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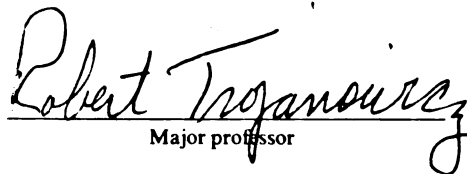
THE TROUBLED WORLD OF THE PEACE OFFICER

presented by

Howard William Troost

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Doctor of Philosophy degree in Criminal Justice


Major professor

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THE TROUBLED WORLD OF THE PEACE OFFICER

By

Howard William Troost

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

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Department of Criminal Justice

1989

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ABSTRACT

THE TROUBLED WORLD OF THE PEACE OFFICER

By

Howard William Troost

The Problem

There is an on going debate amongst law enforcement practitioners regarding alleged maladies and afflictions rates of Peace Officers. Some studies show that officers have no higher problem rates than people of the general population. Conversely, many point to other evidence and insist officers are disproportionately afflicted. This study attempted to determine which is most accurate.

Method

An intra-profession examination of issues was conducted using a sample of 413 officers from seventeen law enforcement agencies in Michigan, including State Police, county sheriffs, and municipal/local police. The agencies were surveyed with a questionnaire that contained, in addition to questions directed at the officers' background information and their perceptions of their status regarding, a "Job Stress Scale." The scale made possible the division of participants into "Low-stress" and "High-stress" sub-groups of officers.

The primary interest in this study was veteran officers (those with 63 or more months in an assignment) in high-stress positions (those who scored 68 or higher on the

Job Stress Scale). Three areas of controversy - drinking, health, and family/marital problems - were examined, as were possible mitigating effects of such intervening variables as attending school, being active in sports, and having a second job.

Findings

The results of the data analysis contained mixed findings. Data which supported the hypotheses of high problem rates for officers in high-stress assignments included: drinking levels and indications of drinking problems of officers in high-stress assignments were higher than their low-stress colleagues; average health level changes for veteran officers in high-stress assignments showed greater deterioration than did "rookie" officers in similar assignments; low-stress officers reported higher average family happiness than did high-stress officers.

Data contradicting the hypotheses included: high-stress officers reported fewer health problems than did low-stress officers; high-stress officers reported higher average increases in their marriage happiness levels than did low-stress officers.

Finally, a large percentage of findings were in the predicted direction or supportive of the hypotheses, but were not considered statistically significant.

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Dedication

This document is dedicated to those who paid for it - Rusty, Danny, Nancy, and especially Susan. I merely provided the time, effort, and finances.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As those who have reached this goal before me have done, so do I express my sincere appreciation to those who have helped, guided, cajoled, threatened, taught, and befriended me in this project - my committee of Dr.s Philip Marcus (may he rest in peace), Norbert Kerr, Kenneth Christian, Peter Manning, and especially the Chairman, Vincent Hoffman. A bit of each of these gentlemen is reflected in the following dissertation. Nine years of effort and traveling 10,000 miles a year (just ask the IRS) were made less stressful by the security of knowing these professionals there when needed.

My appreciation is also expressed to the heads of the participating law enforcement agencies whose cooperation was invaluable to this study.

Finally, to those unidentified hundreds who placed trust in a fellow officer and took the time to fill out then return a lengthy, sometimes probing and impertinent questionnaire, without which there would be no dissertation, I thank you. Had I been asked to fill out the questionnaire used in this study I probably would have discarded it as something that asked too many questions about my personal life. As an officer interviewed in one

of the review articles commented, "Any study involving the relationship between the necessarily authoritarian police officer and the not so necessarily subordinate wife invades areas avoided not only by angels but by social scientists as well !"1 While the 37.1% response rate was not as high as in the pilot study rate (two Class IV agencies with 40 members returned 27 replies, or 68%), it was still gratifying to have hundreds respond when one considers that a total stranger was asking State Police Troopers, Deputy Sheriffs, and municipal Police Officers to answer questions about their sex lives, family lives, and their drinking habits. It is a compliment to the professionalism of those 415 Peace Officers who responded in spite of the sensitive nature of many of the questions. Being in the same profession as the study participants, I assume that I am similar to them. We are by nature, by training, and by experience, generally suspicious cops that are leery of supervisors giving us a document asking such questions as do we hit our wives or are we closet drunks. In the wrong hands the answers to questions such as these could earn us interviews with our respective departments' Internal Affairs Section ! Their participation, in spite of being asked to answer such sensitive questions, reinforced my belief in the existence of serious problems in our profession, and my belief that others in my profession

1 Pat James, "The Police Family - A Wife's Eye View," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin 44/11 (November 1975):12.

consider the issues real enough and serious enough to respond to.

Finally, my own hypothesis suggests that I should be divorced, drunk, and have one foot in the grave. None of these things are true. I have, of course, asked myself why I defy my own suspicions. I can see, retrospectively, there was a time when I could have slipped into my own forecast of maladies and afflictions. It was by chance, not conscious thought, that I escaped the primrose path of police work when I returned to graduate school, mostly to prove to myself and anyone else who was interested that I was not just a _____ (fill in the blank). There are of course MANY intervening variables that blunt the negative effects of police work. Personally, I thank my good fortune for having a strong family and marriage and supportive non-police friends all of which blunt the negative effects of police work. I know many other officers who, although they have high-stress jobs, have also escaped the many maladies and afflictions attributed to police work, and did not have going to school as a crutch. I selected three variables that I felt were influential and were easily measurable (by simply answering yes or no) in a written questionnaire survey such as the one conducted for this study. The three I elected to investigate were, (1) current schooling, (2) working a second job, and (3) being active in sports. The results of these influences will be discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS, ABBREVIATIONS, OR NOMENCLATURE

- DLC - Drinking Level Change
- DPI - Drinking Problem Indicator
- FS - Family Score
- HC - Marital Happiness Level Change
- HLC - Health Level Change
- HPI - Health Problem Indicator
- JSS - Job Stress Score
- P.O. - Peace Officer
- Rookie - Officers with 1 to 62 months in assignment
- SS - Statistically significant
- Veteran - Officers with 63 to 300 months in assignment

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

PREFACE:

Before a discussion of the problem, an explanation of what is meant by the term "Peace Officer" as it is used in this study is needed. As used here, Peace Officer is not meant to conjure up images of the stereotypical wild west gun-slinging mercenary in the mold of Wyatt Earp. In the following pages, Peace Officer is meant to include members of the Michigan State Police, Michigan County Sheriffs and Deputies, and local Michigan law enforcement agencies such as municipal, local, and campus police.

I elected to use this term because once, when pressed for an answer to succinctly state what my job was¹, after careful deliberation I gave an answer that I thought best summarized all the facets of an officer's job - keeping the peace. Whether apprehending criminals, deterring crime, writing tickets, directing traffic, intervening in domestic disputes, or getting cats out of trees, the end result of an officer's efforts is keeping a community peaceful. Keeping the peace can also be generally considered as the mission of other officers such as those in County Sheriff

¹ In the fall of 1980, I was a large city police officer and a graduate student at Michigan State University in a Criminal Justice course titled "Seminar in Criminal Justice and Criminology". The question was posed in class by a fellow student who could best be described as a antagonist to police in general.

departments and State Police.

Bittner commented on an irony of this police mission when he wrote, "...one cannot understand how the police 'found themselves' in this unenviable position without taking into consideration that one of the cultural trends of roughly the past century-and-a-half was the sustained aspiration to install peace as a stable condition of everyday life."² In other words, as society moves more and more in the direction of less tolerance of violence, the police represent the last bastion, other than the armed forces, of the legal use of force. The ironic aspect of this circumstance is that the police, in order to maintain peace, must use the threat of violence and, when situational contingencies require it, the actual use of violence in meeting their mission.

