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Assessing Stress and Coping Among Federal Probation Officers

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ASSESSING STRESS AND COPING AMONG FEDERAL PROBATION OFFICERS

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The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explored the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes. Of the criminal justice professions, probation, especially federal probation, has received the least attention in the area of stress research. Much of the probation stress literature is dated and the nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed, thereby making interpretations difficult. Although the literature discusses the role of direct supervisors on employee stress, the role of top-level leaders is rarely considered. Making decisions based on limited and dated research on probation officer stress can lead to risks for not only the officers, but society. High levels of officer stress can lead to health problems, burnout, and turnover, resulting in less experienced, overworked probation officers.

Findings from this study confirmed some of the most common stressors noted in the literature for probation officer stress, including role load and role conflict. This study assessed the use of coping factors including emotion-focused, cognitive behavioral, and religion. Officers reported minimal use of such coping methods, however, the coping methods did impact stressors. The strongest finding from this study was the influence of a

Chief United States Probation Officer's leadership behaviors, which was often the strongest predictor of working conditions and had a moderate role in the stress outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

This research addresses a general lack of investigation of organizational stress experienced by probation and parole officers. Probation and parole officers are facing increasing task loads, decreasing peer support, and a lack of overall professional guidance. These and other stressors have made it clear that a formalized assessment of stress in the probation and parole officer workplace is not merely a useful tool, but a necessity for improving the system. Initially, stress research focused on teachers, nurses, and the helping professions (Sigler, Wilson, & Allen, 1991). Subsequent research focused on occupational stress in the criminal justice field, primarily on police officers, corrections officers, and, to a lesser degree, probation and parole officers. The responsibilities and tasks of probation and parole officers create unique roles that require their involvement at each step of the criminal justice process, whereas other criminal justice practitioners primarily work in one part of the process. Much probation and parole officer stress research is outdated and contains mixed samples of officers from various levels of the criminal justice system. Only a small percentage of the probation and parole officer stress research focuses specifically on federal probation and pretrial services officers.

Theoretical Context

Occupational stress has been a focus of research for more than 30 years. The term "stress" has been in use since the seventeenth century, when Robert Hooke used the terms stress, strain, and load in engineering to describe how structures should be designed

to maintain heavy loads and resist natural forces (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). In the eighteenth century, individuals such as George Beard and Claude Bernard focused on the quickening pace of life and how it impacted health (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). In the twentieth century, Walter Cannon's research opened the door for those interested in the psychosomatic approach. His concepts include "homeostasis" and the "fight or flight response" (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Sometimes referred to as "the father of stress," Hans Selye is credited as the originator of the physiological concept of stress (Levi, 1998; Quick & Quick, 1984).

In the 1950s and 1960s, the growth of organizational psychology occurred in connection with World Wars I and II (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Richard Lazarus (1999) focused on psychological stress and drew a distinction between harm/loss, threat, and challenge. He also focused on the appraisal and coping processes that occur as transactions between the person and the environment are evaluated. In the 1960s, Kahn's work, along with that of his colleagues, exhibited the beginning of work stress research (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). The initial focus of work stress research was on role conflict, ambiguity, and overload. In the later 1970s, research turned to other stressors. Stress researchers developed models soon after. The most widely discussed model was the person-environment fit model (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Other popular models included the demand-control-support model (Levi, 1998), the effort-reward-imbalance model (Levi, 1998), and the cybernetic model (Cooper & Dewe, 2004; Levi, 1998). In addition, burnout theory based on the work of Maslach (1998 and 2003) also addressed work stress issues. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) developed a multidimensional theory of

burnout, which involves emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Compared to that of police and correctional officers, probation and parole officer occupational stress (hereafter referred to as probation officer stress) has received far less attention from researchers. As in police and corrections literature, organizational stressors are listed as the primary stressors for probation officers. A review of the criminal justice stress literature finds consistent stressors reported for probation and parole officers, including: high caseloads, excessive paperwork, lack of promotional opportunities, inadequate salaries, leniency of judges/courts, lack of participation in decision making, expectations to do too much with too little time, lack of recognition for good work, inadequate support from management, lack of community resources for offenders, role ambiguity, and role conflict (Brown, 1986, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; Simmons, Cochran, & Blount, 1997; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Thomas, 1988; White, Gasperin, Nystrom, Ambrose, & Esarey, 2006; Whitehead, 1989). It is clear that a majority of the stressors stem from the organization itself. On occasion, danger from offenders is mentioned, in some instances toward the end of a longer list of ranked stressors (e.g., Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; Thomas, 1988).

Similar to the police and corrections literature, the probation literature displayed a variety of surveys and modified surveys, limiting the ability to compare data and results. There was also a tendency among authors to interchange terms such as burnout, job stress, and job satisfaction. Many of the studies focused on probation officer stress do not control for the varying levels of respondents, such as county, state, and federal officers from different states. When discussing issues such as stress, officers working at different

levels and in different states may be facing different issues with regard to topics such as caseload sizes and salaries.

Although the officer's organization is a known source of stress, leadership and management style and overall leadership ability of supervisors and top level leaders was not discussed at length in the literature. Because management and leadership are separate and distinct concepts, the impact of each on employee stress may not be the same. With a focus on people, motivation, and inspiration, leaders likely play an important role in employee stress.

Definitions of Terms

Burnout

Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) developed a multidimensional theory of burnout that involves emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), emotional exhaustion involves being mentally exhausted by one's work; depersonalization involves an impersonal response toward recipients of one's service; and personal accomplishment involves feelings of competency and achievement in one's work (p. 4).

Chief Unites States Probation Officer (CUSPO)

The Chief United States Probation Officer position is a high-level management position and he/she reports to the Chief Judge of a District Court. CUSPOs are responsible for administration and management of the federal probation/pretrial services offices.

Coping

Based on Cherniss (1980b) and Lazarus (1999), coping is the way people manage stressful life conditions that exceed the person's resources. Social, peer, and family support act as coping factors, which can alleviate the impact of stress.

Federal Probation and Pretrial Services Officers

Federal probation and pretrial services officers (also called United States probation and pretrial services officers) are employed in the federal court system. They are responsible for investigating and supervising individuals who are charged with and convicted of crimes in the federal system (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, n.d., "Officers and Officer Assistants," Section 1).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction involves the overall fulfillment that stems from an organizational environment. Job satisfaction is primarily discussed in one of two ways. The first focuses on specific aspects of a job, including areas like compensation, co-workers, and nature of the work. The second, used in this study, focuses more generally on overall job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the binding of an employee to an organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) noted three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative (p. 11). Affective commitment involves the employee's emotional attachment and identification with the organization. Continuance commitment involves an employee's awareness of the costs associated with

leaving an organization. Normative commitment involves a feeling of obligation to remain with the organization.

Organizational Stress

Based on the definition of stress and occupation stress developed by Palmer, Cooper, and Thomas (2003; as cited in Pitts, 2007), stress takes place when perceived pressure exceeds the perceived ability to cope. Occupational stress refers to instances when the pressure is the result of conditions experienced in the organizational environment. Criminal justice literature notes that some of the reported organizational stressors for probation officers include role load, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision-making, and recognition.

Researcher Position

I worked as a federal probation and pretrial services officer for just over six years. I began as a paid intern for a pretrial services branch office. I managed its day-to-day operations because the full-time officers and supervisors were assigned to the main office. A few years later, I worked as a probation officer in the presentence unit in the main office. When I started taking classes toward my terminal degree in Administration and Leadership studies, I became acutely aware of increasing stress and decreasing job satisfaction among co-workers. I thought these were due, at least in part, to deteriorating organizational conditions in the office. My interest in the topic, as well as my concern, increased when my fellow officer and friend committed suicide. I started to question whether or not overlooking officer mental health was systemic. Although federal law requires officers to spend a certain number of hours completing annual safety training, this training was always focused on the offender as the attacker. Safety training did not

address overall officer wellness or mental health while I was employed by federal probation. More recently, officer wellness was added to the curriculum for the new officer training program at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center. In my experience, occupational stress was never a formalized discussion topic. I became interested in identifying and solving the issues associated with occupational stress.

Relevance, Purpose, and Research Approach

The purpose of this study is to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explore the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes.

Relevance and Purpose

Of the various criminal justice professions, probation has received the least attention from stress researchers. Federal probation officers in particular constitute an understudied population. Much of the literature pertaining to stress among probation officers is outdated. The nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed through time. This study provides insight into the organizational environment/working conditions and stress outcomes for federal probation officers. Lessons learned via this research can be used to inform training programs and improve training options at the federal level. This research is may also be applicable to state and local probation systems.

Also overlooked in the stress and leadership literature is the impact of top-level leaders on their employees' overall stress levels. Although there is research on the impact of a direct supervisor on an employee's organizational stress, there is minimal

research on the top level leader's impact. The strongest finding from this study was the impact of a Chief United States Probation Officer's leadership behaviors which was often one of the strongest predictors of working conditions and had a moderate role in the stress outcomes for officers.

Although the probation officer stress literature for the past 30 plus years has clearly identified organizational stressors as the primary causes of probation officer stress, at the national level actions to reduce officer stress are primarily focused on the individual. The present research seeks to provide insight and justification for organizational solutions to addressing officer stress. Specifically, this research aims to turn a traditionally reactive stress response into a more proactive one.

Research Approach

This study used a cross-sectional, quantitative research design, and the data came from an online survey. The survey population for this research included all federal probation and pretrial service officers who were employed in any of the 94 districts. The responses from 659 probation and pretrial services officers from 90 districts were included in the final sample.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explored the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes. Based on the

theory and research presented in Chapter 2, the following research questions were addressed:

1) Does participation by Chief United States Probation Officers (CUSPOs) in the leadership development program impact working conditions for officers (role load, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision making, and positive/punitive rewards behavior by supervisors)?
2) Do perceived leadership behaviors of CUSPOs impact working conditions (role load, role conflict, role ambiguity, positive and punitive reward behavior of direct supervisors, and participation in decision making) for officers?
3) Do perceived leadership behaviors of CUSPOs impact stress outcomes for officers (burnout, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived physical health)?
4) Do working conditions impact outcomes for officers?
5) Do support and coping factors mediate the effects of working conditions on outcomes for officers?

Based on these five research questions, the following 15 hypotheses were addressed by this study:

1. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity.
2. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of participation in decision making.

3. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors, and lower levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors.
4. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout.
5. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health.
6. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers.
7. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers.
8. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers.
9. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers.
10. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of self-perceived health by officers.
11. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers.

12. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.
13. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers.
14. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.
15. The more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.

Limitations

A primary limitation of this study is that, because it was a cross-sectional design, it could not clearly establish causal relationships between the variables. The primary impediment to doing so is it is not possible to confirm the time order of the variables in the study (for example, did use of the coping factor come before or after the working condition). However, this study provides suggestive and tentative information regarding the relationships between the variables discussed above.

Although this was a population survey instead of a sample survey, the response rate was relatively low. The final sample included 659 officers from 90 of the 94 districts. Participation was voluntary and depended upon the officer's knowledge of the survey. There could be differences, therefore, between officers who completed the survey and those who did not.

Nearly all of the data in this study are self-reported via the survey instrument. Self-report surveys measure what people say about their own relationship to topics presented in the survey, rather than measuring what the respondents actually do. Monette, Sullivan, and DeJong (2005) explain that "surveys do not directly measure those thoughts, feelings, and behaviors" of the individuals (p. 158).

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study is to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explore the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes. Of the criminal justice professions, probation, especially federal probation, has received the least attention in the area of stress. Much of the probation stress literature is dated and the nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed. Although the role of direct supervisors on employee stress is discussed in the literature, the role of top-level leaders is rarely considered. Limited and dated research on probation officer stress can lead to risks for not only the officers, but society. High levels of officer stress can lead to health problems, burnout, and turnover, resulting in less experienced, overworked probation officers. In the next chapter, I provide a review of the stress literature and present a conceptual framework of federal probation and pretrial officer stress. Next, I provide a more detailed description of the methodology in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, I present the results of my analyses and report which hypotheses are supported by the data. In Chapter

5, I discuss the implications of the results for theory, policy, and future research on probation officers.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Overview

Of the criminal justice professions, probation, especially federal probation, has received the least attention in the area of stress. Much of the probation stress literature is more than twenty years old, and the nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed. This doctoral research study assessed the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explored the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes.

This chapter has four sections. The first section provides a history of the federal probation and pretrial services system, including a discussion of the unique role of probation officers. The second section provides a discussion of organizational stress literature, including organizational stress literature in criminal justice occupations. The third section provides a discussion of the role of leadership and support in occupation stress. The theories and research presented in this chapter form the theoretical basis for the conceptual model discussed in the final section.

History and Overview of Federal Probation and Pretrial Services

The Federal Probation System and Federal Pretrial Services, two programs now fundamentally linked, have quite separate chronological and systemic origins in the 1900s. The United States Congress established the Federal Probation System in 1925 and the District of Massachusetts appointed the first officer in 1927 (Administrative Office of

the U.S. Courts, n.d.). The United States Congress did not establish Federal Pretrial Services nationally until 1982. Federal Probation and Pretrial Services offices are located in 93 of the 94 United States judicial districts (the District of Guam provides probation and pretrial services for the District of the Northern Mariana Islands) (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, n.d., "Mission," Section 4).

The Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts (n.d.) lists several significant events in the history of the federal probation and pretrial service system since the establishment of Pretrial Services. The two most prominent of these events in the early years of Pretrial Services are the Bail Reform Act of 1984 and the Sentencing Reform Act of 1986. By allowing courts to detain dangerous defendants, the Bail Reform Act of 1984 increased detention rates and led to the use of alternatives to incarceration including community supervision and home detention. The Sentencing Reform Act of 1986 changed the sentencing process in federal courts. The establishment of sentencing guideline calculations changed the role of the probation officer in sentencing. Officers were responsible for presentence reports and guidelines calculations, placing them in more of an adversarial role in the courtroom.

The most recent event of major significance occurred in 2005 when the Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts established a national training academy for new officers at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Charleston, North Carolina. The center provides training for new officers, their use of firearms, and for safety instructors. In 2011, the academy developed and implemented a curriculum for new officers focusing on officer wellness (personal communication with Gene DiMaria October 25, 2012).

Tasks of Probation and Parole Officers

Kaeble, Maruschak, and Bonczar (2015) reported that at the end of 2014, there were over 4.7 million adults under community supervision. Community supervision includes those adults who are on probation, parole, or any other post-prison supervision across local, state, and federal jurisdictions. Kaeble et al. (2015) attribute a 1% decline in the probation population and a small increase in the parole population for the overall changes in the community supervision population between 2013 and 2014. Since 2007, the community supervision population has declined by 8% (Kaeble et al., 2015). More specifically since 2007, the probation population declined by 10% and the parole population increased by 3.7% (Kaeble et al., 2015).

According to Kaeble et al. (2015), the federal probation population also experienced a very small decline in 2014. The overall federal community supervision population declined by .1%, which was primarily attributed to the federal parole population. The federal probation population numbers did not experience much of a change. The Bureau of Justice Statistics has not published a report regarding the probation and parole population for 2015. However, in the 2015 Annual Report for the Administrative Office of the United States Courts, Director James C. Duff noted in his Director's Message, "Probation offices nationwide prepared to receive the single largest caseload increase in the system's 90-year history. Close to 6,000 inmates were released from prison in late October pursuant to amendments to the U.S. Sentencing Guidelines that reduced the custody range for certain drug offenses" (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, 2015). Based upon the statement by Director Duff, it appears that federal

probation and pretrial service officers are experiencing an increase in caseloads while the overall supervision population nationally is declining.

Probation and parole officers primarily spend their time investigating, writing reports, and supervising offenders. In addition, officers visit and interview offenders, make referrals, and contact other agencies within and outside of the criminal justice system (i.e., schools, employers, police officers, etc.) to gather information (Abadinsky, 2009). Dr. Howard Abadinsky, a professor of criminal justice at St. John's University has written several books in the criminal justice field, including a probation and parole theory and practice focused book. Based on Strong (1981), Abadinsky (2009) breaks the tasks of probation and parole officers into 10 parts: information manager, evaluator, enabler, educator, broker, advocate, mediator, community planner, agent of detection, and enforcer (p. 254).

The preference of one task over another is based upon the mission and focus of the agency for which the officer works. Abadinsky (2009) discusses the various models of probation/parole agencies: the control model, the social services model, or a combined model. In the control model, control of the offenders' activities is the main focus of the agency. In the social services model, the focus is on offender needs, such as employment, housing, and therapy. An agency with a combined model, focuses on social services while also focusing on control of the offenders' activities. Within these models, the probation and parole officers take on a specific role toward the offender: law enforcement, rehabilitation, or a blend (Abadinsky, 2009). The law enforcement role focuses on protection of the community and control of the offender; the rehabilitation

role focuses on improved welfare of the offender; and the blended role attempts to combine both a law enforcement and rehabilitation role when working with an offender.

The Administrative Office of the United States Courts (n.d., "Mission," Section 3) calls federal probation and pretrial services officers the "eyes and ears" of the federal courts and indicates that officers do the following (divided into three categories: investigation, report writing, and supervision):

- Gather and verify information about persons who come before the courts.
- Prepare reports that the courts rely on to make release and sentencing decisions.
- Supervise persons released to the community by the courts and paroling authorities.
- Direct persons under supervision to services to help them avoid further law-breaking, including substance abuse treatment, mental health treatment, medical care, training, and employment assistance.

In order to conduct thorough investigations, probation and pretrial services officers use a variety of resources to gather information. Officers conduct interviews with the offender. In addition, officers may contact other criminal justice officials, victims of the crime, and/or the offender's employers, family members, educational institutions, treatment providers, and medical providers. During investigations, officers conduct criminal records checks and gather court and police records. Additional records often obtained by officers include educational, medical, mental health, employment, and military records.[1]

[1] For a more detailed discussion of investigations, see Abadinsky, 2009, Ch. 3.

Federal pretrial services officers typically conduct an investigation prior to a person's initial appearance in federal court. Their reports assist United States Magistrate Judges in determining whether or not a person should be released on bond. During this investigation, the officer "presumes the defendant is innocent until proven guilty. The officer doesn't discuss the alleged offense or the defendant's guilt or innocence during the interview" (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, n.d., "Officers and Officer Assistants," Section 2).

Federal probation officers conduct a presentence investigation once a person has entered a guilty plea or has been found guilty by trial. The presentence investigation report contains a summary of the offense, the sentencing guideline calculations, and detailed information about the defendant including his or her criminal history, family history, residential history, education and employment history, medical and mental health history, substance abuse history, financial condition, and assessment of ability to pay a fine. The presentence report also includes a sentencing recommendation from the probation officer, including recommendations for conditions for supervised release or probation. In some districts, the recommendation is kept confidential and is only provided to the sentencing United States District Court Judge. In other districts, the recommendation is provided to all parties.[2]

While supervising offenders, federal probation officers must also conduct investigations when an offender commits a probation or supervised release violation. Depending upon the nature of the violation (i.e., drug use), an officer must notify the Court via a letter. When a substantive (new charge) violation occurs, the officer must also

[2] For a more detailed discussion of presentence investigation reports or samples, see Abadinsky, 2009, Chap. 3.

include in the letter the final disposition of the new charge (S. Meyers, personal communication, September 7, 2010). Also depending upon the nature of the violation, officers may need to submit a written petition to the court for a warrant (S. Meyers, personal communication, September 7, 2010).

Supervision addresses the key criminal justice goals of enforcing the court's order, protecting the community, and providing treatment and assistance (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, n.d.). Both pretrial services and probation officers are responsible for supervision. Pretrial services officers supervise defendants who are released into the community on bond pending trial. As part of release, magistrate judges often include bond conditions, which are then enforced by the officers. In general, pretrial services officers' supervision responsibilities are to "1) monitor defendants' compliance with their release conditions; 2) manage risk; 3) provide necessary services as ordered by the court, such as drug treatment; and 4) inform the court and the U.S. attorney if the defendant violates the conditions" (Office of Probation and Pretrial Services, 2007a, p. 2).

Federal probation officers supervise offenders who are sentenced to a term of probation or are placed on supervised release or parole after a period of incarceration. In addition, federal probation officers supervise offenders placed into the community by military authorities. The Office of Probation and Pretrial Services (2007b) states that "supervision begins with assessing the offender, identifying potential supervision problems, and making a supervision plan" (p. 2). As officers evaluate offenders' responses to supervision, the court may revise supervision plans and modify their

conditions. When offenders do not comply with supervision, they face sanctions from the probation officer and ultimately the court.

Unique Role of Probation

The aforementioned responsibilities and tasks of probation and parole officers create a unique role that requires their involvement at each step of the criminal justice process, whereas other criminal justice practitioners primarily work in one part of the process. Petersilia (1997) explains, "probation officials, operating with a great deal of discretionary authority, significantly affect most subsequent justice processing decisions" (pp. 157-158). For example, federal probation and pretrial services officers are involved after an offender is arrested to assist in determining whether they are placed on bond. They continue to be involved through the sentencing process and subsequent supervision. In addition, officers assist the Bureau of Prisons in assessing home plans when offenders are close to release. With the recent development of workforce development programs, some programs involve U.S. Probation employees working with incarcerated offenders. In contrast, police officers are involved with offenders only at the time of arrest and investigation; corrections officers are only involved with offenders during incarceration. Figure 1 provides an overview of the criminal justice system and highlights each of the areas where probation and parole officers are involved.

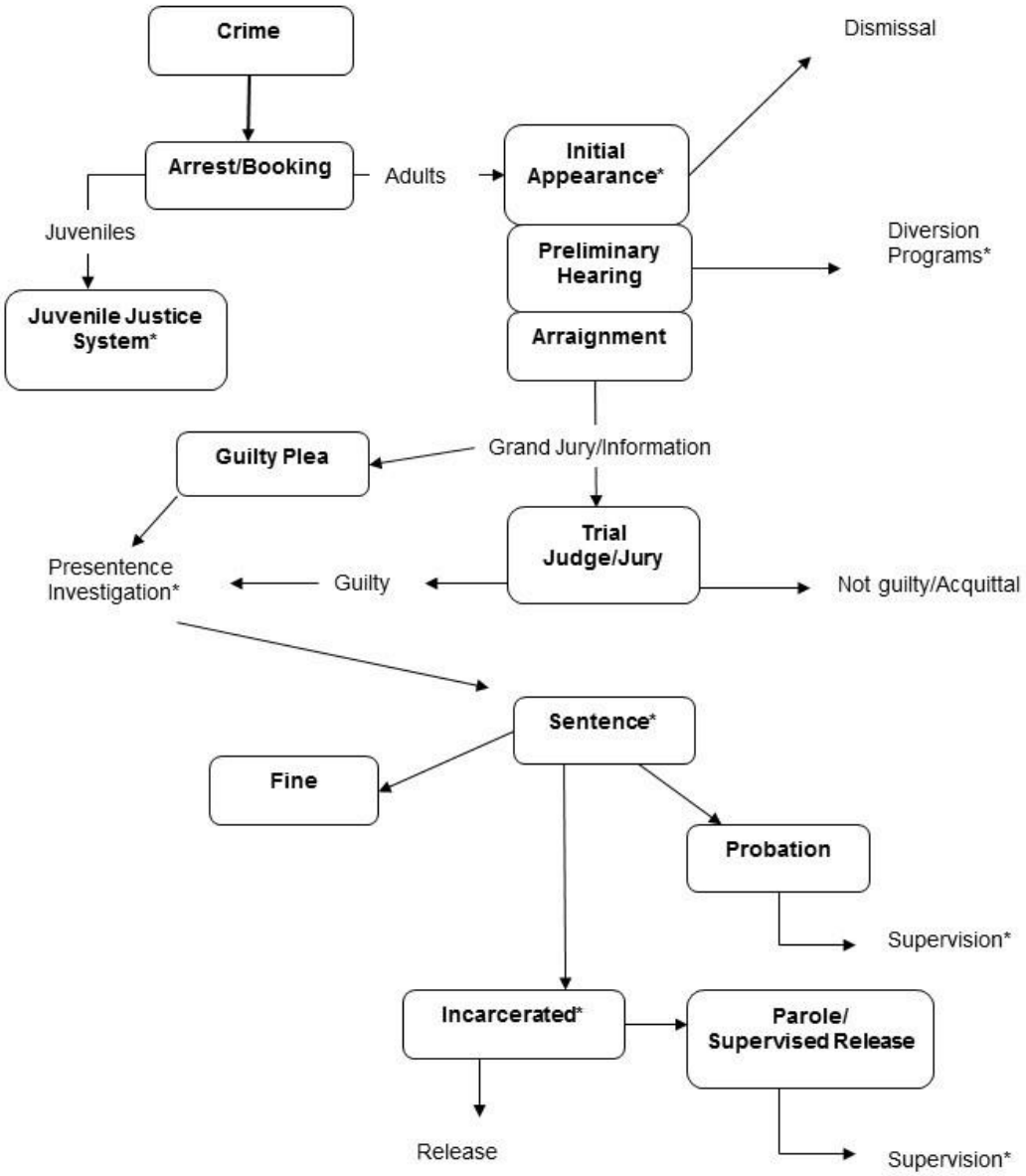

Figure 1. Depiction of the criminal justice system. Probation and/or parole officer involvement in certain aspects of the system are depicted by an asterisk (*). Please note that this may occur only at certain levels. For instance, at the federal level, probation officers assist the Federal Bureau of Prisons with the approval of home plans prior to offenders release date. In addition, some federal workforce development programs involve U.S. Probation employees working with incarcerated offenders. Adapted from *Probation and Parole: Theory and Practice* (10th ed.) (p.63), by H. Abadinsky, 2009, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall. Reprinted by permission of Pearson Education, Inc.

The variety of responsibilities unique to probation officers can add to stress for probation officers in ways such as role conflict. Officers often simultaneously play the various roles required to fulfill the duties required in different parts of the system. The officers face conflict resulting from the emphasis on treatment rather than control. In addition, officers who move from pretrial work (where a defendant is presumed innocent) to probation work (where an offender has been found guilty or has pled guilty) are working under two different philosophies.

Occupational Stress Literature

Occupational stress has been a focus of research for more than 30 years (Cooper & Dewe, 2004; Lazarus, 1999; Selye, 1976). The following section discusses the history of occupational stress research, including the various models of stress. The section then presents occupational stress literature in criminal justice, including in police, corrections, and probation.

History of Occupational Stress

Lazarus (1999), citing Lumsden (1981), stated that it appears that the first non-technical use of the word "stress" occurred in the fourteenth century to refer to hardship, straits, adversity, or affliction (p. 31). In the seventeenth century, the term stress took on technical importance when Robert Hooke used the terms stress, strain, and load in engineering to describe how structures should be designed to maintain heavy loads and resist natural forces (Cooper & Dewe, 2004).

In the eighteenth century, there was a focus on the quickening pace of life and how it impacted health via the works of individuals like George Beard and Claude Bernard (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Beard described a condition called "neurasthenia,"

which was a nervous exhaustion involving anxiety, fatigue, and irrational fears. Cooper and Dewe noted that Beard's work was important because he removed the social disapproval attached to such illnesses and drew attention to the role society played in the production of mental illness. Bernard's contribution involved his idea that "the internal environment of living organisms must remain fairly constant in response to changes in the external environment" (p. 5). Citing Selye (1991), Cooper and Dewe noted that Bernard's work was important because he motivated future researchers to explore the adaptive changes that allow a steady state to be maintained in the human body.

An important twentieth-century researcher, Walter Cannon opened the door for those interested in the psychosomatic approach with his concepts including "homeostasis" and the "fight or flight response" (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Cooper and Dewe noted that the influence of Cannon's work is visible in the fact that all of the theories of stress that followed rely on some form of homeostasis or compensatory activity.

Sometimes referred to as "the father of stress," Hans Selye is credited as the originator of the physiological concept of stress (Levi, 1998; Quick & Quick, 1984). While working as an assistant in the Department of Biochemistry at McGill University in Montreal conducting research on sex hormones, Selye (1976) injected ovarian and placental extracts into rats in an attempt to discover a new hormone. As noted by Selye (1976) and summarized by Levi (1998), Selye found that the injections triggered a triad of organic changes in the rats. Later injections of kidney, spleen, and other tissues found the same triad of organic changes. Selye (1976) later named the entire process "general

adaptation syndrome" (p. 38), which has three stages: (a) alarm reaction, (b) resistance, and (c) exhaustion (p. 38).

Selye chose to refer to general adaptation syndrome more simply as "stress." In choosing the term stress, Selye (1976) explained that his knowledge of the English language left him unable to distinguish between the terms "stress" and "strain." Selye (1976) stated, "actually I should have called my phenomenon the 'strain reaction' and that which causes it 'stress,' which would parallel the use of these terms in physics. However, by the time that this came to my attention, 'biologic stress' in my sense of the word was so generally accepted in various languages that I could not have redefined it" (p. 51). Therefore, Selye introduced the word "stressor" as the causative agent. Levi (1998) defined stress based on the work of Selye as "the *lowest common denominator* in the organism's reactions to every conceivable kind of stressor exposure, challenge and demand or, in other words, the stereotypy, the general features in the organism's reaction to all kinds of stressors" (p. vi).

The growth of organizational psychology and the application of psychological methods to work settings took place in the 1950s and 1960s (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Lazarus (1999) stated that stress became a research focus in the United States in connection with World Wars I and II. The initial research was conducted primarily by members of the military who hoped research could provide information on how men should be selected for combat and who would be resistant to the stress of combat. Following World War II, stress became a topic for everyone, not just soldiers. According to Lazarus (1999), the interest in stress expanded from the military to the daily activities of everyone because modern war had become total war, and the stress of war impacted

everyone, not just soldiers. In addition, people realized that stress existed in peacetime as well as wartime. Cooper and Dewe (2004) noted that this period of time specifically influenced organizational psychology. "The tremendous contribution psychologists made in terms of selection and assessment during the war years, coupled with the work on leadership, added new depth to the growing field of industrial psychology, with the discipline that we now know as organizational or occupational psychology beginning to take shape" (Cooper & Dewe, 2004, p. 62).

Another influential researcher during the twentieth century was Richard Lazarus. Lazarus has published more than 200 articles and 20 books based in clinical and personality psychology since the 1950s. Lazarus (1999) focused on psychological stress and drew a distinction between harm/loss, threat, and challenge and argued that each had different appraisals associated with it. Lazarus (1999) formed the Berkeley Stress and Coping Project to develop a theoretical framework for psychological stress. Cooper and Dewe (2004) noted that the Berkeley Stress and Coping Project went through three incarnations: the influence of appraisal, emotions and coping, and the transition from laboratory to field research. In the third phase of the Berkeley Stress and Coping Project, Lazarus and his colleagues developed the *Hassles and Uplifts Scale* and the *Ways of Coping Interview-Questionnaire*. Cooper and Dewe (2004) noted that the coping questionnaire became one of the most widely used questionnaires in coping research. During the third phase of research, Lazarus shifted his focus from stress to emotions (Cooper and Dewe, 2004). According to Lazarus (1999), "stress tells us relatively little about the details of a person's struggle to adapt. Emotion, conversely, includes at least 15

different varieties, greatly increasing the richness of what can be said about a person's adaptational struggle" (p. 33), suggesting that stress is a simpler idea than emotion.

The beginning of work stress research was visible through the work of Kahn and his colleagues in the 1960s (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). The initial focus of work stress research was on role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload. In the later 1970s, research began to focus on alternative stressors. Beehr and Newman (1978), Cooper and Marshall (1976), and Cox (1978) each created lists of categories of work stressors (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Cooper and Dewe (2004) summarized Cooper and Marshall's (1976) list: factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, career development, organizational structure and climate, relationships at work, and extra-organizational sources of stress (pp. 90-91).

Models and Theories of Occupational Stress

Models and theories of work stress were soon developed. Cooper and Dewe (2004) reported that the most widely discussed theory is the person-environment fit theory. Other popular models include the demand-control-support model (Levi, 1998), the effort-reward-imbalance model (Levi, 1998), and the cybernetic model (Cooper & Dewe, 2004; Levi, 1998). In addition, burnout theory based on the work of Maslach (1998 and 2003) and Maslach and Leiter (1997) also addresses work stress issues.

Person-environment fit theory. Edwards, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1998) stated that the fundamental premise of the person-environment fit theory is that stress stems from the misfit between the person and their environment. There are three core distinctions in the theory: (a) between the person and the environment; (b) between the objective and subjective representations of the person and environment; and (c) between

the demands of the environment and the abilities of the person, and the match between needs of the person and supplies in the environment that pertain to the person's needs (pp. 29-30). According to Edwards et al. (1998), some presentations of person-environment fit do not define stress because the theory is primarily concerned with the nature of person-environment fit. Edwards et al. (1998) defined stress in the context of this theory as "a *subjective appraisal indicating that supplies are insufficient to fulfill the person's needs*, with the provision that insufficient supplies may occur as a consequence of unmet demands" (p. 32). Edwards et al. cautioned readers about the limitations of person-environment fit theory. First, it is a process theory; therefore, the content of the various dimensions must come from other theories. Second, it provides little discussion of coping and defense.

Demand-control-support model. Karasek (1979) introduced the demand-control-support model. It focuses on job strain, which develops from the demands of a work situation and the amount of decision-making latitude (discretion) available to the worker. Karasek (1979) stated that job strain "occurs when job demands are high and job decision latitude is low" and it "is related to the dependent variable, symptoms of mental strain" (p. 287). Porter (2009) explained that the social support aspect of the model refers to the support given to people by supervisors, subordinates, and co-workers. Theorell (1998) noted that the social support aspect of the demand-control-support model was developed by Johnson (Johnson and Hall, 1988).

Karasek's (1979) model included four types of job situations: passive, active, low strain, and high strain. Karasek (1979) found that active jobs, which involved high job demands and the opportunity for significant use of discretion, produced the most job

satisfaction. In addition, Karasek (1979) found that strain increased as job demands increased relative to decreasing job control (p. 288). Porter (2009) explained that support was found to increase a person's sense of self-efficacy and assisted in the person's ability to deal with the demands of the workplace. Karasek's research led to the development of the Job Content Questionnaire (Porter, 2009). Discussing the limitations of the demand-control support model, Theorell (1998) stated that the measurement of Karasek's model is primarily limited to self-report data, which can be biased. In addition, Theorell (1998) suggested when studying occupations with frequent client or patient contact, it may be necessary to differentiate between quantitative and qualitative work demands.

Spector (1998) discussed a control theory of the job stress process in which control has both a direct and moderating effect. The job stress process model states that "perceived stressors lead to emotional reactions, which lead to job strains" (p. 156). Spector noted that in the job stress process, it is control over the immediate and specific job stressors that is important. "Merely having autonomy or being able to participate in decisions may or may not have any effect on job stressors" (p. 156).

Spector explained the various roles of control in the job stress process. First, perceived control acts as a mediator between environmental and perceived job stressors. Second, control also impacts which coping approach a person will choose: emotion-focused or problem-focused. For example, a person who perceives high levels of control over a situation is more likely to attempt a problem-focused coping approach, attempting to overcome the situation.

