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Someone Who Understands: The Effect of Support on Law Enforcement Officers Exposed to Disturbing Media

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Someone Who Understands: The Effect of Support on Law Enforcement Officers

Exposed to Disturbing Media

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Someone Who Understands: The Effect of Support on Law Enforcement Officers Exposed to Disturbing Media

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SOMEONE WHO UNDERSTANDS: THE EFFECT OF SUPPORT ON LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS EXPOSED TO DISTURBING MEDIA

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Traumatic events not only affect the victims but also professionals that work with the victims (Figley, 1995). Trauma in the form of viewing disturbing media has been tied to negative outcomes such as Secondary Traumatic Stress (STS) and burnout (Perez, Jones, Englert, & Sachau, 2010; Stevenson 2007). The present study examined the effects of a resource, social support, on the negative and positive outcomes experienced by law enforcement officers exposed to disturbing media. I examined the relationship between overall support and negative and positive outcomes of exposure. The relationship was also examined for different sources of support: supervisor, coworker, and non-work support. It was found that higher levels of support were related to decreased levels of negative outcomes and increased levels of positive outcomes. Support was also found to moderate the relationship between exposure and STS, professional efficacy, and pride. Different sources of support also predicted specific outcomes.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Traumatic events caused by criminal acts are a regular occurrence in our society. The victims of these criminal acts require assistance from a number of professionals. Depending on the severity of the crime, the victim may interact with law enforcement officers, emergency medical personnel, social workers, doctors, nurses, counselors, attorneys, judges and jury members in the hours, weeks, and months after the crime. Although it is impossible to overlook the impact of crime on its victims, it is often easy to overlook the effects of these events on members of the professions who serve the victims. Occupations such as social workers, counselors, nurses, and police officers deal with the suffering that results from trauma on a daily basis in the course of their jobs. This exposure can lead to high levels of stress that can take a toll on the well-being of the service provider (Tehrani, 2011). In moderate levels, stress can actually be beneficial in motivating the individual to perform better. However, at high levels, it is detrimental to the health of the individual (Michie, 2002). For example, the stress caused by working with injured and traumatized clients on a regular basis can lead the professional to experience a form of trauma known as secondary traumatic stress (Vrlevski & Franklin, 2008).

Increasingly, law enforcement learns of the occurrence of criminal acts, not through the victim, but through the discovery of forensic evidence in digital form. The Internet has become an unfortunate source for the sharing of images of child pornography

and abuse. In fact, the Internet appears to have enabled much easier exchange and

proliferation of such images (Mears, Mancini, Gertz, & Bratton, 2008; Wells, Finkelhor,

Wolak, & Mitchell, 2004). This ease has greatly increased the burden on individuals who

have to review evidence of these horrible crimes (Stevenson, 2007). Evidence comes in

the form of images that can be quite graphic and disturbing, especially when they involve

the victimization of children. Examples of potential images investigators view include

erotic posing of children, sadism, torture, sexual violence, and graphic still and video

footage of child sexual assault (Burns, Morley, Bradshaw, & Domene, 2008; Stevenson,

2007). Additionally, some investigators report that the sounds of children being abused

are more disturbing than some images (Perez, Jones, Englert, & Sachau, 2010;

Stevenson, 2007). The purpose of this study is to expand the literature regarding

occupations that experience secondary trauma and burnout through viewing disturbing

media. In particular, this study will examine secondary trauma and burnout among

federal law enforcement officers.

Numerous studies have documented the highly stressful nature of law

enforcement work (Loo, 1984, Toch, 2002). Given the stressful nature of the work of law

enforcement officers, it is not surprising that they also are particularly prone to

experiencing negative physical and mental health outcomes (Levenson, 2007). This

situation may become particularly problematic because they do not always seek help due

to not wanting to appear unable to perform their jobs (Levenson, 2007). Not seeking help

can have very detrimental effects on their careers and their health (Levenson, 2007). It

seems that theses avoidant attitudes affect whether or not police officers will talk to

coworkers or mental health professionals. By not seeking support from others, law enforcement officers are failing to take advantage of what is generally seen as a beneficial resource in alleviating and/or preventing strain outcomes (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

The first goal of the present study is to expand the research on responses to disturbing media exposure. The second goal is to determine the role that social support plays in mitigating those responses. I will use the Job Demands-Resource model (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005) as the theoretical framework for the study in order to determine if job resources, such as social support, will buffer the relationship between the unique job demand of exposure to disturbing media and strain.

Effects of Exposure to Disturbing Media

There is a growing body of evidence (Burns et al., 2008; Holt & Blevins, 2011; Perez, et al., 2010; Stevenson, 2007) on the negative effects of exposure to disturbing media. Burns et al. (2008) conducted qualitative research with a team of 14 Canadian police investigators exposed to child exploitation. The investigators were interviewed using the critical incident technique. Although no outcome variables were measured, the authors categorized the responses of the investigators into categories such as the impact of the work, risk factors, and coping strategies. They found participants experienced intrusive thoughts, increased protectiveness of children, and emotional reactions (such as fluctuating moods). Additionally, participants identified potentially useful resources for coping with this demand including having a supervisor that understands the severity of

the work (Burns et al., 2008). Similarly, Perez et al. (2010) also reported qualitative responses where support was cited as a resource in these situations.

Perez et al. (2010) studied the effects of traumatic images, audio clips, and videos on levels of STS and burnout experienced by law enforcement personnel. Specifically, Perez et al. examined law enforcement investigators who were required to view child pornography as well as violent images and unusual sexual activity evidence in a forensic lab (2010). They found that this type of work could have detrimental effects on the investigators. The amount of time working with disturbing media was positively correlated with STS and the cynicism component of burnout. Furthermore, many investigators reported feeling an increased sense of protectiveness over their loved ones, which was positively related to STS. Finally, many reported an increased sense of general distrust, which was related to greater levels of STS, cynicism, and exhaustion, and lower levels of professional efficacy (Perez et al., 2010).

Fortunately, all the findings on employees in these occupations are not negative. A recent study examined the levels of job stress and satisfaction among forensic examiners (Holt & Blevins, 2011). They found that most were very satisfied with their jobs and 75 percent of respondents would keep the same job. This particular sample reported moderate levels of stress and high job satisfaction. This study shows that, although experiencing stress, digital forensic examiners are still satisfied with their jobs. Also, half of the respondents reported trying to forget about what they do, wanting to get away from others, and trying to distract themselves (Holt & Blevins, 2011). These coping mechanisms are expected and suggest that these images are affecting the examiners, even

though their strain levels were not overly high. This is consistent with the findings of Perez et al. (2010), who found that respondents reported high levels of STS, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism, yet still felt a strong sense of professional efficacy. In qualitative responses, several respondents acknowledged a sense of pride in their work for contributing to the conviction of the perpetrators.