For the purposes of this study, the term "Peace Officer" seems appropriate when referring to the various law enforcement officer types.

² Egon Bittner, The Functions of the Police in Modern Society (Rockville, MD: National Institute of Mental Health, 1972), 45.

I. INTRODUCTION:

There are claims and counter-claims that police are highly stressed. These claims are made on a variety of different kinds of evidence, some of which is conflicting. This dissertation is a study of stress in Peace Officers. Its intent is to empirically examine different levels of stress, and the resultant consequences on the officers' lives in an autonomic-like response to being impacted by the stressful features of the occupation.

The problems faced by officers that are reviewed in this and the next chapters draw on literature by scholars (criminal justice, medical, sociologists, psychologists, etc.) as well as my own experiences spanning 19 years as a member of a large urban police department. Where appropriate, I introduce my own observations, in particular when it is the source of an inference or a connective argument that I make. I recognize that the "war-story/anecdotal approach" is cliché, but what I am attempting to do is make the logic of my argument clear. Hopefully, it can be evaluated such that the examples, anecdotes, and materials from my own experience can be seen in that framework.

Whether certain problems I address are deviant, abnormal, or a typical is not an issue of this study. Rather, I am saying that observing these problems over the years from an officer's viewpoint has sensitized me to

them. The problems focused on are the complex personal cost that seem to be associated with the occupation.

II. THE PROBLEM:

Many law enforcement practitioners today believe that Peace Officers (P.O.s), when they are considered as an occupational group, have some of the nation's highest rates of certain maladies and afflictions. Officers are perceived as having serious problems with high divorce, alcoholism and suicide rates, neuroticism, occupational burnout, and cynicism. These same practitioners further believe that some of these problems result in such physical ailments as ulcers, digestive disorders, high blood pressure, chronic headaches, heart disease, nervous breakdowns, strokes, and others, sometimes culminating in premature death.³

An argument for the presence of unacceptable levels of maladies and afflictions in Peace Officers is that they are promoted over a period of time by an accumulation of a phenomenon commonly referred to as "stress." (A detailed discussion and model of this term comes later in this chapter.)

³ See Appendix 2 for a comprehensive listing of afflictions and maladies, and the authors who mentioned these as being problems for Peace Officers. Sources that are research studies are in bold print and CAPITALIZED.

Not only do those in the profession suspect problems, the media has also supported the notion. Prime time national television news presented a special on this topic which included the observation that, "Cops have one of the highest rates of suicide in this country, and of alcoholism, and divorce"⁴.

A. OCCUPATIONAL SUSCEPTIBILITY:

This study is not attempting to establish a case for job-specific hazards, such as the black-lung disease being specific to coal miners. To link a certain problem, such as alcoholism, to a particular profession is not an idea that applies only to Peace Officers. Many different professions can lay claim to the dubious distinction of fostering maladies and afflictions, such as alcoholism, in their membership. For example, Danielle Hitz conducted a study which explored the question of drinking problems in specific occupations. Her report listed the most fatal occupations, ranked according to high mortality ratios from cirrhosis of the liver, as, (1) waiters, (2) bartenders, (3) counter workers, (4) longshoremen, and (5) stevedores. Peace Officers did not even make it to the "top five" of her list. In the study, Hitz listed policemen behind bartenders and bar owners, seamen, cooks and restaurant

⁴ NBC Nightly News - Special Segment, 6:30 PM telecast, Tuesday, February 23, 1987, subject - "Police Suicides," Jack Reynolds.

workers only in the "high intake" category 5.

B. ASPECTS OF THE UNUSUAL WORLD OF THE PEACE OFFICER:

A case can be made by those who claim Peace Officers are unusually high in maladies and afflictions, that a significant contributor to the onset of the alleged problems is the unusual nature of the occupation. It is often argued that rather than "unusual", the term "unique" better describes a Peace Officers' job environment. However, the use of the word "unique" is a flag to critical readers to immediately ask, "How so ?" Some say that "unique" infers there is nothing like it, one of a kind, or singular. As this term applies to the police profession, it is the perception of the combination of the various job features or stresses faced by Peace Officers that gives it its uniqueness. These same features and stresses can be found singly or in different combinations in other occupations. Social workers and clergy also operate in slums; physicians and firemen also save lives. Are the problems that Peace Officers face really unique ? A study by Kroes, Margolis, and Hurrell addressed that question, noting:

It has been said that the stressors on policemen are not unique compared to working men in general. Many workers face deadlines, complex

5 Danielle Hitz, "Drunken Sailors and Others: Drinking Problems in Specific Occupations", Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol No. 34 (1973):496. (NOTE: She advises that "the results of this study must be taken as being suggestive findings only.")

and frustrating bureaucracies, equipment problems, lack of say, etc. Can we then, in truth, say that the police are in a uniquely high stress occupation? The answer is an unqualified yes.⁶

When applied to the combined mission, work, and home environments of a Peace Officer, the use of the word "unique" has much of support. What seems to many officers to be a "them versus us" situation may explain in part the unusual, or as the authors below state, unique nature of the job. As Bennett noted, "...attitudinal and value differences between police and citizens are due to the unique demands of the occupation"⁷. A New York psychiatrist characterized some unusual aspects of the job in the following manner:

The job of being a policeman is unique. It is one of the few occupations in which one is feared, sometimes hated, occasionally reviled or even assaulted in the ordinary performance of one's duties.⁸

Conversely, this same person with a badge and gun is revered and needed today by many who scorned him yesterday.

The following paragraphs attempt to explain the characteristics of the officers' world which are unusual

6 William Kroes, Bruce Margolis, and Joseph Hurrell, "Job Stress In Policemen," Journal of Police Science and Administration 2 (February 1974):154.

7 Richard R. Bennett, "Becoming Blue: A Longitudinal Study of Police Recruit Occupational Socialization," Journal of Police Science and Administration 12:1 (March 1984):47. Emphasis on the word "unique" was added.

8 Martin Symonds, "Emotional Hazards of Police Work," American Journal of Psychoanalysis 30 (February 1970):155. Emphasis on the word "unique" was added.

and which many would argue are "unique". These areas include (but are not limited to) its stress, its work environment (or "the street"), its organization, its mission, and its personnel pool. First, and possibly most important, will be a discussion of the officers' "stress".

1. THE STRESS:

It is not my intention to pin down the notion of stress or stressors, but rather to determine if there is a connection between the symptoms and the stressors. I wish to emphasize that the utility of the term is that it is a kind of gloss for a set of kinds of problems. Stress is a concept which makes sense here, but I am not trying to define it. The aim is to simply look at the clustering of symptoms and see how they fall out in the population as they relate to specific stressors.

The importance of the stress concept cannot be over stated. The "father of the stress concept", Dr. Hans Selye, defined stress as, "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand", but admitted, "...you cannot study stress: you can merely explore real and tangible things such as (its) effects..."⁹.

When investigating the term stress, the word "imbalance" constantly appears. Some examples: Stress "...results from an imbalance between the demands of the

⁹ Richard Lawrence, "Police Stress and Personality Factors: A Conceptual Model," Journal of Criminal Justice 12 (March 1984):248.

environment and the individual's ability to adapt to these demands"10. When applied to police work, Violanti wrote that police stress, "...is a perceived imbalance between occupational demand and the police officer's capability to effectively respond, under conditions where failure always has important consequences"11.

Silbert wrote, "Police work can be viewed as combining two elements, both of which research has indicated cause the most significant stress to workers: (1) work with people and (2) work within a bureaucratic organization"12.