Spector (1998) also discussed the role of locus of control and self-efficacy in the connection between environmental and perceived control. Locus of control refers to a

person's belief that he or she is able to control rewards and punishments. Spector (1998) explained that "locus of control is expected to relate to perceived control in that externals [person perceives others to be in control] should be lower than internals [person feels in control]" (p. 158). Locus of control also relates to job strain. Spector noted that internals, who feel more in control in general, may have less emotional as well as more constructive responses. Self-efficacy involves "the belief, limited to a specific domain, that a person is able to be effective in accomplishing something" (Spector, 1998, p. 158). Those who believe they are capable will be unlikely to view the situation as a job stressor (Spector, 1998). Spector cited Nelson and Sutton (1990), who found that those with high self-efficacy—or high mastery at work—reported lower levels of job stressors than those with low self-efficacy.

Effort-reward-imbalance model. Siegrist (1998) proposed that the core assumption of the effort-reward-imbalance model is that the "work role in adult life defines a crucial link between self-regulatory functions such as self-esteem and self-efficacy and the social opportunity structure" (p. 192). Occupational status offers opportunities of contributing and performing, being rewarded or esteemed, and belonging to a group such as one's coworkers. Siegrist (1998) noted that the effort-reward-imbalance model involves a lack of reciprocity between costs and rewards, which results in emotional distress. Theorell (1998) clarified the effort-reward-imbalance model stating that emotional tensions occur and the chance for illness increases when a high degree of effort does not correspond to a high degree of reward.

Cybernetic model. Cummings and Cooper (1998) captured an example from cybernetics in that the focus is on the use of information and feedback to control

purposeful behavior. Citing Buckley (1967, p.53), Cummings and Cooper (1998) explained that the basic premise of cybernetics is that "behavior is directed at reducing deviations from a specific goal-state: 'it is the deviations from the goal-state itself that direct the behavior of the system, rather than some predetermined internal mechanism that aims blindly'" (p. 101). Cummings and Cooper (1998) used Miller's (1965) application of cybernetics in their discussion, which applies to living systems and their attempts to maintain balance in multiple variables. Stress is defined as "any force displacing a variable beyond its range of stability, [causing] strain within the organism" (Cummings and Cooper, 1998, p. 102). Threat—or the knowledge that stress is likely to happen—can also cause strain in an organism. People use adjustment processes to reduce deviations from their preferred states, guided by information feedback.

Cummings and Cooper (1998) described three properties of feedback processes that determine their effectiveness: probability of error, time required to affect the individual, and extent of corrective effect (p. 103). For example, negative feedback that has a low probability of error, a short lag time, or a large gain will typically be more effective than feedback with different characteristics. Cooper (1998) explained that although this theory of cybernetics uses a person-environment framework,

> Its perspective emphasizes time, information and feedback as essential constructs underlying the stress cycle from the detection of strain, through the choice of adjustment processes to cope with the threat situation, and on to the subsequent feedback about coping effects. It recognizes that coping behavior is purposeful, directed by knowledge of its previous effects. (p. 3)

Burnout theory. Interest in the area of burnout primarily developed out the work of Christina Maslach and Herbert Freudenberger (Paine, 1982). Maslach (1998) developed a multidimensional theory of burnout. Maslach explained that her initial research was not focused on burnout, but rather on emotion and how people understand and cope with their feelings. Maslach and her colleagues conducted the first interviews with physicians and nurses. They conducted additional interviews with mental health professionals including psychiatrists, psychiatric nurses, and hospice counselors. The interviews were subsequently expanded to include others working in human services and education including social workers, ministers, teachers, prison guards, probation officers, and poverty lawyers (Maslach, 1998). Maslach (1998) noted that what appeared to link all of the occupations together was the core of their work— "providing aid and service to people in need" (p. 71).

From the research, a multidimensional theory of burnout developed. Maslach (2003) noted that burnout is a type of job stress, defined as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p. 2). According to Maslach (2003), the unique aspect of burnout is that stress stems from "the *social* interaction between helper and recipient" (p. 2). The research also led to the development of a survey instrument, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1996), which assesses the three core components of burnout - emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1998). This inventory has become a leading instrument for burnout research.

Another area of burnout research is focused on engagement, which is the opposite or contrasting state compared with burnout itself (Maslach, 1998). Using the same core dimensions as burnout, this positive version is "a state of high *energy* (rather than exhaustion), strong *involvement* (rather than cynicism), and a sense of *efficacy* (rather than a reduced sense of accomplishment" (Maslach, 1998, p. 73). Maslach (1998) thus defined the burnout-to-engagement continuum. "The opposite of burnout is not a neutral state, but a definite state of mental health and social functioning within the occupational domain" (p. 73). This continuum illustrates that there are many reactions employees can have to the organizational environment, "ranging from the intense involvement and satisfaction of engagement, through indifference to the exhausted, distant, and discouraged state of burnout" (Maslach, 1998, p. 73).

A final area of research in burnout overlaps with the person-environment fit model. Maslach (1998) explained that the theoretical challenge was to expand person-fit theory to a broader conceptualization of the person and the job and to combine that with models of job stress (p. 74). Maslach and Leiter (1997) created a model to address this challenge. The model proposes that the greater the misfit or mismatch between the person and the job, the greater the likelihood of burnout (Maslach, 1998). The first new aspect of this model is that there are six specific areas of mismatch comparable between the worker and the workplace, which provide a better evaluation of the worker with the organizational context. The six specific areas of mismatch are: work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, breakdown of community, absence of fairness, and value conflict. Maslach (1998) noted that the areas of mismatch are not necessarily independent of each other and may be interrelated. A second aspect of the job-person mismatch model

is that the model specifically hypothesizes that burnout is a mediator between fit and certain outcomes (Maslach, 1998, p. 74).

Summary of occupational stress models and theories. As the concept of stress has developed over time, it has expanded from physics and biology into psychology and organizational stress. As noted previously, Cannon's concept of "homeostasis" or compensatory activity is visible in the subsequent stress theories and models. In stress models there is often an imbalance of some sort, for example there might be a misfit between the person and their environment or there may be an imbalance between effort and the reward. After reviewing criminal justice occupational stress literature in the next section, I will create an integrated model of occupational stress and develop a conceptual model.

Occupational Stress Literature in Criminal Justice

Occupational stress research initially focused on teachers, nurses, and the helping professions (Sigler, Wilson, & Allen, 1991). Subsequent research focused on occupational stress in the criminal justice field, primarily on police officers, corrections officers, and, to a lesser degree, probation and parole officers. Past researchers in the criminal justice field focused on stressors both internal and external to organizations. Although some stressors are common to all three occupations, some are unique for the individual criminal justice practitioners.

Occupational stress and police officers. Research on police officers' occupational stress is extensive, dates back over thirty years, and crosses international borders. Evans and Coman (1993) state that "officers' perceptions of and feelings about the nature of their work organization, its rules and operating procedures have a greater

impact on reported stress levels than do the actual duties officers perform" (p. 17). Although the nature of law enforcement work is dangerous, officers expect and prepare for this aspect of their work. Officers do not expect and are often not prepared for organizational stressors, such as demanding supervisors or inconsistent enforcement of policies and rules. A review of the literature indicates that stressors for police officers can be assigned to four categories: (1) organizational; (2) law-enforcement-work related; (3) criminal-justice-system and general-public related; and (4) personal and family (Crank & Caldero, 1991; Finn & Esselman Tomz, 1996, and Laufersweiler-Dwyer & Dwyer, 2000).

The literature on police officers reflects the dangerous nature of police work, including exposure to incidents of violence as a work environment stressor. Gilmartin (2002) explains how officers must always be prepared for a potential incident,

> Central to the development of any officer safety skills is the understanding that officers not only must perceive the environment as potentially lethal, but also must accomplish this perceptual task immediately, when time is of the utmost essence. They must perceive the environment rapidly and accurately. Interpreting each unknown as potentially lethal permits the officer to have a greater sense of preparedness, regardless of how the unknown event actually plays out in the end. (p. 34)

Several studies concluded, however, that although the nature of their work is stressful officers expect this aspect of their work and are trained for it (Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2002). Stinchcomb (2004) notes that while officers expect the gravity of their work, they do not expect the "chronic organizational irritants: the demanding

supervisor; the difficult co-worker; the micro-managing administrator" (p. 264). Crank and Caldero (1991) reported that danger or the potential for danger was rarely perceived as a primary source of stress by police officers in their survey of eight municipal departments. An interesting note is that Gershon (2000) found in a literature review that one specific dangerous and violent type of incident, the death of a co-worker in the line of duty, is extremely stressful and linked to post-traumatic stress disorder for police officers.

Other task or nature of work stressors noted in the police stress literature include role conflict; shift work; frequent exposure to human depravity and suffering; stressful assignments like undercover work; citizen contact; and liability (Crank & Caldero, 1991; Evans & Coman, 1993; Finn & Esselman Tomaz,1996; and Gershon, 2000). In a study of Australian police officers, Evans and Coman (1993) categorized job stressors as job content stressors and job context stressors. Job content stressors result from actual job duties. Job context stressors, on the other hand, result from perceived difficulties in the work environment. Evans and Coman concluded that although Australian police officers are occasionally exposed to highly stressful job content events, they are often expected as part of their job. In contrast, the same police officers are frequently exposed to stressful events that stem from the nature of the organization for which they work (job context events) (Evans & Coman, 1993, pp. 14-19).

The stressors related to the law enforcement organization seemingly focus on management, decision-making, and feedback. Finn and Esselman Tomz (1996) noted that the most common sources of stress are the results of the policies and procedures of law enforcement agencies. A review of the literature suggests that the following are reported

as common sources of stress: shift work; paramilitary structure; bureaucratic nature of police organizations; unproductive management styles; inconsistent enforcement of rules; lack of input into policy and decision-making; perceived favoritism; perceived excessive paperwork; lack of administrative support; insufficient feedback; lack of promotional opportunities and mobility; and limited or lacking equipment, training, financial resources, and salaries (Crank & Caldero, 1991; Finn & Esselman Tomz, 1996; Gershon, 2000; Sigler, Wilson, & Allen, 1991; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2002).

Morash, Haarr, and Kwak (2006) found that the officers who reported high stress "felt [it] from racial or ethnic bias and they spent considerable time and energy dealing with and helping other officers deal with prejudice and bias" (p. 35). In addition, Morash et al. found that officers who felt stressed also felt that they had no influence over department policies and procedures. According to a study conducted by Laufersweiler-Dwyer and Dwyer (2000), the macro-level of an organization contributed the most to an officer's perceived stress level. Laufersweiler-Dwyer and Dwyer (2000) concluded that the most meaningful factors in predicting perceived stress scores were (a) organizational policies and structures, (b) issues of work overload and resource allocation, and (c) organizational processes. Zhao, He, and Lovrich (2002) found that autonomy and feedback were predictors of police officer stress. Zhao et al. also noted that the bureaucratic structure, including management practices, had an adverse impact on police officer stress.

Recommendations for combating officer stress often fall into two categories: individual coping method instruction, or organizational assessment and change. Laufersweiler-Dwyer and Dwyer (2000) stated, "we must recognize that in order to

create healthy workers, we must look away from the person-centered approach to stress management and direct our efforts toward the organization-centered approach" (p. 462). When agencies fail to address the organizational or administrative stressors but offer individual coping method instruction, it is likely that organizational stress will remain because the cause of the stress has not been addressed. In addition, incoming employees will then simply face the same stressors, and a recurring problem of individual coping instruction begins. It is a reactive instead of proactive approach. As an example of how to combat organizational stressors, Morash et al. (2006) suggested, "to the extent that police organizational culture and the structure and practices of police departments create stressors, efforts aimed at how officers treat each other and at their control over work activities would be most effective" (p. 37).

Stressors that stem from actions of the criminal justice system and the general public are cited in the literature but are not frequently the focus of studies. Finn and Esselman Tomz (1996) provided the following examples as stressors in this category: court rulings perceived as too lenient on offenders or as too restrictive on methods of investigation; inconvenient scheduling of court appearances; perceived lack of respect from other court personnel and the general public; negative media coverage; and the lack of understanding about the difficulties of police work by families and friends (pp. 11-12). Ellison and Genz (1983) and Kroes (1985), as cited by Sigler, Wilson, and Allen (1991), discussed the stress officers experience because they are caught between the courts and the public. One example where this is visible is when officers are "urged to use their discretion when processing high-status persons" (p. 362).

Stressors related to an individual police officer's personal life and approach to the stressful event are often discussed in the literature. Gershon (2000) discussed certain personality characteristics that have a relationship with perceived stress including Type A behaviors including aggressiveness, hyper-alertness, and tenseness of muscles. Demographic variables tend to be included in studies as control variables. Common demographic variables are similar to those used by Zhao et al. (2002): ethnicity, educational attainment, years of service, shift assignment, and supervisory duty (p. 51). Buzawa, Austin, and Bannon (1994) and Neiderhoffer (1967), cited by Zhao et al., suggest that length of service correlates with burnout, reduced job satisfaction, and increased stress among police personnel. Gershon (2000) stated that gender, race, age, sexual orientation, income, and job category have been associated with work stress. In addition, Gershon noted that life events, health status, locus of control, worker-job fit, and career orientation are other individual stressors for officers.

Regarding educational accomplishment, research results are inconclusive. Some studies suggest that increased education results in decreased stress levels (e.g., Laufersweiler-Dwyer & Dwyer, 2000), whereas others found that increased education lowered officers' stress levels (e.g., Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2002). Studies on gender have also been mixed, with some studies finding no difference in stress levels between males and females (Laufersweiler-Dwyer & Dwyer, 2000). According to Finn and Esselman Tomz (1996), other personal stressors for officers included anxiety regarding their responsibility to protect the public, disappointment when high expectations about the job are not met, worry about their own competency to do the job, and fear about doing something against regulations or policy.

Laufersweiler-Dwyer and Dwyer (2000) discussed an important caution about the early police stress research and literature. “The majority of this early research was based on personal observation, personal interviews, personal experiences, or was simply inferred from unknown sources” (Laufersweiler-Dwyer & Dwyer, 2000, p. 448). The studies reviewed include a variety of surveys and modified versions of surveys, rendering comparisons of results quite difficult.

Occupational stress and correctional officers. Correctional officer stress has also been researched and discussed extensively; however, this research is more recent, and therefore has been conducted for a shorter period of time compared to police officer stress research. Cullen, Link, Wolfe, and Frank (1985) explained that although research in policing focused on the effects of law enforcement employment, the initial research in corrections primarily focused on the nature of inmate life. Citing Jacobs and Crotty (1983, p. 133-134), Cullen et al. (1985) noted:

> At best, commentators either neglected correctional officers completely or studied guards only in terms of how they relate to inmates (e.g., the corruption of guards’ authority). At worst, without benefit of data, they reinforced the notions that officers either come to the job imbued with authoritarian impulses or are inevitably transformed into brutish creatures by the inherent inhumanities of the prison social structure (p. 506).

Unlike police officers, corrections officers work in a contained environment with a captive population. They stand between that captive population and their freedom. A director of the Rhode Island Department of Corrections confirmed this nature of corrections and its connection to stress stating, “you have a captive population that

doesn't want to be here and wants to be as comfortable as possible for as long as they have to be incarcerated. And correctional officers stand in the way of those desires, there's built in tension and manipulation" (Finn, 2000, p. 12). In addition to the nature of the facility, Cheek and Miller (1983) showed that longer sentences resulted in overcrowding, the presence of more violent offenders, and the presence of more mentally ill offenders. These factors are forces that cause tension and stress in the corrections field. Cheek and Miller (1983) also noted,

> Resulting officer stress and burn-out has led to soaring organizational costs due to high rates of absenteeism and turnover. Moreover, impaired job performance in terms of passivity, disinterest, negativity, and displaced hostility has threatened custodial control, with increasing frequency of violent incidents (p. 105).

A review of the literature confirms that a majority of correctional officer stressors fall into three categories: (1) the correctional organization; (2) correctional work itself; and (3) factors external to the correctional facility (Finn, 2000). The stressors that are caused by factors external to the correctional facility are the least discussed in the literature. Examples noted by Finn include poor public image and poor pay.

Organizational stressors are often cited as the most important or influential for corrections officers. Finn (2000) listed understaffing, overtime, shift work, and supervisor demands. In addition, role conflict and role ambiguity are reflected multiple times in the literature (Black, 2001; Cheek & Miller, 1983; Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; Finn, 2000; Griffin, 2001; Grossi, Keil, & Vito, 1996; Hogan, Lambert, Jenkins, & Wambold, 2006; and Lasky, Gordon, & Srebalus, 1986). Role conflict occurs as officers try to reconcile their custodial role and treatment role (Finn, 2000). Role ambiguity occurs

when supervisors require officers to follow all of the policies and rules precisely, yet officers and supervisors know that officers must use flexibility and informal exchanges that deviate from the rules so they can develop positive relationships with inmates (Finn, 2000). In a survey conducted by Cheek and Miller (1983), officers generally ranked administrative items as the most stressful. The primary source of stress stemmed from the "lack of clear guidelines for job performance" (Cheek & Miller, 1983, p. 115). Nine other highly rated sources of stress reflected ambiguity in role performance, which appeared to be related to "lack of communication, problems with supervision, and lack of adequate training." These appeared to stem from officers not having enough information to perform their job properly (Cheek & Miller, 1983, p. 116).

Another organizational stressor discussed in the correctional officer stress literature is participation in decision-making. Slate and Vogel (1997) explored the relationships between correctional officer stress, participation in decision making, and thoughts about quitting employment (p. 400). They found that,

> The atmosphere for participation in decision making was directly predictive of each variable that followed in the model. Respondents who perceived a negative atmosphere for participation in decision making were more likely to have higher physical stress levels, higher occupational stress levels, and more frequent thoughts about quitting their job" (Slate & Vogel, 1997, p. 405).

As in police literature, corrections literature often focuses on individuals to fix organizational problems. Slate and Vogel (1997) cited the research of Maslach (1982) in their discussion of focusing on individuals versus organizations when dealing with organizational stressors.

> It does not make sense to identify 'bad people' as the cause for what is clearly an undesirable outcome. Rather, we should be trying to identify and analyze the critical components of 'bad' situations in which many good people function. Imagine investigating the personality of cucumbers to discover why they had turned into sour pickles without analyzing the vinegar barrels in which they had been submerged! (Maslach, 1982, p. 14-15)

In correctional officer stress literature, participatory management practices are often suggested to address the stressors.

Stressors resulting directly from correctional work include inmate violence, inmate demands, and inmate manipulation (Finn, 2000). In several studies, a majority of these stressors involving inmates are grouped into a category labeled "dangerousness" (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; and Grossi, Keil, & Vito, 1996). As explained by Grossi et al. (1996), it is often the perceived dangerousness that will impact an officer's stress levels more than the security level of an institution. This occurs because not only may the perceived level of dangerousness be influenced by the level of security of the prison, but also by the nature and extent of inmate contact that an officer has in his or her daily activities. "For example, officers with limited contact with inmates due to the officer's duty assignment (e.g., tower duty) may perceive the threat of physical assault by an inmate to be less likely to occur regardless of the institutional classification level" (Grossi et al., 1996, p. 105).

In their study, Cullen et al. (1985) considered social supports, peer and supervisory supports, and non-work supports (family and community) and how they shaped stress experienced by corrections officers. They also considered three sociological

factors: education, correctional experience, and correctional orientation. Cullen et al. (1985) found that "supervisory support had the largest effect of any factor on job dissatisfaction" (p. 525). Cullen et al. also found that peer support either did not influence or had a tendency to increase work stress for corrections officers. Grossi and Berg (1991) noted a similar finding in their study and discussed reasons why peer support may lead to an increase in stress for corrections officers. First, they stated that the measure may not have been appropriate. Second, they discussed the possibility that officers may be placed in difficult situations in order to obtain or maintain peer support. Similar to the discussion of education in police stress literature above, Grossi and Berg (1991) also found that officers with more education and experience reported greater job satisfaction. However, the authors noted, some studies found the opposite effect for education. For example, Robinson, Porporino, and Simourd (1997) found that corrections officers with higher levels of education tended to be less satisfied and less likely to emphasize the custodial function versus the treatment function of corrections.

One last topic from corrections literature to be discussed here is organizational commitment. Organizational commitment refers to an individual's connection to the entire organization, not just to the job or position he or she holds or the belief in the importance of the work itself (Lambert, Barton, & Hogan, 1999). Lambert et al. (1999) explained that definitions of organizational commitment vary on how the connection to the organization is viewed, and that the definitions exist on a continuum. At one end of the continuum are definitions of organizational commitment that are focused on behavioral indicators or outcomes. They refer to these definitions as calculative or continuance commitment, and include how employees calculate the costs and benefits of

working for an organization. The other end of the continuum includes definitions focusing on attitudinal or affective commitment, focused on emotional, mental, or cognitive bonds to an organization. Attitudinal or affective commitment includes employees' feelings about loyalty and their desire to belong to the organization.

Hogan, Lambert, Jenkins, and Wambold (2006) conducted a study on the impact of stressors on correctional staff organizational commitment. They found that role conflict and role ambiguity were important in shaping organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Supervisors were found to have higher levels of commitment than non-supervisors. Hogan et al. (2006) stated that this was likely the result of "disillusionment and burnout" for officers because "as time goes on, those who remain as correctional officers probably realize that their chances for promotion or for another position may be decreasing" (p. 58).

Like researchers of police stress, correctional officer stress researchers used a wide variety of surveys that make comparisons between studies difficult. In addition, many of the studies had fairly low response rates. Finally, terms such as burnout, job satisfaction, job stress, and organizational commitment were at times used interchangeably.

Occupational stress and probation and parole officers. Compared to that of police and correctional officers, probation and parole officer occupational stress (hereafter referred to as probation officer stress) has received far less attention from researchers. A quick title search via the *Criminal Justice Abstracts* database in the spring of 2016 resulted in the following number of publications using the words police and stress (125), correctional and stress (56), corrections and stress (9), parole and stress (6),

and probation and stress (11). As in police and corrections literature, organizational stressors are listed as the primary stressors for probation officers.

Finn and Kuck (2003) reported that a slight majority of the individuals contacted for their report said that probation and parole officers' stress levels had increased in recent years because of the following: a) increase in caseloads; b) increase in violence of offenders; c) decrease in promotional opportunities; and d) decrease in options for helping offenders (p. 17). Labaton (1990) cited a New York probation officer who stated that in the later 1970s, more than two-thirds of the probation population in New York consisted of individuals convicted of misdemeanors, while in 1990, 73 percent of individuals convicted are felony offenders.

Reedt and Widico-Stroop (2008) addressed changes in federal criminal sentencing between 1991 and 2007 in their U.S. Sentencing Commission Publication. Between 1991 and 2007, slightly under 1 million people were sentenced under the federal sentencing guidelines. The number of individuals sentenced in 2007 represented a 118 percent increase over the number of people sentenced in 1991 (Reedt & Widico-Stroop, 2008). The increase in the number of immigration cases (38.8 percent) and the increase in drug trafficking cases (27.4 percent) accounted for two thirds of the increased annual caseload (Reedt & Widico-Stroop, 2008). Reedt and Widico-Stroop found that despite the increase, a majority of the characteristics of the offenders remained the same. Although the caseload increase is indicated by Reedt and Widico-Steep's research, the only demographic characteristics considered were gender, age, and education. No consideration was given to an increased violent or criminal nature of the offender, which is one of the responsible stressors listed by Finn and Kuck (2003).

A review of the literature shows consistent stressors reported for probation and parole officers, including: high caseloads, excessive paperwork, lack of promotional opportunities, inadequate salaries, leniency of judges/courts, lack of participation in decision making, expectations to do too much with too little time, lack of recognition for good work, inadequate support from management, lack of community resources for offenders, role ambiguity, and role conflict (Brown, 1986, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; Simmons, Cochran, & Blount, 1997; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Thomas, 1988; White, Gasperin, Nystrom, Ambrose, & Esarey, 2006; Whitehead, 1989). It is clear that a majority of the stressors stem from the organization itself. On occasion, danger from offenders is mentioned in the literature, in some instances toward the end of a longer list of ranked stressors (e.g., Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; and Thomas, 1988).

Role load. Finn and Kuck (2003) reported that three of the most common stressors indicated by probation and parole officers are high caseloads, excessive paperwork, and deadlines. The combination of these seems to multiply the effects because the stressors "make it difficult for many officers to find the time to supervise their caseloads properly" (Finn & Kuck, 2003, p. 2). Slate, Wells, and Johnson (2003) label this combination as a fourth stressor called "expectations to do too much in too little time" (p. 535). Finn and Kuck (2003) quote an officer who states, "I have 108 cases right now—I can't supervise all of them by the book—there's no time. One offender alone can eat up an enormous amount of time" (p. 20). Thomas (1988) found that "not enough time to do what is needed" was the most frequently reported stressor for officers. Citing Cherniss (1980b), Thomas (1988) advised managers to determine at what point the

workload or another function interfered with an officer's ability to do a quality job because probation and parole officers want to be competent and effective (p. 57). It is important to note that research has found that it is not additional time with offenders that causes officers stress, supporting Thomas's suggestion to managers. Whitehead (1989) found that contact with offenders had no significant effect on emotional exhaustion or depersonalization for officers. Instead, he found that increased contact with offenders was associated with increased feelings of accomplishment for officers. On the contrary, it is the inability of an officer to feel as though she or he devoted enough time with each offender that causes stress.

White, Gasperin, Nystrom, Ambrose, and Esarey (2006) described "excessive demands related to the quality and quantity of work expected within particular time periods" as role overload. This was listed as the second major stressor after an analysis of open-ended questionnaires and focus groups of probation officers from 15 county probation departments in Illinois. White et al. stated that role overload involves tension between predictable deadlines for client visits/reports/court hearings and the needs of assigned offenders. Another reason not enough time to do what is needed leads to stress for probation officers is because in order to do the required work, officers may be required to work overtime (in some cases uncompensated) or on weekends. An officer stated, "I had to work this past Saturday. I have so much to do that I can't get it done in my normal work hours, even though I try to protect my weekends for my family and close friends" (White et al., 2006, p.11).

Role ambiguity. Another role issue facing probation officers is role ambiguity. Citing Cherniss (1980b), Whitehead (1989) defined role ambiguity as the lack of information needed for adequate performance of the role. Whitehead stated that a major source of role ambiguity in probation and parole is the scarcity of available knowledge and techniques concerning intervention with offenders. "There is considerable doubt concerning the ability of officers to effect changes in the lives of offenders that will help them to avoid crime" (Whitehead, 1989, p. 47).

A newer buzzword in probation is "evidence-based practices." Clawson, Bogue, and Joplin (2005) explained that significant strides were made in correctional research to identify proven methods of reducing offender recidivism from the mid-1990s through the 2000s. By implementing these evidence-based practices, it is theorized that criminal justice agencies will be able to significantly reduce offender recidivism. In 2002, the National Institute of Corrections, Community Corrections Division, under an agreement with the Crime and Justice Institute, began to develop a model for implementing evidence-based practices in criminal justice systems. "This *Integrated Model* emphasizes the importance of focusing equally on evidence-based practices, organizational development, and collaboration to achieve successful and lasting change" (Clawson et al., 2005, p. 3). Although agencies are able to implement components of evidence-based practices, such as assessment tools, few have been able to implement all of the components of the Integrated Model throughout their organization. Clawson et al. (2005) advised that only when all three components (evidence-based practices, organizational development, and collaboration) are integrated can agencies hope to achieve the goal of recidivism reduction. It is possible that, with agencies not being successful with full

integration of evidence-based practices and principles, this may offer one explanation why even twenty years after Whitehead's (1989) critique noting the lack of knowledge in the system, role ambiguity still exists in probation and parole organizations.

Role conflict. A third role issue faced by probation officers is role conflict, which can manifest in various forms. Brown (1987) explained that one type of role conflict involves the simultaneous roles probation officers are expected to play, such as cop, caseworker, counselor, and attorney. As noted previously, this form of role conflict often arises due to the unique role probation officers play in the criminal justice system.

A second type of role conflict is person-role conflict. Whitehead (1989) stated that this occurs when "one's values are in conflict with role requirements or expectations" (p. 42). Whitehead provided an example involving a probation officer originally trained as a social worker. If a supervisor were to urge the officer to revoke probation after an offender's new arrest for a minor charge or for temporarily absconding from the jurisdiction, conflict may arise because the officer could interpret the offender's behavior as "acting out" and therefore a common state of growth for the offender (Whitehead, 1989). This conflict would likely become a source of stress for the officer, and may contribute to the officer's likelihood of burnout.

Whitehead (1989) also discussed intersender role conflict, which occurs when others in one's role set (the supervisor or director) send conflicting messages to the focal person (the officer) (p. 42). An example offered by Whitehead (1989) is a situation for an officer where a director believes that offenders should not have snacks or drinks in the waiting room, but offenders believe it helps them to pass the time. The officer must then reconcile the differences by either monitoring the waiting room strictly or making the

waiting experience more palatable. This type of conflict is usually represented by the treatment versus punishment conflict.

The conflict between an emphasis on treatment versus an emphasis on control is a conflict that still exists in the probation system today. This conflict occurs at both the individual and agency level. Whitehead (1989, p. 43) cited several typologies of role adaptations describing officers that have been developed based on their emphasis on control and treatment (Klockers, 1972; Glaser, 1969; Pownal, 1963; Tomaino, 1975). Abadinsky (2009) described the three basic roles probation officers take toward offenders: law enforcement, rehabilitation, and blend (p. 255). The law enforcement role focuses on protection of the community by controlling the offender; while the rehabilitation role focuses on the improved welfare of the offender. The blend role is a combination of the law enforcement and rehabilitation roles. When taken to the agency level, the roles become models (Abadinsky, 2009, p. 255):

- *Control model*. Control of the [offender's] activities is the primary focus of the **control model**. Unannounced home and employment visits, checks for drug use, and a close working relationship with law enforcement agencies are the standard practice.
- *Social services model*. The primary focus of the **social services model** is on [offender] needs, including employment, housing, and counseling that provide social and psychological support. These agencies often have contracts with private service providers.
- *Combined model*. The **combined model** requires officers to provide social services while attending to control functions.

Abadinsky (2009) noted that most probation and parole agencies are located somewhere in the middle of the continuum, with probation agencies found closer to the social services end and parole agencies found closer to the control model end. Probation officers can experience stress from conflict between their role and the agency's model. As discussed by Abadinsky, there is also a need for agencies to match case types with the appropriate officer role type or "style." For example, "an officer with a more authoritarian style would be matched with 'heavy' (i.e., professional or career) criminals" (Abadinsky, 2009, p. 255). Abadinsky noted that mismatched cases may be stressors for officers.

A final type of conflict experienced by probation officers is professional-bureaucratic role conflict. Brown (1987) noted that this type of role conflict might occur at the beginning of an officer's career "when he [or she] faces the reality of working within the confines of a bureaucratic organization that does not allow the freedom of operation that the idealistic employee envisioned" (p. 20). Cherniss (1980b) noted that new officers often come to the job with a professional service ideal that often stems from college. Cherniss (1980b) stated that a bureaucratic organization is often in conflict with the professional service ideal.

> The bureaucratic mode of organization emphasizes orderliness, standardization, uniformity, efficiency, public accountability, and impersonality. The professional service ideal, on the other hand, emphasizes the uniqueness of the individual, sensitivity to the special needs of each client, flexibility, individual initiative and resourcefulness, and the goal of personal growth and development. (p. 86)

Brown (1987) stated that professional-bureaucratic role conflict might also occur later in an officer's career once he or she gains "a sense of professionalism that conflicts with the constraints of the organization" (p. 20).

One way that the professional-bureaucratic conflict is demonstrated in probation work is in the overemphasis on presentence reports and other paperwork instead of a focus on the supervision of offenders (Whitehead, 1989). Whitehead (1989) explained that officers would prefer to spend more time in direct contact with offenders. This reflects his finding that increased contact with offenders was associated with increased feelings of accomplishment for officers. In addition, excessive paperwork is one of the most common stressors reported by officers.

Citing Studt (1973), Whitehead (1989) stated that officers often feel unrecognized and unappreciated by the upper administration of their agencies, again demonstrating professional-bureaucratic conflict. Another way this conflict is demonstrated is through a lack of participation in decision-making by officers. Lack of participation in decision-making has been reported as a stressor on its own accord in the literature (Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Whistler, 1994, as cited in Simmons, Cochran, & Blount, 1997). Slate et al. (2003) found that officers who did not perceive that their working environment was positive for participation in decision-making were significantly more likely to have a negative opinion of their job and be more stressed (p. 536). Citing Pines (1982), Brown (1987) noted the importance of and connection between recognition and participation in decision-making, noting that both can add to job satisfaction and reduce job stress.

Supervisor and peer support. The last stressor to be discussed here is the role of supervisors and peers in relation to probation officers. Inadequate administrative support or lack of appropriate supervision was identified as a source of stress for probation officers in the literature (Brown, 1986; Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; Simmons, Cochran, & Blount, 1997; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Whitehead, 1989). Some of the literature reflects the lack of recognition for good work as similarly discussed under professional-bureaucratic role conflict above (Finn & Kuck, 2003). Whitehead (1989) noted that other literature reflects back to a different aspect of role conflict, focusing on individual roles (law enforcement, rehabilitation, or blend) of supervisors and officers. When individual styles of a supervisor and an officer differ, the officer may feel a lack of support from the supervisor (Whitehead, 1989).

Citing Sullivan, Elwin, and Dexter (1977), Whitehead (1989) described some probation supervisors as "bureaucratic checkers." This type of supervisor monitors the work of the officer to make sure it is in compliance with the "frequently unstated, organizational norms" (p. 48). Whitehead (1989) explained, "it is difficult to see such 'checkers,' who allow no autonomy for officers, as significant sources of support" (p. 48).

Contrary to the "checker," Whitehead (1989) cited research by McCleary (1978), which described supervisors who were more concerned with the informal norms of the office. The supervisors studied by McCleary "[supervisors] were supportive of officers when they helped to maintain a smooth-running branch-office team free of interference from upper management in the central office" (Whitehead, 1989, p. 48). Whitehead (1989) noted that these supervisors were often facing pressure from the administrators

above them and the officers they supervise, therefore, they are not always able to be completely supportive of officers.

Shapiro (1982) discussed the importance of the supervisor in controlling burnout. Brown (1986), summarizing Shapiro's (1982) work, contended that the most likely origin of burnout is the interaction between the individual and the organization, and creative supervisory practices help to facilitate healthy interaction between the two. Shapiro (1982) warned that supervisors, however, are often people who "are promoted into supervisory positions by virtue of competence in their professional roles, not by virtue of supervisory knowledge and skills" (p. 215). Perceptions of how someone becomes a supervisor, based upon qualifications or political connections and relationships, can also be a stressor for officers. Thomas (1988) explained, "officers in the Federal sample who believed their supervisors and chiefs were selected on criteria of managerial experience and ability had lower stress and burnout scores (Thomas, 1987:266–68) than those believing politics, seniority, or favoritism were the main criteria" (p. 57). In addition to stress, Simmons, Cochran, and Blount (1997) state that management has an impact on job dissatisfaction. They found that "87% of the probation officers sampled dislike their supervisors, and 81% report that they do not feel that their supervisor is competent in the job" (Simmons et al., 1997, p. 276).