Outcomes of Exposure

Secondary Traumatic Stress. Criminal and violent acts such as those evidenced by disturbing media not only affect the victims but also those who are indirectly exposed to the traumatic event. One of the strains that exposure to disturbing material can lead to, which will be examined by this study, is secondary traumatic stress. Secondary traumatic stress (STS) can be caused by knowing and empathizing with an individual that has experienced a traumatic event (Newell & MacNeil, 2010). The details of the event, as well as evidence (such as pictures and videos) can cause an individual to be affected by the trauma that occurred to someone else. The effects of STS are essentially the same as the symptoms experienced in post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). PTSD can occur when individuals experience a traumatic event first-hand. Individuals may have intense memories or nightmares about the event and can become easily irritable, avoidant, and fatigued (Figley, 1995; Newell & MacNeil, 2010). Victims of STS undergo very similar symptoms caused by their knowledge of the trauma as if they would have undergone the trauma themselves.

STS is not the only reaction experienced by professionals who deal with traumatized victims. As mentioned earlier, another common reaction is defined as

vicarious traumatization. Vicarious trauma causes a change in what one believes and thinks about the world. The sense of self can also be altered when one is experiencing vicarious trauma along with beliefs about safety, control, and trust (Newell & MacNeil, 2010). Because the effects of vicarious traumatization are also very important and damaging, I used literature in the area of both STS and vicarious trauma to develop the current study.

Burnout. In addition to STS, repeated exposure to traumatic events may also lead an individual to experience burnout. Burnout is a multidimensional state that occurs after a prolonged period of time where the individual is chronically under stress. Burnout is categorized by emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and a decreased sense of personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is a depletion of emotional resources due to constant demands and need from clients or other aspects of the job. Cynicism is characterized by detachment from others, as well as negative and indifferent responses in various job-related situations. Decreased sense of accomplishment occurs when individuals no longer feel that their job is making a difference and they do not see the value in it anymore (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Individuals experiencing burnout are more likely to have high levels of absenteeism and tardiness, and to provide poor quality client care (Newell & MacNeil, 2010). For workers in computer forensics labs, such as those in the Perez et al study, exposure to disturbing media was a chronic stressor not an isolated traumatic event. As such, it is not surprising that their levels of emotional exhaustion and cynicism were high.

Turnover. Personal reactions such as burnout can also have a negative effect on the organization. Burnout can lead to decreased work performance and an increase in turnover intentions (Maslach et al., 1996). Lee and Ashford (1996) also found emotional exhaustion to be linked to turnover intentions. Perez et al. (2010) found that individuals reporting higher levels of STS, cynicism, and exhaustion also reported thinking about leaving their jobs.

Reactions to Disturbing Media. Disturbing media research is relatively recent and there are many factors that need to be considered. In addition to the negative outcomes that exposure has been previously linked to such as STS, burnout, and turnover, disturbing media is likely affecting quality of life in other aspects as well. These hindering aspects include increased protectiveness of children, and distrust of self and others. (Burns et al, 2008; Perez et al, 2010; Stevenson, 2007; Vrklevski & Franklin, 2008). However, there is potential for undesirable work to positively influence employees with feelings such as pride in their work because they can see the meaningfulness in what they do (Jacobs, 1981, Stevenson, 2007). In order to further explore these negative and positive reactions I used items, that were also used to survey federal law enforcement officers exposed to disturbing media, that address protectiveness of children, distrust of the general public, and feeling of pride.

When one sees children being abused it is understandable to want to stop it and protect those children as well as one's children. It is reasonable then, that when seeing child abuse is part of one's job there are increased feelings of protectiveness and distrust in motives of others (Burns et al., 2008; Perez et al., 2010; Stevenson, 2007). Seeing

proof at one's job either daily or very often that such malice and abuse exists in the world, and how prominent it is, would reasonably affect one's views and actions regarding children, other people, and even oneself. Additionally, parents may become concerned with the Internet sites children visit because of the possibility they could encounter a predator.

Despite the negative effects of exposure, it is possible that there are some positive outcomes as well. Britt, Adler, & Bartone (2001) demonstrated that soldiers engaged in a peacekeeping mission who saw their work as meaningful were more likely to experience positive outcomes from their deployment. Thus, the ability to see value in what one does is clearly beneficial. In the case of law enforcement, knowing that one is helping society by persecuting predators can lead to a sense of pride. Seeing the meaning of one's work and being able to know the outcomes has been mentioned before as a positive outcome (Perez et al., 2010; Stevenson, 2007). Additionally, pride has been found to be positively related with professional efficacy, and negatively related with the cynicism dimensions of burnout among a sample of law enforcement officers exposed to disturbing media (Harms, 2011). These results suggest that finding meaning in their work is related to the sense of pride they feel. Additionally, job satisfaction is high among police teams working with disturbing media (Holt & Blevins, 2011); perhaps high levels of satisfaction are related to the positive feelings about their work.

Social Support

  Social Support Overview. Social support has been defined as "…functions performed for a distressed individual by…friends, co-workers, relatives…typically

include instrumental aid, socioemotional, and informational aid" (Thoits, 1986). Social support can be in the form of emotional support, or instrumental support. Emotional support is what is thought about as being sympathetic or caring, whereas instrumental support comes in the form of offering assistance or advice (House, 1981). Social support has been linked to positive outcomes such as reduced burnout (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999) and psychological distress (Rousseau, Salek, Aubé, & Morin, 2009), and enhanced self-esteem (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

The exact nature of the relationship between stressors, strains, and social support has been questioned. Social support has frequently been hypothesized to serve as a buffer, or moderator, of the stressor-strain relationship (e.g., Demerouti et el, 2001). This buffering hypothesis states that the stressor-strain relationship will be weaker for those with a higher level of social support (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, Pinneau, 1975). However, there are studies that have not found support for the buffering hypothesis (Ross, Altmaier, & Russell, 1989). A meta-analysis by Viswesvaran, Sanchez, and Fisher (1999) found evidence for both the direct effects of social support and the buffering effects of social support on the stressor-strain relationship. The direct effects model suggests that social support acts independently on the strain to mitigate its effects (Viswesvaran et al., 1999). In this study, I will examine both direct and moderating effects of social support.

One may receive social support from different people in one's life. Work-related research on social support has often examined the roles of supervisor support, coworker support, and non-work support such as friends and family. Supervisor and coworkers

support for example have been found to be associated with lower levels of burnout (Ross et al., 1989), yet other studies have found only coworker support to be related to decreased emotional exhaustion among a sample of nurses (Jenkins & Elliot, 2004). Additionally, high levels of non-work support have been found to mitigate the negative effects of strain on work performance, while supervisor support reduced levels of depersonalization (Sargent & Terry, 2000). In other words, there are inconsistent findings in the literature regarding which sources of support are effective buffers in which situations. Some argue that in order for support to affect the relationship between stressor and strains, the sources of support as well as the kind of support (emotional or instrumental) have to be matched to the stressor in order to effectively reduce strain (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Social Support and Law Enforcement. The role of social support in law enforcement is complicated. Although, there is consistent evidence (Viswesvaran et al, 1999) that social support is beneficial, one must be willing to seek out or at least receive support that is offered. As stated earlier, law enforcement officers may be hesitant to do so (Levenson, 2007). Nevertheless, research on social support in law enforcement occupations affirms its benefits. Graf (1986) found that social support is negatively correlated with perceived organizational stress for law enforcement officers. Stephens and Long (1997) examined the relationship between trauma and PTSD symptoms in law enforcement officers in New Zealand and found that social support from supervisors, peers, and non-work sources was negatively correlated to PTSD symptoms. Overall support accounted for 17% of the variance in PTSD scores, with peer support having the

strongest effect (Stephens & Long, 1997). However, they also found that communicating about negative aspects of their work was positively related to more PTSD symptoms. Although communication can be a source of support, negative communication can actually have the opposite effect by exacerbating the negative outcomes (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986).