Hill dramatically described the situation when he wrote, "As a psychologist who has specialized in the treatment of police officers and their family members, I have seen in this select group of persons a tendency toward self-destruction due to the stress which is inherent in such a high risk occupation"13. Two criminal justice researchers noted, "The effects of long-term stress are serious physical, emotional and behavioral problems and -- ultimately--premature death"14. The fatalistic implication

10 I. Gayle Shuman, "Stress: An Overview," Criminal Justice Career Digest 2 (November 1982):14.

11 John M. Violanti, "Police Stress: A Conceptual Definition," Police Stress (February 1982):27.

12 Mimi H. Silbert, "Job Stress and Burnout of New Police Officers," The Police Chief (June 1982):46.

13 Wayne Hill, "Stress, Police Officers, and Survival," Police Stress (Spring 1981):35.

14 F. Barry Schreiber and Jack Seitzinger, "The Stress Pressure Cooker: A Comprehensive Model of Stress Management," The Police Chief (February 1985):46.

of the authors' observations is not simply for dramatic effect, rather it may be seen as a warning.

a. Stressors:

A general definition of "stressors" has been provided by Symonds who defined them as, "...anything which produces an autonomic nervous system response in an individual"¹⁵. He grouped those that effect policemen into two categories: 1) Stress which is due to the nature of police work, and 2) Stress which is a result of the nature of the police organization¹⁶. Perhaps the most infamous stressor facing Peace Officers is the potential for harm. As Trojanowicz noted, "Though occupations such as mining, lumbering and agriculture rate higher in annual rates of death and injury - with policing at most a distant fourth - the threat in police work is uniquely chilling and deserves closer examination"¹⁷.

Many stressors have been identified that, when the stressor is considered by itself, is readily found in other professions, and thus is not "unique". However, when considered as part of a cluster of simultaneous stressors, the group of stressors facing Peace Officers in police work is arguably unique. Stratton grouped the stressors in the

15 Symonds, p. 59.

16 Ibid., p. 155.

17 Robert Trojanowicz, "Loss A Tragic Reminder of Police Risks," Michigan Police Chiefs Newsletter (May 1988):24.

following manner:

Stratton's Stressor Clusters

EXTERNAL STRESSORS:

Frustration with the criminal justice system, including the court's leniency, decisions which restrict methods of criminal suppression, and inconsiderate scheduling of court proceedings.
 Negative or distorted media presentations
 Unfavorable attitudes of some minority groups
 Negative attitudes of administrative bodies toward law enforcement funding
 Too few and/or lacking community resources

INTERNAL STRESSORS:

Poor training, supervision, equipment, and pay
 Inadequate career development opportunities
 Poor reward/reinforcement system
 Offensive intradepartmental policies
 Excessive paperwork
 Lack of appreciation from the department and community
 Political interference

STRESSORS FOUND IN POLICE WORK ITSELF:

Shift work
 Court time and holdover time
 Role conflict
 Fear and danger
 Fragmented nature of the job
 Constant exposure to others in distress
 Boredom vs a suddenly developing situation
 Responsibility for others' safety
 Work overloads
 Need to present "superman" image always

STRESSORS CONFRONTING INDIVIDUAL OFFICERS:

Worries about one's competency
 Being fear-ridden
 The necessity to conform
 Being a member of a minority
 Being a female in law enforcement
 Social status and attitudinal changes that develop just because of being an officer
 Necessity of taking a second job
 Continuing education for professional advancement 18

Terry presented almost an identical list using similar terminology.

Terry's Stressor Clusters

EXTERNAL STRESSORS:

- Frustration with the criminal justice system (i.e., courts)
 - Lenient court decisions
 - Scheduling of court appearances
- Unfavorable media presentations
- Unfavorable attitudes of some minority communities
- Restrictive attitudes and decisions of some administrative bodies affecting police work

INTERNAL STRESSORS:

- Poor training
- Poor equipment and pay
- Poor reward and reinforcement system
- Inadequate career development opportunities
- Offensive department policies
- Excessive paperwork
- Intradepartmental political favoritism

TASK RELATED STRESSORS:

- Role conflict
- Shift work
- Boredom
- Fear
- Danger
- Exposure to the miseries and brutalities of life
- Work overloads

INDIVIDUAL STRESSORS:

- Job competence
- Individual success
- Safety

STRESSORS ARISING FROM POLICE WORK:

- Health problems
- Alcoholism
- Marital problems, divorce
- Suicide 19

Here Terry contributes to the confusion over the concept of

19 W. Clinton Terry, "Police Stress: The Empirical Evidence, Journal of Police Science and Administration 9 (March 1981): 61, 62.

stress when he lists symptoms of stress (i.e., health problems, etc.) as stressors. One can only assume that Terry considers the symptoms as stressful in and of themselves. For example, if I were an alcoholic, that would be a stressful part of my existence.

Other authors have identified police work stressors that are common with stressors in other professions, and differentiated them from those which are found predominately in police work:

Shared vs Police Specific Stressors

<u>Shared With Other Occupations:</u>	<u>Police Specific:</u>
Administration	Courts
Job Conflict	Negative Public Image
Second Job	Racial Situation
Inactivity	Line of Duty/Crises Situations
Shift Work	
Inadequate Resources	
Organizational Territoriality	
Job Overload	
Responsibility for the People	
Inequities in Pay or Job Status	20
Violent death of a partner(LOD)	Taking a life(LOD)
Dismissal	Shooting someone
Accepting a bribe	Pursuit of an armed suspect
Observing colleague corruption	I.A./P.S.S. investigations
Shift work	21
Working long hours	
Constant fear and anticipation of danger and death	
Actual confrontations with injury and violence	

20 William Kroes and Sam Gould, "Job Stress in Policemen: An Empirical Study", Police Stress 1/2 (1979):10; and Friedrich Wenz, "Death Anxiety Among Law Enforcement Officers", Journal of Police Science and Administration 7 (June 1979):230.

21 James Sewell, "Police Stress," F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin (April 1981):9.

prejudice, suspicion, and hostility by the public 22
(Note: "LOD" refers to line of duty)

Finally, Reese listed what he described as "New" stressors which included:

- Turnover in executive policy-making posts
- Frequent rotation in advisory personnel
- Policies regarding deadly force
- Adoption of affirmative action programs
- Perceived or actual lowering of entrance requirements
- Perceived or actual lowering of the department's image.
- Fluctuation in promotional policies and qualifications.
- Increased legal liabilities and civil suits.
- Specializations such as SWAT and undercover.
- Police unions.
- Devaluing traditional police work.
- Failure to adopt psychological services programs for officers.
- Reduced manpower 23

b. Symptoms:

Symptoms seem to indicate stress, so that they are retrospectively indicative. Schreiber and Seitzer subdivided the symptoms of stress into three groups which they called common (1) physical, (2) emotional, and (3) behavioral symptoms. Included in the common physical symptoms were headaches, muscle tension (especially in the face, neck, or shoulders), nausea, skin rashes or itching, diarrhea, sexual problems, stomach ulcers, bowel problems, back problems, and high blood pressure. Common emotional symptoms included were chronic anger, irrational fears,

22 Hans Selye, "Stress of Police Work," Police Stress 1/1 (January 1978):7.

23 James Reese, "Life In the High-Speed Lane: Managing Police Burnout," The Police Chief (June 1982):50.

sleep disturbances and nightmares, feeling depressed, difficulty concentrating, forgetfulness, and chronic anxiety or worry. Common behavioral symptoms included withdrawing from people, making stupid mistakes, eating too much or too little, frequent or excessive drinking, compulsive gambling, sexual promiscuity, frequent accidents, self-defeating or self-destructive behaviors 24.

c. Adaptation 25:

Many of the previously mentioned maladies and afflictions are strongly related to the amount of stress inherent in a profession. For example, "Some of the physical reactions that are attributed to prolonged or severe stresses are: excessive weight, high blood pressure, impotence, frequent heartburn, disruptive sleeping habits, frequent headaches, constant fatigue, shortness of breath, ulcers, cardiovascular disease symptoms, diarrhea or constipation, excessive nervous energy"26.