Peer support is addressed much less frequently in the literature than supervisor and/or administrative support. Brown (1986) indicated that peer support is a positive factor that can help to reduce stress levels for officers. Cherniss's (1980b) five areas where peer interaction can benefit staff were summarized by Brown (1986, p. 6-7):

> 1) discussing work problems can help reduce "emotional tension and helps the worker acquire better perspective and understanding," 2) "colleagues are an invaluable source of technical information and practical advice," 3) colleagues provide feedback in order to evaluate the worker's own work, 4) colleagues can group together "in conflicts with the organization or community groups," and 5) colleagues can be an "important source of stimulation." (Cherniss, 1980b, p. 120)

In 1989, Whitehead noted that the extent of peer support in probation agencies was unknown. It appears that more than 20 years later, this remains an understudied area of job stress for probation officers. Whitehead discussed both Studt's (1973) and McCleary's (1978) work. The officers in Studt's study had concerns external to the agency and often did not discuss these concerns with other officers. In McCleary's study, the officers were grouped into two cliques: the veteran officers and the professional officers.

> The veterans were the older officers who were not college graduates but who obtained their jobs through political patronage whereas the professionals were younger, college-educated officers who shared an ideology that emphasized "the importance of the client, the therapeutic ideal and related concerns (McCleary, 1978, p.71)" (Whitehead, 1989, p. 48)

Officers provided support for their peers within their own clique, but also for those in the opposite clique to resolve issues for the greater good of the office (Whitehead, 1989).

Summary of occupational stress and probation and parole officers. Similar to police and corrections literature, probation literature used a variety of surveys that limit the ability to compare data and results. There was also a tendency among authors to

interchange terms such as burnout, job stress, and job satisfaction. Another concern with some studies of probation officers is the mixture of county, state, and federal officers from different states as a sample. When discussing issues such as stress, officers working at different levels and in different states may be facing different issues with regard to topics such as caseload sizes and salaries. For instance, a federal supervision officer in one office may supervise a caseload of 80 while a county supervision officer in the same area may be supervising 200. When asked about stress related to excessive caseload, these two officers would not have the same perspective, but may have a similar response.

Citing Whistler (1994), Simmons et al. (1997) noted, "unlike law enforcement and correctional officers' job-related stressors, sources of [probation officer] stress are generated primarily from organizational and administrative policies and procedures and are not inherent in their roles of supervising probationers" (p. 215). In the police and corrections literature, some of the stressors arose directly from their work with offenders/inmates (i.e., exposure to human depravity and suffering, stressful assignments, inmate violence, inmate demands, and inmate manipulation). Although danger from offenders is mentioned on occasion in the probation stress literature, it is usually toward the end of a longer list of ranked stressors (Finn & Kuck, 2003; Pitts, 2007; and Thomas, 1988). As previously noted, research conducted by Whitehead (1989) indicated that increased contact with offenders was associated with increased feelings of accomplishment for probation officers.

Role of Leadership and Support in Occupational Stress

Although the organization is a major source of stress, leadership and management style and overall leadership ability of supervisors was not discussed at length in the

police, corrections, or probation literature. Police stress literature appeared to focus the most on leadership style and its connection to stress, and "unproductive management styles" was mentioned above as an organizational stressor for police officers. The bureaucratic nature of criminal justice agencies was reflected in all of the literature, especially in regard to the lack of participation in decision-making. Administrative support was also addressed in each area of the literature. Peer support was discussed much less frequently in the corrections and probation stress literature. The corrections literature noted that peer support (or, more specifically, the lack thereof) could have a tendency to increase work stress for officers. The probation literature had limited information on peer relationships, although Cherniss (1980b) suggested that peer interaction could be beneficial.

As was noted with the police and corrections literature, the probation literature indicates that although the primary stressors for probation officers are organizational, actions to reduce officer stress are primarily focused on the individual. In the federal probation and pretrial services system, for several years the *News & Views* publication focused annually on officer wellness in its May issue. There is no longer a focused wellness issue in May, however, several officer wellness related articles are published throughout the year. A majority of the articles in the annual wellness issues in May 2008, 2009, and 2010 focused on individual stress management solutions. The more recent officer wellness articles appear to focus on varying officer wellness topics including depression and the impact of stress on children of law enforcement officers (Julie Och, personal communication, May 12, 2016).

In 2005, the Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts established a national training academy for new officers at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Charleston, North Carolina. The center provides training for new officers, their use of firearms, and for safety instructors. In 2011, the academy developed and implemented a curriculum for new officers focusing on officer wellness. Although the curriculum has not been publicly released, it primarily consists of individual-level stress management skills because the program is for new officers. Although the literature for the past 30-plus years has clearly identified organizational stressors as the primary causes of probation officer stress, at the national level the focus remains on individuals.

Role of supervisor and peer support. The models and theories addressed above do not specifically address leadership. However, on occasion the role of support was discussed. Based on the literature discussed above on police, corrections, and probation officer stress, the role of social supports, including peers and supervisors, is not entirely clear. In this section, I discuss the general notion of support as a possible buffering mechanism, and elaborate on the concepts of supervisor and peer support, which were discussed briefly in the previous section.

Quick and Quick (1984) summarized the work of House (1981), noting that social support may come in four forms: emotional, instrumental, informational, or appraisal. People obtain this support from various relationships including those at home, at work, and in the community. House (1981) stated that social supports provide a buffering effect from stressful situations (Quick & Quick, 1984). Support for a buffering effect from social support is mixed in the work stress literature. In a review of the literature, Ganster and Victor (1988) found that there were more cases of no buffering or "opposite

buffering" for social support in the work stress literature than in support of a buffering effect (Ganster, 1996, p. 330). Ganster (1996) noted that there is evidence suggesting that social support can play a positive role in employee well-being; however, there is a lack of evaluation research showing "how or if social support can be augmented in work settings" (p. 330).

Peer support has been addressed much less than administrative support in the police, corrections, and probation stress literature. As noted in the previous section, Whitehead (1989) stated that the extent of peer support in probation agencies is unknown, and it remains an understudied area of job stress, especially for probation officers. As indicated previously, Cherniss (1980b) provided five areas where peer support can benefit human service organization staff members. Maslach (2003) discussed the ability of peer relationships to help "reduce the emotional strain, either by doing something about the source of stress or by getting you to cope with it more effectively" (p. 184). Maslach (2003) provided several ways that peers assist in reducing emotional strain: a) help—doing something about the source of stress; b) comfort—providing comfort and emotional support; c) insight—providing a new perspective on the problem; d) comparison—providing a basis for personal comparison; e) reward—providing praise, compliments, and recognition for good work; f) humor—being a source of jokes and laughter; and g) escape—taking a person out of the situation (pp. 184–190).

Cherniss (1980b) noted that peer interaction could also have a negative effect on staff. For example, Cherniss (1980b) discussed reports by staff in human service organizations "who have participated in group discussions concerned with work-related problems: in some instances these discussions have degenerated into 'bitch-sessions'

which only made people feel worse and led to no improvement in the situation" (p. 121). Maslach (2003) also noted that peer support could result in a negative effect for staff, stating that peer relationships can sometimes be more stressful than relationships with clients or patients.

Cherniss (1980b) discussed systemic reasons that professional isolation may occur in human service settings noting that "mistrust, conflict, and hostility among individuals and groups within a program represent one major barrier to social interaction and support" (p.121). Maslach (2003) also discussed employees who isolate themselves from other coworkers, sometimes by choice and sometimes due to the nature of the work. Additional reasons for isolation include: differences in values and theoretical orientation; differences in personal values; differences in and competition over scarce resources, status, and power; role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload; opportunities for staff interaction limited by the structure of work; and informal norms of social interaction (Cherniss, 1980b, pp. 121–123).

Addressed more frequently in the corrections, police, and probation stress literature is the role of supervisor support for employees. Cherniss (1980b) noted the importance of supervisors for morale and motivation. He stated that one of the earliest studies of the influence of supervision and leadership took place during World War II. "Grinker and Spiegel (1945) studied the factors contributing to job stress and 'burnout' in one of the most hazardous types of work known (combat) and found that soldiers who were part of tight, cohesive groups coped better and worked more diligently" (Cherniss, 1980b, p.115). Grinker and Spiegel found that leadership was the key factor that led to group cohesiveness for the combat groups (Cherniss, 1980b).

Cherniss (1980b) stated that supervisors who help to reduce burnout were characterized by a high degree of support without reducing their subordinates' autonomy. Cherniss (1980b) also noted the type of support that subordinates seek from supervisors included technical assistance; working through feelings generated by the helping process or service field; information, modeling, and feedback; acting as advocates and buffers; and being responsive to staff (pp. 116–117). Similar to the information provided by Cherniss, Maslach (2003) found that burnout rates were lower for staff who had positive working relationships with supervisors and who received support and recognition from supervisors.

Cherniss (1980b) discussed reasons why poor supervision may occur: a supervisor's attitudes, lack of skills, or the nature of a supervisor's role such as the pressures, demands, and conflicts that arise from middle-management. Cherniss (1980a) conducted a study of 28 professionals and found that for a few of the professionals, the supervisors were able to provide support similar to that provided by colleagues. Cherniss (1980a) noted, however, "for most of the new professionals interviewed, supervisors were inaccessible physically and psychologically. There are always the evaluation and organizational control aspects of the supervisory relationship, which complicate the giving and taking of social support. Ultimately, the new professionals must rely on their peers" (pp. 91–92).

Role of top-level leaders. Although the role of managers/direct supervisors on employee stress is discussed in the corrections, police, and probation literature, the role of top-level leaders is rarely considered. The definition of each term, especially leadership, is highly debated by scholars and is primarily dependent upon the purpose of the

definition. A continuing debate is whether or not the relationship between leadership and management is a real or false dichotomy. Although the concepts are not mutually exclusive, they do have a complementary nature.

Bernard Bass (2008) demonstrates the variety of leadership definitions by noting that Rost (1993) examined 587 publications and found 221 definitions of leadership. Definitions of leadership will vary based upon the purpose and need for that definition. Bass lists many examples of the purposes of leadership: focus of a group process, a personality trait, an exercise of influence or power, attainment of goals, an effect of interaction, or as the initiation of structure. A broad, yet appropriate, definition of leadership offered by Bass (2008) is "an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restricting of the situation and of the perceptions and expectations of the members" (p. 25).

One of the early theories of management stemmed from the work of Henri Fayol. Tompkins (2005) noted that Fayol's theory has four components: organizational activities, management functions, administrative principles, and methods for putting the principles into action. According to Tompkins, Fayol believed that governing an organization was not the same as managing it. Therefore, managerial activities were one of six organizational activities that took place. The managerial functions listed by Fayol were planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. Around the same time that Fayol published his theory, Frederick Taylor developed the concept of scientific management. Tompkins (2005) explained that scientific management is "essentially a prescriptive theory for directing, motivating, and controlling work performance" (p. 67). Tompkins noted that the lack of middle managers and technical staff to conduct proper

planning, supervisors with little control over the quality or quantity of production, and the increasing unrest in the labor market created the social context in which Taylor developed his concept of scientific management after the late 1800s. Rost (1993) provided a delimitation of management that reflects the ideas of Fayol and Taylor, as well as the origins of the word management: "management is an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate their activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services" (p. 145).

The United States Probation and Pretrial Services Office provides a training course titled "Foundations of Management." The course is for new supervisors or those preparing to become supervisors. In the chapter addressing leadership, new supervisors are advised, "all successful leaders could be considered successful supervisors to some degree, since they typically get work done through others. Not all supervisors, however, can be considered successful leaders" (USDA, Graduate School, p. 5-3). The previous statement reflects the continuing debate in the field of leadership studies that I stated earlier: whether or not the relationship between leadership and management is a real or false dichotomy. John P. Kotter (1990) notes this complementary distinction between the two. "Each has its own function and characteristic activities. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment" (p.114).

One aspect that the literature discusses when addressing this debate is the issue of change. Kotter (1990) notes that leadership is focused on coping with change while management is focused on coping with complexity. Kotter explains that management helps to control complex business environments that may otherwise become chaotic. "Good management brings a degree of order and consistency to key dimensions like the

quality and profitability of products" (Kotter, 1990, p. 115). Due to the continually changing business world, leadership is necessary in order to handle and facilitate the changes necessary to remain competitive. "Major changes are more and more necessary to survive and compete effectively in this new environment. More change always demands more leadership" (Kotter, 1990, p. 115). Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004) also describe leadership as change, further noting that the change stems from values, ideals, vision, symbols, and emotional exchanges. Antonakis et al. describe management as objective driven, noting that it stems from rationality or bureaucratic means.

The leadership versus management literature also discusses that although leaders and managers may be involved in the same behavior, i.e., motivating employees, the difference arises in how they go about accomplishing the task. Kotterman (2006) highlights the difference when he notes that managers plan and budget, while leaders establish direction for the agency. Kotterman also notes that managers have a narrow purpose: to maintain order, stabilize work, organize resources, control, and problem solve. Leaders, on the other hand, develop new goals, align organizations, motivate, and inspire (Kotterman, 2006, p. 14). Kotter (1990) reflected on a similar idea when he stated that leaders and managers are involved in "deciding what needs to be done, creating networks of people and relationships that can accomplish an agenda, and then trying to ensure that those people actually do the job" (p. 116).

There are differences in the philosophical approaches to leadership and management. Zimmerman (2001) states that a leader tends to be a visionary, collaborator, salesperson, and negotiator, whereas a manager tends to be a captain, analyst, conductor,

and controller. In *On Becoming a Leader*, Bennis (2003) discusses additional differences between leaders and managers. According to Bennis (2003), a manager administers, focuses on the system and structure, relies on control, has a short-range view, asks how and when, has his/her eye on the bottom line, accepts the status quo, and does things right (pp. 39–40). On the other hand, a leader innovates, focuses on people, inspires trusts, has a long-range view, asks what and why, has his/her eye on the horizon, challenges the status quo, and does the right thing (Bennis, 2003, pp. 39–40).

Both leadership and management are essential for the success of an agency. "If an organization has strong management without leadership, the outcome can be stifling and bureaucratic. Conversely, if an organization has strong leadership without management, the outcome can be meaningless or misdirected change for change's sake" (Northouse, 2007, p. 11). Leadership and management, although separate and distinct concepts, are complementary of one another with overlapping traits. Leadership involves coping with change, motivating and inspiring others, innovation, challenging the status quo, and doing the right thing; while management involves coping with the complexities, focusing on the system and structure, problem solving, and doing things right. It appears that as work environments continue to become more complex, the importance of recognizing the difference between leadership and management will become more important. By recognizing the differences, agencies will be able to determine the complementary nature of the two and benefit from the best combination of the two.

Because management and leadership are separate and distinct concepts, the impact of each on employee stress may not be the same. With a focus on people, motivation, and inspiration, leaders likely play an important role in employee stress. As

indicated previously, while there is research and literature addressing the impact of managers on employee stress, there is very little literature addressing the impact of the top-level leaders on stress.

In the early 1990s, the Federal Judicial Center designed the Leadership Development Program (LDP). The LDP was created as a response to concerns about having a pool of capable and prepared leaders from the Judicial Conference's Committee on Criminal Law (Siegel, Higgins, & Valentine, 2012). A 3-year program was developed to improve the leadership within the U.S. Courts system. The program is "grounded in the actual needs of the system, sensitive to but not driven by current leadership literature, and responsible to the decision-makers and funders of the Federal probation and pretrial services system" (Siegal et al., 2012, para. 6). The long-term effects of the LDP program have not been studied but the program was put in place with the assumption that good leadership matters. Siegal et al. (2012), noted that as of 2012, 53% of Chief United States Probation Officers had completed the LDP. This study assessed both participation in the LDP and use of leadership behaviors by Chief United States Probation Officers.

Conceptual Framework

In creating a conceptual framework for federal probation and pretrial services officer stress, I relied primarily on some core components of the demand-control-support model and the job-person mismatch model (burnout). I then integrated the working conditions which have been noted as stressors for officers as well as the leadership component. Figure 2 provides a visual representation of the conceptual framework for federal probation and pretrial services officer stress. As shown in Figure 2, the model reflects the impact of top-level leaders on the working conditions/environment for probation officers (stressors), which has not been studied among federal probation officers. The effects of working conditions/environmental stressors on outcomes are mediated by coping factors and support. The outcomes of the working conditions/environmental stressors include burnout, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived physical health.

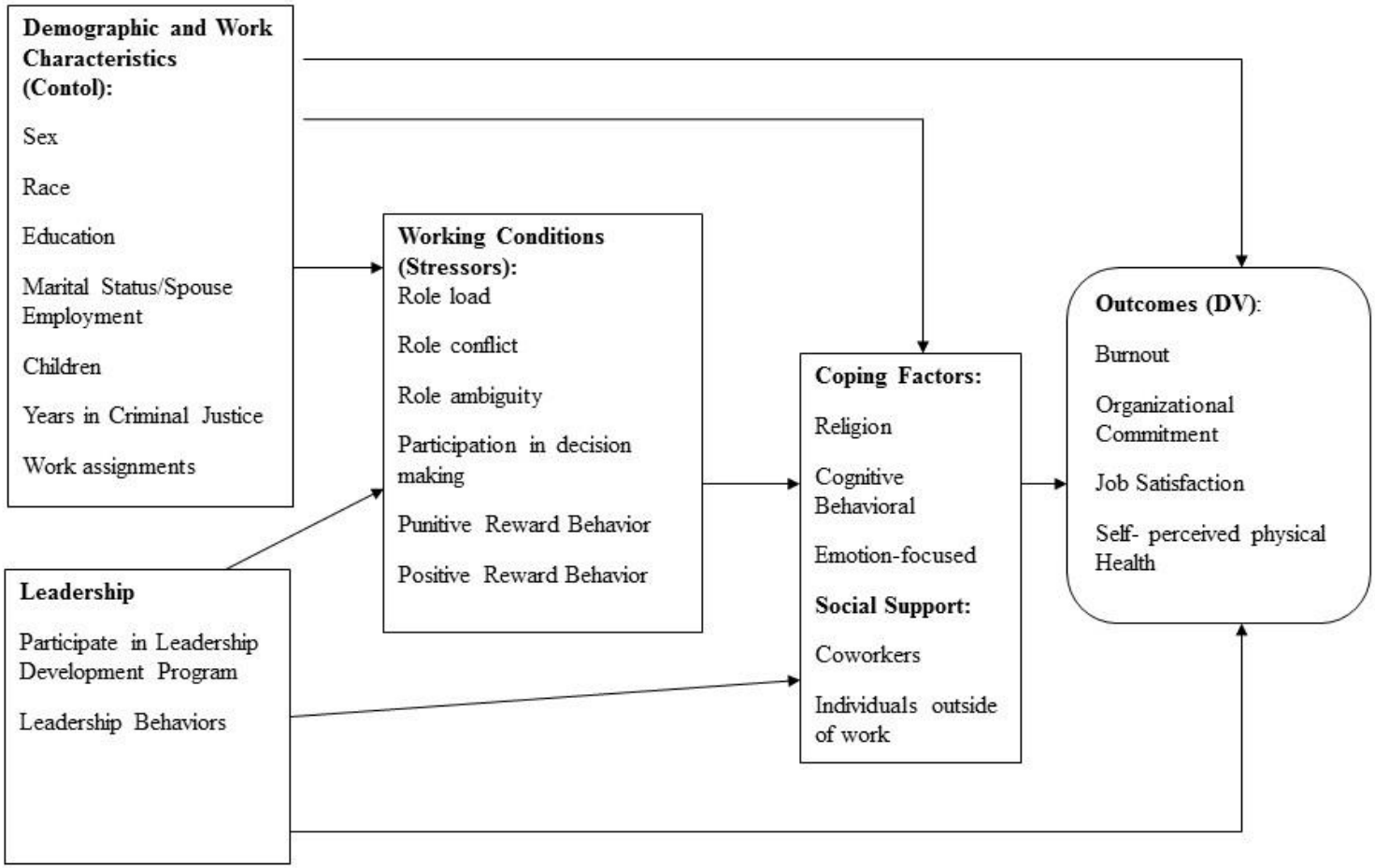

Figure 2. Model of federal probation and pretrial services officer stress.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explored the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes. The main contributions of my study that add to the literature on probation officer stress are: 1) examining the impact of leadership training on probation officer stress outcomes; 2) examining the impact of perceptions of leadership behavior on probation officer stress outcomes; and 3) testing a comprehensive model of sources of stress and stress outcomes among probation officers. Specifically, based on the theory and research discussed in this chapter, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Does participation in the leadership development program by Chief United States Probation Officers (CUSPOs) impact working conditions for officers (role load, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision making, and positive/punitive rewards behavior by supervisors)?
2. Do perceived leadership behaviors of CUSPOs impact working conditions (role load, role conflict, role ambiguity, positive and punitive reward behavior of direct supervisors, and participation in decision making) for officers?
3. Do perceived leadership behaviors of CUSPOs impact stress outcomes for officers (burnout, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived physical health)?
4. Do working conditions impact outcomes for officers?

5. Do support and coping factors mediate the effects of working conditions on outcomes for officers?

Based on these five research questions, the following 15 hypotheses were addressed by this study:

1. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity.
2. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of participation in decision making.
3. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors, and lower levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors.
4. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout.
5. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a CUSPO who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health.
6. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers.

7. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers.
8. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers.
9. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers.
10. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of self-perceived health by officers.
11. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers.
12. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.
13. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers.
14. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.
15. The more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.

Chapter Summary

Occupational stress has been a focus of researchers for more than thirty years. Occupational stress research in the criminal justice field has primarily focused on police officers and corrections officers. Most research focused on probation and parole officer stress is more than twenty years old, and the nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed. Although the role of direct supervisors on employee stress is discussed in occupational stress literature, the role of top-level leaders is rarely considered. Limited and dated research on probation officer stress can lead to risks for not only the officers, but society. High levels of officer stress can lead to health problems, burnout, and turnover, resulting in less experienced, overworked probation officers.

The conceptual model for this study (Figure 2) summarizes probation and pretrial services officer stress, including the role of top-level leaders. My research will focus on the impact of participation in the Leadership Development Program by a Chief United States Probation Officer; the impact of perceived Chief United States Probation Officer leadership behavior; the impact of working conditions, coping factors, and support; and the overall probation stress model.

The goal of my research is to provide insight into the organizational environment/working conditions and stress outcomes for federal probation officers, including the role of top-level leaders. This study used a quantitative survey methodology to assess the conceptual model and research questions presented in this chapter. In Chapter 3, I present a detailed discussion about the methodology used in this research.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, I describe the data and methods used to test a model of federal probation officer stress to determine how organizational environment influences outcomes while controlling for coping factors and top level leadership training completion. First, I discuss the rationale for the selected methodology and design, and describe the survey population. Next, I explain how operational validity and reliability was assessed for the main variables used in this research. I conclude the chapter with a discussion of the analytical procedures used to test the hypotheses.

Research Methodology and Design

This study used a cross-sectional, quantitative research design from a post-positivist paradigm. The data came from a survey created via the online survey software program Qualtrics, http://www.qualtrics.com (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). A copy of the survey instrument can be found in Appendix B**.** Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from the Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP) IRB for the Protection of Human Subjects which has an approved "Federal Wide Assurance" on file with the Office for Human Research Protections that certifies IUP's compliance with federal regulations governing the protection of human research subjects. A copy of the approval letter is included in Appendix C. I used this particular methodology in order to gather individual, quantifiable data about federal probation officers regarding stressors and stress response.

Rea and Parker (2005) noted that web-based surveys are most successful when used with specialized populations that have full access to the internet and email, which can significantly reduce disadvantages such as computer literacy, self-selection by those who do not use email or web-based technologies, and lack of interviewer involvement in the survey process (p. 12). With respect to the current study, United States Probation Officers are a specialized population with full access to the internet and email. Officers use a computer in many of their job tasks, including report preparation, investigations, and case management. Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004) found comparable rates of response to mail and web-based surveys. They also found that mailed pre-notices can increase response rates to surveys.

Population and Sample

A population survey was conducted rather than taking a sample. Samples involve drawing a subset unit from the entire population to infer to that population. A population survey involves distributing surveys to every member of the entire population. A population survey was used in this study to develop a large sample size. The population survey also assisted with confidentiality by not targeting a small number of districts or officers.

The survey population for this research included all federal probation and pretrial service officers who were employed in any of the 94 districts. Officers from all but four districts participated in the survey. Participation was voluntary and depended upon the officer's knowledge that the survey was available. On September 12, 2014, the Chief United States Probation Officers (CUSPOs) of each district were notified by email of the survey. Some CUSPOs then forwarded the survey information to their line officers. On

October 13, 2014, an article with the survey link appeared in the bi-weekly internal newsletter, *News and Views*. On December 8, 2014, a reminder was printed in *News and Views*. One limitation to this study was that officers either had to receive notice from their CUSPO or see the article in *News and Views* in order to be aware of the survey and to decide whether to participate.

At the end of December, there were 5,378 line officers nationally (personal communication with Shannon Meyers January 7, 2015). A total of 701 officers opened the survey. Of the 701, 20 were removed because they either chose not to participate or because they did not answer any questions. An additional 22 were removed because they did not respond to any of the scales. Analysis was based on 659 officers (a 12% response rate).

Measures

Control Variables

A number of variables were included in this study to control for potential sources of spuriousness. These variables included sociodemographic characteristics, employment, and education-related variables.

Sociodemographic variables. The sociodemographic variables measured were: age, race, sex, marital status, spouse/partner employment status, and parental status.

Age. Age was measured in years. Only 40% (266) of officers reported their age on the survey. It is likely that age is viewed as a way to identify officers, and therefore, they were not comfortable providing this information. Age was highly correlated (r = .92) with the years the officer was employed in the criminal justice system. Because only 266 officers responded to the question about age, dropping age resulted in a total number

of 659 cases rather than 266. Therefore, years employed in criminal justice was used for statistical analysis rather than age.

Race. Because of the limited number of officers reporting their race as Asian-Pacific Islander or Native American (N = 11), those eleven officers were combined with officers reporting their race as White, Non-Hispanic. Race was measured as follows: 1 = White, Non-Hispanic; 2 = African American; and 3 = Hispanic. In the multivariate analyses, race was converted to a set of dummy variables with white as the omitted reference category.

Sex. Sex was measured as a dichotomous variable (coded 0 = male, 1 = female).

Marital status. Marital status and spouse/partner's employment status were combined into one variable for purposes of this study. This variable was measured as follows: 1 = single, 2 = married or cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed, 3 = married or cohabitating with spouse/partner employed, and 4 = was married (widowed, divorced, separated). In the multivariate analyses, this variable was represented by a set of dummy variables with married/cohabitating with spouse/partner employed as the omitted reference category.

***Parental status*.** Parental status was measured by using the total number of children an officer has: asking if the respondent had children with a response of "yes" or "no"; and if yes, the respondent was asked to list the ages of children. The total number of children was measured as follows: 0 = no children; 1 = one child; 2 = two children; and 3 = three or more children. In the multivariate analyses, this variable was represented by a set of dummy variables with no children as the omitted reference category.

Education. The officers' highest level of education was measured as follows: 0 = Bachelor's; 1 = Master's/PhD/Other.

Employment. The variables regarding employment included district assignment, number of work assignments, and length of service.

District assignment. Officers selected their assigned district during the survey. District assignments were coded randomly (1 to 94) to provide confidentiality and anonymity.

Work assignments. Officers were asked to report all of the work assignments that were applicable from pretrial services supervision, pretrial services court unit (report preparation/court attendance), probation supervision, and probation presentence. Total work assignments was then measured as follows: 0 = one assignment; 1 = two or more assignments.

Length of service. Officers reported the number of years they worked in their current office, the federal probation system, and in a criminal justice occupation. As noted previously, age and all measures of length of service were all highly correlated with each other. For purposes of this study, length of service was measured by the number of years employed in a criminal justice occupation.

Independent and Mediating Variables

The independent and other mediating variables include leadership, working conditions, coping and social support variables. These variables were measured by scales that were developed and tested by other researchers and reported in the stress literature. These scales were previously found to have good to excellent validity and reliability. In this section, I describe each of the scales used and report the results of exploratory factor

and reliability analyses among my sample. For easier interpretation of results, all scales are computed using mean scores rather than creating summative scales.

Leadership variables. Leadership was measured in two ways. The first is whether a Chief United States Probation Officer (CUSPO) completed the Leadership Development Program. This information was provided by the Federal Judicial Training Center and was measured as a dichotomous variable (coded 0 = no, 1 = yes).

To assess leadership, officers completed the Leadership Style Inventory (Northouse, 2007) regarding the CUSPO's leadership style, which assessed task and relationship orientations. This instrument provided a general profile of the CUSPO's leadership behavior.

Madlock (2012) used the Leadership Style Inventory (Northouse, 2007) in a study of supervisors' leadership style. Madlock (2012) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .93 for total leadership, .90 for task leadership style and .92 for relational leadership style. Madlock (2008), citing Anderson, Madlock, and Hoffman (2006), noted that previous research reported reliabilities for the scale ranging from .92 to .95.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to the 20 items on the Northouse instrument, using responses from one (never) to seven (daily). A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the Leadership Style Inventory using principal axis extraction. Table 1 illustrates the initial results which indicated that two retained factors explain 98% of the variance, and each of these factors has an eigenvalue greater than 1. Arguably, the scree plot shown in Figure 3 supports the choice of retaining only one factor. Nevertheless, I

computed mean scores for 3 variables, task leadership style, relational leadership style, and total leadership style. I did so to be consistent with previous use of the inventory.

Table 1

Eigenvalues for the Leadership Style Inventory (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	11.44803	10.11708	0.8785	0.8785
2	1.33095	0.97368	0.1021	0.9807

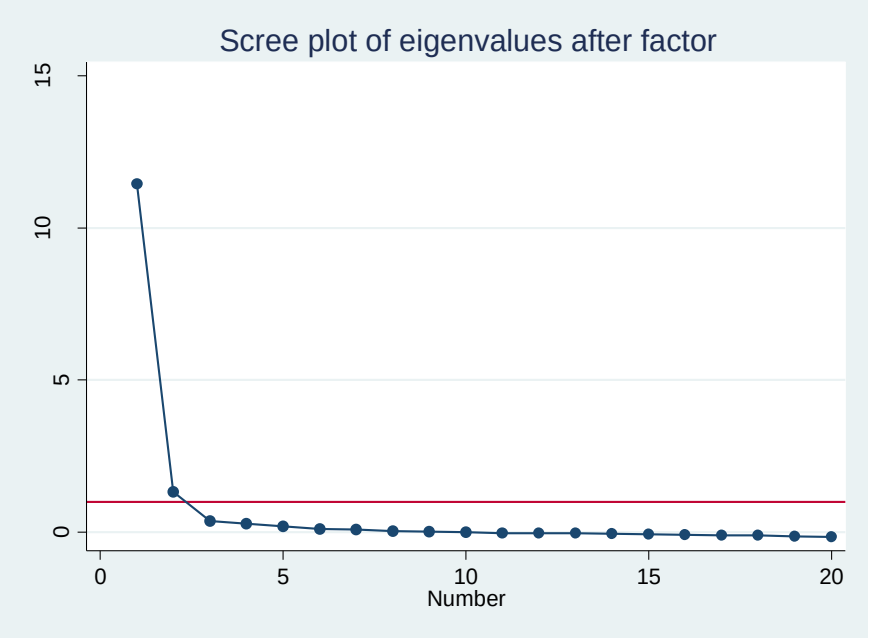

Figure 3. Scree plot of eigenvalues of Leadership Style Inventory.

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The oblique promax rotation provided a clearer depiction of the factor loadings. Table 2 shows the factor loadings for the two retained factors after oblique promax rotation.

The factor loadings for this research were consistent with the original scale created by Northouse (2007). The Cronbach's alpha for relationship orientation (even numbered questions) was .95. The Cronbach's alpha for task orientation (odd numbered

questions) was .93. Both alphas indicate excellent internal consistency (Acock, 2006) and are consistent with the use of the scale in previous research. Consequently, I computed mean scores for 3 scales, relational leadership style, task orientation leadership style, and total leadership style.

Table 2

Factor Loadings After Oblique Rotation for the Leadership Style Inventory

Variable	Factor 1 Relationship	Factor 2 Task	Uniqueness
Item 1	-0.099	**0.658**	0.646
Item 2	**0.734**	0.073	0.382
Item 3	-0.005	**0.736**	0.463
Item 4	**0.918**	-0.033	0.197
Item 5	0.355	**0.509**	0.368
Item 6	**0.775**	0.104	0.279
Item 7	0.076	**0.698**	0.435
Item 8	**0.848**	0.037	0.236
Item 9	0.105	**0.761**	0.301
Item 10	**0.411**	0.203	0.676
Item 11	0.058	**0.764**	0.353
Item 12	**0.527**	0.404	0.269
Item 13	0.039	**0.734**	0.420
Item 14	**0.913**	-0.024	0.196
Item 15	0.186	**0.714**	0.274
Item 16	**0.830**	0.056	0.244
Item 17	0.009	**0.863**	0.245
Item 18	**0.428**	0.377	0.454
Item 19	0.185	**0.548**	0.527
Item 20	**0.739**	0.169	0.255

Working conditions. The working condition variables include role load, role conflict, role ambiguity, participation in decision making, and recognition.

Role load. Role load involves excessive demands related to the quality and quantity of work that is expected within a certain period (White, Gasperin, Nystrom, Ambrose, & Esarey, 2006). Role load was measured using items from a combined index

used by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980). Caplan et al. created a combined index with their own items for measuring workload and with items from a national survey conducted by Quinn et al. (1971). They stated that the estimate of reliability for the combined scale was .83.

In this study, the exact 11 items and 5-point response scales from the combined scale by Caplan et al. (1980) were used. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. The analysis revealed a factor with an eigenvalue of 4.12 and indicated a one factor solution, which explained 97% of the variance. Examination of the scree plot shown in Figure 4 verifies this result. The Cronbach's alpha for the 11-item role load scale was .85, which indicates good internal consistency (Acock, 2006). Several items were reverse coded and then the items were summed and the mean was computed to yield a role load score, where higher scores represent higher levels of role load.

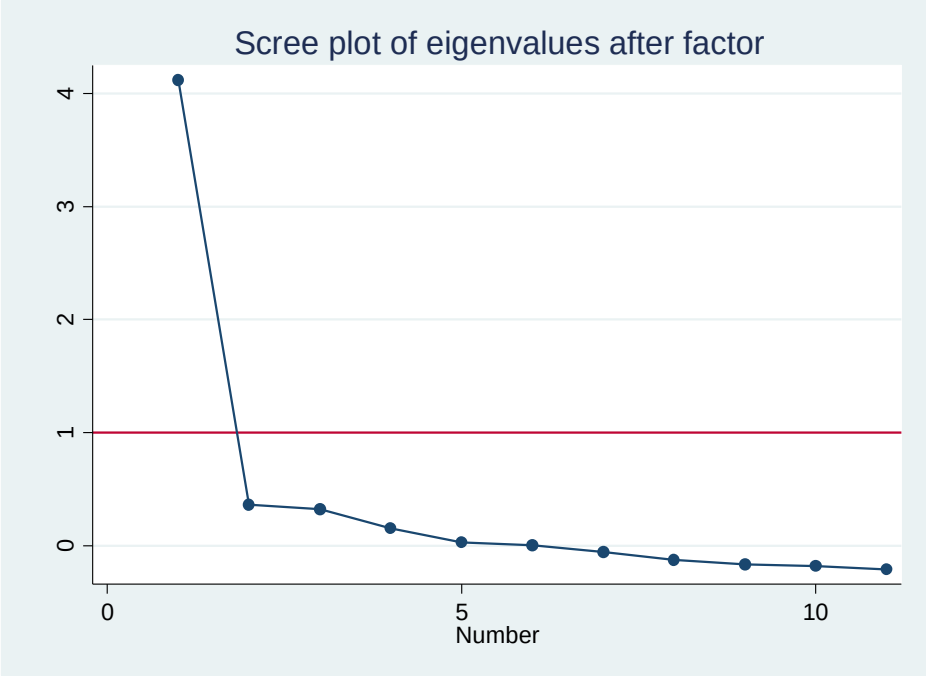

Figure 4. Scree plot of eigenvalues of role load factors.

