thibault, Lynch, and McBride (2004) estimate that 22% percent of police officers nationwide possess a college degree. In the present study, 48% of those that completed the survey possess a college degree. Nationwide, 38% of Americans hold a college degree, but in Washington State 42% of residents hold a college degree. The survey agency's educational attainment would be in keeping with the national and state average, but far in excess of median police populations. Marital status of employees is not made public.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 examines the relationship between *negative affectivity* (as measured by the PANAS-X scale) and *burnout* (as measured by the MBI scale). Specifically, the hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between *burnout* (MBI) and

negative affectivity (PANAS-X). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson Product-Moment correlation was conducted using a two-tailed test at α = .05. The results (see Table 2) indicate that there is a positive correlation between negative affectivity (*M* = 18.210 *SD* = 7.368) and burnout (*M* = 70.531 SD = 13.683), *r* = .889, *p* < .001, *n* = 81.

Table 2 The Pearson Correlation Results for the Relationship Between Burnout and Negative Affectivity

Correlations

		Burnout	Negative Affectivity
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	1	.889**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	81	81
NegativeAffectivity	Pearson Correlation	.889**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	81	81

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For this study, the Negative Affectivity Scale and the Burnout Scale correlate at a significant level with each other. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with higher scores in negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 examines the relationship between *organizational citizenship behavior* (OCB) and *burnout,* as measured by the MBI scale. Specifically, the hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between *burnout* (MBI) and *organizational citizenship behavior* (OCB). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was conducted using a two-tailed test at α = .05. The results (see Table 3) indicate that there is a significant negative correlation between *organizational citizenship behavior* (*M* = 129.333 *SD* = 24.971) and *burnout* (*M* = 70.531 *SD* = 13.683), *r* = -.744, *p* < .001, *n* = 81.

Table 3 The Pearson Correlation Results for the Relationship Between Burnout and OCB

Correlations

		Burnout	OCB
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	1	-.744**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	81	81
OCB	Pearson Correlation	-.744**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	81	81

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

For this study, organizational citizenship behavior and burnout correlate at a significant level with each other. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with lower scores in organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 examines the relationship between *age* and *burnout* as measured by the MBI scale. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between *age* and *burnout* (MBI). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was conducted using a two-tailed test at α = .05. The results (see Table 4) indicate that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between *age* (*M* = 2.407 *SD* = 1.034) and *burnout* (*M* = 70.531 SD = 13.683), *r* = .223, *p* = .045, *n* = 81.

Table 4 The Pearson Correlation Results for the Relationship Between Burnout and Age

Correlations		Burnout	Age
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	1	.223*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.045
	N	81	81
Age	Pearson Correlation	.223*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	
	N	81	81

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For this study, age and burnout correlate at a significant level with each other. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with increasingly advanced age of the participants.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 examines the relationship between *years of service* and *burnout* as measured by the MBI scale. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between *years of service* and *burnout* (MBI). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was conducted using a two-tailed test at α = .05. The results (see Table 5) indicate that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between *years of service* ($M = 2.568$ $SD = 1.161$) and *burnout* ($M = 70.531$ $SD = 13.683$), $r = .871$, $p < .001$, $n = 81$.

Table 5 The Pearson Correlation Results for the Relationship Between Burnout and Years of Service

Correlations		Burnout	Years Of Service
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	1	.871**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	81	81
YearsOfService	Pearson Correlation	.871**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	81	81

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For this study, years of service and burnout correlate at a significant level with each other. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with longer years of service.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 examines the relationship between *education level* and *burnout* as measured by the MBI scale. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between *education level* and *burnout* (MBI). To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was conducted using a two-tailed test at α = .05. The results (see Table 6) indicate that there is a statistically significant negative correlation between *education level* ($M = 2.333$ $SD = 1.061$) and *burnout* ($M = 70.531$ $SD = 13.683$), $r = -.781$, $p < .001$, $n = 81$.

Table 6 The Pearson Correlation Results for the Relationship Between Burnout and Education Level

Correlations

		Burnout	Education Level
Burnout	Pearson Correlation	1	-.781**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	81	81
EducationLevel	Pearson Correlation	-.781**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	81	81

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For this study, *education level* and *burnout* correlate at a statistically significant level with each other. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with lower education obtained by the participants.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 examines the differences in burnout scores as measured by the MBI scale between male and female participants. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There is no statistically significant relationship between burnout (MBI) delineated by male and female participants. To test this hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the difference in burnout scores in male and female participants using a two-tailed test at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 7 The Independent t-Test Results for the Differences in Mean Scores between Burnout and Gender

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variances assumed	.151	.699	-1.049	79	.297	-6.08667	5.80160	-17.63446	5.46112
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.029	5.792	.344	-6.08667	5.91443	-20.68565	8.51232

For this study, there was not a significant difference in the scores (see Table 7) for male ($M = 70.080$, $SD = 13.655$) and female ($M = 76.167$, $SD = 13.963$); $t (79) = -1.049$, $p = .297$. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 examines the differences in burnout scores as measured by the MBI scale between White and non-White participants. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There are no statistically significant differences between burnout (MBI) delineated by White and non-White participants. To test this hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare burnout scores in White and non-White participants using a two-tailed test at $\alpha = .05$ (see Table 8).