Other authors refer to these and other stress related problems as "Diseases of Adaption/Adaptation", and list

24 Schreiber and Seitzinger, p. 45.

25 Review literature used both the terms "adaption" and "adaptation" synonymously. As defined in one dictionary (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1960), "adaptation" meant, in part, "3. in biology, a change in structure, function, or form that produces better of an animal or plant to its environment," and, "5. in sociology, a change in behavior to conform to cultural patterns." The same dictionary defined "adaption" as, "n. adaptation."

26 Shuman, p. 14.

coronary heart disease, ulcers, high blood pressure, digestive disturbances, increased alcohol consumption, depression, anxiety clusters, headaches, paranoid patterns, gastric disorders, rheumatic or allergic reactions, kidney disease, and emotional problems 27.

As the authors above inferred, sometimes stress has lead to a phenomenon whose name is occasionally used interchangeably with stress - situation or condition popularly known as "burnout". Definitions found in literature to describe this phenomenon include:

To fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources 28.

Refers to a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that frequently occurs among individuals who do 'people work' - who spend considerable time in close encounters with others under conditions of chronic tension and stress 29.

As applies specifically to Peace Officers, Daviss succinctly wrote, "Burnout is roughly defined as a loss of physical and mental energy, and loss of enthusiasm for work an officer once loved"30. This too can be referred to as a disease of adaptation.

27 Stratton, p. 59, refers to "diseases of adaption"; and Sewell, p. 7, refers to "diseases of adaptation".

28 Cary Cherniss, Staff Burnout (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, 1980) p. 16, quoted Reese, p. 49.

29 Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson, "Burned-Out Cops and Their Families," Psychology Today (May 1979): 59.

30 Ben Daviss, "Burn Out", Police Magazine (May 1982):10.

d. Coping Mechanisms:

Coping mechanisms intervene between the stress and the symptoms. A working definition of coping mechanisms is, "Individual modes of ritualizing, or stratigizing, or tactics to reduce stress"³¹. Coping mechanisms come in two basic forms - negative and positive.

(1) Negative Coping Mechanisms:

Examples of negative coping mechanisms are:

- (a) Development of a cynical attitude.
- (b) Becoming overly protective and restrictive of his wife and children.
- (c) Begin to harbor negative attitudes toward the public.
- (d) Suppressing more emotions.
- (e) Withdrawing from family and friends ³²
- (f) (Increased) physical fitness activities.
- (g) Denial.
- (h) Role distance ³³.

What is frequently found in the literature, and what I am exploring in this study, are the negative consequences when the coping mechanisms fail. When that happens, coping may be manifested in such responses as cynicism or other negativism, which tends to be reflected in a diminishing of

31 A quote from Dr. Peter Manning, Michigan State University, during an interview/conference with him on March 6, 1987.

32 Hilda F. Besner and Sandra Robinson, "Police Wives - The Untapped Resource," The Police Chief (August 1984): 62.

33 Mary Hageman, "Occupational Stress and Marital Relationships," Journal of Police Science and Administration 6 (December 1978):410, 411.

the effectiveness of an officer.³⁴

(2) Positive Coping Mechanisms:

This is a topic which is relatively unexplored. Thus far the discussion of the officers' situation would indicate that the end result of the alleged stressors and problems are all negative: poor health, poor family life, and excessive drinking in addition to all the problems not focused on in this study. What most of the studies typically address are those negative consequences of stress which are manifested in symptoms (e.g., alcoholism).

An example of a positive coping mechanism is a rededication by the officer to a worthwhile cause or activity (such as attending school or increased interest in and participation with the officer's children) as an escape from job stress.

e. Resources to Combat the Deleterious Effects of Stress:

A related and equally ignored sub-topic of the stress concept is that of the "resources" that a person has to

³⁴ My own "Job Stress Score" (which will be explained in detail in Chapter 3) was 83 out of a possible 100. If the hypothesis is correct, such a score is indicative of an officer who should suffer numerous maladies. Fortunately, there were several intervening variables which I feel permitted me to avoid the destructive coping alternatives, and allowed me to deal with stress in a different way that is non-symptomatic. One example is my return to school, which put me into a different environment, and gave me a constant and regular relief from the stresses of my profession. Whether such an intervening variable has any effect on the maladies and afflictions rates will be explored in Chapter 4.

offset the stress of this profession. By this term I mean, for example, a close family unit, or strong religious background, or activities in an organization outside the work environment. It logically seems possible that certain resources might diminish stress. However, research on this topic is hard to find, possibly for the same reasons that crime prevention data is difficult to validate. Just as you cannot definitely measure how many crimes were not committed, how can a researcher measure stress that did not occur ? It is one of the conceptual problems when attempting to investigate this topic.

f. Summary of Stress:

Stress is a concept over which there is a great deal of debate. People take a set of symptoms (e.g., alcoholism) and argue that given those symptoms there must be stress present. They, in effect, argue backwards. A major dilemma is how can you define stress in the absence of symptom patterns ? The answer is, "You can't!" A response could be that once you find the symptoms you can infer the presence of stress. There are arguments for both views. Stress can be considered a circular concept.³⁵ Whereas this study will look at the concept from the point of view that stress is a significant contributor to maladies and afflictions, others could justifiably argue

³⁵ Interview with Dr. Peter Manning, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 6 March 1987.

that the maladies and afflictions are stressful in and of themselves.

All professions experience stress. What is it then that produces unacceptable levels of maladies and afflictions in Peace Officer ? Or, as one author asked:

...what are the factors which assist stress in operating so well within the police profession ? Many believe it is a combination of occupational and personal issues that produce a system in which stress runs rampant. 36

Following are some answers to the question of which unusual factors present in police work foster stress and its consequent maladies and afflictions.

2. THE STREET:

The officers' work place is commonly known in police jargon as "the street". It is a place where officers encounter many contradictions. To the "street cop" this place includes (but is not limited to) the residential neighborhoods, the business districts, schools, industrial complexes, parks, and major thoroughfares. Of equal importance the street can also include the alleys, slum dwellings, abandoned homes and buildings, drug houses, hospital emergency rooms, and even the morgue. This work environment is further confused by the contradictions an officer observes within the community status extremes while working the street: e.g., the intelligence, kindness and

36 Lloyd Bratz, "Combating Police Stress," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin (January 1986):2.

understanding a volunteer detoxification center worker shows a filthy skid-row bum, contrasted with a senseless multiple homicide/suicide of an sterilized upper-class family in an exclusive neighborhood. These extremes seem to belie their respective lowly or lofty social positions.

The street is not a static place, either, as one author wrote, "...in no other line of work in the world, is one's task subject to change on shorter notice or a more frequent basis than that of the cop on the street"³⁷.

The street also imposes severe demands on an officer's physical well-being. Another author wrote of the street, "The physical demands made upon police officers are unique by nature, requiring a wide variety of physical abilities, such as split-second reaction time, dynamic and static strength, agility, and the need for explosive energy reserves following prolonged periods of sedentary activity"³⁸. A fitness authority noted that an officer may go for days with physical activity no more demanding than climbing out of the patrol car. However, on another day an officer may suddenly have to subdue a violent suspect, or become involved in a long foot chase. "The sudden heavy physical exertion is extremely demanding on the officer's

³⁷ William D. Haynes, Stress and Related Disorders in Policemen, (San Francisco: R&E Research Associates, 1978), p. 15.

³⁸ James Hillgren and Rebekah Bond, "Stress In Law Enforcement: Psycho-Physiological Correlates and Legal Implications," Journal of Forensic Psychology (1975):26.

heart and respiratory system"³⁹.

Few, if any other, professionals routinely come into contact with a street or work environment as diversified, contradictory, and suspicious as that of the Peace Officer. This term, "the street", will appear frequently in the following pages.