***Role conflict and role ambiguity*.** Role conflict and role ambiguity were measured using the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity scale constructed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). Rizzo et al. (1970) conducted factor analysis using an image covariance method and rotation using a varimax criterion (p. 157), which indicated that the two factors reflected the two concepts of role ambiguity and conflict. To construct their scale, they removed any items that loaded less than .30 or that loaded highly on both factors, resulting in a 14-item questionnaire. Rizzo et al. created two samples from their respondents. The reliability coefficient for the role conflict factor was .82 for both samples. The reliability coefficients for the role ambiguity factor were .78 and .81. In their review of role conflict and ambiguity literature, Van Sell, Brief, and Schuler (1981) noted the acceptable reliability and extensive use of the Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) scale. Schuler (1977) reported alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .85 to .87 for role conflict and .84 to .89 for role ambiguity. Glisson and Durick (1988) reported alpha reliability coefficients of .81 for both role conflict and role ambiguity. Dale and Fox (2008) noted that their reliabilities were within the acceptable range according to Nunnally's (1978) criterion of .70.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to the exact 14-item questionnaire developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) on a scale from one (very false) to seven (very true) and mean scores were used. Six of the items were reverse coded to indicate that a high score was a high level of role conflict or role ambiguity. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. Examination of the scree plot and factor loadings suggested that a two factor solution was

appropriate. Table 3 illustrates the initial results, which indicated that the two retained factors explained 100% of the variance. Figure 5 shows the scree plot which verifies the retention of two factors for the role conflict and role ambiguity scale.

Table 3

Eigenvalues for Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scale (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	4.63034	3.38242	0.8232	0.8232
2	1.24793	0.96101	0.2219	1.0450

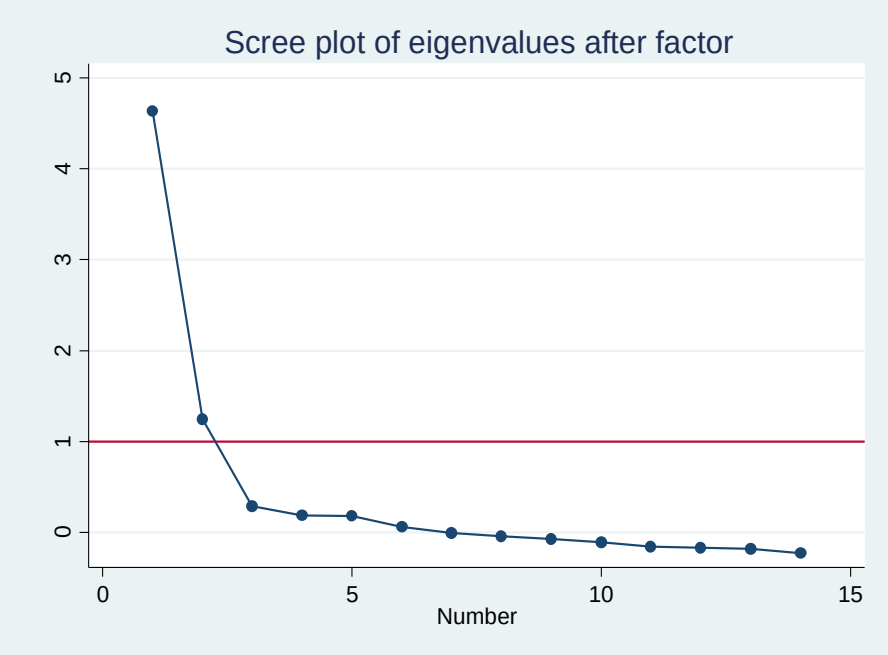

Figure 5. Scree plot of eigenvalues of role conflict and role ambiguity factors.

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The results were similar with regard to which items loaded on the two factors. Table 4 shows the factor loadings for the two retained factors after oblique promax rotation.

With the exception of item 4, which did not load highly with either factor, the items loaded with the same factors as they did with the original scales created by Rizzo,

House, and Lirtzman (1970). Question 4 was omitted in this study due to not loading highly with either factor. The Cronbach's alpha for role conflict (Questions 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 14) was .84, while the Cronbach's alpha for role ambiguity (Questions 1, 2, 6, 9, and 13) was .81. Both alphas indicate a good internal consistency (Acock, 2006) and are consistent with the use of the scale in previous research.

Table 4

Factor Loadings After Oblique Rotation for Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scale

Variable	Factor 1 Role Conflict	Factor 2 Role Ambiguity	Uniqueness
Item 1	0.045	**0.506**	0.717
Item 2	0.066	**0.750**	0.381
Item 3	**0.614**	-0.116	0.684
Item 4	0.047	0.317	0.882
Item 5	**0.743**	-0.117	0.526
Item 6	-0.090	**0.735**	0.522
Item 7	**0.494**	0.098	0.695
Item 8	**0.520**	0.058	0.694
Item 9	-0.016	**0.794**	0.383
Item 10	**0.710**	0.053	0.454
Item 11	**0.573**	0.109	0.594
Item 12	**0.724**	0.047	0.438
Item 13	0.087	**0.624**	0.546
Item 14	**0.563**	0.111	0.605

Participation in decision making. Participation in decision-making was measured using the participation scale created by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980) for a study on occupational differences in stresses and the job environment. Caplan et al. reported a reliability coefficient of .80 for the participation scale.

This study used the exact 3 items and 5-point scale from "very little" to "a great deal" from Caplan et al (1980). I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. An eigenvalue of 2.23 indicated that there was only one factor which

explained 100% of the variance. Figure 6 shows the scree plot which verified only one factor. The Cronbach's alpha for participation in decision making was .91 which indicates excellent internal consistency (Acock, 2006).

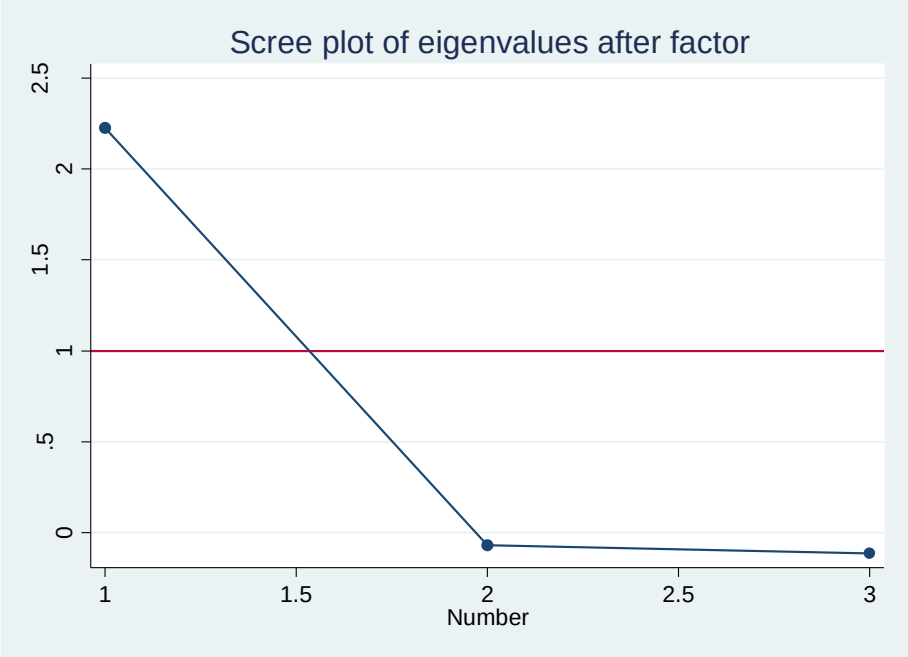

Figure 6. Scree plot of eigenvalues of participation in decision making factors.

Recognition. This study used the Leader Reward Behavior scale cited by Keller and Szilagyi (1975) —developed by Scott (1967, 1970), Reitz (1971), and Johnson (1973) and subsequently used and expanded by Sims and Szilagyi (1975)— to measure recognition as perceived by officers. The scale includes measurement of positive reward behavior, which focuses on good performance and leader administered rewards; and measurement of punitive rewards behavior, which focuses on low job performance and leader corrective behavior (Sims & Szilagyi, 1975).

Sims and Szilagyi (1975) conducted factor analysis of the Leader Reward Behavior scale and reported two factors: positive reward behavior and punitive reward behavior. Based on the Spearman-Brown formula, Sims and Szilagyi reported reliabilities

of .93 for positive reward behavior and .70 for punitive reward behavior. Keller and Szilagyi (1976) used this scale to assess the relationship between rewards and role satisfaction variables. Their factor analysis confirmed the two-factor structure reported by Sims and Szilagyi (1975). Based on the Spearman-Brown formula, Keller and Szilagyi (1976) reported reliabilities of .92 for positive reward behavior and .88 for punitive reward behavior.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to the 22-item questionnaire on a scale from one (very false) to seven (very true) and the mean scores were used. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. Table 5 illustrates the initial results which indicated that the two retained factors explain 98% of the variance. Figure 7 shows the scree plot which verified the retention of two factors for the Leader Reward Behavior scale.

Table 5

Eigenvalues for the Leader Reward Behavior Scale (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	8.56570	6.32788	0.7737	0.7737
2	2.23782	1.87835	0.2021	0.9758

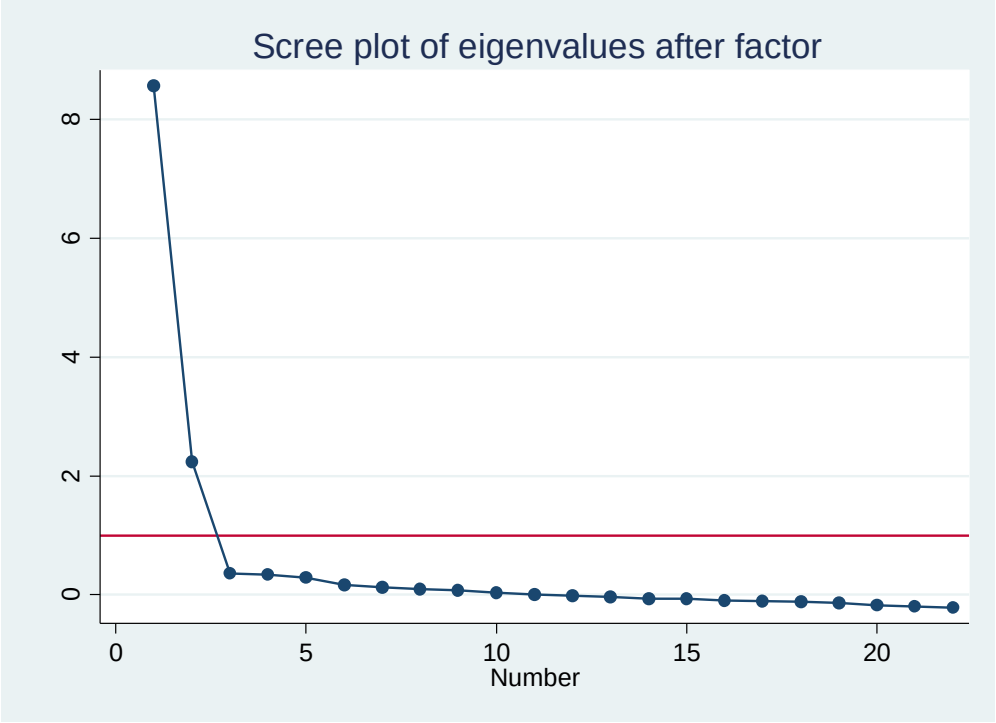

Figure 7. Scree plot of eigenvalues of leader reward behavior factors.

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The results were similar with regard to which items loaded on the two factors. Table 6 shows the factor loadings for the two retained factors after orthogonal varimax rotation. The factor loadings for this research were the same as the original scale created by Keller and Szilagyi (1976). The Cronbach's alpha for positive reward behavior (Questions 1, 3, 4 , 6, 8, 9, 10,13-16, and 18-22) was .94; which indicated excellent internal consistency (Acock, 2006). The Cronbach's alpha for punitive reward behavior (Questions 2, 5, 7, 11, 12, and 17) was .73, which is acceptable (Acock, 2006). Both alphas are consistent with the use of the scale in previous research.

Table 6

Factor Loadings After Orthogonal Rotation for the Leader Reward Behavior Scale

Variable	Factor 1 Positive Reward Behavior	Factor 2 Punitive Reward Behavior	Uniqueness
Item 1	**0.707**	-0.113	0.487
Item 2	-0.198	**0.485**	0.726
Item 3	**0.780**	-0.103	0.381
Item 4	**0.479**	0.174	0.740
Item 5	-0.184	**0.470**	0.746
Item 6	**0.775**	-0.028	0.398
Item 7	-0.024	**0.606**	0.633
Item 8	**0.782**	0.005	0.388
Item 9	**0.708**	-0.060	0.496
Item 10	**0.843**	-0.041	0.288
Item 11	-0.033	**0.735**	0.458
Item 12	-0.044	**0.689**	0.523
Item 13	**0.795**	-0.081	0.362
Item 14	**0.792**	-0.027	0.372
Item 15	**0.855**	-0.108	0.258
Item 16	**0.692**	0.089	0.513
Item 17	0.094	**0.426**	0.810
Item 18	**0.710**	0.249	0.434
Item 19	**0.719**	0.091	0.475
Item 20	**0.790**	-0.072	0.371
Item 21	**0.366**	0.238	0.809
Item 22	**0.682**	0.069	0.530

Coping factors. To assess coping factors, the Brief COPE developed by Carver (1997) was used. This scale has been used primarily with cancer patients and those recovering from stressful events (i.e., Hurricane Andrew). The scale consists of 14 two-item scales measuring various coping factors. In order to assess relevance to probation officers, a copy of the scale items was sent to five probation officers. Based on their feedback, I removed seven items. Five items were removed for redundancy in wording and one two-item scale (denial) was removed altogether.

Carver (1997) assessed the Brief COPE scale by conducting an exploratory factor analysis using oblique rotation, which resulted in nine factors with eigenvalues over 1.0. In addition, Carter presented reliability analyses for each two-item scale. All reliabilities met or exceeded the value of .50.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to 21 items on a scale from one (I haven't been doing this at all) to four (I've been doing this a lot) and the mean scores were used. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E. I conducted factor analysis of the Brief COPE scale using principal axis extraction. Table 7 illustrates the initial results which indicated that the three retained factors explained 89% of the variance. Figure 8 shows the scree plot which verified the retention of three factors for the Brief COPE.

Table 7

Eigenvalues for the Brief COPE (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	5.47274	3.79202	0.5772	0.5772
2	1.68072	0.42183	0.1772	0.7544
3	1.25889	0.38747	0.1328	0.8872

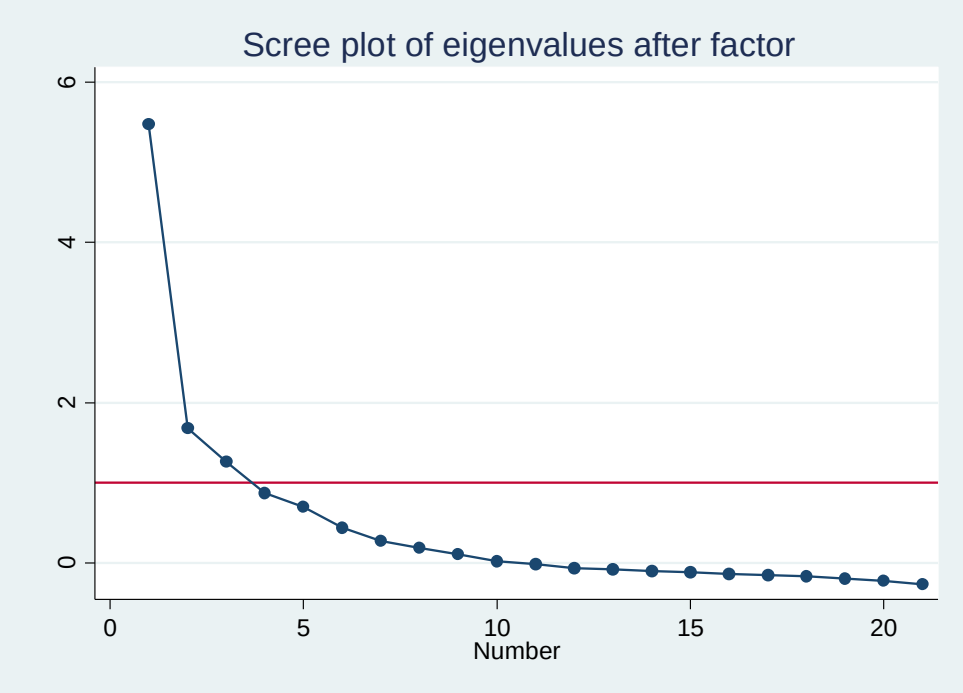

Figure 8. Scree plot of eigenvalues of Brief COPE.

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The oblique promax rotation provided a clearer depiction of the factor loadings. Table 8 shows the factor loadings for the three retained factors after oblique promax rotation.

The factor loadings for this research were different from those reported by Carver (1997). This may be the result of the omitted questions or the use of the inventory with a different population. Question 5 (active-coping) was included in the first factor even though it loaded slightly higher with factor three (religion). The first factor reflected cognitive behavioral coping methods, including self-distraction, active coping, behavioral disengagement, positive reframing, planning, humor, and acceptance. The Cronbach's alpha for this first factor was .83, which is good (Acock, 2006). The second factor reflected emotion focused coping methods including emotional support, instrumental

support, and venting. The Cronbach's alpha for the second factor was .83, which is good (Acock, 2006). The two-items from the original religion scale loaded as the third factor. The Cronbach's alpha for the third factor was .92, which is excellent, especially for a two-item scale.

Table 8

Factor Loadings After Oblique Rotation for the Brief COPE

Variable	Factor 1 Cognitive Behavioral	Factor 2 Emotion Focused	Factor 3 Religion	Uniqueness
Item 1	**0.409**	-0.016	-0.026	0.843
Item 2	**0.451**	0.085	0.305	0.593
Item 3	-0.123	**0.786**	0.097	0.441
Item 4	**0.414**	0.039	-0.202	0.801
Item 5	**0.336**	0.106	0.399	0.611
Item 6	0.290	**0.462**	-0.215	0.568
Item 7	-0.100	**0.790**	0.048	0.439
Item 8	**0.288**	0.014	-0.246	0.879
Item 9	**0.380**	0.087	0.210	0.731
Item 10	**0.743**	-0.185	-0.068	0.577
Item 11	**0.631**	0.026	0.285	0.434
Item 12	-0.109	**0.830**	0.109	0.357
Item 13	**0.322**	0.231	-0.055	0.767
Item 14	**0.536**	0.068	0.042	0.656
Item 15	0.237	**0.536**	-0.200	0.534
Item 16	0.036	0.078	**0.783**	0.342
Item 17	**0.486**	-0.007	0.123	0.732
Item 18	**0.526**	0.122	0.308	0.469
Item 19	**0.684**	-0.199	-0.022	0.650
Item 20	0.068	-0.031	**0.807**	0.336
Item 21	**0.311**	0.146	-0.177	0.829

Social support. Social support from family, peers, and supervisors was measured using the Social Support from Supervisor, Others at Work, and Wife, Friends, and Relatives scales developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980) for a study on occupational differences in stresses and the job environment. Caplan et al.

reported the following reliability scores for the support scales: social support from supervisor was .83; social support from others at work was .73; and social support from wife, friends, and relatives was .81.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to 12 items on a scale from one (don't have any such person) to five (very much) and the mean scores were used. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. Table 9 illustrates the initial results which indicated that the three retained factors explained 100% of the variance. Figure 9 shows the scree plot which verified the retention of three factors for the social support scale.

Table 9

Eigenvalues for the Social Support Scale (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	3.78651	1.44802	0.5163	0.5163
2	2.33849	0.60321	0.3189	0.8352
3	1.73528	1.50754	0.2366	1.0718

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The orthogonal varimax rotation provided a clearer depiction of the factor loadings. Table 10 shows the factor loadings for the three retained factors after orthogonal varimax rotation.

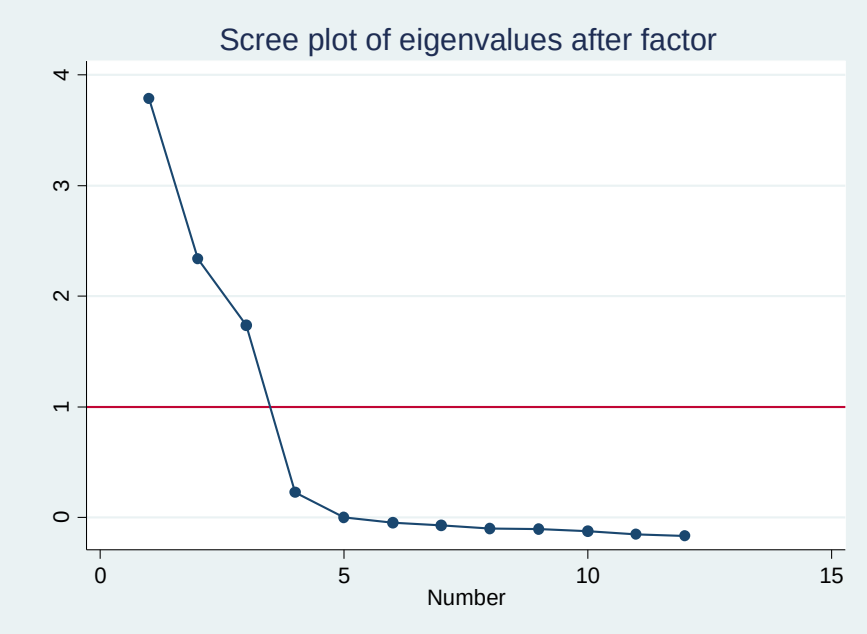

Figure 9. Scree plot of eigenvalues of social support scale.

Table 10

Factor Loadings After Orthogonal Rotation for the Social Support Scale

Variable	Factor 1 Supervisor	Factor 2 Others at Work	Factor 3 Spouse, Friends, Relatives	Uniqueness
Item 1	**0.791**	0.090	0.169	0.338
Item 2	**0.818**	0.044	0.082	0.322
Item 3	**0.822**	0.034	0.131	0.306
Item 4	**0.815**	0.039	0.090	0.327
Item 5	0.190	0.058	**0.729**	0.430
Item 6	0.123	0.122	**0.774**	0.371
Item 7	0.125	0.096	**0.810**	0.319
Item 8	0.082	0.071	**0.766**	0.402
Item 9	0.055	**0.715**	0.112	0.474
Item 10	-0.012	**0.863**	0.058	0.252
Item 11	0.102	**0.850**	0.071	0.261
Item 12	0.063	**0.806**	0.094	0.337

The factor loadings for this research were the same as the original scale created by Caplan et al. (1980). The variables that comprised the supervisor support factor

(questions 1 - 4) had a Cronbach's alpha of .90; the variables that comprised the spouse, friends, and relatives factor (questions 9 - 12) had a Cronbach's alpha of .89; and the variables that comprised the others at work factor (questions 5 – 8) had a Cronbach's alpha of .87. All alphas indicate very good internal consistency (Acock, 2006) and are consistent with the use of the scale in previous research. All three subscales were constructed by computing mean scores. Supervisor support was highly correlated with positive reward behavior of a supervisor (r = .79). Therefore, the supervisor support scale was dropped for the multivariate analyses.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in the study are the stress outcomes which include level of burnout, level of job satisfaction, level of organizational commitment, and self-perceived health. These variables were measured by scales that were developed and tested by other researchers and reported in the stress literature. These scales were previously found to have good to excellent validity and reliability. In this section, I describe each of the scales used and the results of the factor and reliability analyses among my sample. Again, for ease of interpretation, all scales and subscales were computed using mean scores rather than summative scores.

Burnout. Burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). This instrument assesses the three core components of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1998). Due to the nature of probation work (which involves working with other people in a staff-client interaction), the human services version of the MBI was used.

Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) conducted factor analysis using principal factoring with iteration plus orthogonal rotation, resulting in three subscales for the human services version of the MBI: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. The developers noted that the three factors have been replicated in various samples including teachers, legal aid employees, and employees of a business. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter reported reliability coefficients of .90 (emotional exhaustion), .79 (depersonalization), and .71 (personal accomplishment). The developers also noted test-retest reliability based on five different samples. The reliability coefficients from these samples ranged from .50 to .82.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to the 22-item MBI scale from zero (never) to six (every day) and the mean scores were used. I reverse coded the items pertaining to personal accomplishment in order to be consistent with higher scores relating to higher levels of burnout. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the MBI scale using principal axis extraction. Table 11 illustrates the initial results which indicated that the three retained factors explained 97% of the variance. Figure 10 shows the scree plot, which verified the retention of three factors for the MBI.

Table 11

Eigenvalues for the Maslach Burnout Inventory (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	7.05587	4.51269	0.6309	0.6309
2	2.54318	1.25034	0.2274	0.8582
3	1.29284	0.83703	0.1156	0.9738

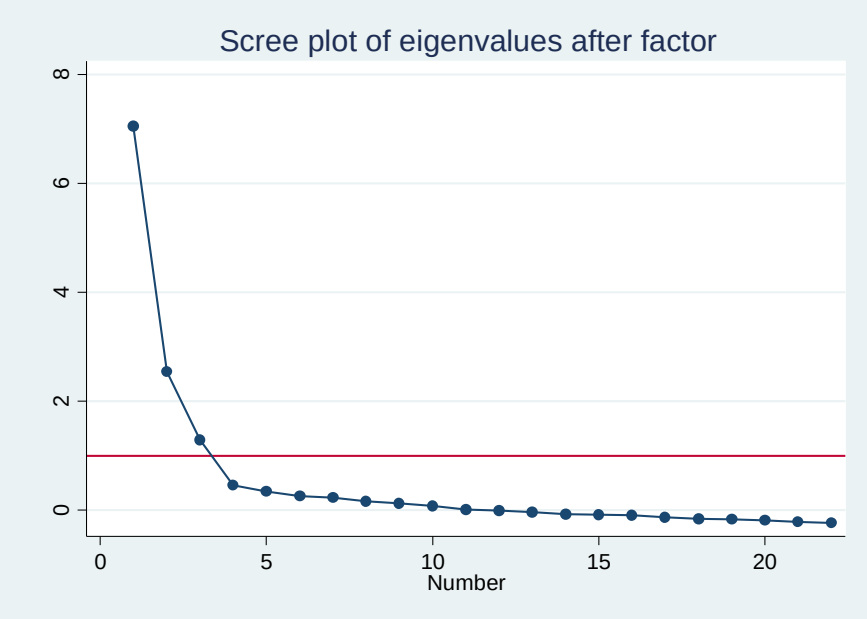

Figure 10. Scree plot of eigenvalues of Maslach Burnout Inventory.

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The oblique promax rotation provided a clearer depiction of the factor loadings. Table 12 shows the factor loadings for the three retained factors after oblique promax rotation.

The factor loadings for this research were different from those reported by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996). For my sample, the first factor included 9 items and was similar to emotional exhaustion. Due to the negative factor loading for Question 4, I used the reverse coded version in order to calculate the alpha for the first factor. The Cronbach's alpha for this study's emotional exhaustion factor was .91, which is excellent (Acock, 2006). The second factor included 7 items and was similar to depersonalization.

Table 12

Factor Loadings After Oblique Rotation for Maslach Burnout Inventory

Variable	Factor 1 Emotional Exhaustion	Factor 2 Depersonalization	Factor 3 Personal Accomplishment	Uniqueness
Item 1	**0.902**	-0.028	-0.096	0.221
Item 2	**0.905**	-0.052	-0.047	0.232
Item 3	**0.871**	-0.025	0.051	0.250
Item 4	**-0.469**	0.130	0.282	0.756
Item 5	0.053	**0.508**	0.049	0.695
Item 6	0.271	**0.552**	0.020	0.464
Item 7	-0.156	-0.015	**0.520**	0.728
Item 8	**0.822**	0.082	0.078	0.224
Item 9	-0.073	0.093	**0.666**	0.526
Item 10	-0.028	**0.792**	-0.048	0.414
Item 11	0.172	**0.625**	0.011	0.467
Item 12	**0.524**	-0.150	0.432	0.577
Item 13	**0.763**	0.139	-0.003	0.293
Item 14	**0.759**	0.065	-0.040	0.378
Item 15	-0.083	**0.641**	0.139	0.567
Item 16	0.264	**0.509**	0.084	0.499
Item 17	-0.044	0.054	**0.521**	0.716
Item 18	0.024	0.047	**0.677**	0.515
Item 19	0.066	-0.004	**0.672**	0.535
Item 20	**0.586**	0.144	0.106	0.516
Item 21	0.061	-0.136	**0.510**	0.759
Item 22	0.038	**0.473**	-0.148	0.778

The Cronbach's alpha for this study's depersonalization factor was .82, which is good (Acock, 2006). The third factor included 6 items and was similar to personal accomplishment. The Cronbach's alpha for this study's personal accomplishment factor was .77, which is acceptable (Acock, 2006). I also calculated alphas based on loading the items as originally reported by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter. The Cronbach's alpha for the original version were .93 (emotional exhaustion), .75 (depersonalization), and .76

(personal accomplishment). Due to the similar results, I used the new loadings for analysis.

Job satisfaction. There are two primary ways to measure job satisfaction. One method focuses on specific aspects of a job, including areas like compensation, co-workers, and nature of the work. The other is an overall aspect of satisfaction. In a meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of turnover, Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) found that overall job satisfaction and specific job satisfaction both have predictive validity, but overall job satisfaction was the best predictor of turnover. In this study, job satisfaction was measured using the six-question Job Opinion scale created by Slate, Wells, and Johnson (2003).

Slate et al. (2003) reported that the Job Opinion scale yielded a .86 reliability coefficient using Cronbach's alpha. In their study of participatory management on stress, job satisfaction, and turnover among federal probation officers, Lee, Joo, and Johnson (2009) dropped three items from the Job Opinion scale because their communalities were less than .70. The remaining items yielded an alpha of .81. A factor analysis on the three items produced one single-factor solution with an eigenvalue of 3.19 and loadings all over .50.

In this study, officers were asked to respond to 5 items on a scale from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). Officers also responded to one additional item on a scale from one (never) to five (most of the time). This additional question was reverse coded to be consistent with the first five items. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction. An eigenvalue of 3.10 indicated that there is only one factor which explained 100% of the variance. Figure 11 shows the scree plot which

verified only one factor. All factors loaded at a .57 or greater. The Cronbach's alpha for the job satisfaction index was .86, which indicates good internal consistency (Acock, 2006).

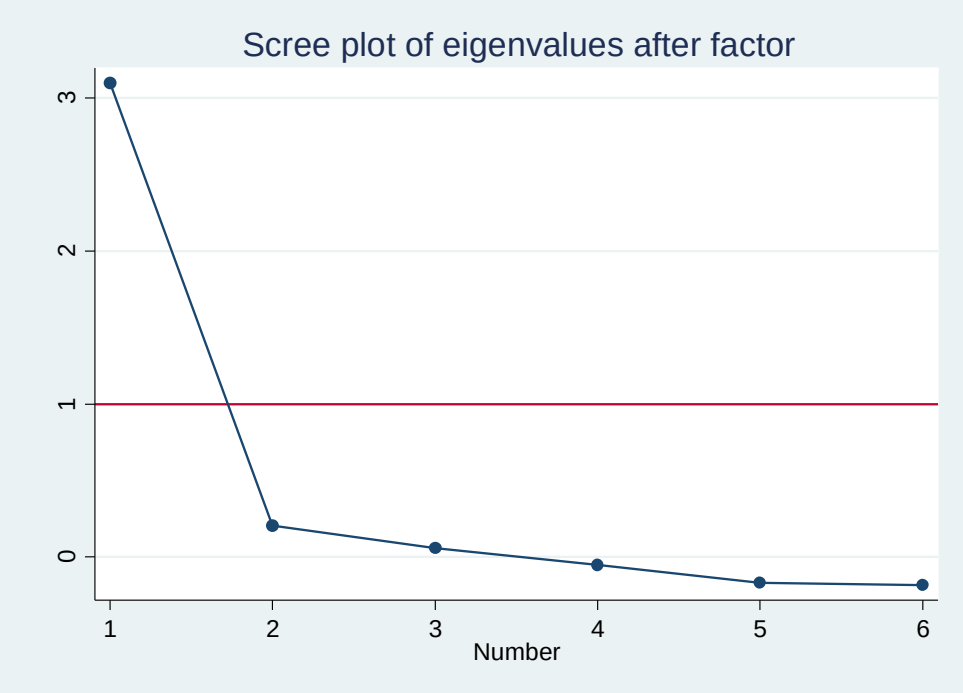

Figure 11. Scree plot of eigenvalues of job satisfaction factors.

Organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a three-component model of organizational commitment which assesses affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The revised version of Meyer and Allen organizational commitment scale was used in this study.

Meyer and Allen (1997) reported that several studies have used exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to assess the organizational commitment scale and for the most part, the studies have found that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are separate constructs. Meyer and Allen noted that the median reliabilities for the scales were .85 (affective), .79 (continuance), .73 (normative). Donovon (2003) used this

commitment scale in a study focusing on the effect of workplace stress on satisfaction, burnout, commitment, discouragement, and intent to leave among nurses. Donovon reported the following reliability coefficients: .81 (affective), .74 (continuance), and .87 (normative).

In this study, officers were asked to respond to the 18-item organizational commitment scale from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree) and the mean scores were used. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E. Questions 3, 4, 6, and 13 were reverse coded to be consistent with higher scores relating to higher levels of organizational commitment. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the MBI scale using principal axis extraction. Table 13 illustrates the initial results which indicated that the three retained factors explained 97% of the variance. Figure 12 shows the scree plot, which suggests that arguably only two factors should be retained for the organizational commitment scale. Nevertheless, to be consistent with previous literature, I retained three factors as discussed below.