Table 8 The Independent t-Test Results for the Differences in Mean Scores Between Burnout and Race

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variances assumed	.286	.594	1.314	79	.193	7.59333	5.77907	-3.90961	19.09628
	Equal variances not assumed			1.119	5.565	.309	7.59333	6.78639	-9.33212	24.51878

For this study, there was not a statistically significant difference in the scores for White participants ($M = 71.093$, $SD = 13.431$) and non- White participants ($M = 63.500$, $SD = 16.183$); t (79) = 1.314, p = .193. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 8
Hypothesis 8 examines the differences in burnout scores as measured by the MBI scale between the North and South precincts. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There are no statistically significant differences between burnout (MBI) delineated by North and South precincts. To test this hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare burnout scores delineated by the North and South precincts using a two-tailed test at α = .05 (see Table 9).

Table 9 The Independent t-Test Results for the Differences in Mean Scores between Burnout and Precinct

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variances assumed	.003	.955	-.099	79	.921	-.30556	3.07875	-6.43365	5.82253
	Equal variances not assumed			-.100	76.837	.921	-.30556	3.05849	-6.39599	5.78488

For this study, there was not a significant difference in the scores for the North precinct ($M = 70.361$, $SD = 13.314$) and the South precinct ($M = 70.667$, $SD = 14.120$); t (79) = -.099, p = .921. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 9
Hypothesis 9 examines the differences in burnout scores as measured by the MBI scale between married and not married participants. The hypothesis being tested is as follows: There are no statistically significant differences between burnout (MBI) delineated by married and not married participants. To test this hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare burnout scores delineated by married and not married participants using a two-tailed test at α = .05 (see Table 10).

Table 10 The Independent t-Test Results for the Differences in Mean Scores between Burnout and Marital Status

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variances assumed	.046	.831	-4.987	79	.000	-13.31685	2.67037	-18.63209	-8.00161
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.960	75.353	.000	-13.31685	2.68502	-18.66527	-7.96843

There was a significant difference in the scores for married participants (*M* = 64.119, *SD* = 11.129) and not married participants (*M* = 77.436, SD = 12.890); *t* (79) = -4.987, *p* < .001. For this study, there is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores, with not married participants showing significantly higher burnout scores than married participants. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is accepted. As such, higher burnout scores were associated with non-married participants.

Results, Conclusions and Recommendations
Discussion of the Results
Research Question 1. Research question 1 examines the correlations between burnout (MBI), negative affectivity (PANAS-X), burnout (MBI), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and selected demographic variables (e.g., age, years of service, and education level) for deputy sheriffs in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State.

Hypotheses for Research Question 1. Hypothesis 1 examines the relationship between burnout (MBI) and negative affectivity (PANAS-X). The statistical results of this study show a significant positive correlation (r = .889, p < .001, n = 81) between burnout and negative affectivity, consistent with findings of previous research. While no research has been conducted specifically on the relationship between burnout and negative affectivity, several studies show that negative affectivity has an adverse impact on turnover (Chiu & Francesco, 2003), a damaging effect on health and job satisfaction (Agho et al., 1993; Chiu & Kosinski, 1999; Cropanzano, James & Citera, 1993; Levin & Stokes, 1989; Staw, Sutton, & Felled, 1986), and decreases an officer's confidence when critical decisions must be made (Crank, 1991; Klockars, 1980).

Hypothesis 2 examines the relationship between burnout (MBI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The statistical results of this study show a significant negative correlation (r = -.744, p < .001, n = 81) between burnout and organizational citizenship behavior, consistent with findings of previous research. In a study on the negative consequences of emotional exhaustion, it was found that the relationship between emotional exhaustion (a condition of burnout) and effective work behaviors was mediated by a commitment to the organization (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003).

Hypothesis 3 examines the relationship between age and burnout (MBI). The statistical results of this study show a significant positive correlation (*r* = .223, *p* = .045, n = 81) between burnout and age, consistent with findings of previous research.