3. THE ORGANIZATION:

Bennett summarized Skolnick (1966), Niederhoffer (1967), Chevigny (1969), and others as saying, "...the organization's demands and the nature of the occupation lead to the uniqueness that has been observed by researchers"⁴⁰.

What is not unique about police organizations is their classic Weberian organizational structure. As with the more traditional civilian organizations, police departments are characterized by:

- (1) formal structures are defined by a centralized hierarchy of authority;
- (2) labor is divided into functional specialties;
- (3) activities are conducted according to standardized operating procedures;
- (4) career routes are well established and have a common entry point; promotions are based on impersonal evaluations by superiors;
- (5) management proceeds through a monocratic system of routinized superior-subordinate relationships;
- (6) status among employees is directly related to

³⁹ Earl Gilbert, "Physical Fitness for Law Enforcement," Law and Order 32 (August 1984):43.

⁴⁰ Bennett, "Becoming Blue: A Longitudinal Study of Police Recruit Occupational Socialization", 47.

their positions (jobs) and ranks.⁴¹

As Angell so aptly summarized, "These characteristics result in a firmly established, impersonal system in which most of the employees and clients are powerless to initiate changes or arrest the system's motions."⁴²

An unusual aspect of the police organization is its para-military status. "Most police departments have structured themselves after the military under the assumption that in order to cope with the problems of controlling crime and maintaining order, a closely coordinated and disciplined body of personnel with clear-cut lines of authority is necessary."⁴³ This includes such characteristics as the uniforms, carrying weapons, saluting, being on duty 24 hours, etc.. For example, unlike a postal carrier's or fire fighter's uniform, a police uniform evokes the extremes of emotion in their clients: from fear and hate to a sense of security and love. Depue referred to the uniform when he wrote, "The uniform sets the officer apart from other members of society, and the nature of the work is unlike that of any

41 John E. Angell, "Toward An Alternative to the Classic Police Organizational Arrangements: A Democratic Model," Criminology 9 (August-November 1971): 186-187.

42 Ibid., p. 187.

43 John H. McNamara, "Uncertainties in Police Work: The Relevance of Police Recruits' Background and Training," The Police: Six Sociological Essays (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967): 178.

other occupation."⁴⁴

Formal police organizations contribute to the contradictions and frustrations their officers must work through. A University of Tennessee research scientist wrote about law enforcement organizations in general:

The member of the organization is exposed to a conflicting set of expectations. On the one hand, outside the organization, he is constantly making on-the-spot decisions, carries deadly weapons and is capable of live (sic) and death. On the other hand, within the organization he experiences himself as being treated like a child who is not even permitted to decide on his own which uniform to wear when the weather changes.⁴⁵

Echoing this observation, the president of Los Angeles' Police Protective League swore to eliminate the power of the Chief of Police "to force the men to wear long sleeved shirts 'when goddamit, it is hot outside'"⁴⁶.

This is not to imply that the wearing of a uniform by officers is capricious and arbitrary. The uniform is a symbolic element of the job which reflects the unquestioned need for collective, coordinated, and disciplined action on the part of the individual officers. However, what is frustrating to officers is that apparently an officer's judgement is trusted in serious matters such as the use of

⁴⁴ Roger Depue, "The Police Family," F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin (August 1981):5.

⁴⁵ Andrew Crosby, "The Psychological Examination in Police Selection," Journal of Police Science and Administration 7 (June 1978):217.

⁴⁶ Sam S. Souryal, "The Kojack Syndrome," The Police Chief 48 (June 1981):60.

force, but not in such mundane matters as proper uniform. What officers seem to be asking is that their judgement be uniformly trusted in the serious as well as the mundane. My own law enforcement agency employer also dictates what an officer wears while on duty, and the major consideration is not the officers' comfort.

When officers are not being treated metaphorically like children (not to be confused with "as" children) by a law enforcement agency as depicted in the preceding paragraphs, their integrity may be questioned in subtle ways. In one major metropolitan police department, if a suspect or a prisoner should make a confession to a crime while in police custody, its' members are required to immediately take the suspect or prisoner to a hospital for a physical examination:

When a person has confessed to the commission of a serious crime, the officer in charge shall immediately call ...Receiving Hospital and make arrangements to have the person examined by a physician to determine whether there is any evidence of physical violence having been used to obtain the confession.⁴⁷

This police agency's administration apparently feels it necessary to later prove (possibly in court) that the confession was not beaten out of the suspect by its officers. The agency's intent may be just, but the effect on the officers' morale can be devastating. Instead of a feeling of satisfaction and pride in solving a crime and a

⁴⁷ Detroit Police Department Manual, "General Procedures", Volume III, Chapter 5, Section 2.9, May 21, 1981.

job well done, an officer, in effect, may feel accused of a crime (assault) simply because a suspect confessed, and as a result the officer's innocence must then be established. An officer in this circumstance is not afforded one of the most basic rights extended in the jurisprudence system to even the most brutal criminal - that of the presumption of innocence. Haynes made a similar observation when he wrote, "It is also a fact of life for a police officer that, when an accusation or intimation of wrongdoing arises for that officer, he is guilty until proved innocent"⁴⁸.

It is surprising that law enforcement organizations are apparently so unfeeling to the officers, and not more condescending if for no other reason than the agencies' dependence on the front line worker. As two criminal justice educators pointed out:

The police bureaucracy differs from most other bureaucracies in that day-to-day activities are initiated by the lower level worker; efficient police functioning is not only highly dependent upon the gathering of information from outside sources, but also upon sharing and integration of information among workers. Most information crucial to the organization's operation is fed into the system by those at or near the bottom of the formal hierarchy.⁴⁹

The notion of the formal law enforcement organization can be expanded to include elements of the system - the criminal justice system - such as the Prosecutor's Office.

⁴⁸ Haynes, p. 19.

⁴⁹ Ellen Hochstedler and Christine M. Dunning, "Communication and Motivation in a Police Department," Criminal Justice and Behavior 10/1 (March 1983):48.

Officer J.B. of a large urban police department was interviewed by this writer and provided the following example of an officer's frustration (and anger) with an element of the system over which he has no control:

During an investigation of a domestic violence, Officer J.B. was "sucker-punched" (no warning) by a man involved in the dispute. A five minute wrestling match followed until the officer and his partner finally subdued the man. He was arrested and conveyed to the local police precinct charged with "Assault and Battery - Police Officer". The precinct detectives subsequently sought a criminal warrant against the man for the assault. The next day, when Officer J.B. went to the Prosecutor's Office to sign the warrant as the complainant, he discovered to his chagrin that an assistant prosecutor had denied the warrant, in effect setting the man free. When pressed for a reason for his decision, the assistant prosecutor advised J.B. that a police officer getting hit in the line of duty was simply part of the job - such things came with the turf. In effect, the citizen gets one free punch! 50

4. THE MISSION:

An unusual mission is imposed on an officer by the organization of which he or she is a member. The emphasis or focus of an organization's mission is in response to the community's mandate or perceived needs as they apply to a law enforcement/peace keeping need. A foremost mandate by the community is the 24 hour requirement for Peace Officer

50 Officer J.B. is a real person, the incident described actually happened, and both can be verified by official police records maintained by the officer's department. Actual names are not used here and in following interviews to protect the anonymity of those interviewed (many of whom are friends and acquaintances of the author).

service, which is another problem to the officer. Kroes commented on this, writing, "...daytime sleep in the controlled laboratory has been found to be qualitatively different from nighttime sleep and less satisfying"⁵¹.