Table 13

Eigenvalues for Organizational Commitment (unrotated)

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	6.47423	3.87574	0.6289	0.6289
2	2.59850	1.61719	0.2524	0.8813
3	0.98131	0.32932	0.0953	0.9766

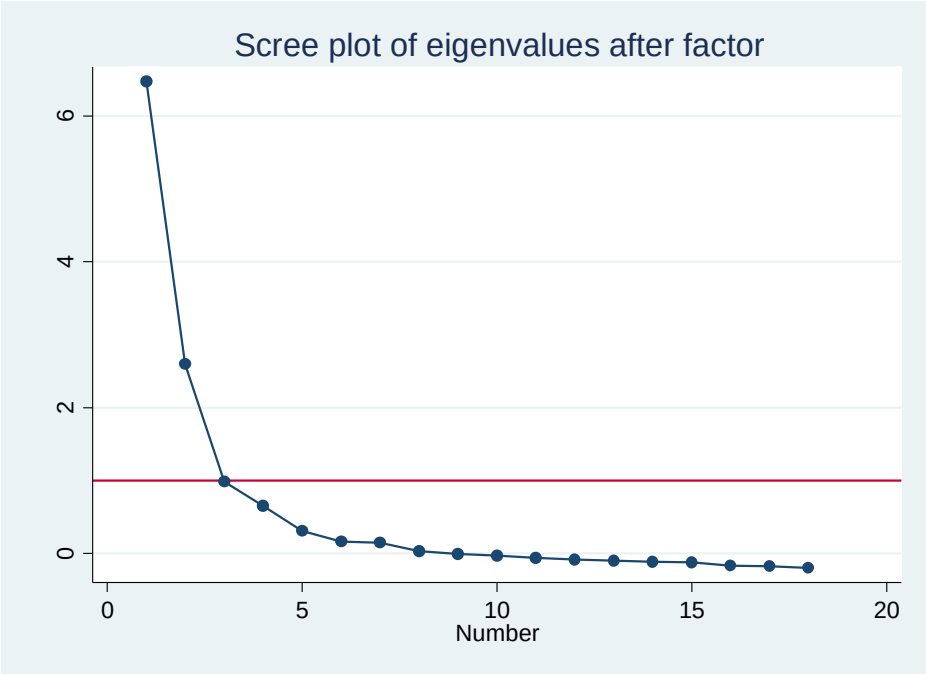

Figure 12. Scree plot of eigenvalues of organizational commitment

I ran the factor analysis using oblique promax rotation and orthogonal varimax rotation. The orthogonal varimax rotation provided a clearer depiction of the factor loadings. Table 14 shows the factor loadings for the three retained factors after orthogonal varimax rotation.

The factor loadings for this research were similar to those reported by Meyer and Allen (1997). Questions 7 and 8 loaded similarly with two factors and were dropped altogether. Question 2 did not load with any of the factors and was also dropped. For my sample, the first factor included 5 items and was similar to Meyer and Allen's affective commitment concept; however, it did not include question 2. The Cronbach's alpha for this study's affective commitment factor was .89, which is very good (Acock, 2006). The second factor included 6 items and was identical to the Meyer and Allen normative commitment concept. The Cronbach's alpha for this study's normative factor was .88,

Table 14

Factor Loadings After Orthogonal Rotation for Organizational Commitment

Variable	Factor 1 Affective	Factor 2 Normative	Factor 3 Continuance	Uniqueness
Item 1	**0.546**	0.422	-0.084	0.517
Item 2	0.267	0.293	-0.042	0.841
Item 3	**0.816**	0.113	-0.185	0.287
Item 4	**0.822**	0.220	-0.133	0.259
Item 5	**0.645**	0.444	-0.130	0.370
Item 6	**0.788**	0.161	-0.169	0.324
Item 7	0.013	0.472	0.413	0.607
Item 8	-0.055	0.480	0.499	0.518
Item 9	-0.127	-0.011	**0.638**	0.576
Item 10	-0.223	-0.121	**0.813**	0.274
Item 11	-0.092	-0.131	**0.824**	0.295
Item 12	-0.187	-0.094	**0.708**	0.454
Item 13	0.504	**0.528**	-0.006	0.468
Item 14	0.202	**0.659**	-0.116	0.511
Item 15	0.281	**0.673**	-0.115	0.454
Item 16	0.457	**0.592**	-0.200	0.401
Item 17	0.390	**0.696**	-0.175	0.333
Item 18	0.475	**0.558**	-0.072	0.458

which is good (Acock, 2006). The third factor included 4 items and was similar to Meyer and Allen's continuance concept; however, it did not include questions 7 and 8. The Cronbach's alpha for this study's continuance factor was .86, which is good (Acock, 2006).

Self-perceived health. Self-perceived health was measured using only one question that asked officers to rate their overall physical health from zero (poor) to four (excellent). Self-perceived health was then measured as follows: 0 = poor or fair; 1 = good or excellent.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I presented the methodology for this study, including the contents associated with the survey construction and the use of a population sample of federal probation officers. I also discussed the methods used to measure the control, mediating, independent, and dependent variables. I included a discussion of the factor analyses and reliability analyses conducted on the scales used within this study. In Chapter 4, I present the data analyses for this study. Then in Chapter 5 I provide a discussion of the findings, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this study was to test a model of federal probation officer stress to determine how working conditions influence outcomes for officers while controlling for coping factors, top level leadership training completion, and perceived top level leader leadership behaviors. The study used a quantitative design to gather individual, quantifiable data about federal probation officers regarding stressors and stress response. This chapter reports on findings from the analysis of quantitative data via the STATA-IC statistical package. I collected the data from September 2014 to January 2015 using Qualtrics survey management software. The chapter first presents univariate statistics, including frequency distributions and other descriptive statistics for the variables. The chapter then outlines the development of a regression model and an exploration into the model assumptions to ensure good fit. I then present the results from a nested multiple regression, which I used to determine the influence of the variables in the federal probation officer stress model. I also used logistic regression to test hypotheses related to the self-perceived health variable, which exists as a dichotomous dependent variable.

Univariate Results

Demographics and Other Control Variables

The first section of questions on the survey focused on sociodemographic and general work-related information for federal probation and pretrial services officers. For descriptive and exploratory purposes, I present the related frequencies and percentages in Table 15. A comparison to the total US population of probation and pretrial services

officers is included when available (Matthew Rowland, personal communication Feb 2016, and David Sellers, personal communication April 2016).

Table 15

Variable Frequencies and Percentages

	Percent (Respondents)	**Percent (USPOs)**	***N***
Demographics/Control Variables			
Sex			653
Male	48.7	41.6	
Female	51.3	58.4	
Race			652
White (Asian/Pac Islander, NA)	76.4	66.2	
African American	8.0	15.2	
Latino	15.6	18.2	
Education			654
Bachelor's	41.6	47	
Master's/PhD/Other Advanced	58.4	54	
Married/Partner's Employ Status			657
Single	13.7		
Married/Cohab Not Employed	5.9		
Married/Cohab Employed	70.5		
Was Married	9.9		
Total Number of Children			655
None	28.7		
One	18.5		
Two	35.7		
Three or more	17.1		
Years Employed in Crim Just			654
1 to 5 years	4.4		
6 to 10 years	14.8		
11 to 15 years	21.4		
16 to 20 years	21.7		
21 to 25 years	21.9		
26 to 40 years	15.8		
Number of Work Assignments			649
One	71.3		
Two or more	28.7		
Independent Variables			
CUSPO Participation in LDP			645
CUSPO attended LDP	47%		
CUSPO did not attend LDP	53%		

As Table 15 reveals, slightly more female probation officers (51%) responded to the survey. A majority of the officers were white (76%), which also included a small number of officers who identified as Pacific Islander or Asian. Federal probation and

pretrial services officers are required to have a bachelor's degree. Fifty-eight percent of officers had earned an advanced degree. A majority of officers are married/cohabitating with their spouse/partner also employed (70%); while remaining officers are either single (14%), married/cohabitating with their spouse/partner not employed (6%), or separated, divorced, or widowed (10%). A majority of officers had children (71%), with 53% having two or more children. Officers were asked about their years of experience working in criminal justice. A majority of officers worked in the criminal justice field between 11 and 25 years (65%); additionally, 4% worked between 1 and 5 years, 16% worked between 6 and 10 years, and 16% worked between 26 and 40 years. Federal probation and pretrial services officers can be assigned to different work assignments including pretrial court work, pretrial supervision, post-conviction supervision, and presentence investigation reports. A majority of officers reported that they are assigned to only one of those four tasks (71%).

Comparison of the participants to the entire USPO population was limited to sex, race, and education. As shown in Table 15, the respondents included a higher percentage of males and a higher percentage of officers with an advanced education. The respondents also included a higher percentage of white officers and fewer African American and Latino officers.

Independent and Mediating Variables

Leadership variables. The first measurement for leadership was whether the Chief United States Probation Officer (CUSPO) had completed the Leadership Development Program through the Federal Judicial Training Center. As shown in Table 15, respondents were evenly divided among officers who worked for a CUSPO who

attended the Leadership Development Program and officers who worked for a CUSPO who did not attend the program.

The second measure of leadership was the probation officers' assessment of the CUSPO's use of leadership behaviors on the Leadership Style Inventory (Northouse, 2007). This instrument provided a general profile of the CUSPO's leadership behavior by assessing task and relationship orientations. In this study, officers were asked to respond to 20 items on a scale from one (never) to seven (daily). Half of the items pertained to a task orientation and half of the items pertained to a relationship orientation. The higher the score, the more often officers perceived that the CUSPO used that orientation and leadership behaviors. Table 16 displays the means and standard deviations by task and relationship style orientation. Based upon the mean scores, officers perceived that CUSPOs demonstrated both the task and relationship style leadership behaviors at a moderately high rate. Because the task and relationship orientation variables were highly correlated, I used a combined score and mean for analysis. The mean (3.69) and standard deviation (1.08) for the combined scale is also included in Table 16. A table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Independent and Mediating Variables

Independent and Mediating Variables	*N*	Mean	Standard Deviation
Leadership Style Inventory (Scale 1-7)			
Task Orientation	555	3.76	1.08
Relationship Orientation	556	3.62	1.22
Combined Leadership	547	3.69	1.08
Role Load (Scale 1-5)	654	4.11	.53
Role Conflict (Scale 1-7)	620	4.30	1.33
Role Ambiguity (Scale 1-7)	620	2.44	1.12
Participation in Decision Making (Scale 1-5)	617	2.42	1.10
Leader Reward Behavior (Scale 1-7)			
Positive Reward Behavior	591	5.14	1.34
Punitive Reward Behavior	592	4.94	1.17
BriefCOPE (Scale 1-4)			
Cognitive Behavioral	530	2.32	.53
Emotion Focused	531	2.30	.77
Religion	529	2.19	1.12
Social Support (Scale 1-5)			
Others at Work	523	3.71	.84
Partner/Friends/Relatives	524	4.06	.90

Role load. Role load involves excessive demands related to the expected quality and quantity of work over a certain period (White, Gasperin, Nystrom, Ambrose, and Esarey, 2006). I measured role load using items from a combined index used by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980). Eleven questions were asked, several of which were reverse-coded, and higher scores represented higher levels of role load. The means for all eleven questions were high (above 3) indicating that on average, officers were experiencing relatively high levels of role load. Table 16 displays the mean and standard deviation for the entire scale, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Role conflict and role ambiguity. I measured role conflict and role ambiguity using the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity scale constructed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). Officers answered 14 items related to role conflict and role ambiguity.

Higher scores reflected higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Only one item on the role conflict scale had a mean above 5, indicating higher role conflict ("I have to do things that should be done differently." The mean for the total role conflict scale (4.30) indicated that officers had a neutral attitude on the issue of role conflict. None of the items on the role ambiguity scale had a mean above 4. The mean for the total role ambiguity scale (2.44) indicated that officers do not perceive high levels of role ambiguity. Table 16 displays the means and standard deviations for the entire scale by role conflict and role ambiguity, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Participation in decision making. I measured participation in decision-making using the participation scale created by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980) for a study on occupational differences in stresses and the job environment. Officers answered 3 items on a 5-point scale, with higher scores indicating a greater level of participation in decision making. The means for all three questions were low (below 3) indicating that on average, officers were experiencing relatively low levels of participation in decision making. Table 16 displays the mean and standard deviation for the entire scale, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Recognition. This study used the Leader Reward Behavior scale cited by Keller and Szilagyi (1975) —developed by Scott (1967, 1970), Reitz (1971), and Johnson (1973) and subsequently used and expanded by Sims and Szilagyi (1976)— to measure recognition by supervisors as perceived by officers. The scale includes measurement of positive reward behavior, which focuses on good performance and leader administered

rewards; and measurement of punitive rewards behavior, which focuses on low job performance and leader corrective behavior (Sims and Szilagyi, 1975). Officers responded to 22 items using a scale from one to seven, with higher scores indicating greater experiences of positive or punitive reward behavior. A majority of the items on the positive reward behavior scale had a mean above 5, indicating greater experiences of positive reward behavior from supervisors. The mean for the total positive reward behavior scale (5.14) indicated that officers agreed somewhat that their direct supervisor used positive reward behavior. A majority of the items on the punitive reward behavior scale had a mean above 5, indicating greater experiences of punitive reward behavior from supervisors. One item had a mean below 4 ("You would receive a reprimand from your supervisor if you were late in coming to work"), indicating less experience with that specific punitive behavior. The mean for the total punitive reward behavior scale (4.94) indicated that officers somewhat agreed or had a neutral opinion of their direct supervisors' punitive reward behavior. Table 16 displays the means and standard deviations for positive and punitive reward behavior, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Coping factors. I measured coping factors using the Brief COPE developed by Carver (1997). A modified version of the scale was used in this study based on feedback from probation officers. Officers responded to 21 items on a scale from one to four, with higher scores indicating higher use of the coping factor. The scale measured three coping methods: religion, emotion focused, and cognitive behavioral. The mean score for all items was below 3, indicating that officers do not use these methods of coping very often.

Table 16 displays the means and standard deviations for each coping method, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Social support. Perceived social support from family, peers, and supervisors was measured using the Social Support from Supervisor, Others at Work, and Wife, Friends, and Relatives scales developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980). Officers responded to 12 items on a scale from one to five, with higher levels indicating higher levels of support. Due to high correlations with other measures, I chose not to use the supervisor support scale for analysis. The mean for others at work scale was 3.71, indicating that officers experience some support from coworkers. The mean for support from partners/friends/relatives was 4.06, indicating that officers experience more support from outside of the office. Table 16 displays the means and standard deviations for the scale by type of support, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Dependent Variables

Burnout. I assessed burnout using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). This instrument assesses the three core components of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1998). Officers responded to the 22-item MBI scale from zero to six. I reverse coded the items pertaining to personal accomplishment in order to be consistent with higher scores relating to higher levels of burnout (lower levels of personal accomplishment). The factor loadings for my sample were different from those reported by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996). However, the items loaded into the three components of burnout. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter divided the normative distribution into thirds; where each third defines a score as

considered high, average, or low based upon where they fall. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, advocate considering the subscales separately and not combined. High scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low scores on personal accomplishment indicate a high level of burnout; average scores on all scales indicate average levels of burnout; and low scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and high scores on personal accomplishment indicate low levels of burnout (Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, 1996, p. 5). Based upon the normative distribution for social services provided by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, probation and pretrial officers scored high on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low on personal accomplishment which indicates a high level of burnout. Table 17 displays the means and standard deviations for the subscales. Individual item information is not included due to restrictions from the copyright for use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Maslach Burnout Inventory (Scale 1-7)			
Emotional Exhaustion	512	4.56	1.38
Depersonalization	512	3.04	1.28
Personal Accomplishment	510	2.92	1.10
Job Satisfaction (Scale 1-5)	513	3.92	.88
Organizational Commitment (Scale 1-7)			
Affective Commitment	506	4.59	1.63
Continuance Commitment	505	5.14	1.61
Normative Commitment	504	3.93	1.56

Job satisfaction. I measured job satisfaction using the Job Opinion scale created by Slate, Wells, and Johnson (2003). Officers responded to 6 items on scales from one to five. One question was reverse-coded to be consistent with higher scores indicating higher levels of job satisfaction. The mean for each item in the scale was greater than 3,

indicating that officers reported moderate levels of job satisfaction. Table 17 displays the mean and standard deviation for the entire scale, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Organizational commitment. This study used the revised version of the Meyer and Allen (1997) organizational commitment scale. The scale measures a three-component model of organizational commitment which assesses affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Officers responded to 18-items on a scale from one to seven. Four questions were reverse coded to be consistent with higher scores relating to higher levels of organizational commitment. Two items loaded similarly with two factors and were dropped. A third item did not load with any of the factors and was also dropped. The mean for the affective commitment scale (4.59) indicated that officers have a modest level of affective commitment which refers to an officers' emotional attachment to the organization. The mean for the continuance commitment scale (5.14) indicated that officers have a moderate level of continuance commitment, which refers to their awareness of the costs of leaving the job and the tendency to stay because they need to do so. The mean for the normative commitment scale (3.93) indicated that officers have a neutral attitude to modest level of normative commitment, which refers to the feeling of loyalty toward the organization. Table 17 displays the means and standard deviations for each subscale, and a table with the means and standard deviations for each item is included in Appendix E.

Self-perceived health. Self-perceived health was measured using only one question that asked officers to rate their overall physical health from zero (poor) to four (excellent). Table 18 displays the mean and standard deviation for self-perceived health. Seventy-five percent of officers rated their physical health as good to excellent.

Table 18

Mean and Standard Deviation for Self-Perceived Health

Rating of overall physical health	**Percent**	**Mean**	***SD***	***N***
Physical Health Rating:		.75	.44	508
Poor or Fair	25.4			129
Good or Excellent	74.6			379

Regression Criticism

To assess multicollinearity, I ran an exploratory OLS multiple regression equation in which I regressed one of the dependent variables, emotional exhaustion, on all of the independent and mediating variables. I then examined the variance inflation factors (VIFs) for all of the predictor variables in that preliminary equation. The following variables had a VIF above 2.00: positive reward behavior by supervisor (*VIF* = 3.44, *1/VIF* = 0.290317), supervisor support (*VIF* = 3.20, *1/VIF* = 0.312594), relationship orientation (*VIF* = 2.92, *1/VIF* = 0.341893), and task orientation (*VIF* = 2.70, *1/VIF* = 0.370765). In order to address multicollinearity in the model, supervisor support was dropped and I used the mean score for the leadership scale rather than task and relationship orientation separately. These changes resulted in all VIFs below 2.0 which is shown in Table 19.

Table 19

Variance and Inflation Factor Tolerance for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	***VIF***	***1/VIF***
Role Conflict	1.98	0.504859
Cognitive Behavioral Coping	1.80	0.554982
Emotion-focused Coping	1.70	0.587101
Role Ambiguity	1.67	0.598089
Positive Reward Behavior	1.53	0.652444
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	1.50	0.668639
Participation in Decision Making	1.47	0.681121
Role Load	1.42	0.706327
Number of Children	1.33	0.750896
Coworker support	1.30	0.771837
Religion Coping	1.27	0.788757
Marital/Partner Employment Status	1.21	0.826343
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	1.17	0.855430
Sex	1.15	0.871223
Work Assignments (two or more)	1.15	0.873359
Punitive Reward Behavior	1.13	0.882478
Partner/Friends/Relatives Support	1.13	0.885851
Race	1.12	0.890905
CUSPO Participation in LDP	1.09	0.919810
Education	1.07	0.935509

For each regression model, I conducted regression criticisms and assessed for heteroscedasticity. Though there was minimal evidence of heteroscedasticity and/or outliers, I also ran robust regressions and robust standard errors and compared the results to the OLS regressions. The robust regressions and robust standard errors did not change the conclusions, therefore, I present the results from the OLS regressions.

Regressions

Independent and Mediating Variables

I conducted regression analyses for the independent variables in my conceptual model using nested regressions so I could examine the effects of control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics) and independent variables (leadership variables and working conditions) on each of the dependent variables.

Regression 1: Role load. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon role load, I regressed role load on the control variables in Model 1 and on the control variables and leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 20, none of the control variables, nor the overall R^2 value of .02 in Model 1, were statistically significant. Moreover, all of the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients were very small, confirming that none of the control variables were important predictors of role load.

As shown in Table 20, adding the two leadership variables in Model 2 produced a modest increase of 4 percent in the explained variance (change in R^2 = .04, p < .01), and the increase was statistically significant. The only significant predictors of role load in Model 2 were the two leadership variables. A Chief United States Probation Officer's (CUSPO) participation in the leadership development program resulted in a slightly higher level of role load for officers (b^* = .08, p < .05); however, this was a weak effect. As officers reported higher levels of leadership behaviors by the CUSPOs, officer role load levels decreased somewhat (b^* = - .17, p < .00), although the effect was modest. The final model for role load was weak with only 6% of the variance explained.

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Hypothesis 1, which posited that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity," was very weakly supported. Hypothesis 6, which posited that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers," was weakly supported by Model 2.

Table 20

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Role Load (N=510)

Regression 1	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.06
Race (Black)	-0.08	0.09	-0.04	-0.09	0.09	-0.04
Race (Hispanic)	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.10	0.07	0.07
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04
Single	-0.04	0.08	-0.03	-0.03	0.08	-0.02
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.02	0.11	-0.01	0.00	0.11	0.00
Was Married	0.07	0.08	0.04	0.07	0.08	0.04
One Child	-0.04	0.08	-0.03	-0.04	0.08	-0.03
Two Children	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	-0.02	0.07	-0.02
Three or More Children	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.08	0.04
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.02	0.05	-0.02	0.01	0.05	0.01
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.09*	0.05	0.08
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.09**	0.02	-0.17
***R*²**		**0.02**			**0.06**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**0.90**			**9.31****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Regression 2: Role conflict. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon role conflict, I regressed role conflict on the control variables in Model 1 and on the control variables and the leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 21, the R^2 value of .04 was not significant for Model 1, but two variables were statistically significant albeit with weak effects. The level of education (b^* = .12, p < .01) and number of work roles (b^* = -.09; p < .05) were weak, though statistically significant, predictors of role conflict.

As shown in Table 21, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a moderate, statistically significant impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .12; p < .01). The only

statistically significant predictors of role conflict were education level and race of the officer and leadership behaviors of the CUSPO. As an officer's educational level increased, his/her level of role conflict increased slightly, although the effect was weak ($b^* = .11$, $p < .01$). Hispanic officers reported slightly lower levels of role conflict ($b^* = -.07$, $p < .05$), however, the effect was also quite weak. As officers reported higher levels of leadership behaviors by the CUSPOs, role conflict decreased significantly ($b^* = -.36$, $p < .01$), which was a moderately strong effect. The final model was modest with 16% of the variance explained. By a wide margin, the strongest predictor of role conflict was the perceived leadership behaviors of the CUSPOs.

Table 21

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Role Conflict (N=511)

Regression 2	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex	-0.04	0.12	-0.02	-0.08	0.11	-0.03
Race (Black)	-0.20	0.23	-0.04	-0.27	0.21	-0.05
Race (Hispanic)	-0.24	0.17	-0.06	-0.27*	0.16	-0.07
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.32**	0.12	0.12	0.29**	0.11	0.11
Single	-0.08	0.20	-0.02	-0.04	0.19	-0.01
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.12	0.27	-0.02	-0.04	0.25	-0.01
Was Married	0.29	0.21	0.06	0.31	0.19	0.07
One Child	-0.23	0.19	-0.07	-0.27	0.18	-0.08
Two Children	-0.16	0.18	-0.06	-0.23	0.17	-0.08
Three or More Children	0.06	0.21	0.02	0.00	0.19	0.00
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	-0.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.05
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.26*	0.13	-0.09	-0.08	0.12	-0.03
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.02	0.11	0.01
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.45**	0.05	-0.36
***R*²**		**0.04**			**0.16**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**1.65**			**36.45****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Hypothesis 1, which asserted that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity," was not supported. Model 2 provided moderately strong support, on the other hand, for Hypothesis 6, which asserted that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers."

Regression 3: Role ambiguity. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon role ambiguity, I regressed role ambiguity on the control variables in Model 1 and on the control variables and the leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 22, the R^2 value of .02 was not significant for Model 1, nor were any of the control variables significant predictors of role ambiguity.

As shown in Table 22, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a moderate, statistically significant impact on the explained variance (change in $R^2 = .15$, $p < .01$), and the only significant predictor of role ambiguity was the leadership behaviors of the CUSPO. As officers reported higher levels of leadership behaviors by the CUSPOs, role ambiguity decreased at a moderately strong level ($b^* = -.40$, $p < .00$). The final model was modest with 17% of the variance explained, although the perceived leadership behaviors of the CUSPOs was a strong predictor of role ambiguity.

Table 22

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Role Ambiguity (N=511)

Regression 3	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex	-0.10	0.11	-0.05	-0.15	0.10	-0.06
Race (Black)	0.00	0.20	0.00	-0.06	0.18	-0.01
Race (Hispanic)	-0.18	0.15	-0.06	-0.20	0.14	-0.06
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.08	0.11	0.03	0.05	0.10	0.02
Single	0.12	0.18	0.04	0.17	0.16	0.05
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.28	0.23	-0.05	-0.20	0.21	-0.04
Was Married	0.10	0.18	0.03	0.11	0.17	0.03
One Child	0.10	0.17	0.03	0.07	0.15	0.02
Two Children	0.09	0.15	0.04	0.02	0.14	0.01
Three or More Children	0.09	0.18	0.03	0.04	0.17	0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	-0.01	0.01	-0.06
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.17	0.11	-0.07	0.01	0.11	0.00
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.11	0.10	0.05
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.43**	0.04	-0.40
***R*²**		**0.02**			**0.17**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**0.63**			**45.35****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Hypothesis 1, which posited that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity," was not supported. On the other hand, there was strong support for Hypothesis 6, which stated that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers.

Regression 4: Participation in decision making. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon participation in decision making, I regressed participation in decision making on the control variables in

Model 1 and the control variables and the leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 23, the R^2 value of .11 was significant for Model 1, and two variables were statistically significant. Having one child slightly decreased the likelihood of reporting higher levels of participation in decision making (b^* = - .11, $p < .05$); whereas having more work assignments moderately increased reports of participation in decision making (b^* = .29; $p < .01$). The number of work assignments had a moderate effect, while the number of children had a weak effect.

As shown in Table 23, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a moderate, statistically significant impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .13, $p < .01$). Four variables were statistically significant in Model 2, but had weak effects at best: level of education (b^* = .08, $p < .05$), having one child (b^* = -.10, $p < .05$), years employed in criminal justice (b^* = .08, $p < .05$) and CUSPO participation in the Leadership Development Program (b^* = .07, $p < .05$). Two other variables were statistically significant with moderate effects on the model. As officers reported an increased number of work assignments, participation in decision making increased moderately (b^* = .22, $p < .00$). As officers reported higher levels of leadership behaviors by the CUSPOs, participation in decision making increased moderately (b^* = .37, $p < .00$). The final model was modestly strong with 24% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of participation in decision making was the CUSPOs leadership behaviors, followed by the number of work assignments.

Table 23

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Participation in Decision Making (N=511)

Regression 4	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]***	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]***
Sex	-0.11	0.10	-0.05	-0.09	0.09	-0.04
Race (Black)	0.01	0.18	0.00	0.08	0.16	0.02
Race (Hispanic)	-0.08	0.13	-0.03	-0.02	0.12	-0.01
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.14	0.10	0.06	0.17*	0.09	0.08
Single	0.02	0.16	0.01	-0.02	0.15	-0.01
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.11	0.21	0.02	0.05	0.19	0.01
Was Married	-0.21	0.16	-0.06	-0.22	0.15	-0.06
One Child	-0.31*	0.15	-0.11	-0.27*	0.14	-0.10
Two Children	-0.12	0.14	-0.05	-0.05	0.13	-0.02
Three or More Children	-0.15	0.16	-0.05	-0.08	0.15	-0.03
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.01*	0.01	0.08
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.70**	0.10	0.29	0.54**	0.10	0.22
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.15*	0.09	0.07
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.38**	0.04	0.37
***R*²**		**0.11**			**0.24**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**4.89****			**44.97****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Hypothesis 2, which states that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of participation in decision making," was very weakly supported. Model 2 provided moderately strong support for Hypothesis 6, which asserts that "the perceived leadership style of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers."

Regression 5: Positive reward behavior by direct supervisor. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon a supervisor's positive reward behavior, I regressed positive reward behavior on the control variables in Model 1 and the control variables and leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 24, the R^2 value of .03 was not significant for Model 1, and only two variable were statistically significant with weak effects: number of work assignments (b^* = .10, $p < .05$), and years employed in criminal justice (b^* = -.09, $p < .05$).

As shown in Table 24, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a moderate, statistically significant impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .16, $p < .01$). CUSPO leadership behavior (b^* = .41, $p < .00$) was the only statistically significant variable which had a moderately strong effect. As officers reported higher levels of leadership behaviors by the CUSPOs, the more positive reward behavior of direct supervisors was reported. The final model was modest with 19% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of positive reward behavior of direct supervisors was the CUSPOs' leadership behaviors.

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Hypothesis 3, which posited that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors, and lower levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors," was not supported. On the other hand, Model 2 provided moderately strong support for Hypothesis 6, which asserted that "the perceived leadership style of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers."

Table 24

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Positive Reward Behavior of Direct Supervisor (N=510)

Regression 5	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex	-0.02	0.13	-0.01	0.03	0.11	0.01
Race (Black)	0.11	0.23	0.02	0.17	0.21	0.03
Race (Hispanic)	0.12	0.17	0.03	0.13	0.16	0.04
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.06	0.12	-0.02	-0.03	0.11	-0.01
Single	-0.21	0.21	-0.05	-0.27	0.19	-0.07
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.27	0.27	0.05	0.18	0.25	0.03
Was Married	-0.22	0.21	-0.05	-0.24	0.19	-0.05
One Child	-0.22	0.19	-0.06	-0.18	0.18	-0.05
Two Children	-0.13	0.18	-0.05	-0.06	0.17	-0.02
Three or More Children	-0.01	0.21	0.00	0.04	0.19	0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	-0.02*	0.01	-0.09	-0.01	0.01	-0.06
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.30*	0.13	0.10	0.09	0.12	0.03
CUSPO Participation in LDP				-0.16	0.11	-0.06
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.51**	0.05	0.41
***R*²**		**0.03**			**0.19**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**1.33**			**49.64****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Regression 6: Punitive reward behavior by direct supervisor. In order to determine the influence of the control variables and the leadership variables upon a supervisor's punitive reward behavior, punitive reward behavior was regressed on the control variables in Model 1 and the control variables and leadership variables in Model 2. As shown in Table 25, the R^2 value of .05 was significant, and three variables were statistically significant but had weak effects: Latino ($b^* = .13$, $p < .01$), having two children ($b^* = .13$, $p < .05$), and having three or more children ($b^* = .14$, $p < .01$).

As shown in Table 25, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a minimal impact on the R^2 value and the change in R^2 was not statistically significant. Three variables were still statistically significant but had weak effects. Being Latino,

having two children, or having three or more children all increased slightly the perceptions of the use of punitive reward behaviors by direct supervisors. The final model was weak with only 6% of the variance explained.

Table 25

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Punitive Reward Behavior of Direct Supervisor (N=511)

Regression 6	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b***[a]	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex	0.14	0.11	0.06	0.15	0.11	0.06
Race (Black)	-0.26	0.20	-0.06	-0.26	0.20	-0.06
Race (Hispanic)	0.44**	0.15	0.13	0.42**	0.15	0.13
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.10	0.11	-0.04	-0.09	0.11	-0.04
Single	0.18	0.18	0.05	0.17	0.18	0.05
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.06	0.23	0.01	0.05	0.23	0.01
Was Married	0.22	0.18	0.05	0.22	0.18	0.05
One Child	-0.02	0.17	-0.01	-0.02	0.17	-0.01
Two Children	0.32*	0.15	0.13	0.32*	0.15	0.13
Three or More Children	0.45**	0.18	0.14	0.45**	0.18	0.14
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	-0.01	0.01	-0.05	-0.01	0.01	-0.05
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.17	0.11	0.06	0.15	0.12	0.06
CUSPO Participation in LDP				-0.07	0.10	-0.03
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.04	0.05	0.04
***R*²**		**0.05**			**0.06**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**2.38****			**0.65**	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

Overall, two of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression and neither was supported: Hypothesis 3, which stated that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors, and lower levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors," and

Hypothesis 6, which asserts that "the perceived leadership style of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers."

Dependent Variables

I conducted a regression analysis for each dependent variable using nested regression so I could examine the effects of control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics), independent variables (leadership variables and working conditions), and potential mediating variables (support and coping). I used logistic regression for the self-perceived health variable because it was dichotomous.

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The Maslach Burnout Inventory contains three burnout subscales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. In order to assess the influence of the control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics), independent variables (leadership and working condition variables), and mediating variables (support variables) upon an officer's level of burnout, each burnout subscale was regressed on the control variables (Model 1), the leadership variables (Model 2), working conditions (Model 3) and support and coping variables (Model 4).

Regression 7: Emotional exhaustion. According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), the emotional exhaustion scale assesses the extent to which workers feel as though they cannot give any more of themselves at a psychological level. As shown in Table 26, Model 1 (control variables) explained little of the variance in emotional exhaustion (R^2 = .06), although the model was statistically significant. Only two variables were significant in the model, married/cohabiting without spouse/partner employed (b^* = -.11, $p < .01$) and number of work assignments (b^* = -.14, $p < .01$), although the relationships were weak.

As shown in Table 26, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a significant impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .11, p < .01). Five variables were statistically significant, four of which had weak effects: African American officers (b* = -.09, p < .05), officers who were married/cohabiting with a spouse/partner not employed (b* = -.10, p < .05), officers who were previously married (b* = .08, p < .05), and officers who reported two or more work assignments (b* = -.08, p < .05). By far, the most important predictor of emotional exhaustion in Model 2 was a CUSPO's leadership behaviors (b* = -.34, p < .01). Officers who perceived that their CUSPO used more leadership behaviors reported moderately lower levels of emotional exhaustion.

As shown in Table 26, the variables in Model 3, working conditions, significantly and substantially increased the R^2 (change in R^2 = .34, p < .01). Eight variables were significant in the model. Latino officers, married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed, years employed in criminal justice, participation in decision making, and punitive reward behavior by supervisor were statistically significant but had weak effect sizes in Model 3. CUSPO leadership behaviors (b* = -.11, p < .05) also had a weak direct effect on emotional exhaustion in Model 3. The fact that the effect of CUSPO leadership behavior decreased from -.34 to -.11 suggests that much of the effect of CUSPO leadership behavior on emotional exhaustion was indirect and mediated by role conflict and role load. As officers reported higher levels of role conflict (b* = .25, p < .01), they also reported moderately higher levels of emotional exhaustion. As officers reported higher levels of role load (b* = .40, p < .01), they also reported a much higher level of emotional exhaustion.