The relationship between exposure and support for law enforcement dealing with disturbing media is uncertain. There have been no quantitative studies of this relationship. However, qualitative responses from investigators exposed to disturbing media suggest that social support could play a role in ameliorating the effects of the trauma. Digital forensic examiners reported 'talking with others' as the second most frequently used method of coping (Holt & Blevins, 2011). A police team working with disturbing media defined support from peers, the organization, as well as spouses, friends, and others outside their work environment as a way to cope with their work (Burns et al., 2008). Support from loved ones was also found to be negatively related to STS in a law enforcement sample, and qualitative response defined support as a method of coping (Perez et al., 2010). However, exposure to disturbing media is a unique stressor and there is the possibility that support might not be one of the coping mechanism officers use to cope with the effects, particularly because law enforcement officers tend not to seek support (Levenson, 2007). Hyman (2004) found that social support was not correlated with STS levels in a sample of Israeli emergency responders. Furthermore, there is no evidence on whether supervisors, coworkers or people outside of the work environment are best able to support those doing this type of work.

Social Support and the Job-Demands-Resources Model. As mentioned above, social support can sometimes weaken the stressor-strain relationship. According to Bakker et al. (2005), employees experience strain when the demands of their work surpass the resources they receive from their work. Social support is considered a resource that individuals can use against the stressors (Bakker et al., 2005). The model stems from the Demands-Control model that states control over job activities can buffer the relationship between demands and strain (Karasek, 1979). The higher the levels of autonomy (control) individuals have over their jobs, the higher the demands have to be in order to cause strain. The Job Demands-Resource model uses the basic framework of the Demands-Control model but broadens the model to incorporate a broader variety of job demands and resources. Job demands are defined as physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that can lead to psychological strain. For example, the amount of work an individual has, how emotional the job is, and interference with home life are all considered demands. Job resources include social support, autonomy, and feedback from a supervisor (Bakker et al., 2005). The JD-R model proposes that any relevant resources one has can ameliorate the effects of job demands.

For the purposes of this study, I will examine whether the resource of social support moderates the impact of exposure to disturbing media (job demand) on negative outcomes such as secondary traumatic stress, burnout, turnover intentions, protectiveness, and distrust and on positive outcomes such as professional efficacy and pride. Additionally, I will examine how different sources of support are related to these outcomes.

Hypotheses

Consistent with previous research suggesting that support is a resource against strains (Bakker et al., 2005), I expect that support will be positively correlated with negative outcomes and negatively correlated with positive outcomes**.**

Hypothesis 1a: Overall social support will be negatively correlated with STS, exhaustion, and cynicism, but positively correlated with professional efficacy.

Hypothesis 1b: Overall social support will be negatively correlated with negative reactions to disturbing media (protectiveness and distrust) and positively correlated with pride.
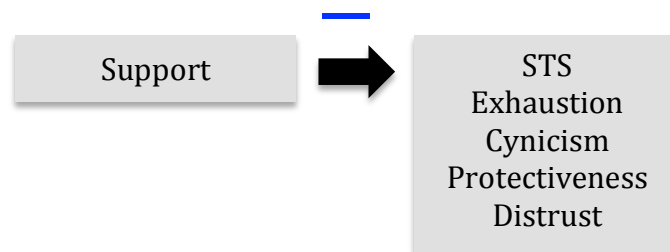
Figure 1: Hypothesized relationship between support and negative outcomes.

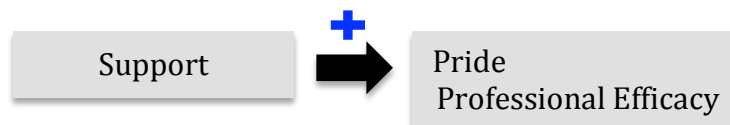*Figure 2: Hypothesized relationship between support and positive outcomes.*

Research supports the notion that different sources of support have an effect on strains (Cohen & Willis, 1985); I hypothesize that will also be the case in the current study.

Hypothesis 2: Support received from different sources (supervisory, coworker, non-work) will predict negative and positive outcomes.

Again, consistent with the job demands-resource model, I expect that social support will act as the resource that will buffer the effects of exposure on negative outcomes.

Hypothesis 3a: Overall social support will moderate the relationship between exposure and STS and burnout, such that the relationship between exposure and STS/burnout will be weaker among those with higher levels of social support.

Hypothesis 3b: Overall social support will moderate the relationship between exposure and the reactions to disturbing media, such that the relationship between exposure and reactions to disturbing media will be weaker among those with higher levels of social support.

Finally, when the demands exceed the resources employees begin to experience burnout (Maslach et al., 1996). One naturally wants to minimize the stress felt, especially if it is affecting other areas of one's life. Therefore, employees experiencing burnout and STS will be more likely to have thought about quitting or have the intention to do so. This is consistent with previous research (Perez et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 4: High levels of STS and burnout will be positively correlated with turnover intentions.

CHAPTER II

Method

Participants

A total of 138 law enforcement officers from a federal agency completed the survey. There were 125 males and 13 females in this sample. The average number of years in law enforcement was 17.3 years with an average of 14.3 years with this agency. The majority (85.8%) of study participants were married, and 82.6% had at least one child. Thirty-eight (27.5%) participants reported having children under the age of five. Most (73.2%) participants had a bachelor's degree or higher.

Procedure

The federal law enforcement agency determined which participants were eligible to participate in this study and they were sent an electronic link to the survey. All identifying information was removed by the agency in order to keep the responses confidential. Participants had three weeks to complete the survey.

Measures

Demographics. Participants responded to demographic information including sex, marital status, years in law enforcement, years with current agency, education level, number of children, number of children under 5 years of age, and number of children under 18 years of age.

Exposure to Disturbing Media. In order to measure exposure to disturbing materials, participants were asked to indicate which types of disturbing media they were

exposed to, and how psychologically or emotionally difficult they found the experiences to be. There were four types of disturbing media: video with sound, video without sound, still photos, and auditory only. The scale used ranged from 1 (not at all difficult) to 5 (extremely difficult). If participants had not been exposed to any type of disturbing media they were asked to leave those items blank.

Social Support. Social support was measured using the scale developed by Caplan et al. (1975). The original measure included social support items related to supervisor support, co-worker support, and non-work support such as friends and family. It consisted of nine items asking about emotional and instrumental support. Given the nature of this study, the items were adapted to better reflect the vocabulary of the agency. Sample items included "How easy is it to talk to your immediate supervisor?" (Supervisor support), "How comfortable do you feel talking with your spouse/significant other, friends, and relatives about your work?" (non-work), "How comfortable do you feel talking with other people at work about your job?"(co-worker). Participants responded on a four-point scale ranging from 1(not at all) to 4 (very much) in regards to how much the items pertained to them in their current assignment. The items had a reported reliability range of .72-.88 (Blau, 1981; Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986).