If an officer's mission or role had to be summed up in one word, "service" would not meet with too much argument. Regoli and Poole declared, "...the manifest purpose of the police organization is to serve a societal function..."⁵². Ready noted:

The man with a gun and a badge is neither a god nor a devil. He is a man with a special trust imposed upon him to protect and serve others (emphasis added).⁵³

Again, enter the contradictions: few other professions fulfill their missions by saving lives and also taking lives (the latter, of course, only in well defined and extreme circumstances) ? Few other professions serve by protecting the freedom of the citizen(s), and also taking away a citizen's freedom (with probable cause to arrest) ?

The contradictions in a Peace Officer's job seems to extend to the length of the officer's career itself. Whereas one study found that the most satisfied occupations are university professors, family physicians, white collar

51 William H. Kroes, Society's Victim, The Policeman: An Analysis of Job Stress In Policing, (Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1976), 32.

52 Robert M. Regoli and Eric D. Poole, "Measurement of Police Cynicism: A Factor Scaling Approach," Journal of Criminal Justice 7 (January 1979):43.

53 Timothy Ready, "So Your Husband Is A Police Officer," Police Chief (February 1979):40.

supervisors, police (emphasis added), air traffic controllers at small sites 54, the same study discovered that the occupations with the shortest service are assemblers on machine paced lines,...and administrators, police (emphasis added), accountants, and computer programmers 55.

The contradictions of the Peace Officers' mission are reinforced by the people he/she serves. Reiser addressed this situation, writing:

The police are accused of being conservative and of not being agents of social change. At the same time, we admonish the police to uphold the letter of the law as it is written and to apply it equally to all people. The fact that the written law is usually about 25 years behind social behavior creates a disparity for which the police tend to be blamed. Police are basically governed by statute and yet have to deal with the variations in practice. So we create the dilemma of placing the police in the role of keeping the status quo as it is written in law and then expecting the police to exercise discretion in circumventing those statutes considered archaic or unenforceable. Thus, the police role is by mandate a conservative law-upholding, maintaining an outdated status quo function. This places the policeman in the untenable middle between the forces pushing for social change and those who want to severely punish anyone who "steps out of line".⁵⁶

What other professional gets called upon at three o'clock in the morning to save, in minutes, what took a battling

54 Robert Caplan et al, Job Demands and Worker Health: Main Effects and Occupational Differences, (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, 1980), 134.

55 Ibid., p. 115.

56 Martin Reiser, Police Psychology, (Los Angeles: LEHI Publishing Company, 1982), 10.

husband and wife years to destroy - namely, their relationship and home ? Or, as a psychologist commenting about stresses on policemen wrote, "With minimal supervision and little opportunity for research or reflection, he is required to make extremely critical decisions, to intervene and resolve a variegated spectrum of human crises"⁵⁷. As one criminal justice educator wrote:

All too often, the officer is asked to do the impossible and solve problems when all other agents of social control have failed. Police officers cannot be expected to solve single-handedly the misery of poverty, the trauma of domestic discord, the scourge of drugs, the frustration of unemployment, the chaos of mental illness. Yet we send them - and they go willingly and bravely - into situations fraught with the unknown, out last recourse of control when all other tactics have failed.⁵⁸

When an officer attempts to take action in a situation for which there are no guidelines or rules, only the officer's common sense and experience, the citizen's "thanks" is often scorn for what appears to be a bumbling and clumsy effort. Or, as Bittner wrote, "...the fact that policemen are required to deal with matters involving subtle human conflicts and profound legal and moral questions, without being allowed to give the subtleties and profundities anywhere near the consideration they deserve, invests their

⁵⁷ Martin Reiser, "Some Organization Stresses on Policemen," Journal of Police Science and Administration 2 (February 1974):156.

⁵⁸ Trojanowicz, "Loss A Tragic Reminder," p. 24.

activities with the character of crudeness."⁵⁹ A response by officers to the spontaneous mission imposed on them by the public can be seen in a bumper sticker which was popular among many officers in the early 1970's which read, "If you don't like cops, next time you need help call a hippie !"

5. THE PERSONNEL POOL:

Like many of the more traditional civilian occupations, the law enforcement profession is staffed with a cross section of ordinary citizens of average abilities.

Contrary to the stereotype of the policeman being unintelligent, sadistic, antisocial and latently psychopathic, I found that policemen are actually people...Being human, men in police work have feelings about their wives and children, about satisfaction on the job, about being liked or disliked by the people they are working with, and also about the future of the society in which they live.⁶⁰

A similar discovery was made by a Florida State University professor who actually joined his local police force to better study what he taught. He reported, "I went through a humbling discovery that I, like the men in blue with whom I worked, was simply a human being with definite limits to the amount of stress I could endure in a given period of time"⁶¹. However, in police work these same

⁵⁹ Bittner, p. 9.

⁶⁰ Reiser, Police Psychology, 8.

⁶¹ George L. Kirkham, "A Professor's Street Lessons," FBI Law Enforcement Journal 43 (March 1974):21.

ordinary people are placed into an extraordinary combination of work environment and organization mission.

The phenomenon of excessive maladies and afflictions striking Peace Officers is especially surprising when one considers the personnel pool from which the officers are selected. A strong argument can be made for the claim that the rookie (new) officer is initially an above-average person, specially selected and trained, and well suited for the professional challenges ahead. One author noted, "Among the initial criteria in the selection of police recruits is that they are generally a sturdier and healthier type individual than the average civilian of any given comparable age group"⁶². Another criminal justice researcher wrote, "Studies have shown that police officers are more emotionally stable and intelligent than the norm in society"⁶³. Another wrote, "...the rigorous evaluation given the officers at the time of selection undoubtedly is related to the stability of the men appointed," and, "...numerous research studies...conclude that police populations that are psychologically screened or tested are above average intellectually and in emotional stability"⁶⁴. In a study of police personality Hanewicz commented, "...psychiatrist Jesse Rubin describes the kind of people

62 Bob Healey, "The Aerobic Cop," Police Chief 48 (November 1981):67.

63 John Stratton, "The Police Professional: Another Perspective," Law and Order 26 (September 1978):16.

64 Reiser, Police Psychology, p. 171.

who enter police work as 'generally psychologically healthy and competent young men...' "65. Stratton states, "Research on law enforcement personnel consistently indicates that they are better adjusted intellectually and emotionally than the general population"66.

The preceding position, of course, is highly contingent on what definition of "above average" is being used. The following example should clarify what is meant by the statement that Peace Officers are considered "above average" citizens.

When I applied to become a Peace Officer, the Detroit Police Department sought suitable personnel by applying a strict and comprehensive recruitment procedure. Before an applicant entered the Criminal Justice Institute (the police academy), he or she had to successfully pass a written examination, as well as a physical examination and agility test, and a psychological test and interview. They then underwent a thorough background investigation, and if needed took a polygraph examination. They were also required to participate in an in-home interview to assess family attitudes, and then they received an oral board examination in front of department supervisors.

65 Jesse G. Rubin, "Police Identity and the Police Role," Police Community: Dimensions of an Occupational Subculture (Pacific Palisades, California: Palisades Publishers, 1974), p.124, quoted in Wayne B. Hanewicz, "Police Personality: Jungian Perspective," Crime and Delinquency (April 1978):154.

66 John G. Stratton, "Pressures in Law Enforcement Marriages," Police Chief 42 (November 1975):45.

Few other occupations require such a combination of ability and character indices as a precondition to entering an organization training school. A police candidate must then successfully pass through the academy, which has been described by one author as a crash course on how to be, "...curbside psychiatrists, marriage counselors, social workers, and even ministers, and doctors"⁶⁷. The tasks just quoted will never be found in a law enforcement agency's Standard Operating Procedures (SOP), but if you ask any patrol officer, such jobs are part of the mission.