Table 26

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Emotional Exhaustion (MBI) (N=468)

Regression 7	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.10	0.13	0.04	0.07	0.12	0.02
Race (Black)	-0.41	0.25	-0.07	-0.49*	0.24	-0.09
Race (Hispanic)	-0.20	0.18	-0.05	-0.21	0.17	-0.06
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.21	0.13	0.07	0.18	0.12	0.07
Single	0.05	0.22	0.01	0.10	0.20	0.03
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.66**	0.28	-0.11	-0.58*	0.26	-0.10
Was Married	0.35	0.22	0.07	0.35*	0.21	0.08
One Child	0.09	0.20	0.03	0.04	0.19	0.01
Two Children	0.03	0.19	0.01	-0.02	0.18	-0.01
Three or More Children	0.19	0.23	0.05	0.15	0.21	0.04
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.04
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.43**	0.14	-0.14	-0.24*	0.13	-0.08
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.08	0.12	0.03
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.43**	0.06	-0.34
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		0.06			0.17	
***F* for change in *R*²**		2.51**			29.73**	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 26 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Emotional Exhaustion (MBI) (N=468)

Regression 7	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.03	0.10	0.01	-0.04	0.09	-0.02
Race (Black)	-0.19	0.19	-0.03	-0.19	0.18	-0.03
Race (Hispanic)	-0.24*	0.13	-0.06	-0.20	0.13	-0.05
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.09	0.10	0.03	0.06	0.09	0.02
Single	0.08	0.16	0.02	0.03	0.15	0.01
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.49*	0.20	-0.08	-0.46*	0.19	-0.08
Was Married	0.17	0.16	0.04	-0.02	0.16	0.00
One Child	0.07	0.15	0.02	0.06	0.14	0.02
Two Children	0.00	0.14	0.00	-0.03	0.13	-0.01
Three or More Children	0.00	0.17	0.00	-0.02	0.16	-0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01*	0.01	0.07	0.01*	0.01	0.07
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.16	0.11	-0.05	-0.12	0.10	-0.04
CUSPO Participation in LDP	-0.02	0.09	-0.01	-0.04	0.09	-0.02
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	-0.14**	0.05	-0.11	-0.13**	0.05	-0.11
Role Load	1.01**	0.10	0.40	0.90**	0.10	0.35
Role Conflict	0.26**	0.05	0.25	0.17**	0.05	0.16
Role Ambiguity	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.04
Participation in Decision Making	-0.10*	0.05	-0.08	-0.06	0.05	-0.04
Positive Reward Behavior	-0.05	0.04	-0.05	-0.05	0.04	-0.05
Punitive Reward Behavior	0.07*	0.04	0.06	0.08*	0.04	0.06
Coping (Religion)				-0.04	0.04	-0.03
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				0.25**	0.07	0.14
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				0.35**	0.11	0.14
Support (Coworkers)				-0.18**	0.06	-0.10
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.16**	0.05	-0.10
***R*²**		**0.51**			**0.57**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**52.30****			**11.03****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

As shown in Table 26, the variables in Model 4 (support and coping variables) had a modest, statistically significant, impact on the R^2 (change in $R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$). In this final model, married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed and years

employed in criminal justice were statistically significant but had weak effects. Probation officers with employed partners/spouses had slightly lower levels of emotional exhaustion; and the longer probation officers had worked in the criminal justice system, the more likely it was that they reported slightly higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Punitive reward behavior by a direct supervisor also had statistically significant, but weak positive effect, with higher perceptions of punitive reward behavior leading to slightly higher levels of emotional exhaustion. CUSPO leadership behaviors ($b^* = -.11$, $p < .05$) had a weak effect. Role conflict ($b^* = .16$, $p < .01$) had a modest effect on the model. Role load ($b^* = .35$, $p < .01$) continued to have a moderately strong effect on the model. As officers reported higher levels of role conflict, they also reported modestly higher levels of emotional exhaustion, and as officers reported higher levels of role load, they reported much higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

The inclusion of the support and coping variables in Model 4 slightly decreased the impact of the working conditions on emotional exhaustion, suggesting partial mediation. The coping variables that were statistically significant but had modest effects on the model were: emotion focused coping ($b^* = .14$, $p < .01$), and cognitive behavioral coping ($b^* = .14$, $p < .01$). As officers reported higher levels of emotion focused or cognitive behavioral coping behaviors, they also reported slightly higher levels of emotional exhaustion. The support variables that were significant but had a weak effect on Model 4 were support from coworkers ($b^* = -.10$, $p < .01$), and support from individuals outside of work ($b^* = -.10$, $p < .01$). As officers reported more support from coworkers or those outside of the office, they also reported slightly lower levels of emotional exhaustion.

The final model for emotional exhaustion was very strong with 57% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of emotional exhaustion was role load ($b^* = .35$, $p < .01$) followed by role conflict ($b^* = .16$, $p < .01$). The effect of CUSPO leadership behaviors dropped from .34 to .11 in Model 3, suggesting that the effect of leadership behaviors on emotional exhaustion was substantially mediated by role load and role conflict.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Three hypotheses were not supported by the model: Hypothesis 4 which asserts that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout"; Hypothesis 11 which states that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers"; and Hypothesis 13 which states that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers." Three hypotheses were supported by the model: Hypothesis 7, which posits that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers"; Hypothesis 8 which states that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers"; and Hypothesis 15 which states that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers."

Regression 8: Depersonalization. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) defined depersonalization as having a cynical attitude and feelings about one's clients. For this study, depersonalization referred to having a cynical attitude and feelings about defendants/offenders by the officers. As shown in Table 27, Model 1 (control variables) explained a very modest amount of variance in depersonalization (R^2 = .07), although the model was statistically significant. Five variables were significant in the model: female (b^* = -.13, p < .01), Latino (b^* = - .11, p < .05), married/cohabitating without spouse/partner employed (b^* = -.15, p < .01), officers with two children (b^* = -.11, p < .05), and number of work assignments (b^* = -.07, p < .05) although the relationships were weak at best.

As shown in Table 27, the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2 had a minimal, though statistically significant, impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .02, p < .01). Female, Latino, married/cohabitating without spouse/partner employed, and having two children remained statistically significant, although the effects were weak. Having one child was statistically significant in Model 2, but also with a weak effect (b^* = -.09, p < .05). In addition, CUSPO leadership behavior was statistically significant with a weak effect (b^* = -.17, p < .01).

As shown in Table 27, the addition of the working conditions variables in Model 3 significantly and substantially increased the R^2 (change in R^2 = .16, p < .01). Nine variables were significant in the model. Female, Latino, married/cohabitating without spouse/partner employed, and having two children remained statistically significant with weak effects. Having three or more children was statistically significant in this model but had a weak effect (b^* = -.12, p < .05). The use of punitive reward behavior by a direct

supervisor was statistically significant in the model, but had a weak effect ($b^* = .08$, $p < .05$). Moreover, two working conditions were statistically significant, but with modest effects on depersonalization: role load ($b^* = .12$, $p < .01$) and role ambiguity ($b^* = .14$, $p < .01$). Role conflict ($b^* = .25$, $p < .01$) had a moderate effect on depersonalization.

The addition of the coping and support variables in Model 4 resulted in an additional, statistically significant, increase in the R^2 (change in $R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$), which is shown in Table 27. Many sociodemographic variables remained statistically significant with weak effects. Probation officers who were female, Latino, married/cohabitating without spouse/partner employed, and who have two or more children had slightly lower levels of depersonalization. The working conditions of role load, role ambiguity, and role conflict also remained statistically significant, but had weak positive effects, with higher levels of role load, role ambiguity, and role conflict leading to slightly higher levels of depersonalization. The use of punitive rewards by a direct supervisor remained statistically significant in this model, but had a weak positive effect with higher perceptions of punitive reward behavior leading to slightly higher levels of depersonalization. Participation in decision making was statistically significant in Model 4, but also had a positive weak effect ($b^* = .08$, $p < .05$) with higher levels of participation in decision making leading to slightly higher levels of depersonalization.

Table 27

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Depersonalization (MBI) (N=468)

Regression 8	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.32**	0.12	-0.13	-0.34**	0.12	-0.14
Race (Black)	-0.33	0.23	-0.07	-0.37	0.23	-0.07
Race (Hispanic)	-0.39*	0.16	-0.11	-0.38*	0.16	-0.11
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.01	0.12	0.00	-0.02	0.12	-0.01
Single	-0.17	0.20	-0.05	-0.15	0.20	-0.04
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.81**	0.26	-0.15	-0.77**	0.25	-0.14
Was Married	0.12	0.20	0.03	0.12	0.20	0.03
One Child	-0.30	0.19	-0.09	-0.31*	0.19	-0.10
Two Children	-0.29*	0.17	-0.11	-0.31*	0.17	-0.12
Three or More Children	-0.32	0.21	-0.09	-0.33	0.21	-0.10
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.02
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.22*	0.13	-0.08	-0.14	0.13	-0.05
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.10	0.12	0.04
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.19**	0.05	-0.17
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.07**			**0.09**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**2.64****			**6.94****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 27 (Cont)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Depersonalization (MBI) (N=468)

Regression 8	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.33**	0.11	-0.13	-0.38**	0.11	-0.15
Race (Black)	-0.22	0.21	-0.04	-0.12	0.21	-0.02
Race (Hispanic)	-0.36**	0.15	-0.10	-0.27*	0.15	-0.08
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.10	0.11	-0.04	-0.11	0.10	-0.04
Single	-0.18	0.18	-0.05	-0.27	0.18	-0.07
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.72**	0.23	-0.13	-0.68**	0.22	-0.12
Was Married	0.01	0.18	0.00	-0.19	0.18	-0.04
One Child	-0.26	0.17	-0.08	-0.25	0.17	-0.08
Two Children	-0.30*	0.16	-0.11	-0.32*	0.15	-0.12
Three or More Children	-0.42*	0.19	-0.12	-0.42**	0.18	-0.12
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.14	0.12	-0.05	-0.09	0.12	-0.03
CUSPO Participation in LDP	0.05	0.11	0.02	0.01	0.10	0.00
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.00	0.06	0.00
Role Load	0.30**	0.11	0.13	0.22*	0.11	0.09
Role Conflict	0.24**	0.05	0.25	0.15**	0.05	0.15
Role Ambiguity	0.15**	0.06	0.14	0.13**	0.06	0.12
Participation in Decision Making	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.10*	0.06	0.08
Positive Reward Behavior	-0.02	0.05	-0.02	-0.03	0.05	-0.03
Punitive Reward Behavior	0.09*	0.05	0.08	0.10*	0.05	0.09
Coping (Religion)				-0.14**	0.05	-0.12
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				0.22**	0.08	0.14
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				0.37**	0.13	0.16
Support (Coworkers)				-0.16**	0.07	-0.11
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.19**	0.06	-0.14
***R*²**		**0.25**			**0.31**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**15.07****			**8.94****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* p< .05, one-tailed; **p< .01, one-tailed

The coping variables were statistically significant and had modest effects on depersonalization: emotion focused coping ($b^* = .14$, $p < .01$), cognitive behavioral coping ($b^* = .16$, $p < .01$), and religion ($b^* = -.12$, $p < .01$). Officers who reported

increased use of emotion focused or cognitive behavioral coping methods had slightly higher levels of depersonalization; while officers who reported increased use of religion coping methods had slightly lower levels of depersonalization. Support from coworkers ($b^* = -.11$, $p < .05$) and support from individuals outside of work ($b^* = -.14$, $p < .01$) were statistically significant, but had weak to modest negative effects with increased support from coworkers and individuals from outside of work leading to slightly lower levels of depersonalization.

The final model for depersonalization was modest with 31% of the variance explained. However, the variables that were significant had relatively weak effects in the model and, therefore, were not strong predictors of depersonalization.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression analysis. Two hypotheses were not supported by the model: Hypothesis 4 which posits that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout," and Hypothesis 7, which states that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers." The model provided weak support for the following four hypotheses: Hypothesis 8 which asserts that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers"; Hypothesis 11 which states that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers"; Hypothesis 13 which states that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers"; and Hypothesis 15 which posits that "the more coping factors and social

support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers."

Regression 9: Personal accomplishment. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), defined low personal accomplishment as workers feeling dissatisfied with their accomplishments at work and feeling unhappy with themselves. This subscale was reverse-coded so that high scores reflected higher levels of burnout (low personal accomplishment). As shown in Table 28, the R^2 (R^2 = .03, p > .05) was not significant for Model 1 (control variables) or Model 2 (leadership variables) (R^2 = .04, p > .05).

As shown in Table 28, the addition of working conditions in Model 3 had a statistically significant increase on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .08, p < .01). Although having one child was statistically significant, it had a weak effect on personal accomplishment (b* = .10, p < .05). Two working conditions had moderate effects on personal accomplishment: role load (b* = -.25, p < .01) and role ambiguity (b* = .20, p < .01).

As shown in Table 28, the addition of coping and support variables in Model 4 resulted in a modest, statistically significant, increase in R^2 (change in R^2 = .06, p < .01). In this final model, African American officers (b* = .11, p < .01) and Latino officers (b* = .08, p < .05) reported lower levels of personal accomplishment than white officers, though the relationships were weak. Officers who had one child (b* = .09, p < .05) reported lower levels of personal accomplishment, though the relationship was weak. As officers reported higher levels of role load (b* = -.22, p <.01), they reported a modest increase in personal accomplishment. As officers reported higher levels of role ambiguity (b* = .17, p < .01), they reported modestly lower levels of personal accomplishment.

Table 28

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Personal Accomplishment (MBI) (N=467)

Regression 9	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.11	0.11	-0.05	-0.11	0.11	-0.05
Race (Black)	0.40*	0.21	0.09	0.38*	0.21	0.09
Race (Hispanic)	0.14	0.14	0.05	0.12	0.15	0.04
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.04	0.11	-0.02	-0.05	0.10	-0.02
Single	0.15	0.18	0.05	0.16	0.18	0.05
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.04	0.23	-0.01	-0.03	0.23	-0.01
Was Married	-0.08	0.18	-0.02	-0.08	0.18	-0.02
One Child	0.31*	0.17	0.11	0.29*	0.17	0.10
Two Children	0.11	0.15	0.05	0.08	0.15	0.04
Three or More Children	0.13	0.18	0.04	0.11	0.18	0.04
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	-0.03	-0.01	0.01	-0.04
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.20*	0.11	-0.08	-0.15	0.12	-0.06
CUSPO Participation in LDP				-0.11	0.10	-0.05
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.11*	0.05	-0.10
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.03**			**0.04**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**1.12**			**2.95**	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 28 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Personal Accomplishment (MBI) (N=467)

Regression 9	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.05	0.10	-0.02	-0.05	0.10	-0.02
Race (Black)	0.31	0.20	0.07	0.47**	0.20	0.11
Race (Hispanic)	0.20	0.14	0.07	0.26*	0.14	0.08
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.04	0.10	-0.02	-0.05	0.10	-0.02
Single	0.12	0.17	0.04	0.06	0.17	0.02
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.00	0.22	0.00	0.02	0.21	0.00
Was Married	-0.09	0.17	-0.02	-0.14	0.17	-0.04
One Child	0.27*	0.16	0.10	0.26*	0.16	0.09
Two Children	0.09	0.15	0.04	0.09	0.15	0.04
Three or More Children	0.14	0.18	0.05	0.11	0.17	0.04
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.00	0.01	-0.03
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.14	0.12	-0.06	-0.11	0.11	-0.05
CUSPO Participation in LDP	-0.09	0.10	-0.04	-0.09	0.10	-0.04
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	-0.04	0.05	-0.04	-0.03	0.05	-0.03
Role Load	-0.50**	0.11	-0.25	-0.45**	0.11	-0.22
Role Conflict	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.09
Role Ambiguity	0.18**	0.05	0.20	0.16**	0.05	0.17
Participation in Decision Making	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.05	0.04
Positive Reward Behavior	-0.03	0.04	-0.04	-0.02	0.04	-0.02
Punitive Reward Behavior	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.01
Coping (Religion)				-0.14**	0.05	-0.14
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				0.07	0.08	0.05
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				-0.19	0.12	-0.09
Support (Coworkers)				-0.17**	0.07	-0.12
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.13**	0.06	-0.11
***R*²**		**0.12**			**0.18**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**7.04****			**5.91****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

Using religion as a coping factor was statistically significant. As officers reported higher levels of religion as a coping factor ($b^* = -.14$, $p < .01$), they reported higher levels of personal accomplishment, although the relationship was modest. As officers reported

more support from coworkers ($b^* = -.12$, $p < .05$) and support from individuals outside of the work environment ($b^* = -.11$, $p < .05$), they also reported modestly higher levels of personal accomplishment.

The final model for personal accomplishment was modest with 18% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of personal accomplishment was role load ($b^* = -.22$, $p < .01$). All other significant variables had weak effects on personal accomplishment.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression analysis. The following four hypotheses were not supported by the model: Hypothesis 4, which states that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout"; Hypothesis 11, which states that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers"; Hypothesis 13, which asserts that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers"; and Hypothesis 7, which asserts that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers." The following two hypotheses were weakly supported by the model: Hypothesis 8, which posits that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers"; and Hypothesis 15, which posits that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers."

Organizational commitment. The revised version of the Meyer and Allen (1997) organizational commitment scale was used and it included three organizational subscales: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. In order to assess the influence of the control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics), independent variables (leadership and working condition variables), and mediating variables (coping and support variables) upon an officer's level of organizational commitment, each organizational commitment subscale was regressed on the control variables (Model 1), the leadership variables (Model 2), working conditions (Model 3), and the coping and support variables (Model 4).

Regression 10: Affective organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) defined affective commitment as a workers' emotional attachment to and identification with an organization. As shown in Table 29, Model 1 (control variables) explained a modest amount of variance in affective organizational commitment (R^2 = .06), although the model was statistically significant (p < .01). Two variables were statistically significant but had weak effects on affective organizational commitment: married/cohabitating with partner/spouse not employed (b^* = .09, p < .05) and having been married in the past (b^* = .08, p < .05). The number of work assignments was also significant (b^* = .18, p < .01), although the relationship was modest.

As shown in Table 29, the R^2 increased significantly (change in R^2 = .26, p < .01) after the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2. Having been married in the past and the number of work assignments remained statistically significant but had weak effects on affective organizational commitment. CUSPO leadership behaviors (b^*= .53, p < .01) had a very strong effect on affective organizational commitment.

As shown in Table 29, there was another significant increase in R^2 (change in R^2 = .18, $p < .01$) in Model 3 when working conditions were added to the model. Having been married in the past and number of work assignments were no longer statistically significant. CUSPO leadership behaviors remained significant, but the effect reduced substantially, although it was still moderate ($b^* = .27$, $p < .01$). This reduction in effect size suggests some of the effect of CUSPO leadership behavior on affective organizational commitment is direct and some is mediated by working conditions. Four of the working conditions were also statistically significant. Role conflict ($b^* = -.22$, $p < .01$) and positive reward behavior by supervisor ($b^* = .20$, $p < .01$) had moderate effects on affective organizational commitment, whereas, role ambiguity ($b^* = -.10$, $p < .01$) and participation in decision making ($b^* = .17$, $p < .01$) had modest effects.

As shown in Table 29, the addition of the coping and support variables in Model 4 resulted in a modest, statistically significant, increase in R^2 (change in $R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$). In this final model, officers who had been married in the past ($b^* = -.06$, $p < .05$) reported lower levels of affective organizational commitment, however this was a very weak effect. Officers who perceived that their CUSPO used more leadership behaviors, reported moderately higher levels of affective organizational commitment ($b^* = .25$, $p < .01$). The reduced effect size for leadership behaviors in the final model suggests a moderate direct effect and mediation through coping and support variables, as well as the working conditions. The working conditions of role conflict, participation in decision making, and positive reward behavior by supervisor remained statistically significant with weak to modest effects on the model. When officers reported higher levels of role conflict, they reported lower levels of affective organizational commitment. When

officers reported higher levels of participation in decision making and higher levels of positive reward behavior by direct supervisors, they reported higher levels of affective organizational commitment. Role ambiguity no longer had an effect on the model, suggesting its weak effect on affective organizational commitment is mediated by coping and support variables. The use of religion (b^* = .10, p < .01) as a coping factor was statistically significant, but had a weak effect on affective organizational commitment. The use of emotion focused coping (b^* = -.07, p < .05) was statistically significant but had a weak effect on the model. Officers who reported support from coworkers (b^* = .20, p < .01) reported moderately higher levels of affective organizational commitment. Although support from individuals outside of the work environment was statistically significant, its effect was weak (b^* = -.07, p < .05).

The final model for affective organizational commitment was very strong with 55% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of affective organizational commitment was CUSPO leadership behavior (b^* = .25, p < .01), followed by support from coworkers (b^* = .20, p < .01). The effect of the CUSPOs leadership behaviors dropped from .53 to .25 in Model 4, suggesting that the effect of leadership behaviors on affective organizational commitment was partially mediated by working conditions and support from coworkers.

Table 29

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment (N=465)

Regression 10	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.13	0.16	0.04	0.17	0.13	0.05
Race (Black)	-0.20	0.30	-0.03	-0.06	0.26	-0.01
Race (Hispanic)	0.05	0.21	0.01	0.12	0.18	0.03
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.04	0.15	0.01	0.10	0.13	0.03
Single	0.23	0.26	0.05	0.15	0.22	0.03
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.61*	0.33	0.09	0.46*	0.28	0.06
Was Married	-0.47*	0.26	-0.08	-0.48*	0.22	-0.09
One Child	-0.18	0.24	-0.04	-0.07	0.21	-0.02
Two Children	-0.19	0.23	-0.06	-0.04	0.19	-0.01
Three or More Children	-0.37	0.27	-0.08	-0.26	0.23	-0.06
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.64**	0.17	0.18	0.27*	0.15	0.07
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.14	0.13	0.04
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.80**	0.06	0.53
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.06**			**0.32**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**2.44****			**86.39****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 29 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment (N=465)

Regression 10	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.13	0.12	0.04	0.18	0.11	0.05
Race (Black)	-0.20	0.22	-0.03	-0.30	0.22	-0.05
Race (Hispanic)	0.02	0.16	0.00	-0.02	0.16	0.00
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.13	0.12	0.04	0.18	0.11	0.05
Single	0.28	0.19	0.06	0.16	0.19	0.03
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.35	0.25	0.05	0.36	0.24	0.05
Was Married	-0.25	0.19	-0.05	-0.31*	0.19	-0.06
One Child	0.02	0.18	0.00	-0.04	0.18	-0.01
Two Children	-0.05	0.17	-0.01	-0.07	0.16	-0.02
Three or More Children	-0.18	0.20	-0.04	-0.21	0.19	-0.05
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.01
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.07	0.13	0.02	0.05	0.13	0.01
CUSPO Participation in LDP	0.15	0.11	0.05	0.11	0.11	0.03
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	0.41**	0.06	0.27	0.38**	0.06	0.25
Role Load	0.10	0.12	0.03	0.08	0.12	0.02
Role Conflict	-0.27**	0.06	-0.22	-0.22**	0.06	-0.18
Role Ambiguity	-0.15**	0.06	-0.10	-0.11*	0.06	-0.08
Participation in Decision Making	0.27**	0.06	0.17	0.21**	0.06	0.14
Positive Reward Behavior	0.24**	0.05	0.20	0.23**	0.05	0.19
Punitive Reward Behavior	-0.06	0.05	-0.04	-0.05	0.05	-0.04
Coping (Religion)				0.15**	0.05	0.10
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				-0.15*	0.09	-0.07
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				-0.16	0.13	-0.05
Support (Coworkers)				0.40**	0.07	0.20
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.13*	0.06	-0.07
***R*²**		**0.50**			**0.55**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**26.71****			**8.52****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression analysis. Hypothesis 5, which posits that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership

Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health" was not supported by the model. The following five hypotheses were at least weakly supported by the model: Hypothesis 7, which states that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers"; Hypothesis 9, which assets that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers"; Hypothesis 12, which asserts that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers"; Hypothesis 14, which posits that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers"; and Hypothesis 15, which posits that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers."

Regression 11: Normative organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) defined normative organizational commitment as a feeling that one is obligated to maintain employment with an organization. As shown in Table 30, Model 1 (control variables) explained a modest amount of the variance in normative organizational commitment ($R^2 = .05$), although the model was statistically significant ($p < .05$). Being female was statistically significant but had a weak effect. Two other variables were statistically significant but had weak effects on normative organizational commitment:

having been married in the past (b^* = -.10, $p < .05$) and number of work assignments (b^* = .14, $p < .01$).

As shown in Table 30, the R^2 increased significantly (change in R^2 = .28, $p < .01$) in Model 2 with the addition of the leadership variables. Being female and having been married in the past remained statistically significant with weak effects on normative organizational commitment. Number of work assignments was no longer statistically significant. A CUSPO's participation in the leadership development program was statistically significant but the effect on normative organizational commitment was weak (b^* = .09, $p < .05$). CUSPO leadership behaviors (b^*= .55, $p < .01$), on the other hand, had a very strong effect on normative organizational commitment.

As shown in Table 30, the addition of the working conditions in Model 3 resulted in a significant increase in R^2 (change in R^2 = .01, $p < .01$). Female, having been married, and a CUSPO's participation in the leadership development program remained statistically significant but had weak effects on normative organizational commitment. CUSPO leadership behaviors remained statistically significant and had less of an effect, although it remained moderately strong (b^* = .39, $p < .01$). Two working conditions were statistically significant with weak and modest effects respectively on normative organizational commitment: participation in decision making (b^* = .12, $p < .01$) and use of positive rewards by a direct supervisor (b^* = .19, $p < .01$).

As shown in Table 30, the addition of the coping and support variables in Model 4 resulted in a very slight, but not statistically significant increase in R^2 (change in R^2 = .01, $p > .05$). Having been married in the past and a CUSPO's participation in the leadership development program remained statistically significant in the final model but had weak

effects on normative organizational commitment. Female officers were more likely than male officers to report normative organizational commitment ($b^* = .10$, $p < .01$), however, it was a weak effect. African American officers ($b^* = -.06$, $p < .05$) reported lower levels of normative organizational commitment, however, it was a very weak effect. CUSPO leadership behaviors remained statistically significant with a moderately strong direct effect ($b^* = .37$, $p < .01$). Officers who perceived that their CUSPO used more leadership behaviors reported moderately higher levels of normative organizational commitment. There was also an additional indirect effect of CUSPO leadership behavior on normative organizational commitment, as mediated by working conditions, as suggested by the modest reduction in the direct effect in Models 3 and 4. Overall, CUSPO leadership behavior was the strongest predictor of normative organizational commitment. As officers perceived more participation in decision making, they also reported higher levels of normative organizational commitment ($b^* = .12$, $p < .01$), however, the relationship was weak. As officers perceived more positive reward behavior by direct supervisors, they reported modestly higher levels of normative organizational commitment ($b^* = .20$, $p < .01$). The only coping/support variable that was statistically significant was the use of religion as a coping factor ($b^* = .09$, $p < .05$), however, it was a weak effect.

Table 30

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Normative Organizational Commitment (N=464)

Regression 11	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.25*	0.15	0.08	0.29**	0.13	0.09
Race (Black)	-0.37	0.29	-0.06	-0.23	0.25	-0.04
Race (Hispanic)	0.03	0.20	0.01	0.13	0.17	0.03
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.09	0.15	-0.03	-0.04	0.12	-0.01
Single	0.00	0.25	0.00	-0.08	0.21	-0.02
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.28	0.32	0.04	0.14	0.27	0.02
Was Married	-0.53*	0.25	-0.10	-0.54**	0.21	-0.10
One Child	-0.22	0.24	-0.05	-0.10	0.20	-0.03
Two Children	-0.07	0.22	-0.02	0.09	0.18	0.03
Three or More Children	-0.19	0.26	-0.04	-0.06	0.22	-0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.50**	0.16	0.14	0.11	0.14	0.03
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.27*	0.12	0.09
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.80**	0.06	0.55
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.05**			**0.33**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**1.77***			**97.79****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 30 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Normative Organizational Commitment (N=464)

Regression 11	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.29**	0.12	0.09	0.32**	0.12	0.10
Race (Black)	-0.32	0.23	-0.05	-0.40*	0.24	-0.06
Race (Hispanic)	0.12	0.17	0.03	0.06	0.17	0.01
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.05	0.12	-0.02	-0.03	0.12	-0.01
Single	0.02	0.20	0.00	-0.01	0.20	0.00
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.06	0.26	0.01	0.09	0.26	0.01
Was Married	-0.40*	0.20	-0.08	-0.47**	0.21	-0.09
One Child	-0.01	0.19	0.00	-0.05	0.19	-0.01
Two Children	0.12	0.18	0.04	0.10	0.17	0.03
Three or More Children	0.00	0.21	0.00	-0.03	0.21	-0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.02
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.00	0.14	0.00	-0.02	0.14	-0.01
CUSPO Participation in LDP	0.29**	0.12	0.09	0.27**	0.12	0.09
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	0.57**	0.06	0.39	0.54**	0.07	0.37
Role Load	-0.13	0.12	-0.05	-0.17	0.13	-0.06
Role Conflict	-0.05	0.06	-0.04	-0.03	0.06	-0.02
Role Ambiguity	-0.06	0.06	-0.04	-0.07	0.06	-0.05
Participation in Decision Making	0.18**	0.06	0.12	0.17**	0.06	0.12
Positive Reward Behavior	0.22**	0.05	0.19	0.22**	0.05	0.20
Punitive Reward Behavior	-0.06	0.05	-0.05	-0.07	0.05	-0.05
Coping (Religion)				0.13*	0.06	0.09
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				-0.13	0.10	-0.06
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				0.03	0.15	0.01
Support (Coworkers)				0.06	0.08	0.03
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.07	0.07	-0.04
***R*²**		**0.41**			**0.42**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**9.01****			**1.50**	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

The final model for normative organizational commitment was strong with 42% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of normative organizational commitment was CUSPO leadership behavior ($b^* = .37$, $p < .01$), followed by positive

reward behavior by direct supervisors ($b^* = .20$, $p < .01$). The effect of the CUSPOs leadership behaviors dropped from .55 to .37 in Model 3, suggesting that the effect of leadership behaviors on normative organizational commitment was partially mediated by working conditions.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression analysis. Three hypotheses were not supported by the model: Hypothesis 5, which posits that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health"; Hypothesis 9, which states that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers"; and Hypothesis 15, which states that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers." Hypothesis 7, which asserts that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers" was strongly supported by the model. Hypothesis 12 posits that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers." This model provided weak support for positive reward behavior but no support for punitive reward behavior. Hypothesis 14 which asserts that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers" was modestly supported by the model.

Regression 12: Continuance organizational commitment. Continuance organizational commitment is an employee's awareness of the costs of leaving the agency (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen note that employees who are connected to an agency because of continuance organizational commitment remain employed because they need to do so. As shown in Table 31, Model 1 (control variables) was statistically significant and explained a modest amount of the variance in continuance organizational commitment (R^2 = .06, p < .01). Five variables were statistically significant with weak to modest effects: African American (b* = -.09, p < .05), married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed (b* = -.10, p < .05), having been married in the past (b* = .08, p < .05), having three or more children (b* = .17, p < .01), and number of work assignments (b* = -.10, p < .05).

As shown in Table 31, the R^2 increased slightly for Model 2 (change in R^2 = .05; p < .01) with the addition of the leadership variables. African American and having three or more children remained statistically significant with weak effects on continuance organizational commitment. Married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed and having been married in the past remained statistically significant, with even weaker effects on continuance organizational commitment. Number of work assignments was no longer statistically significant. CUSPO leadership behavior (b* = -.22, p < .01) was statistically significant and had a moderate effect on continuance organizational commitment.

As shown in Table 31, the addition of the working conditions to Model 3 resulted in a slight, statistically significant increase in the R^2 (change in R^2 = .09, p < .01). African American and married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed remained

statistically significant but still had weak effects on continuance organizational commitment. Having three or more children remained statistically significant with a weak effect. Years employed in criminal justice was statistically significant but had a weak effect in the model. With the inclusion of the working conditions, having been married in the past and CUSPO leadership behaviors were no longer statistically significant, suggesting that their effects on continuance organizational commitment are mediated by working conditions. The working conditions that were significant in the model were role conflict (b^* = .18, p < .01) and participation in decision making (b^* = -.22, p < .01), both of which had weakly moderate effects on continuance organizational commitment.

As shown in Table 31, adding the coping and support variables to the model had a slight, statistically significant, impact on the R^2 (change in R^2 = .04, p < .01). In this final model, African American and years employed in criminal justice were no longer statistically significant. Married/cohabitating with spouse/partner not employed was statistically significant but had a weak effect on continuance organizational commitment. Officers who were married/cohabitating with their spouse/partner not employed reported slightly lower levels of continuance organizational commitment. Officers who had three or more children were slightly more likely than officers without children to report higher levels of continuance organizational commitment (b^* = .14, p < .01). As officers reported higher levels of role conflict, they reported higher levels of continuance organizational commitment, although the relationship was weak (b^* = .13, p < .05). As officers reported higher levels of participation in decision making, they reported modestly lower levels of continuance organizational commitment (b^* = -.18, p < .01). Officers who reported increased use of religion coping factors also reported slightly lower levels of

continuance organizational commitment (b^* = -.08, p < .05). Officers who reported increased use of cognitive behavioral coping methods also reported modestly higher levels of continuance organizational commitment (b^* = .16, p < .01). As officers reported increased levels of support from coworkers (b^* = -.14, p < .01) and individuals outside of work (b^* = -.08, p < .05), they also reported modestly and slightly lower levels of continuance organizational commitment respectively.

The final model for continuance organizational commitment was modestly weak with 24% of the variance explained and most of the statistically significant variables having weak to modest relationships.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Three hypotheses were not supported by the model: Hypothesis 5, which posits that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health"; Hypothesis 12, which posits that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers"; and

Table 31

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continuance Organizational Commitment (N=465)

Regression 12	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.01	0.15	0.00	-0.04	0.15	-0.01
Race (Black)	-0.60*	0.30	-0.09	-0.66**	0.29	-0.10
Race (Hispanic)	-0.25	0.21	-0.06	-0.26	0.20	-0.06
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.05	0.15	-0.02	-0.07	0.15	-0.02
Single	0.15	0.25	0.03	0.18	0.25	0.04
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.71*	0.32	-0.10	-0.64*	0.32	-0.09
Was Married	0.46*	0.25	0.08	0.46*	0.25	0.09
One Child	0.24	0.24	0.06	0.20	0.23	0.05
Two Children	0.28	0.22	0.09	0.23	0.22	0.07
Three or More Children	0.72**	0.26	0.17	0.69**	0.26	0.16
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.01	0.06
Work Assignments (two or more)	-0.36*	0.16	-0.10	-0.21	0.16	-0.06
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.06	0.15	0.02
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				-0.32**	0.07	-0.22
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.06**			**0.11**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**2.54****			**11.31****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 31 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continuance Organizational Commitment (N=465)

Regression 12	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	-0.03	0.14	-0.01	-0.04	0.14	-0.01
Race (Black)	-0.55*	0.28	-0.08	-0.44	0.28	-0.07
Race (Hispanic)	-0.20	0.20	-0.04	-0.16	0.20	-0.04
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-0.09	0.14	-0.03	-0.10	0.14	-0.03
Single	0.12	0.24	0.03	0.08	0.24	0.02
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.57*	0.30	-0.08	-0.52*	0.30	-0.08
Was Married	0.30	0.24	0.06	0.13	0.24	0.02
One Child	0.13	0.22	0.03	0.17	0.22	0.04
Two Children	0.25	0.21	0.08	0.24	0.20	0.07
Three or More Children	0.62**	0.25	0.14	0.62**	0.24	0.14
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.02*	0.01	0.09	0.02	0.01	0.07
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.00	0.16	0.00	0.03	0.16	0.01
CUSPO Participation in LDP	0.09	0.14	0.03	0.06	0.14	0.02
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	-0.08	0.08	-0.05	-0.08	0.08	-0.05
Role Load	-0.01	0.15	0.00	-0.07	0.15	-0.02
Role Conflict	0.22**	0.07	0.18	0.16*	0.07	0.13
Role Ambiguity	0.00	0.07	0.00	-0.05	0.07	-0.04
Participation in Decision Making	-0.32**	0.08	-0.22	-0.26**	0.08	-0.18
Positive Reward Behavior	-0.08	0.06	-0.06	-0.06	0.06	-0.05
Punitive Reward Behavior	0.02	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.01
Coping (Religion)				-0.11*	0.07	-0.08
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				-0.01	0.11	-0.01
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				0.47**	0.17	0.16
Support (Coworkers)				-0.27**	0.09	-0.14
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				-0.14*	0.08	-0.08
***R*²**		**0.20**			**0.24**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**8.28****			**4.97****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Hypothesis 9 which states that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers." Hypothesis 7, which states that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a

CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers" was supported by the model, although its effect was indirect and mediated by working conditions. Hypothesis 14, which posits that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers," was modestly supported by the model. Hypothesis 15, which asserts that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers" was partially supported by the model with four out of the five coping and support variables weakly to modestly related to continuance organizational commitment.