Reactions to disturbing media. Perez et al. (2010) developed items to assess how individuals reacted to disturbing media. The items used in this study are divided into three subscales: a six-item distrust of the general public subscale, and a six-item protectiveness scale assessing whether the work makes participants more protective of their loved ones, and a four-item pride scale assessing whether the work made

participants feel good about the positive contributions they make. These scales are not validated as they have been administered to a limited number of participants. However, previous research with the measures reported reliabilities for distrust of the general public (.86), and protectiveness (.89) (Perez et al., 2010). The items were scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items for the protectiveness, distrust of general public, and pride scales are, respectively, "I am more protective of my children than I ought to be", "As a result of my work, I have a difficult time trusting people", and "I am proud of the work that I do."

Burnout. Burnout was measured using the 16-item Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS), a commonly used measure of burnout (Maslach et al., 1996). It was scored using a seven-point scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). The MBI-GS has three subscales: Cynicism, Exhaustion and Professional Efficacy. Example items that participants were asked are "I feel emotionally drained from my work" (exhaustion), "I doubt the significance of my work" (cynicism), and "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job" (decreased professional efficacy-reversed). The reported internal consistency reliability for the measure ranges from .71 to .90 for each subscale.

Secondary Traumatic Stress. Secondary Traumatic Stress was measured using the 17-item scale Secondary Traumatic Stress Scale (STSS), which asks specifically about symptoms experienced within the last seven days (Bride, Robinson, Yegidis, & Figley, 2004). The STS scale is comprised of three subscales, a five-item Intrusion scale, a seven-item Avoidance scale, and a five-item and Arousal scale. Sample items include,

"I felt emotionally numb", "I avoided people, places, or things that reminded me of my work on cases", and "I was less active than usual." Responses to the items will be scored based on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). Consistent with recommendations by Ting, Jacobson, Sanders, Bride, and Harrington (2005), the overall scale score will be used rather than the subscale scores. The overall STS scale's reported reliability is .91.

      Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were assessed through the use of four items that were scored on a five-point Likert scale. The responses could range from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items included "I currently am seeking employment or am open to the possibility of working elsewhere" and "In the next few years, I intend to leave this *agency"* (the agency name was actually used in the survey but cannot be disclosed in this paper). These items were adapted from the measure by Abrams, Ando, and Hinkle (1998). This scale was also used in the Perez et el. (2010) study and had a reported reliability of .83.

CHAPTER III

Results

Preliminary Analysis

I assessed scale reliabilities by calculating Cronbach's alpha for each scale. These are reported in Table 1. I also examined item statistics to determine final scale content. Due to low item-total correlations, two items were dropped from their respective scales. From the distrust of general public scale, I removed the item "As a result of my work, I have a difficult time maintaining or forming new romantic relationships." From the pride scale, I removed the item "I am honored to hold my current assignment." Following the removal of those items all scales had acceptable reliabilities.

Descriptive Results

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and ranges) are reported in Table 1. The correlations between all variables were computed and are presented on Table 2.

Previously reported results from this sample (Divine, 2009) indicated that the mean level of STS for the participants in this study is 35.55, which is below what is considered moderate levels of STS (Divine, 2009). However, several participants in this study did reach the cutoffs for moderate (44 participants) or high STS levels (13 participants). According to Divine (2009), on average, the sample was in the low burnout category for exhaustion and professional efficacy and in the average range for cynicism. However, several participants did score high on exhaustion (N=46), and cynicism (N=32), and low

on professional efficacy (*N*=4).

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a stated that overall social support would be negatively correlated with STS and burnout. This hypothesis was supported. The higher the level of social support received the lower the level of STS reported (*r* = -.504, *p* <.01). This pattern was consistent with the three subscales of burnout as well. Support was negatively correlated with exhaustion (*r* = -.463, *p* <.01), and cynicism (*r* = -.548, *p* <.01), and positively correlated with professional efficacy (*r* = .558, *p* <.01). Because the professional efficacy subscale of the MBI reflects feeling that one is able to be effective in one's work role, higher scores indicate lower levels of burnout. Hypothesis 1b stating that social support will be negatively correlated with negative reactions to disturbing media and positively correlated with positive reactions was also supported. Social support was negatively correlated with protectiveness (*r* = -.291, *p* <.01), distrust of general public (*r* = -.406, *p* <.01), and positively related to pride (*r* = .441, *p* <.01). In addition to examining the relationship between overall social support and outcomes, I looked at how each type of support (supervisor, coworkers, and non-work) related to the outcomes and reactions experienced by study participants. Results from these analyses can be found in Table 3. Almost all of these correlations (19 out of 21) were statistically significant. Co-worker support and non-work support were significantly correlated in the expected direction with all outcomes. Supervisor support was not significantly correlated with distrust of the general public or protectiveness but was significantly correlated with all other outcomes in the expected direction.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that support from different sources such as supervisor, coworkers, and non-work sources would predict outcome variables (STS, burnout, reactions to disturbing media and turnover intentions). I expected that higher levels of support (regardless of source) would predict fewer negative outcomes (STS, exhaustion, cynicism, distrust, protectiveness and turnover intentions) and greater positive outcomes (professional efficacy and pride). This hypothesis was partially supported. I ran regressions with all three sources of support entered as predictors of each outcome to determine if sources of support would predict the outcomes. Supervisor support only predicted the work-related negative outcomes such as turnover intentions ($\beta = -.236$, p <.05), exhaustion ($\beta = -.267$, p <.01), and cynicism ($\beta = -.241$, p <.05). However, I found that coworker support was a significant predictor of all outcomes in the expected direction (see Table 4). Non-work support did not have an effect on work-related strains however, it did have an effect on the more non-work-related strain variables such as STS ($\beta = .231$, p <.05), protectiveness ($\beta = -.222$, p <.05), and distrust of general pubic ($\beta = -.273$, p <.05). Non-work support also was a significant predictor of positive outcomes including professional efficacy ($\beta = .288$, p <.01), and pride ($\beta = .254$, p <.01). These results are presented in Table 4.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that overall social support would moderate the relationship between disturbing media exposure and STS and burnout. Hypothesis 3b predicted that overall social support would moderate the relationship between exposure and reactions to disturbing media. For hypotheses 3a and 3b, I used overall support rather than breaking support down into the three sources because that would have required

testing a total of 24 moderator effects on a relatively small sample.

I performed eight hierarchal moderated regression according to the instructions set forth by Baron and Kenny (1986). I entered the main effect of exposure to disturbing media as well as the moderator (overall support) in the first step. Both of these variables were centered. The interaction variable (exposure x overall support) was entered on the second step of the regression to determine if it accounted for a significant increase in variance above and beyond what was accounted for in the first step. The analyses were repeated with all the different dependent variables (STS, burnout, pride, distrust, protectiveness, and turnover). Please refer to Tables 5 and 6 for all the regression results.