The lengthy application and hiring procedures outlined above was not unique to the Detroit Police Department. It appears to be the norm, as was discovered in a longitudinal examination of job attitudes in another urban police department:

The police officer selection process in Union City is similar to that of most other large police departments in the country. The applicant must pass progressively the civil service examination, background investigation, medical examination, physical strength and agility test, oral interview and a psychiatric examination.⁶⁸

In a more recent study of "Police Perceptions of Their Work Environment", the same author described the recruiting and application process in yet another city:

First, entrance into the Capital City Police Department, like virtually all other urban police

67 Kirkham, "A Professor's Street Lessons," p. 22.

68 John Van Maanen, "Police Socialization: A Longitudinal Examination of Job Attitudes In An Urban Police Department," Administrative Science Quarterly 20 (1975):209.

agencies in the United States, is a highly ritualized process in which each recruit is exposed to a very similar set of experiences including: a lengthy screening program for new members (producing a rather homogeneous recruit population in terms of education, age, sex, race, and socioeconomic background), a standardized training program for all recruits (the police academy), (and) a six month probationary period during which a recruit can be dismissed with minimal cause and explanation...69

Bahn linked the stringent application process to the "luster" of becoming an officer when he wrote:

...the individual who has gone to a government office to get an application, has filled it in, sat for an examination, taken a medical examination (often an all day exam with a 50 to 80 percent visible failure rate), psychological tests, physical skill and capacities qualifying tests, and has been through an intensive background investigation, views the notification of acceptance as an extraordinary achievement in itself...70

The resultant group of employees consists of people who can reasonably be considered above average in intelligence, health, character, and background, as evidenced by successfully passing the aforementioned comprehensive selection process.

The law enforcement profession shares these healthy characteristics with many other professions. A point of emphasis to be made in this study is the rapid decline of

69 John Van Maanen and Ralph Katz, "Police Perceptions of Their Work Environment: An Exploratory Study Into Organization Space and Time," Sociology of Work and Occupations 6 (February 1979):37.

70 Charles Bahn, "Police Socialization in the Eighties: Strains in the Forging of an Occupational Identity," Journal of Police Science and Administration 12 (December 1984):391.

positive Peace Officer characteristics in spite of law enforcement agency efforts to purposely select and employ individuals with minds and bodies which are resistant to certain maladies and afflictions. Webb and Smith recognized this paradox after noting the rigorous recruiting and training which resulted in "a police recruit above average in intelligence, physical ability, and general health", but:

...they appear to suffer an incidence of health problems at least as great as the normal population. It stands to reason that something about their work as police officers is debilitating, at least for some. Current exploratory research suggests that stress may be the primary debilitating agent.⁷¹

⁷¹ Stephen Webb and David Smith, "Police Stress: A Conceptual Overview," Journal of Criminal Justice 8 (1980): 256.

C. MODEL OF THE PROBLEM:

In an attempt to graphically represent the problem, I developed the following model:⁷²

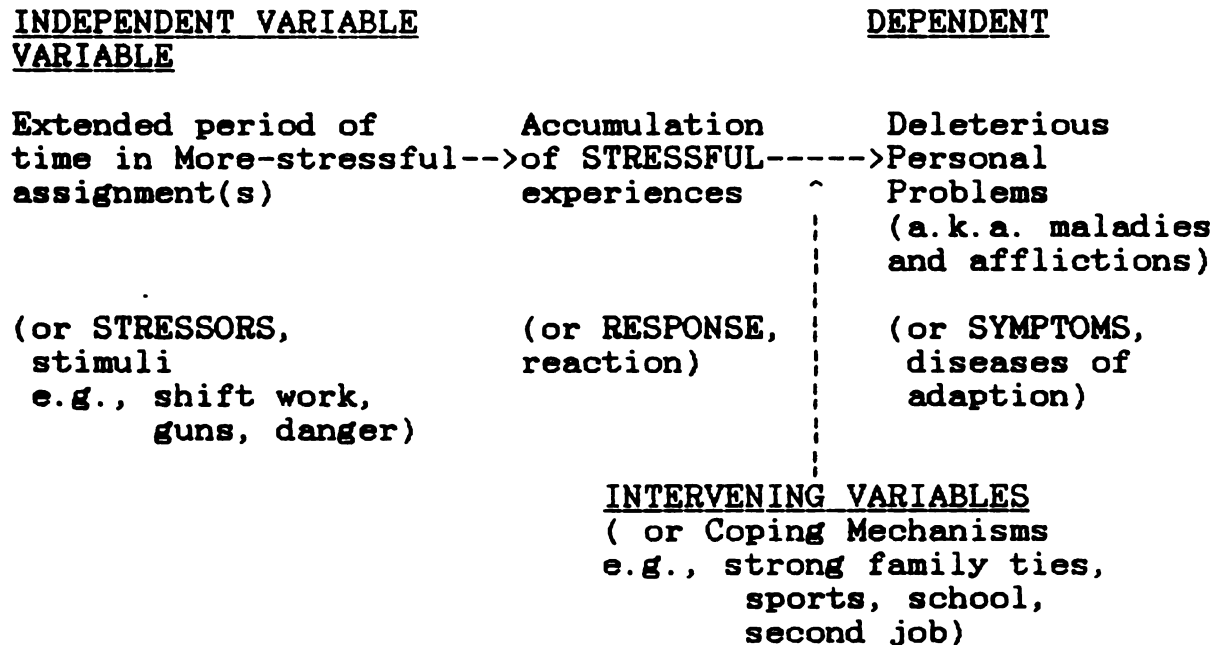


Figure 1.1 - Model of the Problem

72 The model presented here was developed by this writer for this research project. During the literature review a similar model was found in Webb and Smith (1980), page 254. The models were designed independently.

III. DEFINITIONS:

A. LOW-STRESS vs HIGH-STRESS ASSIGNMENTS DEFINED:

As a guide to operationalizing the "Low-stress" and "High-stress" Peace Officer assignment variables, the author used his own experiences in both types of assignments, and tried to keep in mind two officers who he knew and worked with. One officer was an undercover narcotics officer ("High-stress"), and the other was a precinct commander's clerk ("Low-stress").

1. High-stress Officer:

Drawing on experience in, and observations of, various Peace Officers' jobs, characteristics of "High-stress" assignments include, but are not limited to:

- a. Carrying a weapon is considered essential to the assignment.
- b. Daily tasks are potentially dangerous to health.
- c. Regular attendance in court is obligatory.
- d. Work hours are changed on a regular basis.
- e. Daytime shifts are infrequently worked.
- f. Daily tasks are unpredictable.
- g. People who are under a great amount of stress and tension are dealt with daily.
- h. Exposure to hostile people is routine.
- i. Exposure to the "seamy" undesirable elements of the local area and population is commonplace.
- j. Opportunities for corruption are not rare.
- k. Exposure to tragedy is routine.
- l. Assignments require mobility (on foot or in

vehicle).

- m. Exposure to stressful situations is routine.
- n. The necessity for split-second decision making and consequent action is commonplace.
- o. Mistakes can have extreme, even fatal, consequences.
- p. Severe criticism, discipline, even court action, may be the consequence of mistakes on the job.
- q. There is little control over the nature of the daily assignments/tasks.
- r. The assignment allows for extensive use of discretion.
- s. Meal breaks are strictly controlled, and are subject to interruption.

2. Low-stress Officer:

Characteristics of what is meant by the "Low-stress"

Officer assignments include, but are not limited to:

- a. Carrying a weapon is unnecessary to the assignment.
- b. Daily tasks are not potentially dangerous.
- c. Appearances in court are rare or not necessary.
- d. Work hours are steady and unchanged.
- e. A daytime work schedule is the rule.
- f. Daily tasks can be anticipated.
- g. Contacts with other people are mostly relaxed and business-like, with little or no stress or tension present.
- h. There is little or no exposure to hostile people.
- i. There is little or no exposure the "seamy" undesirable elements of the local area or population.
- j. Opportunities for corruption are rare or non-

existent.