Regression 13: Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Opinion scale created by Slate, Wells, and Johnson (2003). Job satisfaction was regressed on the control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics), independent variables (leadership and working condition variables), and mediating variables (coping and support variables).

As shown in Table 32, the R^2 value ($R^2 = .04$, $p > .05$) for Model 1 (control variables) was not significant. The R^2 increased significantly (change in $R^2 = .18$, $p < .01$) with the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2. Two variables were statistically significant but had at best a weak effect on job satisfaction: being female ($b^* = .12$, $p < .01$) and years employed in criminal justice ($b^* = .08$, $p < .05$). CUSPO leadership behaviors ($b^* = .43$, $p < .01$) was statistically significant and had a strong effect on job satisfaction.

Table 32

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction (N=468)

Regression 13	**Model 1**			**Model 2**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.17*	0.08	0.10	0.20**	0.08	0.12
Race (Black)	-0.11	0.16	-0.03	-0.05	0.15	-0.01
Race (Hispanic)	-0.10	0.11	-0.04	-0.10	0.10	-0.04
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.04	0.08	0.02	0.05	0.07	0.03
Single	-0.08	0.14	-0.03	-0.12	0.13	-0.05
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	0.10	0.18	0.03	0.03	0.16	0.01
Was Married	-0.14	0.14	-0.05	-0.14	0.13	-0.05
One Child	-0.15	0.13	-0.07	-0.11	0.12	-0.05
Two Children	-0.05	0.12	-0.03	-0.01	0.11	0.00
Three or More Children	-0.10	0.15	-0.04	-0.08	0.13	-0.03
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01*	0.01	0.08
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.28**	0.09	0.14	0.12	0.08	0.06
CUSPO Participation in LDP				-0.10	0.07	-0.06
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				0.35**	0.03	0.43
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
***R*²**		**0.04**			**0.22**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**1.52**			**52.57****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; ** $p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 32 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction (N=468)

Regression 13	**Model 3**			**Model 4**		
Variable	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**	***b*[a]**	***SE b***	***b**[b]**
Sex (female)	0.19**	0.07	0.11	0.22**	0.07	0.13
Race (Black)	-0.14	0.13	-0.04	-0.16	0.13	-0.05
Race (Hispanic)	-0.12	0.10	-0.05	-0.14	0.10	-0.06
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	0.08	0.07	0.05	0.10	0.07	0.06
Single	-0.06	0.11	-0.03	-0.08	0.11	-0.03
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	-0.03	0.15	-0.01	-0.03	0.14	-0.01
Was Married	-0.04	0.11	-0.01	0.00	0.12	0.00
One Child	-0.09	0.11	-0.04	-0.10	0.11	-0.05
Two Children	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.01	0.10	0.00
Three or More Children	-0.02	0.12	-0.01	-0.03	0.12	-0.01
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.01	0.00	0.06	0.01	0.00	0.05
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.07	0.08	0.03	0.05	0.08	0.03
CUSPO Participation in LDP	-0.06	0.07	-0.04	-0.07	0.07	-0.04
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	0.17**	0.04	0.21	0.16**	0.04	0.20
Role Load	-0.19**	0.07	-0.12	-0.16**	0.07	-0.10
Role Conflict	-0.09**	0.03	-0.14	-0.05	0.03	-0.08
Role Ambiguity	-0.14**	0.04	-0.18	-0.12**	0.04	-0.16
Participation in Decision Making	0.06*	0.04	0.08	0.04	0.04	0.05
Positive Reward Behavior	0.09**	0.03	0.13	0.09**	0.03	0.13
Punitive Reward Behavior	-0.04	0.03	-0.05	-0.04	0.03	-0.05
Coping (Religion)				0.05	0.03	0.07
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				-0.10*	0.05	-0.09
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				-0.17*	0.08	-0.10
Support (Coworkers)				0.14**	0.04	0.14
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				0.01	0.04	0.01
***R*²**		**0.38**			**0.41**	
***F* for change in *R*²**		**18.84****			**4.67****	

a – unstandardized regression coefficient; b – standardized regression coefficient
* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

As shown in Table 32, the addition of working conditions to the model significantly increased the R^2 (change in R^2 =.16, $p < .01$). Being female remained statistically significant with a weak effect on job satisfaction. Years employed in

criminal justice was no longer significant. With the inclusion of the working conditions, CUSPO leadership behavior remained significant, but the effect decreased substantially ($b^* = .21$, $p < .01$), suggesting that working conditions mediated some of the effect of CUSPO leadership behaviors on job satisfaction. The working conditions that were statistically significant were role load ($b^* = -.12$, $p < .01$), role conflict ($b^* = -.14$, $p < .01$), role ambiguity ($b^* = -.18$, $p < .01$), participation in decision making ($b^* = .08$, $p < .05$), and use of positive reward behavior by direct supervisors ($b^* = .13$, $p < .01$), although the working conditions had weak to moderate effects.

As reported in Table 32, with the addition of the coping and support variables in Model 4, there was a slight, statistically significant increase in the R^2 (change in $R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$). Female officers were slightly more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction ($b^* = .13$, $p < .01$), although this was a weak relationship. Officers who perceived that their CUSPO used more leadership behaviors reported modestly higher levels of job satisfaction ($b^* = .20$, $p < .01$), although it also had an indirect effect on job satisfaction. With the addition of coping and support variables, role conflict and participation in decision making were no longer statistically significant. As officers reported higher levels of role load ($b^* = -.10$, $p < .05$) and role ambiguity ($b^* = -.16$, $p < .01$), they also reported slightly lower levels of job satisfaction. Officers who perceived that their direct supervisor used more positive reward behaviors, reported slightly higher levels of job satisfaction ($b^* = .13$, $p < .01$). Two coping variables and one support variable were statistically significant in the model. As officers reported increased use of cognitive behavioral coping methods ($b^* = -.10$, $p < .05$) and emotion-focused coping methods ($b^* = -.17$, $p < .05$), they also reported slightly lower levels of job satisfaction.

As officers reported that they had greater support from coworkers, they also reported slightly higher levels of job satisfaction ($b^* = .13$, $p < .01$).

The final model for job satisfaction was strong with 41% of the variance explained. The strongest predictor of job satisfaction was CUSPO leadership behaviors ($b^* = .20$, $p < .01$), which also had a moderate indirect effect, mediated by working conditions. Other variables that predicted job satisfaction were role load, role ambiguity, positive reward behavior of direct supervisors, use of cognitive behavioral coping factors, and support of coworkers; however, these relationships were weak to modest.

Overall, six of the fifteen hypotheses for this study were tested by this regression. Two hypotheses were not supported: Hypothesis 5 which posits that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health"; and Hypothesis 14 which posits that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers." Hypothesis 7, which states, "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers," was strongly supported by the model. The remaining three hypotheses were partially supported by the model. Regarding hypothesis 9, which states that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers," role load and role conflict were weakly supported and role conflict was not supported. Regarding hypothesis 12, which asserts that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in

lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers," positive reward behavior use by a supervisor was partially supported and punitive reward behavior was not supported by the model. Regarding hypothesis 15, which asserts that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers," three of the variables (cognitive and emotion-focused coping factors and coworker support) were weakly associated with job satisfaction.

Regression 14: Self-perceived health. Self-perceived health was measured using only one question that asked officers to rate their overall physical health from zero (poor) to four (excellent). Because of the distribution, I combined excellent and good into one level (1) and fair and poor into another level (0), creating a dichotomous variable. Because self-reported health was truncated into a dichotomous variable, I used logistic regression. I regressed self-perceived health on the control variables (Model 1), the leadership variables (Model 2), working conditions (Model 3), and support and coping variables (Model 4).

As shown in Table 33, the *Pseudo* R^2 value (*Pseudo* R^2 = .03) for Model 1 (control variables) was not statistically significant. There was a slight, statistically significant, increase in *Pseudo* R^2 (change in *Pseudo* R^2 = .03, $p < .01$) with the addition of the leadership variables in Model 2. Three variables were statistically significant in Model 2. Officers who were single (*OR* = .36, $p < .01$) or who were married in the past (*OR* = .44, $p < .05$) had slightly lower odds of reporting positive self-perceived health. As

perceived use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO increased (*OR* = 1.44, $p < .01$), the odds of an officer reporting positive self-perceived health also increased moderately.

As shown in Table 33, the addition of working conditions to Model 3 resulted in a statistically significant, slight increase in the *Pseudo* R^2 (change in *Pseudo* R^2 = .05, $p < .01$). The odds ratio for single officers and officers who had been married in the past and both remained statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. One working condition, role ambiguity, was statistically significant. As role ambiguity (*OR* = .67, $p < .01$) increased, the odds of an officer reporting positive self-perceived health decreased slightly. Use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO was no longer significant, which indicates that the effect of leadership behaviors on self-perceived health was mediated by role ambiguity.

As reported in Table 33, with the addition of the coping and support variables in Model 4, there was a very slight increase in the *Pseudo* R^2 (change in *Pseudo* R^2 =.01), however the change was not statistically significant. Officers who were married in the past was no longer statistically significant. Officers who were single continued to have slightly lower odds of reporting positive self-perceived health (*OR* = .46, $p < .05$). Increased levels of role ambiguity (*OR* = .67, $p < .01$) remained statistically significant with slightly lower odds of an officer reporting positive self-perceived health. The only coping/support variable that was statistically significant was support from individuals outside of work (*OR* = 1.35, $p < .05$). As support from those outside of work increased, the odds of an officer reporting positive self-perceived health also increased moderately.

Table 33

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Self-Perceived Health (N=463)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	Odds Ratio	***SE***	***P>|z|***	**Odds Ratio**	***SE***	***P>|z|***
Sex (female)	0.96	0.22	0.84	0.99	0.23	0.96
Race (Black)	0.86	0.36	0.73	0.90	0.38	0.80
Race (Hispanic)	0.75	0.22	0.32	0.72	0.22	0.29
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	1.05	0.24	0.83	1.10	0.25	0.67
Single	0.39	0.15	0.01**	0.36	0.14	0.01**
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	1.73	0.98	0.33	1.62	0.93	0.40
Was Married	0.46	0.16	0.02*	0.44	0.15	0.02*
One Child	0.75	0.28	0.44	0.75	0.28	0.45
Two Children	0.74	0.25	0.38	0.76	0.26	0.43
Three or More Children	0.55	0.22	0.14	0.54	0.22	0.13
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.98	0.02	0.26	0.98	0.02	0.28
Work Assignments (two or more)	1.02	0.25	0.93	0.87	0.22	0.58
CUSPO Participation in LDP				0.76	0.17	0.22
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors				1.44	0.16	0.00**
Role Load						
Role Conflict						
Role Ambiguity						
Participation in Decision Making						
Positive Reward Behavior						
Punitive Reward Behavior						
Coping (Religion)						
Coping (Emotion-Focused)						
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)						
Support (Coworkers)						
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)						
Pseudo R2		**.03**			**.06**	
Wald chi 2		**16.38**			**12.78****	

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

Table 33 (Cont.)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Self-Perceived Health (N=463)

Variable	Model 3			Model 4		
	Odds Ratio	***SE***	***P>|z|***	**Odds Ratio**	***SE***	***P>|z|***
Sex (female)	0.97	0.24	0.89	0.94	0.23	0.80
Race (Black)	0.84	0.37	0.70	0.77	0.35	0.57
Race (Hispanic)	0.66	0.21	0.19	0.63	0.21	0.17
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	1.08	0.26	0.76	1.05	0.25	0.86
Single	0.39	0.15	0.02*	0.46	0.19	0.06
Married/Cohab with Partner Not Employed	1.42	0.82	0.55	1.33	0.78	0.63
Was Married	0.47	0.17	0.04*	0.60	0.23	0.19
One Child	0.86	0.34	0.70	0.89	0.36	0.78
Two Children	0.78	0.28	0.49	0.81	0.30	0.57
Three or More Children	0.54	0.23	0.15	0.57	0.24	0.19
Years Employed in Criminal Justice	0.98	0.02	0.15	0.98	0.02	0.22
Work Assignments (two or more)	0.75	0.20	0.30	0.72	0.20	0.24
CUSPO Participation in LDP	0.82	0.19	0.40	0.86	0.21	0.53
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	1.05	0.13	0.71	1.07	0.14	0.61
Role Load	0.89	0.23	0.65	0.94	0.25	0.83
Role Conflict	1.02	0.12	0.89	1.03	0.13	0.82
Role Ambiguity	0.67	0.08	0.00**	0.69	0.08	0.00**
Participation in Decision Making	1.25	0.16	0.09	1.22	0.16	0.14
Positive Reward Behavior	1.11	0.11	0.30	1.10	0.11	0.34
Punitive Reward Behavior	1.06	0.11	0.56	1.05	0.11	0.65
Coping (Religion)				1.04	0.12	0.76
Coping (Emotion-Focused)				1.01	0.19	0.96
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)				0.88	0.25	0.65
Support (Coworkers)				1.04	0.16	0.78
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)				1.35	0.18	0.03*
Pseudo R2		**.11**			**.12**	
Wald chi 2		**24.16****			**5.90**	

* $p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed

Tables 34 and 35 include the goodness of fit tests and classification statistics for the logistic regression of self-perceived health.

Table 34

Logistic Model for Self-Perceived Health, Goodness of Fit Test

Number of observations	=	463
Number of covariate patterns	=	463
Pearson chi2 (437)	=	470.9
Prob > chi2	=	0.127
(Table collapsed on quantiles of estimated probabilities)		
Number of observations	=	463
Number of groups	=	10
Hosmer-Lemeshow chi2(8)	=	7.2
Prob > chi2	=	0.5156

Table 35

Logistic Model for Self-Perceived Health, Classification Statistics

	----- True -----		
Classified	D	~D	Total
+	330	92	422
-	15	26	41
Total	345	118	463

Classified + if predicted Pr(D) >= .5
True D defined as health_comb2 !=0

Sensitivity	Pr (+| D)	95.65%
Specificity	Pr (-|~D)	22.03%
Positive predictive value	Pr (D| +)	78.20%
Negative predictive value	Pr (~D| -)	63.41%
False + rate for true ~D	Pr (+|~D)	77.97%
False - rate for true D	Pr (-| D)	4.35%
False + rate for classified +	Pr (~D| +)	21.80%
False - rate for classified -	Pr (D| -)	36.59%
Correctly classified		76.89%

As shown in Table 35, 76.89% of the predictions are correctly identified with a high sensitivity rate of 96%, but a very low specificity rate of 22%. Overall, the model under-predicted individuals with low levels of self-perceived health. The ROC curve in Figure 13 shows that the area under the curve is .730, which indicates that the model somewhat discriminates between those who have positive self-perceived health and those who do not.

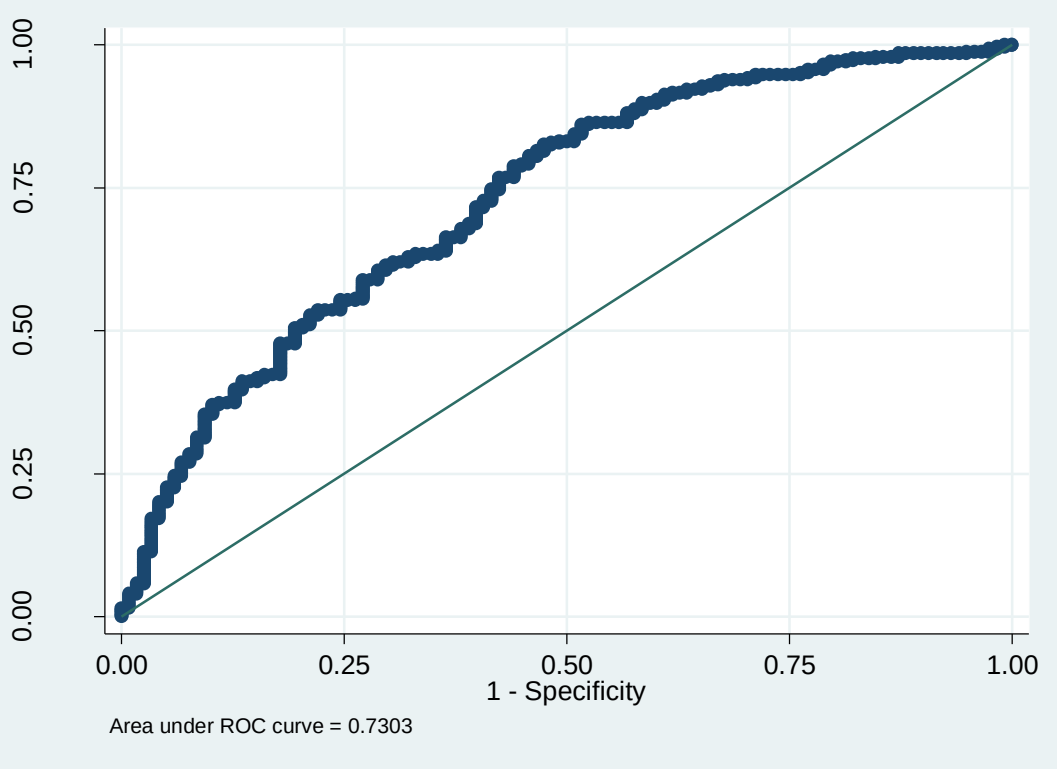

Figure 13. Depiction of ROC curve.

As the analyses reveals, the model provided a modest prediction of self-perceived health based upon Roc curves and the *Pseudo* R^2. Specifically, higher levels of role ambiguity were associated with lower odds of having positive self-perceived health.

Overall, 6 of 15 hypotheses were tested by these regressions. Three hypotheses were not supported: Hypothesis 5 which states that "U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services

Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health"; Hypothesis 12 which states that "higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers"; and Hypothesis 14 which asserts that "lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers." Hypothesis 7, which posits that "the perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers," was supported by the model, although its effect on self-perceived health was mediated by working conditions, specifically role ambiguity. The other two hypotheses were partially supported by the model. Regarding Hypothesis 10, which posits that "high levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of self-perceived health by officers," higher levels of role ambiguity were associated with lower odds of having positive self-perceived health. Regarding Hypothesis 15, which posits that "the more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers," as support from individuals outside of work increased, the odds of having positive self-perceived health also increased.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to test a model of federal probation officer stress to determine how working conditions influence outcomes for officers while controlling for

coping factors, social support, top level leadership training completion and leadership behaviors. Fifteen hypotheses were addressed by the large number of regressions and analyses in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, the hypotheses and research questions will be addressed in detail. I will also discuss the results in context of the causal model. The findings will then be linked to existing research and the policy and theory implications will be discussed. Finally, I will discuss the limitations of the research and offer recommendations for future analyses and research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of organizational environmental stressors on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health among federal probation officers, while controlling for the mediating effects of coping factors and support. In addition, I explored the effects of leadership training and leadership behaviors of top level administrators on the same outcomes. Of the criminal justice professions, probation, especially federal probation, has received the least attention in the area of stress. Much of the probation stress literature is dated and the nature of the offender and caseload numbers have changed. Although the role of direct supervisors on employee stress is discussed in the literature, the role of top-level leaders is rarely considered. Limited and dated research on probation officer stress can lead to risks not only for the officers, but also for society. High levels of officer stress can lead to health problems, burnout, and turnover, resulting in less experienced, overworked probation officers.

I used a cross-sectional, quantitative research design, and data came from an online survey. The survey population for this research included all federal probation and pretrial service officers who were employed in any of the 94 districts. The responses from 659 probation and pretrial services officers from 90 districts were included in the final sample.

This chapter presents a summary of the results including the level of support for the conceptual model. In addition, the chapter discusses implications for both policy and

theory. The final part of the chapter includes a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

Summary of Results

The survey data were analyzed using quantitative research methods. I conducted a series of regression analyses using nested regression so that I could examine the effects of control variables (sociodemographic and work-related characteristics), independent variables (leadership variables and working conditions), and mediating variables (support and coping) on the outcomes of burnout, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health. I used logistic regression for the self-perceived health variable because it was dichotomous. For all of the analyses, I conducted regression criticisms and assessed for heteroscedasticity. Though there was minimal evidence of heteroscedasticity, I also ran robust regressions and compared the results to the OLS regressions. The robust regressions did not change the conclusions; therefore, I presented the results from the OLS regressions in Chapter 4.

Effects of Control Variables

As Table 36 and Table 37 reveal, overall, the demographic and work characteristic variables had weak to no effect in the final models. As officers reported an increased number of work assignments, levels of participation in decision making increased modestly. The following were weak relationships: as an officer's education level increased, his/her level of role conflict increased slightly; officers who were Hispanic and officers who had two or more children reported slightly increased levels of punitive reward behavior by direct supervisors; officers who were female, Hispanic, married/cohabitating with a spouse/partner who was not employed, or had two or more

Table 36

Effects of Control Variables (Sociodemographics and Work Characteristics) on Independent Variables

	Role Load	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Decision Making	Positive Reward Behavior	Punitive Reward Behavior
Sex (female)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Race (Black)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Race (Hispanic)	-	Weak	-		-	Weak
Education (Masters/PhD/Other)	-	Weak	-	Weak	-	-
Single	-	-	-	-	-	-
Married/Cohab Partner not Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-
Was Married	-	-	-	-	-	-
One Child	-	-	-	Weak	-	-
Two Children	-	-	-	-	-	Weak
Three or More Children	-	-	-	-	-	Weak
Years Employed in CJ	-	-	-	Weak	-	-
Work Assgns (two or more)	-	-	-	Moderate	-	-

Table 37

Effects of Control Variables (Sociodemographics and Work Characteristics) on Dependent Variables

	Burnout			Organizational Commitment			Job Satisfaction	Self-perc. Health
	Emo. Exh.	Deperson.	Pers. Acc.	Affect.	Norm.	Cont.		
Sex (female)	-	Weak	-	-	Weak	-	Weak	-
Race (Black)	-	-	Weak	-	Very Weak	-	-	-
Race (Hispanic)	-	Weak	Weak	-	-	-	-	-
Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Single	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Weak
Married/Cohab Partner not Employed	Weak	Weak	-	-	-	Weak	-	-
Was Married	-	-	-	Very Weak	Weak	-	-	-
One Child	-	-	Weak	-	-	-	-	-
Two Children	-	Weak	-	-	-	-	-	-
Three or More Children	-	Weak	-	-	-	Weak	-	-
Years Employed in CJ	Weak	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Work Assgns (two or more)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

children reported slightly lower levels of depersonalization; black and Hispanic officers reported slightly lower levels of personal accomplishment; female officers reported slightly higher levels of normative organizational commitment; officers with three or more children reported slightly higher levels of continuance commitment; and female officers reported slightly higher levels of job satisfaction.

Effects of Leadership Variables

Participation in the Leadership Development Program. As Table 38 and Table 39 reveal, overall, participation in the Leadership Development Program by a CUSPO did not impact working conditions or stress outcomes for federal probation and pretrial services officers.

Perceived use of leadership behaviors. As shown in Table 38 and Table 39, overall, perceived use of leadership behaviors had moderate to strong effects on working conditions and stress outcomes. For some of the outcomes, the effect of leadership behaviors was both direct and indirect, with partial mediation through working conditions.

Table 38

Effects of Leadership Variables on Independent Variables

	Role Load	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Decision Making	Positive Reward Behavior	Punitive Reward Behavior
CUSPO Participation in LDP	Very Weak	-	-	Very Weak	-	-
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Moderately Strong	Moderately Strong	-

Table 39

Effects of Leadership Variables on Dependent Variables

	Burnout			Organizational Commitment			Job Satisfaction	Self-perc. Health
	Emo. Exh.	Deperson.	Pers. Acc.	Affect.	Norm.	Cont.		
CUSPO Participation in LDP	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CUSPO Leadership Behaviors	Indirect effect	-	-	Moderately Strong	Strong	Indirect effect	Strong	Moderately Strong

Perceived use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO resulted in slightly lower levels of role load for officers (although this was a weak effect). It also resulted in moderately lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity for officers. Increased levels of leadership behaviors also resulted in officers reporting moderately higher levels of participation in decision making and moderately higher levels of positive reward behavior by direct supervisors. The only working condition that was not impacted by the use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO was punitive reward behavior by direct supervisors.

Perceived use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO had less of an impact on the stress outcomes for officers. The only aspect of burnout impacted by increased leadership behaviors was emotional exhaustion (workers feeling as though they cannot give any more of themselves at a psychological level). The impact in the final model was weak, indicating that the impact of leadership behaviors was mediated by working conditions and coworker support. Use of leadership behaviors had a strong effect overall on organizational commitment. Use of leadership behaviors had both a direct effect and indirect effect mediated by working conditions on affective organizational (identification with and attachment to the organization) and normative organizational commitment (obligation to stay with the organization). Use of leadership behaviors had an indirect effect on continuance organizational commitment (awareness of the costs of leaving) which was mediated by working conditions. Increased levels of perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO had a moderate direct effect on job satisfaction for officers, as well as an indirect effect on job satisfaction which was mediated by working conditions.

The impact of leadership behaviors on self-perceived health was mediated by role ambiguity.

Effects of Working Conditions, Coping Factors, and Social Support

Working conditions. As shown in Table 40, overall, working conditions (role load, role conflict, role ambiguity, positive and punitive reward behavior of direct supervisors, and participation in decision making) had a modest impact on stress outcomes for officers. Several working conditions impacted the three aspects of burnout for officers. Role load was the only working condition that impacted all three aspects of burnout, with a strong and modest effect on emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment respectively. The impact of working conditions on all three aspects of burnout was mediated slightly by the coping and support variables. As shown in Table 40, role conflict, participation in decision making, and positive reward behavior had a modest impact on the aspects of organizational commitment. Role ambiguity had a weak effect on affective organizational commitment but the effect was mediated by coping and support variables. The effect of the other working conditions upon all three aspects of organizational commitment was also mediated at least slightly by the coping and support variables. Role load, role ambiguity, and positive reward behavior by a direct supervisor had modest effects on job satisfaction for officers. Role conflict and participation in decision making initially had modest and weak effects on job satisfaction, however, these effects were mediated by coping and support variables. The only working condition that impacted self-perceived health was role ambiguity with officers having slightly lower odds of reporting positive self-perceived health as role ambiguity levels increased.

Coping factors and social support. As reflected in Table 41, overall the coping and support variables had a modest effect on the stress outcomes for officers. As noted in the discussions of leadership variables and working conditions, coping and support variables frequently acted as mediators for leadership behaviors and working conditions. The coping and support variables had a modest impact on each aspect of burnout. Coping and support variables had a weak impact on organizational commitment; however, coworker support had a moderate effect on affective organizational commitment. Coping and support factors had a weak to modest impact on job satisfaction. Only support from individuals outside of work had a moderate impact on self-perceived health.

Table 40

Effects of Working Conditions on Dependent Variables

	Burnout			Organizational Commitment			Job Satisfaction	Self-perc. Health
	Emo. Exh.	Deperson.	Pers. Acc.	Affect.	Norm.	Cont.		
Role Load	Moderate	Weak	Modest	-	-	-	Modest	-
Role Conflict	Modest	Weak	-	Modest	-	Weak	-	-
Role Ambiguity	-	Weak	Modest	-	-	-	Modest	Modest
Participation in Decision Making	-	Weak	-	Modest	Weak	Modest	-	-
Positive Reward Behavior	-	-	-	Modest	Modest	-	Modest	-
Punitive Reward Behavior	Weak	Weak	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 41

Effects of Coping and Support on Dependent Variables

	Burnout			Organizational Commitment			Job Satisfaction	Self-perc. Health
	Emo. Exh.	Deperson.	Pers. Acc.	Affect.	Norm.	Cont.		
Coping (Religion)	-	Modest	Modest	Weak	Weak	Weak	-	-
Coping (Emotion-Focused)	Modest	Modest	-	Weak	-		Modest	-
Coping (Cognitive Behavioral)	Modest	Modest	-	-	-	Modest	Weak	-
Support (Coworkers)	Weak	Weak	Modest	Moderate	-	Modest	Modest	-
Support (Partner/Friends/Relatives)	Weak	Modest	Modest	Weak	-	Weak	-	Moderate

Overall Model of Federal Probation and Pretrial Services Officer Stress

As Table 42 reveals, 9 of 15 hypotheses were at least partially supported. Five of the remaining hypotheses, which were not supported, focused on the impact of participation in the Leadership Development Program by CUSPOs. The other hypothesis, which was not supported, pertained to perceived participation in decision making by officers and impact on burnout levels.

Table 42

Overview of Support for Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Supported	Partially Supported	Not Supported
1. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity.			X
2. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of participation in decision making.			X
3. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors, and lower levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors.			X
4. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report lower levels of burnout.			X
5. U.S. Probation and Pretrial Services Officers led by a Chief United States Probation Officer who has completed the Leadership Development Program will report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health.			X
6. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts working conditions for officers.	X		
7. The perceived leadership behaviors of a CUSPO impacts outcomes for officers.	X		
8. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to higher levels of burnout reported by officers.		X	

Table 42 (Cont.)

Overview of Support for Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Supported	Partially Supported	Not Supported
9. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction by officers.		X	
10. High levels of reported role load, role conflict, and role ambiguity will lead to lower levels of self-perceived health by officers.		X	
11. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in higher levels of burnout a reported by officers.		X	
12. Higher levels of punitive reward behavior by supervisors and lower levels of positive reward behavior by supervisors will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.		X	
13. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in higher levels of burnout reported by officers.			X
14. Lower levels of participation in decision making will result in lower levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.		X	
15. The more coping factors and social support reported by an officer, the less of an impact working conditions will have on burnout, commitment, job satisfaction, and self-perceived health by officers.	X		

The results in Chapter 4 provided overall support for the causal model presented in Chapter 2 of this study. Figure 14 presents an updated causal model based upon the results. Because the Leadership Development Program did not impact the model, it was removed from the leadership variables list. The demographic and work characteristic

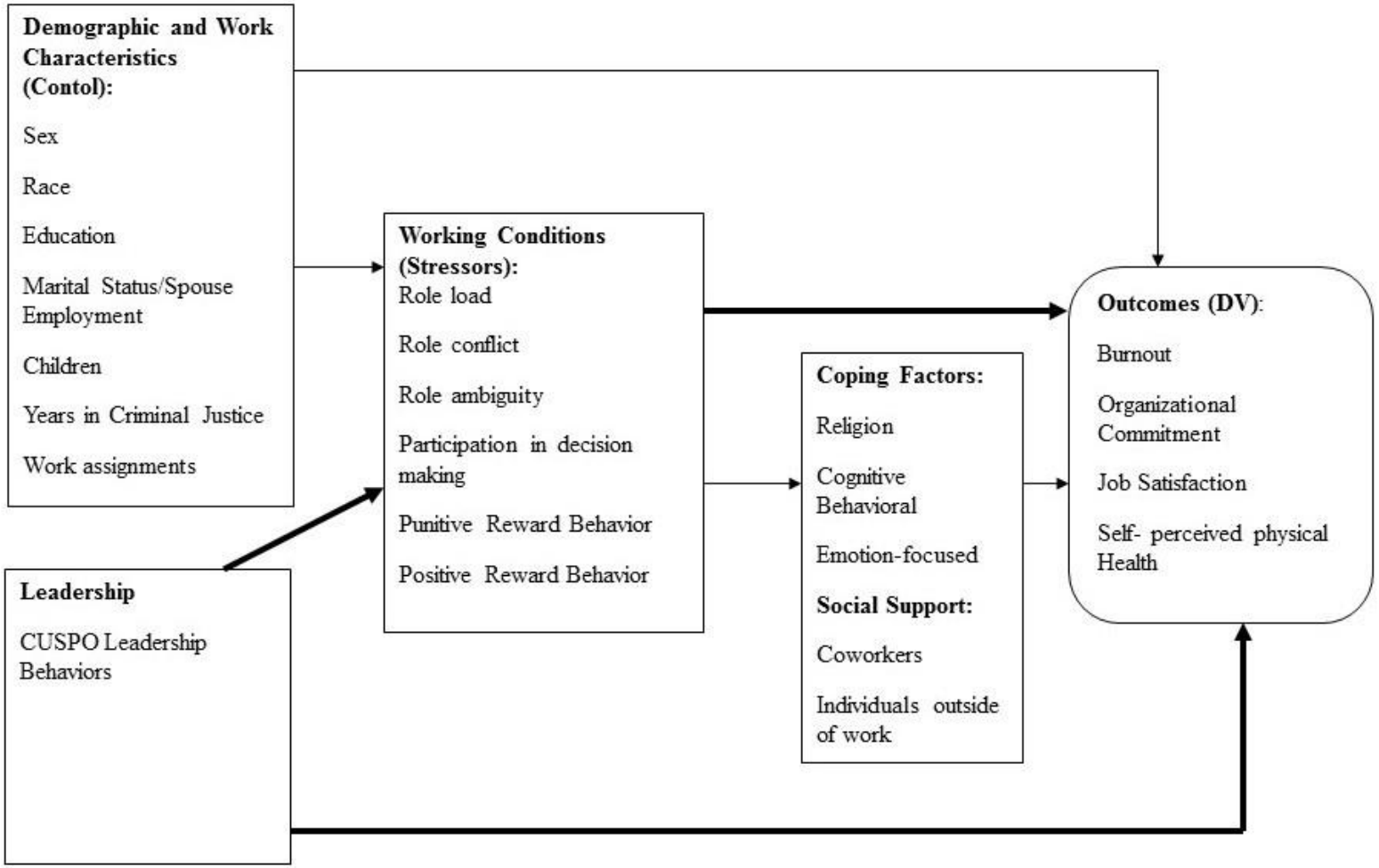

Figure 14. Updated model of federal probation and pretrial services officer stress. Bolded lines indicate the strongest relationships.

variables (controls) had weak effects on working conditions and stress outcomes for officers. Coping factors and support variables had weak effects on stress outcomes, and they also appeared to mediate the impact of leadership behaviors and working conditions. The strongest relationships (highlighted by bold lines in Figure 14) were between leadership behavior use of CUSPOs and working conditions and stress outcomes, and between working conditions and stress outcomes.

Discussion of Findings

The key findings from my research regarding probation and pretrial services officer stress pertain to the role of perceived use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO and the role of working conditions. These findings indicate that the origin of officer stress is primarily structural as opposed to individual. Overall, stress management provides individual solutions for stress, placing the burden of reducing stress outcomes on the individual officer. This research indicates that a more organizational/leadership structural approach to stress management might be more successful in reducing the impact of stress for officers.