Hypothesis 4 examines the relationship between years of service and burnout (MBI). The statistical results of this study show a significant positive correlation (*r* = .871, *p* < .001, n = 81) between burnout and years of service, consistent with findings of previous research. Bouza (1990) determined that multi-faceted roles expected of a police officer, and the inability to meet

these unrealistic goals to personal satisfaction, quickly depletes personal resources and creates a state of mind that leads, ultimately, to burnout. The optimism that is present in the expectations and attitudes of officers early in their career is replaced by increased personal and organizational cynicism and stress.

Hypothesis 5 examines the relationship between education level and burnout (MBI). The statistical results of this study show a significant negative correlation (r = -.781, $p < .001$, n = 81) between burnout and education level, consistent with the findings of previous research. A 2003 study of nurses working at university and state hospitals in an urban setting determined that education level was a valid predictor of burnout, with education negatively correlated with the experience of burnout (Demir A, Ulusoy M, & Ulusoy MF, 2003).

Research Question 2. Research question 2 examines the differences in burnout (MBI), negative affectivity (PANAS-X), burnout (MBI), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), as delineated by selected demographic variables (e.g., North/South precinct, male/female, Caucasian/non-Caucasian, married/not married) among deputy sheriffs in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State.

Hypotheses for Research Question 2. Hypothesis 6 examines the differences in Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by male and female participants. For this study, there was not a significant difference in the scores (t (79) =-1.049, p = .297) and the null hypothesis was accepted. This finding is consistent with McCarty, Zhao, and Garland (2007) who determined that while women may have unique circumstances that put them at higher risk for burnout, there was not a statistically significant difference between male and female participants. Similarly, Kurtz (2009) determined that males and females experience the effects of burnout differently due to differences in the method of expressing stress (telling war stories for males; showing emotional vulnerability for females); the level of family support, and lower salaries and tenure for females.

Hypothesis 7 examines the differences in Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by White and non-White participants. For this study, there was not a significant difference in the scores (t (79) = 1.314, p = .193) and the null hypothesis was accepted. This finding is not consistent with a study by He, Zhao, and Ren (2005) who found that White male officers reported higher levels of stress than Black male officers. The researchers in this study allowed that few studies have examined the relationship between race and burnout and that more research should be conducted to determine if stress affects the races differently.

Hypothesis 8 examines the differences in Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by North and South precincts. For this study, there was not a significant difference in the scores (t (79) = -.099, p = .921) and the null hypothesis was accepted. Morash, Haarr, and Kwak (2006) examined stress in different locales and found no variables in community conditions, token status, and lack of social support that would reliably predict stress. In this study, the North and South precincts were demographically and geographically similar enough to produce no statistically significant differences.

Hypothesis 9 examines the differences in Burnout (MBI ratings) delineated by married not married participants. For this study, there was a significant difference in the scores for married participants and not married participants (t (79) = -4.987, $p < .001$) with not married participants showing significantly higher burnout scores than married participants. This is consistent with the findings of Martinussen, Richardsen, and Burke (2007), whose research showed that stability in marriage increased job satisfaction and had a mediating effect on the demands of the occupation and a lack of other resources that act as a buffer for burnout. In addition, White and Honig

(1995) found that satisfactory communication with a spouse was correlated with a decrease in burnout.

The results of this study identify demographics that are more highly affected by burnout. Additionally, the internal resources organizational citizenship behavior and negative affectivity showed mitigating effects on burnout. Understanding that burnout has a negative impact on the individual officer that affects both personal and professional life; and that burnout has a negative impact on the department, creating a revolving door of employees that have careers of limited duration, adding financial strain to the department due to hiring and training replacement recruits and affecting the stability and morale of the department. The current hiring process for police recruits includes a pre-employment screening that determines an individual's suitability for police work. In addition to questions about demographics that could potentially exclude a candidate from employment (age and education level attained) it also includes a battery of medical, psychological and background tests that determine a candidate's ability to perform as an officer. While the current process requires an examination by a psychologist and several psychological screenings, there are no tools used to predict the probability that an individual candidate is at a high risk for burnout and therefore be an asset or liability to the department. Screenings for the internal resources of organizational citizenship behavior and negative affect would allow police departments to make determinations on hiring that could predict the success and longevity of an officer's career.

There were limitations to this study that could not be avoided. This study only examined scores of deputy officers employed by the research agency, and may not be generalizable to urban police departments. In addition, there is an overrepresentation of White male participants, also due to the singular nature of the population examined. The non-experimental nature of the study eliminated the ability to utilize a control group and state that any one variable had a direct effect on burnout. Finally, because this study was conducted using an online survey tool concerns arose regarding the ability of the participant's ability to use this tool accurately. Many of the participants were over the age of 46 and their familiarity and competence with utilizing technology revealed possible deficits.