Of the eight moderated regressions, three of the interactions were significant. These results partially supported hypotheses 3a and 3b. With STS as the dependent variable there was a significant main effect of overall support ($\beta = -.44$, $p < .01$). There was also a significant interaction between exposure to disturbing media and overall support ($\beta = .231$, $p < .05$). This interaction accounted for 2.8% of the variance in STS. The level of STS varied by level of support at low levels of exposure, however at high levels of exposure it seems to make less of a difference how much support one is getting. Please refer to Figure 3 for the graphic representation.
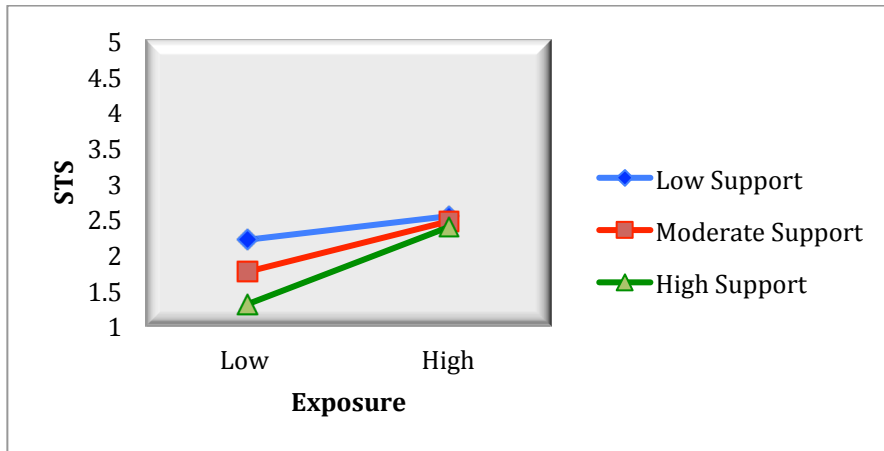
Figure 3. Interaction between exposure and social support on STS.

The next significant moderation was professional efficacy. There was a main effect of support (β = .492, p <.01) as well as an interaction between disturbing media and support (β = -.238, p <.05). The interaction accounted for 2.9% of the variance in professional efficacy. This sample generally experienced high levels of professional efficacy regardless of exposure levels. However, among the high support participants, professional efficacy was somewhat lower when they reported high levels of exposure. It is noteworthy though that those who reported high support and low exposure reported extremely high levels of professional efficacy. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.
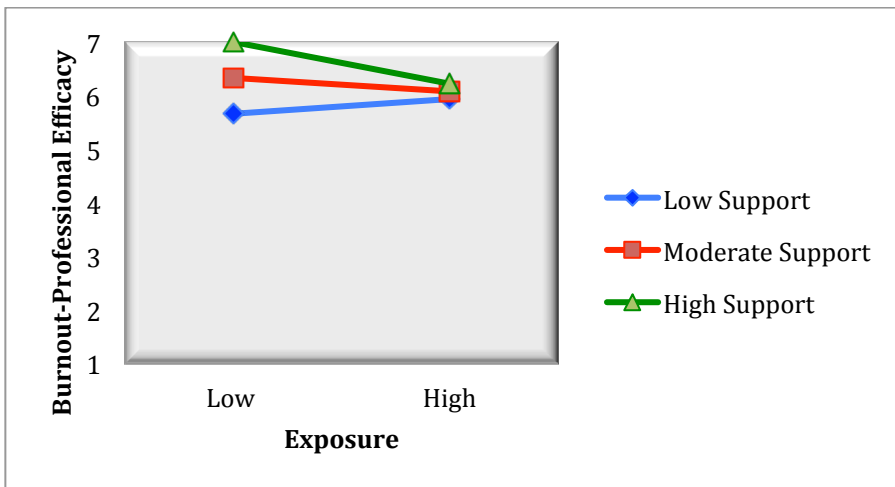
Figure 4. Interaction between exposure and social support on professional efficacy.

The final significant interaction was pride. There was a main effect of disturbing media (β = .444 p <.01), and a main effect of support (β = .551, p <.01). Additionally, there was a significant interaction between exposure and support (β = -.343, p <.01) that accounted for 6% of the variance in pride. According to these results, at low levels of exposure those with more support experience a higher level of pride. However, at high levels of exposure pride increases for those with moderate or low levels of support.
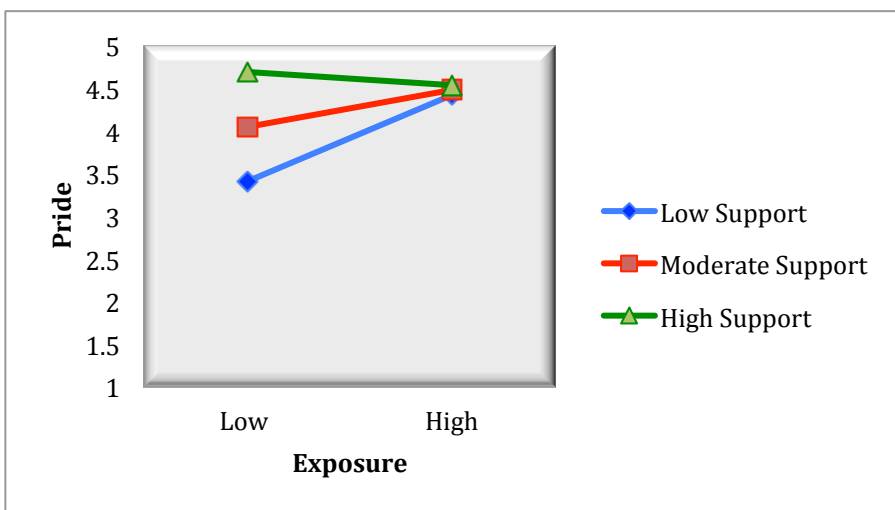
Figure 5. Interaction between exposure and social support on pride.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that STS and burnout would be positively correlated with turnover intentions. Hypothesis 4 was fully supported. STS ($r = .335$, $p < .01$), exhaustion ($r = .436$, $p < .01$), and cynicism ($r = .537$, $p < .01$), were positively correlated to turnover intentions. Professional efficacy was negatively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = -.420$, $p < .01$).

Table 1.
Means, Standard Deviations, Alphas for All Study Variables

	Mean	SD	Alpha (α)	Possible Range	Actual Range
STS	35.55	9.98	0.91	17-85	17-62
EXH	1.74	1.45	0.94	0-6	0-6
CYN	1.51	1.26	0.81	0-6	0-6
PE	5.17	0.89	0.82	0-6	1-6
EXP_DM	2.41	1.02	0.95	1-5	1-5
TO	2.24	0.85	0.67	1-5	1-4.50
Distrust	3.11	0.83	.82	1-5	1-5
Protect	3.29	0.67	.70	1-5	2-5
Pride	4.28	0.64	.83	1-5	1-5
Support	3.04	0.66	.86	1-4	1.33-4
SSup	2.86	0.93	.83	1-4	1-4
CWSup	3.03	0.75	.79	1-4	1-4
NWSup	3.23	0.74	.74	1-4	1.33-4

STS=Secondary Traumatic Stress, EXH =Maslach Burnout Inventory Exhaustion Subscale, CYN=Maslach Burnout Inventory Cynicism Subscale, PE=Maslach Burnout Inventory, Professional Efficacy Subscale, EXP_DM= Exposure to Disturbing Media, TO=Turnover Intentions, Distrust= Distrust of General public, Protect= Protectiveness, Support= overall support, SSup= Supervisor Support, CWSup= Coworker Support, NWSup= Non=work Support