Implications for Policy and Theory

Role of leadership. Although the Leadership Development Program did not have an impact, the perceived use of leadership behaviors by a CUSPO did impact working conditions and stress outcomes. One reason there may not have been a visible impact is that the CUSPOs who did not complete the program may have done leadership training elsewhere or may have had innate leadership abilities that led to their promotion to a CUSPO position. Comparing those who went through the program with those who did

not may be problematic because those who did not attend may still exercise good leadership behaviors.

Another consideration regarding the impact of the LDP program is the culture of the offices. Although it is a national system, each of the 94 districts has its own culture and own relationship with the court in that district. It is possible that the officers who received the training are unable to implement the skills and lessons they learn via the LDP. In addition, some officers who complete the program may never apply to or be promoted to management positions. It is also possible that results of LDP training could be more long-term as those who are trained impact the culture of the system. In addition –there is a difference in knowing about leadership and actually implementing those skills and ideas in the organizational environment. However, because leadership behavior use plays a key role, the need for leadership development training for future leaders is clear.

The initial purpose of the Leadership Development Program for federal probation and pretrial officers was to make sure that the judiciary had a pool of good candidates for leadership positions in the system. Even though the program itself didn't demonstrate an impact in this study, leadership behaviors of CUSPOs was important. It is possible that the LDP program is helping to broaden the pool of good leadership candidates in addition to officers who are promoted due to outside training or innate leadership abilities. Knowing that the leadership behaviors impact working conditions and stress outcomes for line officers, additional training on organizational culture and how to navigate and effect change within an organization may provide additional strengths for future leaders. In addition, further investigation of the long-term impacts of the leadership development program could also demonstrate additional benefits of leadership training over time.

The strongest finding from this study was the impact of CUSPO leadership behaviors. A CUSPOs leadership behaviors was often the strongest predictor of working conditions and had a moderate role in the stress outcomes. Although the role of direct supervisors and managers on employee stress is discussed in the police, corrections, and probation officers stress literature, the role of top-level leaders (i.e. CUSPOs), is rarely considered. My research demonstrates that top-level leaders clearly do have a role in the working conditions and stress outcomes for employees. Leadership research and literature needs to include assessment of top level leaders and their impact on organizations at the employee level. In addition, my analyses suggest that there is an indirect relationship between leadership behaviors and some of the stress outcomes which should be verified with path analysis or structural equations models in future research.

Role of working conditions. My analyses confirmed some of the most common stressors noted in the literature for probation officer stress. Both role load and role conflict were reported by officers and both impacted the stress outcomes, especially the emotional exhaustion aspect of burnout. Role ambiguity was not reported to be as much of an issue for officers in this study. Officers reported low levels of participation in decision making, although this did not seem to impact the stress outcomes. Officers also agreed that direct supervisors used positive reward behaviors, but officers did not report as much use of punitive reward behaviors by direct supervisors.

The federal probation and pretrial service system does not always have the ability to control certain aspects of the work received from the criminal justice system (ie. the number of inmates released onto to supervision, the number of offenders indicted, court deadlines), which impacts working conditions such as role load. However, there may be

things leadership can do to assist with the role load and other working conditions experienced by officers. Some districts may offer flex-time and/or work from home options to help alleviate the stress that stems from working more than the required 42.5 hours per week or from working non-traditional hours. In the past, some offices provided officers with "fit time" which allowed officers to attend fitness classes or workout 3 hours a week during the work day. Many officers do not use their allotted vacation time because of concern about work that will not be covered while they are away from the office. Finding options to make vacation time feasible for officers may also help to reduce burnout and stress. With a national system, it is likely that some districts are addressing working conditions for officers successfully. Qualitative research at a district level through focus groups or individual interviews may allow the system to discover certain policies and practices which are helping to alleviate or mitigate the effects of working conditions for officers.

This study assessed the use of coping factors including emotion-focused, cognitive behavioral, and religion. Officers reported minimal use of such coping methods, however, the coping methods did impact stressors and often mediated the impact of working conditions. When using emotion-focused or cognitive behavioral coping, the organizational stressor levels were increased. When using religion, the stressor levels were lower. Stress management often focuses on the individual and what they can do to reduce stress. Based on the low reported use of the coping factors assessed in this study, more research on the coping methods used by probation officers would be useful. Assessing the use of identified coping factors in connection with stress would also help. It does appear that the religion coping factors assessed in this study (finding

comfort in one's religion or spiritual beliefs, and pray or meditation) had the most positive impact on stressors and stress for officers. This may be an area for future research as far as ideas for stress management courses focused on meditation or spirituality.

A review of the police, corrections, and probation officer stress literature, results in mixed information pertaining to the role of social support – including coworkers. In this study, officers reported some support from coworkers and a little more support from individuals outside of their organization. However, coworker support did play a role in working conditions and in organizational commitment. Because there is not much research in this area, and the research that exists has mixed results, more research on coworker relationships and their impact on stress is needed. Based on this study, it appears that coworkers may provide a positive impact on stressors and stress outcomes. The federal probation system may want to consider ways to foster relationships between coworkers within and across districts. Additionally, networking across districts may allow for the sharing of ideas and experiences across districts.

Limitations

A primary limitation of this study is that, because it is a cross-sectional design, it is not possible to definitively establish causal relationships between the variables. It is not possible to confirm the time order of the variables in the study (for example, did use of the coping factor come before or after the working condition). However, this study has provided suggestive and tentative information regarding the relationships.

Although this was a population survey instead of a sample survey, the response rate was relatively low. The final sample included 659 officers from 90 of the 94 districts.

Participation was voluntary and depended upon the officer's knowledge of the survey. There could be a difference in those officers who completed the survey and those who did not.

Nearly all of the data in this study are self-reported via the survey instrument. Self-report surveys measure what people say about their own relationship to topics presented in the survey, rather than measuring what the respondents actually do. Monette, Sullivan, and DeJong (2005, p. 158) explain that "surveys do not directly measure those thoughts, feelings, and behaviors" of the individuals.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Research

This study focused on organizational stressors and stress outcomes for federal probation and pretrial services officers. Most research focused on probation officer stress is decades old and caseload sizes and the type of defendant/offender served by the federal system have changed. Very little of the research focuses specifically on federal probation officers. High levels of officer stress can lead to health problems, burnout, and turnover, resulting in less experienced, overworked probation officers.

Research on federal probation officers at a national level is rarely conducted. This study involved a large data set with many data points. It focused on the aspects of the proposed federal probation officers stress model. Continued analysis of this data set will include exploring data through structural equations modeling which will allow more detailed assessment of the relationships between the variables.

One of the major findings from this study was the impact of CUSPO leadership behaviors on working conditions and stress outcomes for probation officers. There is minimal leadership or stress literature that focuses on top-level leaders and their impact

on employee stressors or stress outcomes. The findings in this study support the need for additional research on the impact of top level leaders on employee experiences in an organization.

Although the completion of the Leadership Development Program by CUSPOs did not impact the outcomes in this study, use of leadership behaviors was the strongest finding. This confirms the Judicial Conference's focus on creating a pool of capable and prepared leaders for the system. It is likely that the Leadership Development Program is already providing the system with prepared leaders. Additional training on organizational culture and how to navigate and effect change within an organization may provide additional strengths for future leaders in the federal probation system. A longitudinal study of the Leadership Development Program may help to determine the long-term impacts of leadership training for the system.

Probation officer stress literature has noted the impact of working conditions as stressors for decades. This study demonstrated similar results, especially that role load and conflict remain key stressors for officers. Assessing the working environment including areas like role load and conflict for officers at a district level may result in finding policies and practices which reduce role load and conflict for officers. Additional research on coping factors and coworker support may also provide ways to reduce stressors and stress outcomes for officers.

My analyses indicate that the origin of officer stress is primarily structural as opposed to individual. Overall, stress management provides individual solutions for stress, placing the burden of reducing stress outcomes on the individual officer. A more organizational/leadership structural approach to stress management might be more

successful in reducing the impact of stress for officers. If the system can better address the organizational stressors and stress outcomes for officers, it is likely that the system will be more efficient and effective at an officer level and also in areas such as officer and community safety.

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Appendix B

Survey Instrument

Consent to Participate

You are being invited to participate in a dissertation research project conducted by Erika Farester from the School of Graduate Studies and Research of the Indiana University of Pennsylvania. The project is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Alex Heckert.

Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to participate. You may also refuse to answer any question.

This project is an attempt to assess federal probation and pretrial services officer stress.

You are one of approximately 5,100 federal probation and pretrial services officers asked to participate in this project. You participation consists of voluntarily answering the survey questions available. It should take you approximately 30 minutes or less to complete the questionnaire.

Your participation in the project is anonymous. Please do not identify yourself in any of your responses to this survey. You will be asked to identify your district, however this information will subsequently be coded to prevent the identification of individual districts.

There are no foreseeable physical risks associated with your participation. While you will not directly benefit from participation, your participation may help the investigator better understand federal probation and pretrial services officer stress.

Participation in this project is voluntary and the only alternative to this project is non-participation.

The results of this study may be published in professional and/or scientific journals. It may also be used for educational purposes or for professional presentations. However, no individual participant or district will be identified.

If you have any questions you may contact Erika Farester at (814) 881-9665 or E.L.Farester@iup.edu; or Dr. Alex Heckert at (724) 357-2731 or aheckert@iup.edu.

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724-357-7730).

PLEASE PRINT A COPY OF THIS CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR YOUR RECORDS, OR IF YOU DO NOT HAVE PRINT CAPABILITIES, YOU MAY CONTACT THE RESEARCHER TO OBTAIN A COPY.

Please select one:

- ❍ I agree and give my consent to participate in this research project. I understand that participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty.
- ❍ I do not agree to participate and will be excluded from the remainder of the questions.

Section 1

What is your age? _____

What is your race or ethnic background?
- ❍ White, Non-Hispanic
- ❍ African American
- ❍ Hispanic
- ❍ Asian-Pacific Islander
- ❍ Native American

What is your sex?
- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

What is your highest level of education?
- ❍ Bachelor's (For example: BA, BS)
- ❍ Master's (For example: MA, MS, MEd, MSW, MBA)
- ❍ Doctorate (For example: PhD, EdD, MD, JD)
- ❍ Other

What is your current marital status?
- ❍ Single, never married
- ❍ Married
- ❍ Not married, cohabitating
- ❍ Separated
- ❍ Divorced
- ❍ Widow/widower

What is the employment status of your spouse/partner?
- ❍ Working full-time
- ❍ Working part-time
- ❍ Seeking work
- ❍ Unemployed
- ❍ Retired
- ❍ Not applicable

Do you have any children?
- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

List ages of children living with you: _____

List ages of children not living with you: _____

What District do you work for?

Alabama - Northern District
Alabama - Middle District
Alabama - Southern District
Alaska
Arizona
Arkansas - Eastern District
Arkansas - Western District
California - Central District
California - Eastern District
California - Northern District
California - Southern District
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Florida - Middle District
Florida - Northern District
Florida - Southern District
Georgia - Middle District
Georgia - Northern District
Georgia - Southern District
Hawaii
Idaho
Illinois - Central District
Illinois - Northern District
Illinois - Southern District
Indiana - Northern District
Indiana - Southern District
Iowa - Northern District
Iowa - Southern District
Kansas
Kentucky - Eastern District
Kentucky - Western District
Louisiana - Eastern District
Louisiana - Middle District
Louisiana - Western District
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan - Eastern District
Michigan - Western District
Minnesota
Mississippi - Northern District
Mississippi - Southern District
Missouri - Eastern District
Missouri - Western District
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York - Eastern District
New York - Northern District
New York - Southern District
New York - Western District
North Carolina - Eastern District
North Carolina - Middle District
North Carolina - Western District
North Dakota
Ohio - Northern District
Ohio - Southern District
Oklahoma - Eastern District
Oklahoma - Northern District
Oklahoma - Western District
Oregon
Pennsylvania - Eastern District
Pennsylvania - Middle District
Pennsylvania - Western District
Rhode Island
South Carolina
South Dakota
Tennessee - Eastern District
Tennessee - Middle District
Tennessee - Western District
Texas - Eastern District
Texas - Northern District
Texas - Southern District
Texas - Western District
Utah
Vermont
Virginia - Eastern District
Virginia - Western District
Washington - Eastern District
Washington - Western District
West Virginia - Northern District
West Virginia - Southern District
Wisconsin - Eastern District
Wisconsin - Western District
Wyoming
Puerto Rico
Guam
Northern Mariana Islands
Virgin Islands

What is your employment unit assignment? (Select all that apply)

- ❑ Pretrial Services Supervision
- ❑ Pretrial Services Court Unit (report preparation/court attendance)
- ❑ Probation Supervision
- ❑ Probation Presentence

How many years have you been employed by your current office? _____

How many years have you been employed by federal probation? _____

How many years have you worked in criminal-justice related occupations? _____

Section 2

Please indicate the degree to which the following statements apply to you.

	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
How often does your job require you to work very fast?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How often does your job require you to work very hard?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How often is there a great deal to be done?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Please indicate the degree to which the following statements apply to you.

	Hardly Any	A Little	Some	A Lot	Great Deal
How much slowdown in the work load do you experience?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much of the time do you have to think and contemplate?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much work load do you have?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
What quantity of work do others expect you to do?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much time do you have to do all your work?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How many projects, assignments, or tasks do you have?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How many lulls between heavy work load periods do you have?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 3
Please indicate the degree to which the following statements apply to you.

	Very False	Somewhat False	Slightly False	Neither True nor False	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Very True
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have to do things that should be done differently.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I know that I have divided my time properly.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I know what my responsibilities are.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I know exactly what is expected of me.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I work on unnecessary things.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 4

Please indicate the degree to which the following statements apply to you.

	Very Little	A Little	Some	A Lot	A Great Deal
How much do you take part with others in making decisions that affect you?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much do you participate with others in helping set the way things are done on your job?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much do you decide with others what part of a task you will do?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 5
For the following section, please rate the degree to which these statements pertain to you.

	Very False	Somewhat False	Slightly False	Neither True nor False	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Very True
Your supervisor would personally pay you a compliment if you did outstanding work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
You would receive a reprimand from your supervisor if you were late in coming to work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would lend a sympathetic ear if you had a complaint.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would be very much aware of it if there was a temporary change in the quality of your work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would recommend that you should be dismissed if you were absent for several days without notifying the organization or without a reasonable excuse.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would see that you will eventually go as far as you would like to go in this organization, if your work is consistently above average.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would get on you if your work was not as good as the work of others in your department.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would recommend that you be promoted if your work was better than others who were otherwise equally qualified.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would help you get a transfer if you asked for one.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

	Very False	Somewhat False	Slightly False	Neither True nor False	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Very True
Your supervisor would tell his/her boss if your work was outstanding.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would give you a reprimand (written or verbally) if your work was consistently below acceptable standards.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would recommend that you get no pay increase if your work was below standard.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would show a great deal of interest if you suggested a new and better way of doing things.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would give you special recognition if your work performance was especially good.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would do all he/she could to help you if you were having problems in your work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor's recommendation for a pay increase for you would be consistent with his/her evaluation of your performance.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would recommend that you not be promoted to a higher level job if your performance was only average.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would encourage you to do better if your performance was acceptable but well below what you were capable of.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

	Very False	Somewhat False	Slightly False	Neither True nor False	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Very True
Your supervisor would recommend additional training or schooling if it would help your job performance.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor's evaluation of your performance would be in agreement with your own evaluation of your performance.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would increase your job responsibilities if you were performing well in your job.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Your supervisor would always give you feedback on how your work affects the total service of the organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 6

For the following section, please indicate how often your Chief United States Probation Officer engages in the described behavior.

	Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always	2-3 Times a Week	Daily
Tells group members what they are supposed to do.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Acts friendly with members of the group.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Sets standards of performance for group members.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Helps others feel comfortable in the group.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Makes suggestions about how to solve problems.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Responds favorably to suggestions made by others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Makes his or her perspective clear to others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Treats others fairly.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Develops a plan of action for the group.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Behaves in a predictable manner toward group members.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Defines role responsibilities for each group member.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Communicates actively with group members.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Clarifies his or her own role within the group.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Shows concern for the well-being of others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provides a plan for how the work is to be done.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Shows flexibility in making decisions.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provides criteria for what is expected of the group.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Discloses thoughts and feelings to group members.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Encourages group members to do high-quality work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Helps group members get along.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 7

The following items deal with the ways in which you have been coping with work stress. Each item says something about a particular way of coping. I want to know to what extent you've been doing what the item says how much or how frequently. Do not base your answer on whether it seems to be working or not just whether or not you're doing it.

	I haven't been doing this at all	I've been doing this a little bit	I've been doing this a medium amount	I've been doing this a lot
I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been getting emotional support from others.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been giving up trying to deal with it.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been taking action to try to make the situation better.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been getting help and advice from other people.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been criticizing myself.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been expressing my negative feelings.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been learning to live with it.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been thinking hard about what steps to take.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been blaming myself for things that happened.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been praying or meditating.	❍	❍	❍	❍
I've been making fun of the situation.	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 8

Please indicate the degree to which the following statements apply in your relationships with supervisors, co-workers, and others (spouse/family/friends/etc/).

	Don't have any such person	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much
How much does your immediate supervisor go out of his/her way to do things to make your work life easier for you?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How easy is it to talk with your immediate supervisor?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can your immediate supervisor be relied on when things get tough at work?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much is your immediate supervisor willing to listen to your personal problems?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much do other people at work go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How easy is it to talk with other people at work?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can other people at work be relied on when things get tough at work?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much are other people at work willing to listen to your personal problems?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much do your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How easy is it to talk with your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much can your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives be relied on when things get tough at work?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
How much are you spouse/partner, friends, and relatives willing to listen to your personal problems?	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 9

Because persons in a wide variety of occupations will answer this survey, it uses the term "recipients" to refer to the people for whom you provide your service, care, treatment, or instruction. When answering this survey please think of these people as recipients of the service you provide, even though you may use another term in your work.

The following section contains 22* statements of job related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, select "Never." If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the option that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	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	Every day
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I feel burned out from my work.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

*Section 9 included the items from the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Mind Garden, Inc. does not permit the inclusion of all items in published materials, therefore, only three items are included as a sample.

Section 10

Please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am proud of what I am doing for a living.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Probation work with this agency is meaningful.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I had it to do over again, I would choose this occupation.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would recommend this job to others.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I believe I will remain with this agency until I retire.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Please indicate how often the following statement applies to you.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
I seriously think about quitting this job.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 11
For the following section, please choose the response that best describes how much you are committed to the federal probation and/or pretrial service office in which you are presently employed.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving the organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This organization deserved my loyalty.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I owe a great deal to my organization.	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Section 12

	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
How would you rate your overall physical health?	❍	❍	❍	❍

Appendix C

IRB and RTAF Approvals

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
www.iup.edu

Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Stright Hall, Room 113
210 South Tenth Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1048

P 724-357-7730
F 724-357-2715
irb-research@iup.edu
www.iup.edu/irb

March 25, 2014

Erika Farester
287 Wayne St.
Homer City, PA 15748

Dear Ms. Farester:

Your proposed research project, "Assessing Stress and Coping Among Federal Probation Officers," (Log No. 14-120) has been reviewed by the IRB and is approved. In accordance with 45CFR46.101 and IUP Policy, your project is exempt from continuing review.

You should read all of this letter, as it contains important information about conducting your study.

Now that your project has been approved by the IRB, there are elements of the Federal Regulations to which you must attend. IUP adheres to these regulations strictly:

1. You must conduct your study exactly as it was approved by the IRB.
2. Any additions or changes in procedures must be approved by the IRB before they are implemented.
3. You must notify the IRB promptly of any events that affect the safety or well-being of subjects.
4. You must notify the IRB promptly of any modifications of your study or other responses that are necessitated by any events reported in items 2 or 3.

The IRB may review or audit your project at random or for cause. In accordance with IUP Policy and Federal Regulation (45CFR46.113), the Board may suspend or terminate your project if your project has not been conducted as approved or if other difficulties are detected

Although your human subjects review process is complete, the School of Graduate Studies and Research requires submission and approval of a Research Topic Approval Form (RTAF) before you can begin your research. If you have not yet submitted your RTAF, the form can be found at http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=91663 .

I wish you success as you pursue this important endeavor.

Sincerely,

John A. Mills, Ph.D., ABPP
Chairperson, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
Professor of Psychology

JAM:js

cc: Dr. Alex Heckert, Dissertation Advisor
Ms. Brenda Boal, Secretary

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
www.iup.edu

Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Stright Hall, Room 113
210 South Tenth Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1048

P 724-357-7730
F 724-357-2715
irb-research@iup.edu
www.iup.edu/irb

August 22, 2014

Erika Farester
287 Wayne Street
Homer City, PA 15748

Dear Ms. Farester:

Your proposed modifications to your previously approved research project, "Assessing Stress and Coping Among Federal Probation Officers," (Log No. 14-120) have been reviewed by the IRB and are approved. In accordance with 45CFR46.101 and IUP Policy, your project is exempt from continuing review in addition to the approval of your request for changes.

You should read all of this letter, as it contains important information about conducting your study.

Now that your project has been approved by the IRB, there are elements of the Federal Regulations to which you must attend. IUP adheres to these regulations strictly:

1. You must conduct your study exactly as it was approved by the IRB.
2. Any additions or changes in procedures must be approved by the IRB before they are implemented.
3. You must notify the IRB promptly of any events that affect the safety or well-being of subjects.
4. You must notify the IRB promptly of any modifications of your study or other responses that are necessitated by any events reported in items 2 or 3.

The IRB may review or audit your project at random *or* for cause. In accordance with IUP Policy and Federal Regulation (45CFR46.113), the Board may suspend or terminate your project if your project has not been conducted as approved or if other difficulties are detected.

It is strongly recommended that all researchers and their advisors complete CITI on-line protection of human subjects and responsible conduct of research training. The training is available at http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=93408 and there is no charge to you.

While not under the purview of the IRB, researchers are responsible for adhering to US copyright law when using existing scales, survey items, or other works in the conduct of

research. Information regarding copyright law and compliance at IUP, including links to sample permission request letters, can be found at http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=165526.

I wish you success as you pursue this important endeavor.

Sincerely,

Jen Roberts

Jennifer Roberts, Ph.D.
Chairperson, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
Professor of Criminology

JLR:jeb

Cc: Dr. Alex Heckert, Dissertation Advisor

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
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School of Graduate Studies and Research
Stright Hall, Room 113
210 South Tenth Street
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July 30, 2014

Erika Farester
287 Wayne Street
Homer City, PA 15748

Dear Ms. Farester:

Now that your research project has been approved by the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, I have reviewed your Research Topic Approval Form and Committee Change request and approved both.

The Thesis/Dissertation Manual, additional resources, and information to help you start writing can be found at http://www.iup.edu/graduatestudies/thesis/default.aspx.

Your RTAF indicates your anticipated graduation date as August 2015. This means that you must defend by **no later than July 1, 2015** and all necessary documents are due by this date. A description of the required documents can be accessed at http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=116439. Your dissertation must be submitted to the School of Graduate Studies & Research by July 15, 2015 if you desire to graduate by your anticipated date. You must apply for graduation by August 1, 2015. For deadlines for subsequent graduation dates, please access http://www.iup.edu/page.aspx?id=16683.

Finally, if you change your topic, the scope or methodology of your project, or your committee, a new Research Topic Approval Form must be completed.

I wish you well and hope you find this experience to be rewarding.

Sincerely,

Hilliary E. Creely, J.D., Ph.D.
Assistant Dean for Research

HEC/bb

xc: Dr. Yaw Asamoah, Dean
Dr. John Anderson, Graduate Coordinator
Dr. Alex Heckert, Dissertation Chair
Ms. Julie Bassaro, Secretary

Appendix D

Site Approval Letter

HONORABLE JOHN D. BATES
Director

JILL C. SAYENGA
Deputy Director

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE OF THE
UNITED STATES COURTS

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20544

MATTHEW G. ROWLAND
Chief
Probation and Pretrial Services Office

Department of Program Services

August 19, 2014

Jennifer Roberts, PhD, Chairperson
Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Stright Hall, Room 113
210 South Tenth St.
Indiana, PA 15705-1048

Dear Dr. Roberts:

It is my understanding that Erika Farester has proposed conducting a research study entitled, "Assessing Stress and Coping Among Federal Probation Officers" (Log No. 14-120) and that she specifically wants to conduct the survey with United States Probation and Pretrial Services.

Mrs. Farester has informed me of the design of the study, as well as the targeted population. I approve of her using the United States Probation and Pretrial Services system as the research site for her study. I support this effort and I am willing to assist in its successful implementation.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call.

Sincerely,

Matthew Rowland,
Chief

Appendix E

Mean and Standard Deviation Information for Scales

Leadership Style Inventory (Northouse, 2007)* Questions (Scale 1-7)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Task Orientation			
Tells group members what they are supposed to do. (1)	552	3.27	1.35
Sets standards of performance for group members. (3)	550	3.91	1.37
Makes suggestions about how to solve problems. (5)	549	3.45	1.48
Makes his or her perspective clear to others. (7)	549	4.09	1.43
Develops a plan of action for the group. (9)	547	3.88	1.36
Defines role responsibilities for each group member. (11)	538	3.58	1.30
Clarifies his or her own role within the group. (13)	537	3.75	1.43
Provides a plan for how the work is to be done. (15)	538	3.50	1.41
Provides criteria for what is expected of the group. (17)	538	3.70	1.33
Encourages group members to do high-quality work. (19)	540	4.50	1.25
Mean for Task Orientation	555	3.76	1.08
Subscale Total Score	555	37.55	10.81
Relationship Orientation			
Acts friendly with members of the group. (2)	554	4.19	1.47
Helps others feel comfortable in the group. (4)	551	3.51	1.62
Responds favorably to suggestions made by others. (6)	545	3.32	1.37
Treats others fairly. (8)	543	3.86	1.44
Behaves in a predictable manner toward group members. (10)	546	4.22	1.34
Communicates actively with group members. (12)	541	3.55	1.41
Shows concern for the well-being of others. (14)	542	3.75	1.54
Shows flexibility in making decisions. (16)	538	3.33	1.48
Discloses thoughts and feelings to group members. (18)	537	3.30	1.50
Helps group members get along. (20)	533	3.14	1.49
Mean for Relationship Orientation	556	3.62	1.22
Subscale Total Score	556	36.23	12.19

***Scale used with permission**

Role Load (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau, 1980) Questions (Scale 1-5)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
How often does your job require you to work very fast? (1)	657	4.07	.88
How often does your job require you to work very hard? (2)	656	4.36	.76
How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done? (3)	658	4.02	.98
How often is there a great deal to be done? (4)	657	4.53	.76
*How much slowdown in the work load do you experience? (1)	649	4.27	.88
*How much of the time do you have to think and contemplate? (2)	651	3.47	1.13
How much work load do you have? (3)	654	4.38	.69
What quantity of work do others expect you to do? (4)	653	4.44	.67
*How much time do you have to do all your work? (5)	651	3.35	.81
How many projects, assignments, or tasks do you have? (6)	650	4.13	.78
*How many lulls between heavy work load periods do you have? (7)	651	4.21	.82
Mean for Role Load	654	4.11	.53

*Indicates reverse-coded

Role Conflict and Ambiguity (Rizzo, House, Lirtzman, 1970) Questions (Scale 1-7)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Role Conflict			
I have to do things that should be done differently. (3)	619	5.08	1.62
I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it. (5)	619	4.42	1.90
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment. (7)	619	3.38	2.05
I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently. (8)	619	4.86	1.92
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people. (10)	619	3.87	1.96
I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others. (11)	618	4.86	1.88
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it. (12)	617	3.69	1.96
I work on unnecessary things. (14)	617	4.23	2.10
Mean for Role Conflict	620	4.30	1.33
Role Ambiguity			
*I feel certain about how much authority I have. (1)	619	3.04	1.77
*Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job. (2)	615	2.50	1.48
*I know that I have divided my time properly. (4)	616	2.63	1.42
*I know what my responsibilities are. (6)	619	1.61	.98
*I know exactly what is expected of me. (9)	617	2.33	1.50
*Explanation is clear of what has to be done. (13)	618	2.70	1.57
Mean for Role Ambiguity	620	2.44	1.12

*Indicates reverse-coded

Participation in Decision Making (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau, 1980) **Questions (Scale 1-5)**	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
How much do you take part with others in making decisions that affect you? (1)	617	2.51	1.22
How much do you participate with others in helping set the way things are done on your job? (2)	615	2.42	1.21
How much do you decide with others what part of a task you will do? (3)	615	2.34	1.16
Mean for Participation in Decision Making	617	2.42	1.10

Leader Reward Behavior Scale (Keller and Szilagyi, 1975) Questions (Scale 1-7)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Positive Reward Behavior			
Your supervisor would personally pay you a compliment if you did outstanding work. (1)	593	5.54	1.82
Your supervisor would lend a sympathetic ear if you had a complaint. (3)	591	5.36	1.84
Your supervisor would be very much aware of it if there was a temporary change in the quality of your work. (4)	592	5.61	1.56
Your supervisor would see that you will eventually go as far as you would like to go in this organization, if your work is consistently above average. (6)	591	4.75	2.05
Your supervisor would recommend that you be promoted if your work was better than others who were otherwise equally qualified. (8)	590	4.57	2.00
Your supervisor would help you get a transfer if you asked for one. (9)	588	4.88	1.86
Your supervisor would tell his/her boss if your work was outstanding. (10)	591	5.19	1.84
Your supervisor would show a great deal of interest if you suggested a new and better way of doing things. (13)	590	4.75	1.94
Your supervisor would give you special recognition if your work performance was especially good. (14)	591	4.82	1.92
Your supervisor would do all he/she could to help you if you were having problems in your work. (15)	589	5.11	1.92
Your supervisor's recommendation for a pay increase for you would be consistent with his/her evaluation of your performance. (16)	589	5.60	1.70
Your supervisor would encourage you to do better if your performance was acceptable but well below what you were capable of. (18)	589	5.53	1.45
Your supervisor would recommend additional training or schooling if it would help your job performance. (19)	587	5.23	1.70
Your supervisor's evaluation of your performance would be in agreement with your own evaluation of your performance. (20)	586	5.16	1.82
Your supervisor would increase your job responsibilities if you were performing well in your job. (21)	586	5.53	1.51
Your supervisor would always give you feedback on how your work affects the total service of the organization. (22)	587	4.66	1.92
Positive Reward Behavior Mean	591	5.14	1.34
Punitive Reward Behavior			
You would receive a reprimand from your supervisor if you were late in coming to work. (2)	591	3.50	2.11
Your supervisor would recommend that you should be dismissed if you were absent for several days without notifying the organization or without a reasonable excuse. (5)	591	4.73	2.06
Your supervisor would give you a reprimand (written or verbally) if your work was consistently below acceptable standards. (11)	591	5.74	1.42
Your supervisor would recommend that you get no pay increase if your work was below standard. (12)	591	5.33	1.76
Your supervisor would recommend that you not be promoted to a higher level job if your performance was only average. (17)	587	5.26	1.62
Your supervisor would get on you if your work was not as good as the work of others in your department. (7)	591	5.07	1.64
Punitive Reward Behavior Mean	592	4.94	1.17

Brief COPE (Carver, 1997) Questions (Scale 1-4)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Cognitive Behavioral			
I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things. (1)	533	2.34	1.06
I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in. (2)	531	2.52	1.01
I've been giving up trying to deal with it. (4)	529	1.76	.93
I've been taking action to try to make the situation better. (5)	527	2.65	.92
I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it. (8)	529	1.31	.67
I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive. (9)	530	2.53	.93
I've been criticizing myself. (10)	524	2.14	1.02
I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do. (11)	529	2.76	.98
I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping. (13)	527	2.59	1.02
I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened. (14)	524	2.69	.99
I've been learning to live with it. (17)	524	2.78	.93
I've been thinking hard about what steps to take. (18)	524	2.61	.99
I've been blaming myself for things that happened. (19)	526	1.78	.95
I've been making fun of the situation. (21)	523	2.09	1.02
Cognitive Behavioral Mean	530	2.32	.53
Emotional Support			
I've been getting emotional support from others. (3)	530	2.32	1.04
I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape. (6)	527	2.26	1.02
I've been getting help and advice from other people. (7)	528	2.31	.99
I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone. (12)	528	2.31	1.04
I've been expressing my negative feelings. (15)	528	2.33	.95
Emotional Support Mean	531	2.30	.77
Religion			
I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs. (16)	527	2.20	1.18
I've been praying or meditating. (20)	527	2.18	1.16
Religion Mean	529	2.19	1.12

Social Support Scale (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau, 1980) **Questions (Scale 1-5)**	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Supervisor Support			
How much does your immediate supervisor go out of his/her way to do things to make your work life easier for you? (1)	523	3.35	1.12
How easy is it to talk with your immediate supervisor? (2)	523	3.99	1.08
How much can your immediate supervisor be relied on when things get tough at work? (3)	521	3.71	1.12
How much is your immediate supervisor willing to listen to your personal problems? (4)	521	3.80	1.10
Supervisor Support Mean	524	3.71	.97
Others at Work			
How much do other people at work go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you? (5)	523	3.37	1.02
How easy is it to talk with other people at work? (6)	522	3.97	.92
How much can other people at work be relied on when things get tough at work? (7)	523	3.76	.98
How much are other people at work willing to listen to your personal problems? (8)	522	3.74	1.04
Others at Work Mean	523	3.71	.84
Partner/Friends/Relatives			
How much do your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you? (9)	522	3.70	1.14
How easy is it to talk with your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives? (10)	523	4.15	1.01
How much can your spouse/partner, friends, and relatives be relied on when things get tough at work? (11)	521	4.06	1.05
How much are you spouse/partner, friends, and relatives willing to listen to your personal problems? (12)	521	4.34	.91
Partner/Friends/Relatives Mean	524	4.06	.90

Job Opinion Scale (Slate, Wells, Johnson, 2003) **Questions (Scale 1-5)**	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
I am proud of what I am doing for a living. (1)	512	4.43	.85
Probation work with this agency is meaningful. (2)	512	4.05	1.06
If I had it to do over again, I would choose this occupation. (3)	513	3.57	1.34
I would recommend this job to others. (4)	511	3.45	1.31
I believe I will remain with this agency until I retire. (5)	511	4.32	1.01
*I seriously think about quitting this job. (1)	498	3.70	1.21
Job Satisfaction Mean	513	3.92	.88

*Indicates reverse-coded

Organizational Commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997) Questions (Scale 1-7)	***N***	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Affective Commitment			
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization. (1)	505	5.27	1.79
*I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (3)	506	4.39	2.04
*I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (4)	506	4.39	2.03
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. (5)	504	4.60	1.83
*I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (6)	505	4.35	2.00
Affective Commitment Mean	506	4.59	1.63
Continuance Commitment			
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (9)	504	5.19	1.91
I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving the organization. (10)	504	4.80	2.02
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (11)	504	5.17	1.83
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. (12)	505	5.40	1.86
Continuance Commitment Mean	505	5.14	1.61
Normative Commitment			
*I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (13)	501	4.59	2.01
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. (14)	504	3.56	1.90
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. (15)	503	3.35	1.96
This organization deserved my loyalty. (16)	504	4.06	2.00
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. (17)	501	3.81	1.94
I owe a great deal to my organization. (18)	501	4.21	1.97
Normative Commitment Mean	504	3.93	1.56

*Indicates reverse-coded