Discussion of the Conclusions

Police face a unique set of stressors that can be mitigated by personal, social, and professional resources. At this time, police departments are able to screen applicants using psychological tools such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI and MMPI-2). While these tools are invaluable at determining an individual's appropriateness for police work on scales such as depression, paranoia, psychasthenia and social introversion, they are poor predictors of a candidate's ability to withstand burnout and the accompanying emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work in high-stress professions. At this time, prescreening measures and rigorous academic and physical training determine an individual's suitability at the beginning of their career, but are not good predictors of suitability when we examine burnout and the factors that influence it.

In the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfall, 1989) states that an individual's experience of stress is related to the challenge of managing work and home related issues that arise, and that the inability to successfully navigate these issues can result in tension, depression, and dissatisfaction. As role conflict increases, fewer resources become available to mitigate the stressful effects of the losses (Hobfall, 2001). Long-term exposure to stressors can threaten and deplete the individual's resources, despite attempts to mitigate or minimize losses, at a rate that

is higher than the individual's ability to replenish them, creating a constant deficit of resources (Sonnentag, 2001). Individuals with stable internal resources, such as high organizational citizenship behavior and low negative affectivity, appear to be better equipped to cope with burnout. In addition, demographic variables such as marital status, education and length of time in position may add additional protective barriers to emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

At this time, police departments do not have the ability to predict a candidate's likelihood to have a long and successful career. Most of the characteristics that are examined within the hiring process are overt: age, gender, race, marital status, and education level. While this study shows a favorable relationship between married, educated individuals and their ability to withstand burnout, this information does not predict that other, crucial components such as high organizational citizenship behavior and low negativity are also present. Similarly, while medical tests, psychological screenings, background checks can indicate a candidate's suitability for the job, they do not assess underlying assets that can predict a good fit for a career in police work. Based on the results of this study, it is clear that desirable attributes that are not currently included in the hiring criteria may be a better predictor of success, specifically individual's that show high organizational citizenship behavior and low negative affectivity. Adding these scales to the battery of psychological tests administered during the prescreening process is an upfront investment for the individual, department, and community; but based on the current information provided in this study, would be an investment that would pay off in officers with greater experience, resilience to stressors that are inherent in police work, and cohesiveness within the department. Finally, selecting a candidate with greater access to internal and external resources who is better able to acquire, accumulate and maintain resources to avoid the incapacitating state of burnout is a benefit to the individual officer, allowing for a career that is satisfying and meets their personal, social and occupational goals.

Limitations

Because of the nature of this study, limitations exist that could not be controlled by the researcher. The participants in the study are all deputy sheriffs in a populous county in a Pacific Northwest State who completed a survey delivered via link to their work email address. This group was chosen because of the familiarity and convenience of the researcher. The participant's dual relationship as both employee and participant may have created a bias that affected their ability to honestly and accurately provide information that is sensitive and personal in nature. In addition, because there were no comparisons to agencies outside of the research agency, which is a combination of rural and suburban locations, it is impossible to infer the results of this study to urban police departments. Another limitation was tied to the population of interest: females and non-White minorities are underrepresented in the participant pool. The national average for females on a police force is 14.3%, while the females in this study made up only 7.4% of the total participants. The national average for non-White officers on a police force is 8%, and in this study represented only 7.4% of the total participants. The result of this variance from the national average is an overrepresentation of White male participants. Finally, there are inherent limitations and confounding variables to the structure of a correlational study due to the lack of a control group and therefore an inability to determine cause of relationships and differences. The result is an inability to infer the results to the entire population of police officers in the United States.

Conclusions

An individual's ability to cope with stress depends significantly on the internal traits and external resources that they possess; and their ability to gain new resources, maintain current resources and recoup lost resources. Hobfall's conservation of resources (COR) model tells us that those best suited for a career in policing possess personal attributes or resources that allow them to weather personal, family and career crises. Using Hobfall's model as a template, the psychological battery of tests for law enforcement should include screening applicants for personal resources to be drawn upon in times of stress, which should better predict career longevity. Two measures that predict a candidate's susceptibility to burnout are the traits organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and negative affectivity (NA). OCB is characterized by an individual participating in helping behaviors and gestures that benefit an organization or community and come from an internal desire to help, rather than an external requirement placed upon them. NA is characterized by negative emotional states that include pessimism, cynicism and a negative world view, and is frequently accompanied by feelings of depression and low self-esteem. Screening potential candidates for their placement on scales of OCB and NA would allow transparency on individual traits that are critical in the development of a psychologically healthy police officer and police department. While the stressors on police work are unique, this additional testing would be beneficial to other service oriented careers that experience a high level of burnout due to organization-specific stressors.

An individual's strongest and most altruistic desire to serve the public in a meaningful way such as police work is not enough. Resiliency to stress and the accompanying internal and external resources that are an integral part of a candidate are better indicators of a long career in police work and a measure of success for the individual, department and community.

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