Table 2
Intercorrelations Between All Study Variables

	STS	Exh	Cyn	PE	Protect	Distrust	Pride	TO	SSup	CWSup	NWSup	Support
STS												
EXH	.698**											
CYN	.589**	.646**										
PE	-.473**	-.475**	-.580**									
Protect	.576**	.423**	.346**	-.203*								
Distrust	.570**	.419**	.400**	-.278**	.647**							
Pride	-.227**	-.218*	-.390**	.487**	0.035	-0.046						
TO	.335**	.436**	.537**	-.420**	.204*	.245**	-.362**					
SSup	-.350**	-.430**	-.478**	.420**	-0.137	-.258**	.297**	-.434**				
CWSup	-.504**	-.410**	-.498**	.483**	-.318**	-.364**	.368**	-.435**	.605**			
NWSup	-.403**	-.295**	-.382**	.487**	-.295**	-.382**	.352**	-.323**	.435**	.450**		
Support	-.504**	-.463**	-.548**	.558**	-.291**	-.406**	.441**	-.482**	.865**	.831**	.746**	
Exp_DM	.395**	.293**	.221*	-0.144	.339**	.262**	-0.022	0.136	-0.136	-.269**	-.195*	-.288**

  * *p* < .05, ** *p* <.01

Table 3
Correlations Between Sources of Support and Outcomes

	Supervisor	Coworker	Non-work
STS	-.350	-.504	-.403
MBI_ Exhaustion	-.430	-.410	-.295
MBI_ Cynicism	-.478	-.498	-.382
MBI_ Professional Efficacy	.420	.483	.487
Protectiveness	-.137	-.318	-.295
Distrust	-.258	-.364	-.382
Pride	.297	.368	.352

All correlations .269 and above are significant at the *p* < .01 level.
All other correlations are non-significant.

Table 4
Regression Results for Sources of Support

Dependent Variable	β for Supervisor Support	β for Co-worker Support	β for Non-work Support
STS	.002	-.397**	.236**
MBI_ Exhaustion	-.267**	-.209*	-.079
MBI_ Cynicism	-.241*	-.294**	-.127
MBI_ Professional Efficacy	.126	.280**	.288**
Protectiveness	.151	-.307**	-.222*
Distrust	.012	-.256*	-.273**
Pride	.098	.200*	.254**
Turnover	-.236*	-.247*	-.098

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing Moderating Effects of Overall Social Support on Negative Outcomes (IV= Exposure to Disturbing Media)

	STS				Exhaustion			
Variable	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.350**				.307**			
EXP_DM		.17	.05	.28**		.29	.13	.19*
Support		-.43	.08	-.44**		-1.2	.21	-.47**
Step 2	.028*				.003			
EXP_DM		.07	.07	.12		.37	.18	.24*
Support		-.43	.08	-.44**		-1.2	.21	-.47**
EXP_DM x Support		.16	.07	.23*		-.12	.19	-.07

	Cynicism				Profession Efficacy			
Variable	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.306**				.254**			
EXP_DM		.17	.10	.13		-.05	.07	-.05
Support		-1.0	.17	-.50**		.65	.12	.49**
Step 2	.006				.029*			
EXP_DM		.07	.14	.06		.09	.10	.11
Support		-1.0	.17	-.50**		.66	.12	.49
Exp_DM x Support		.15	.16	.11		-.22	.11	-.24*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing Moderating Effects of Overall Social Support on Reactions to Exposure (IV= Exposure to Disturbing Media)

	Protectiveness					Distrust			
Variable	ΔR^2	*B*	*SE B*	*β*		ΔR^2	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1	.182**				Step 1	.190**			
EXP_DM		.22	.06	.32**	EXP-DM		.15	.08	.18
Support		-.23	.10	-.21*	Support		-.49	.13	-.35**
Step 2	.017				Step 2	.000			
EXP_DM		.31	.09	.45**	EXP-DM		.14	.11	.17
Support		-.23	.10	-.20*	Support		-.49	.13	-.35**
EXP_DM x Support		-.14	.10	-.18	EXP-DM x Support		.02	.12	.02
	Pride					Turnover			
Variable	ΔR^2	*B*	*SE B*	*β*		ΔR^2	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1	.271**				Step 1	.253**			
EXP_DM		.13	.06	.20*	EXP_DM		.04	.08	.05
Support		.56	.09	.54**	Support		-.70	.13	-.49**
Step 2	.061**				Step 2	.022			
EXP_DM		.28	.07	.44**	EXP_DM		.17	.10	.19
Support		.57	.09	.55**	Support		-.69	.12	-.48**
Exp_DM x Support		-.24	.08	-.34**	Exp_DM x Support		-.20	.11	-.21

* *p* < .05, ** *p* <.01

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Research on workplace exposure to disturbing media is a very recent addition to the work stress literature. Only a handful of studies (Burns et al, 2008; Perez et al, 2010; Stevenson, 2007) have examined this topic, but researchers have consistently found that exposure leads to strain outcomes including secondary traumatic stress and burnout. The purpose of this study was to determine the role of social support in cases where individuals were exposed to disturbing media. In particular, I wanted to determine whether social support mitigated the negative effects of exposure such as STS, burnout, turnover intentions, protectiveness, and distrust of general public. Social support is a resource that has been found to consistently reduce the negative effects of a wide variety of stressors including workplace stressors (Cohen & Willis, 1985; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). This is the first study to directly examine the role of social support in response to the unique stressor of disturbing media exposure.

Summary of Finding

The results of this study show there is a relationship between negative and positive outcomes and overall social support. It appears the more support participants reported receiving the lower their level of STS, exhaustion, and cynicism, and the higher the level of professional efficacy. This suggests that social support overall could be beneficial for law enforcement officers that are exposed to disturbing media. The same relationship was true for reactions to disturbing media; those who reported more social

support also reported low levels of protectiveness and distrust, and higher levels of pride. Additionally, when I examined social support from various sources (supervisor, coworker, and non-work), all sources were negatively related to the negative outcomes and reactions (STS, exhaustion, cynicism, protective, and distrust) and positively related to positive outcomes and reactions (pride and professional efficacy). Therefore, it appears that support, regardless of source, has a positive influence on the outcomes experienced by law enforcement due to exposure to disturbing media.

Examining the relationships between outcomes and different sources of support revealed some interesting patterns. Coworker support was important for all outcome variables as it significantly predicted lower levels of negative outcomes and higher levels of positive outcomes. Because coworkers are most likely exposed to the same or similar situations they might have a better understanding of what the individual is experiencing. This understanding might make it possible for coworkers to provide support in a way that others are unable to due to lack of understanding or training. Another explanation might be that people feel more comfortable talking with coworkers because perhaps there is less of a need to explain what they are experiencing or what they are exposed to. Also, employees may be unable or unwilling to discuss the details of their work with people outside of the office either due to legal restrictions or a desire to shelter their loved ones from such distressing information.

Supervisor support predicted turnover intentions as well as the negative aspects of burnout. It appears that support from one's supervisor is important when it comes to dealing with the outcomes that stem directly from the actual work they do. It makes sense

that the supervisor would affect how employees are reacting to different aspects of the job. Supervisor support has been found to significantly predict job satisfaction (Brough & Pears, 2004). The supervisor acts as the most direct representative of the organization to the employee and if the support from the supervisor is lacking, the employee could be more likely to negative experiences or opinions about the organization or the position. Supervisor support has been found to reduce levels of occupational stress (Schirmer & Lopez, 2004) and has been shown to be necessary in order for other resources (job control) to buffer against strains (Bliese & Castro, 2000). Qualitative responses from law enforcement officers exposed to disturbing media indicated managerial support as one of their organizational concerns (Perez et al., 2010). Furthermore, supervisors may have direct control over other aspects of work that affect disturbing media exposure. For example, qualitative responses in previous research included concerns about workload and work processes that increased exposure levels. A supportive supervisor might put in place organizational practices that reduce exposure. Thus, managerial support could play an important role in reducing negative outcomes of exposure to disturbing material in many ways.

Finally, non-work support, such as support from family and friends, was a predictor of the strains that were more general in nature (as opposed to specifically work-related strains). Specifically, non-work support was a significant predictor of reduced levels of STS, protectiveness and distrust as well as the positive outcomes of professional efficacy and pride. According to these results, having support outside of work minimizes the negative effects of exposure on officers' personal lives. For example, if they have

non-work support they are less likely to become overprotective or distrusting of the

general public. They might also experience fewer STS symptoms, which include sleep

disturbances, irritability, and fatigue. Additionally, they might also find more meaning in

their work through feelings of pride and professional efficacy. There is some research

suggesting that support from spouses of law enforcement officers is effective in buffering

the effects of work stressors because they do not form part of the stressor. However,

when the stressor has to do with marital or parental stress, spousal support does not act as

a buffer (Jackson, 1992). Another explanation is that perhaps family and friends can

express how valuable they find the work the person does to be. Family and friends may

provide emotional support as they sympathize with the work they do. Additionally,

research has found non-work support to relate more strongly to professional efficacy than

exhaustion (Halbesleben, 2006). Perhaps having an outsider find meaning and value in

difficult and upsetting work might be an explanation for the effect on positive outcomes

from non-work support.

Overall, the pattern seems to suggest that support from different sources may

serve different functions. Coworker support affects all outcomes perhaps because

coworkers are the only ones who truly understand what the person is going through. This

makes coworkers' support an integral aspect of both work and non-work life when

referring to outcomes of exposure. Supervisor support on the other hand affects the

aspects that are specifically related to work, and more specifically the negative aspects.

These results suggest that supervisor support is important in order for the person not to

experience burnout or consider leaving. Previous research has found high levels of

supervisor support to act as a buffer for job satisfaction and cynicism (Sargent & Terry, 2000). These findings regarding coworker and supervisor support are somewhat consistent with previous findings that work-related support is more highly related to exhaustion, whereas non-work support is more strongly related to cynicism and professional efficacy (Halbesleben, 2006). Accordingly, non-work support affected the non-work aspects and the positive outcomes. This makes sense because those outcomes are more intertwined with the officer's personal life, thus allowing individuals from the non-work sphere to make a difference.

In qualitative responses, 36% of the respondents in a similar study reported support as a strategy that helped them deal with the negative effects of their work with disturbing media (Perez et al., 2010). Thus, in addition to the direct effects of social support, I expected that social support would act as a moderator between exposure to disturbing media and negative outcomes. Although I was interested in testing whether different sources of social support would moderate the relationship between exposure and the outcomes, the sample was too small to perform all 24 moderations. Instead, I combined all social support into an overall support variable and used that to examine moderator effects. Support did not moderate the relationship between exposure and all eight strains; however, it did serve as a moderator for three of the outcomes: STS, professional efficacy, and pride.

In the present study, at low levels of exposure those who had high levels of social support experienced less STS than those who had moderate and low levels of support; therefore, this was consistent with the expected direction. However, at high levels of

exposure there does not seem to be a difference between the levels of STS experienced regardless of level of support. This means that once exposure reaches a high level, even high levels of support cannot mitigate the impact on STS symptoms experienced. Although this was not expected, it is reasonable to understand that exposure at high levels can become too much to deal with and requires alternative, or additional, resources in order to minimize STS.

In addition to serving as a moderator for STS and exposure, overall support also moderated the relationship between exposure and the positive outcomes. For professional efficacy, at low levels of exposure level of support affected how efficacious participants felt about the work they were doing. Those with higher levels of support experienced the most professional efficacy followed by those with moderate support. However, the relationship between exposure and professional efficacy was essentially flat for those with low support and moderate levels of support. In other words, for those with low to moderate levels of support disturbing media exposure did not predict feelings of efficacy. However, for those with high levels of support, exposure was negatively related to efficacy. In other words, as exposure increased individuals with high support lose some sense of professional efficacy. This is somewhat consistent with the findings for STS in that at high levels of exposure support may not be adequate to mitigate the effects of this particular stressor. Reasonably, individuals with low and moderate support are unlikely to find greater meaning in their work without very much external assistance. However, as noted previously, all participants in this study had relatively high levels of professional efficacy. This is consistent with previous research (Perez, et al, 2010) showing that

although these employees are under great strain, they feel that they are making a difference with the work they do. In particular, individuals with high support had extremely high levels of professional efficacy. This could possibly explain the decrease in that professional efficacy reached a ceiling among those with high levels of support and therefore, could not really improve in the face of exposure.

Results were slightly different for the reaction of pride. Participants with high levels of support report high levels of pride regardless of exposure level. However, for individuals with low and moderate levels of support, pride was much higher when they had high levels of exposure than when they had low levels of exposure. While it may at first seem odd that increased exposure to a stressor would increase a positive outcome, in this unique case it makes sense. Doing the work required in a high exposure environment gives participants meaningful work of which they can be proud. At low levels of exposure, there is less to elicit those feelings of pride. This is consistent with the Britt et al study (2001). Soldiers who found meaning in their peacekeeping duties experienced more positive outcomes after deployment. Furthermore, those who had greater exposure to areas of former conflict or to the results of the conflict were more likely to find the peacekeeping work meaningful and to subsequently have better mental health outcomes. The fact that this occurs for people with less support may also suggests that feeling proud is one of the ways they can deal with exposure when they cannot rely on support from others. Furthermore, the fact that it does not occur for people with high support is indicative of the fact that regardless of stressor levels, they maintain a high sense of pride in their contributions.

As expected, STS and burnout were positively correlated with turnover intentions. Therefore, the more STS, exhaustion, and cynicism the participants experienced the more likely they were to have intentions to quit their job or leave the agency. Also, the lower the level of professional efficacy the more likely they had turnover intentions. These results are consistent with previous research of the effects of STS and burnout on turnover intentions (Perez et al., 2010). It is important for the organization to consider these results and find ways to reduce the amount of STS and burnout experienced. Perhaps a way to do this is to train supervisors and coworkers on how to provide support because our results show those sources of support help lower intentions to quit.

Limitations

Although this study makes an important contribution to a new and growing line of research, it does have several limitations. One of the limitations of the present study is the measure of exposure used. The present study could not account for how much the participants were exposed to disturbing media but only that they had been. Being able to more directly and specifically quantify exposure would be less subjective and more informative then asking if one was exposed to the degree to which they felt affected. Another limitation of this study is that it is solely based on self-report. Given the nature of this topic there are not a lot of options to gathering data. Another concern with using self-report as the method for data collection for all variables is the possibility of increased mono-method bias. Method bias inflates the relationship between study variables because the same method is used and not because the relationship is actually that strong.

Law enforcement officers perform stressful work (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1989; Loo, 1984; Toch, 2002) and therefore it is possible that any negative outcomes are not only attributable to exposure to disturbing media but to other stressors they encounter such as high workload (Noblet, Rodwell, & Allisey, 2009). There is a need to determine the extent to which the negative effects are attributable to exposure versus other work stressors. Another limitation to the study is the cross-sectional nature. In order to more clearly understand how exposure affects the individual it would be ideal to determine levels of burnout, secondary trauma, and other outcomes before officers are placed in a role requiring disturbing media exposure and then to follow them for some period of time. However, this is not currently a possibility with this line of research. To some extent, it is unlikely because in the normal course of law enforcement duties, exposure may occur at unexpected times and places. However, to the extent that a particular law enforcement agency has roles that require repeated, regular exposure to this material, a longitudinal tracking of these individuals would be ideal. Additionally, in order to more accurately determine how the participants are affected we would need a comparison group that has had no exposure to disturbing media. This is difficult to achieve for the same reasons identified above. Finally, this study did not consider whether participants had previously experienced personal trauma, which has been previously linked to increased likelihood to experience STS symptoms through work with traumatized victims (Figley, 1993; Follette, Polusny, & Milbeck, 1994; Vrklevski & Franklin, 2008).

Future Directions

Given that this is a fairly new area of study there is a lot of research that remains to be done. As the need for this area of research expands, we need to be able to better understand the effects of exposure and ways to mitigate those effects at the individual and organizational level. Future research could determine if certain types of disturbing materials (videos, photos, auditory only) are more likely to lead to negative outcomes. Through this study and other stress literature we know that social support tends to have a positive effect on the stressor-strain relationship. However, for this particular kind of stressor it would be beneficial to determine what is the most useful kind of support. In addition to source-related differences, different types of support (emotional versus instrumental) might be beneficial depending on the situation (Cohen & McKay, 1984). The measure used in the current study included both emotional and instrumental support but did not test for their individual effects. Figuring out what is the best type of support to provide these individuals would allow for the formation of training programs for supervisors, coworkers, family and friends. Training would not only help the individual but also their loved ones that might be affected by some of the negative outcomes they may experience.

We have found that there are some positive outcomes that are related to being exposed such as increased professional efficacy (Perez et al, 2010). The present study also found high levels of pride among the law enforcement officers. There is a possibility that perhaps there are other unexplored positive outcomes or that interventions could be designed to enhance the likelihood of experiencing positive outcomes. Knowing the impact of one's work is defined as a way to enrich jobs and increase intrinsic motivation

(Hackman & Oldham, 1976). For example, supervisory behaviors that emphasize the importance of this work and the positive outcomes for society (e.g., conviction rates, sentences for perpetrators) might enhance the tendency to experience positive outcomes.

Although there is no way to change the work done by law enforcement officers, there is a need to continue to find resources and strategies that the individuals and organizations can use to mitigate the negative effects of their work. Additionally, there is a need to continue to research exposure to disturbing media in order to fully grasp its effects. As the research continues perhaps we can find positive effects that could serve as resources for law enforcement as well as other professions working with disturbing media.

CHAPTER IV

References

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CHAPTER VI

Appendix

Online Survey Content

Please answer the questions as accurately as possible. Make sure your answer reflects the possible response options provided (i.e., Never – Very Often) for each section.

Section 1
Read each statement and indicate <u>how frequently</u> it is true for you by circling the corresponding number.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Never	**Rarely**	**Occasionally**	**Often**	**Very Often**

1. I feel emotionally numb.   1 2 3 4 5

2. My heart starts pounding when I think about my work.   1 2 3 4 5

3. It seems as if I relive the trauma(s) or stress experienced by   1 2 3 4 5
   victims or those with whom I am to protect.

4. I have trouble sleeping.   1 2 3 4 5

5. I feel discouraged about the future.   1 2 3 4 5

6. Reminders of my work upset me.   1 2 3 4 5

7. I have little interest in being around others.   1 2 3 4 5

8. I feel jumpy.   1 2 3 4 5

9. I am less active than usual.   1 2 3 4 5

10. I think about my work when I don't intend to.   1 2 3 4 5

11. I have trouble concentrating.   1 2 3 4 5

12. I avoid people, places, or things that remind me of my work.   1 2 3 4 5

13. I have disturbing dreams about my work.   1 2 3 4 5

14. I want to avoid working on some cases.   1 2 3 4 5

15. I am easily annoyed.   1 2 3 4 5

16. I expect something bad to happen.   1 2 3 4 5

17. I notice gaps in my memory about cases.   1 2 3 4 5

Section 2
Read each statement and indicate <u>how frequently</u> it is true for you by circling the corresponding number.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Daily

18.	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
19.	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
20.	I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
21.	Working all day is really a strain for me.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
22.	I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
23.	I feel burned out from my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
24.	I feel I am making an effective contribution to my assigned mission.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
25.	I have become less interested in my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
26.	I have become less enthusiastic about my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
27.	In my opinion, I am good at my job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
28.	I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
29.	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
30.	I just want to do my job and not be bothered.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
31.	I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes to anything.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
32.	I doubt the significance of my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
33.	At work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Section 3
Please respond to each statement concerning your <u>normal response to stress during your investigative assignments.</u> Rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement as it pertains to your usual stress response.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

34. I take additional action to try to get rid of the stress.　　　1　2　3　4　5

35. I try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.　　　1　2　3　4　5

36. I refuse to believe that it has happened.　　　1　2　3　4　5

37. I talk to someone about I how I feel.　　　1　2　3　4　5

38. I recognize the reality of the situation.　　　1　2　3　4　5

39. I give up the attempt to complete the task or get what I want.　　　1　2　3　4　5

40. I think about how I might best handle the situation.　　　1　2　3　4　5

41. I say to myself "this isn't real."　　　1　2　3　4　5

42. I concentrate my efforts on doing something about the stress.　　　1　2　3　4　5

43. I try to come up with a strategy about what to do.　　　1　2　3　4　5

44. I learn to live with it.　　　1　2　3　4　5

45. I reduce the amount of effort I'm putting into solving the problem.　　　1　2　3　4　5

46. I plan out ways in which I will overcome the stress.　　　1　2　3　4　5
47. I try to get advice from someone about what to do.　　　1　2　3　4　5
48. I pretend that the event that caused me stress never occurred.　　　1　2　3　4　5

49. I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and quit trying.　　　1　2　3　4　5

50. I accept that it has happened and that it can't be changed.　　　1　2　3　4　5
51. I learn something from the experience.　　　1　2　3　4　5

52. I quit trying to reach my goal.　　　1　2　3　4　5
53. I try to see the situation in a different light, to make it seem more positive.　　　1　2　3　4　5
54. I act as though the stressful situation never happened.　　　1　2　3　4　5
55. I take direct action to get around the problem.　　　1　2　3　4　5

56. I try to grow as a person as a result of the experience.   1   2   3   4   5

57. I look for something good in what is happening.   1   2   3   4   5

58. I allow the stress to take place.   1   2   3   4   5

59. I make a plan of action.   1   2   3   4   5

60. I think hard about what steps to take to relieve the stress.   1   2   3   4   5

61. I talk to someone who could actually help me with the problem.   1   2   3   4   5