- k. There is little or no exposure to tragedy.
- l. Assignments locations are stationary or primarily in one place (e.g., at a desk, or in an office).
- m. There is little exposure to stressful situations.
- n. There is time for leisurely, thought-out decisions with few or no crises situations requiring quick decisions and consequent action(s).
- o. Mistakes seldom, if ever, have severe consequences, and are never fatal.
- p. Mistakes made while on the job are subject to criticism mostly from immediate supervisor(s), with little possibility of court action resulting.
- q. There is control over the nature of the individual tasks within the assignment.
- r. The tasks are structured with little input required of the worker.
- s. Meal breaks are leisurely and not subject to interruption.

The preceding definitions were developed solely from this researcher's first hand experiences in both types of assignments. Their validity comes from two separate sources: First, my ten years "on the street", and nine years "behind a desk"; Second, numerous authors and researchers who have also described the situations listed above (and many others) as stressful (for a detailed listing of stressors and the literature review authors who mentioned them see Appendix 1).

B. AFFLICTIONS/MALADIES DEFINED:

The terms "afflictions" and "maladies" are used when generally describing negative or deleterious Peace Officer problems. To differentiate, we will rely on Webster, who defined an "affliction" as:

1. an afflicted condition; pain; suffering.
 2. anything causing pain or distress; calamity.
- SYN.-affliction implies pain, suffering, or distress imposed by illness, loss, misfortune, etc.⁷³

He defined a "malady" as:

- an ailment; disease; illness; sickness: often used figuratively.⁷⁴

When applied to Peace Officers, afflictions can include such problems as social isolation, divorce, and family problems. Maladies can include such things as drinking problems, alcoholism, and "premature death". The use of these terms is not meant to be judgmental. It is not intended in this study that divorce, for example, should be considered abnormal or deviant behavior, because we know that abnormality and deviance is largely a function of societal labelling in response and reaction to a phenomenon.

The specific maladies and afflictions mentioned above and below are intended to identify stress symptom patterns

⁷³ Joseph H. Friend and David B. Guralnik, editors, Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (Cleveland and New York: The World Publishing Company, 1960), 25.

⁷⁴ Ibid., p. 886.

that are indicative of problems which seem to afflict certain groups of people more than others.

C. INDEPENDENT VARIABLES:

For the purpose of this project, I use what the literature refers to as stressful or "stressors" as independent variables. Those are variables which are also referred to as "causes", stressors, or stimuli, and include, but not limited to adverse work schedules (i.e., shift work); consequences of actions possibly being fatal; courts; decision making ("split-second"); double-dip discipline (punishment from more than one source); discretion; responding to domestic disputes and crisis intervention; disruption of, hasty, and unbalanced eating habits; fear and danger; handling drunks; handling guns and the potential for taking lives; handling stressed persons; being at homicide scenes; and discovering abused children ("people pain"). A listing of literature review authors who name these and many others as stressful can be found in Appendix 1.

D. DEPENDENT VARIABLES:

Operationally, problematic symptom patterns are the dependant variables. The dependent variables, or the afflictions and maladies, effects, symptoms of stress include, but are not limited to drinking problems or alcoholism; arthritis; heart disease; diabetes; digestive

disorders; divorce, marital or family problems; headaches; high blood pressure; hypertension; isolation from family and friends; juvenile offspring problems; nervous conditions; obesity/overweight; and respiratory problems (NOTE: A listing of the literature review authors who refer to these and other afflictions and maladies can be found in Appendix 2).

E. WORK ENVIRONMENT:

The definition of work environment is sufficiently described by Macy and Mirvis who wrote, "The work environment includes the employee's jobs, supervisors and work groups, and the organizational structure and technicology"⁷⁵.

F. BURNOUT:

A comprehensive definition for burnout was given by Veninga, who wrote:

...burnout refers to a debilitating psychological condition brought about by unrelieved work stress, which results in:

1. depleted energy reserves
2. lowered resistance to illness
3. increased dissatisfaction and pessimism
4. increased absenteeism and inefficiency at work.⁷⁶

⁷⁵ Barry A. Macy and Philip H. Mirvis, "A Methodology for Assessment of Quality of Work Life and Organizational Effectiveness in Behavioral-Economic Terms," Administrative Science Quarterly 21 (June 1976):213.

⁷⁶ Robert L. Veninga and James P. Spradley, The Work/Stress Connection (Boston/Toronto: Little, Brown and Co., 1981), 6-7.

Maslach and Jackson gave a definition that can be more easily associated with Peace Officers when they wrote, "Burnout refers to a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that frequently occurs among individuals who do 'people-work' - who spend considerable time in close encounters with others under conditions of chronic tension and stress"⁷⁷.

IV. PURPOSE:

This study is an attempt to, (1) identify then classify the participants in terms of their assignment and organizational characteristics through the Job Stress Scale developed for this study, (2) determine the presence or absence of stress symptom patterns in the participants, and (3) determine if there is a relationship between the Job Stress scores and the stress symptom patterns. The methodological problem of attempting cause and effect research has been addressed by Schreiber and Seitzinger. They believed that a researcher's "ability" to establish this type of relationship comes from several factors:

1. The increased ability of researchers to detect and measure the early and subtle effects of stress.
2. The increased ability to directly link stressors (life events that can cause stress) to specific negative symptoms.

⁷⁷ Maslach and Jackson, p. 59.

3. The increased willingness, beginning in the 1970s, to look beyond the "John Wayne Syndrome" image of policing and recognize the emotional pressures of law enforcement work.⁷⁸

Obviously, all the suggested maladies and afflictions which Peace Officers are subject to endure cannot be eliminated or reduced in severity by any single study. The very nature of some of the alleged problems hinders attempts to solve or reduce them. For example, a problem may not be controversial enough to warrant sufficient and reliable study efforts. Cynicism is one such area. If asked, I would define cynicism in two different ways: (1) "Sarcasm in situations that are serious to others," and (2) "Detachment where emotion is normal or expected." Cynicism can be used to cope with situations that Poole et al described below:

Officers see fellow citizens in their most vulnerable and least appealing moments. They see conventional morality flouted, criminal laws violated and humans (including themselves) degraded and ravaged. Doing society's dirty work may have its satisfying moments, but it is unrealistic to expect such moments to outweigh the misery intrinsic to the work.⁷⁹

However, researching this alleged problem is not practical according to Chandler and Jones because, "The subject has only limited empirical evaluation... which research has

⁷⁸ Schreiber and Seitzinger, p. 40.

⁷⁹ Eric Poole, Robert Regoli, and Roy Lotz, "Linkages Between Professionalism, Work Alienation and Cynicism in Large and Small Police Departments," Social Science Quarterly 59 (December 1978):532.

shown to be statistically invalid and unreliable"⁸⁰. They fail to mention that this obstacle may be due to the previous use of poor research methods.

Another hinderance to research is that the problem may be too statistically awkward to handle, and thus has few research takers to address the issue in a meaningful and accurate manner. Lester wrote about the problem of addressing police stress, stating, "Accurate information about stress is very difficult to find, since it is difficult to quantify such information"⁸¹. This study is an attempt to do just that - quantify stress, then see what, if any, relationship stress has with certain problems endured by Peace Officers.

In this study, the alleged negative personal problems of Peace Officers will be reduced in number to three broad categories of stress symptom patterns: (1) sociological, (2) psychological, and (3) physiological. Selection of specific symptoms (dependent variables) will be partially a subjective choice based on my own observations as an active nineteen year veteran Peace Officer. This experience suggests the most prevalent social stress symptom pattern among officers is divorce or marital conflict or family problems. The most prevalent psychological stress symptom

⁸⁰ Ernest Chandler and Claude Jones, "Cynicism - An Inevitability of Police Work ?", Journal of Police Science and Administration 7:1 (February 1979):68.

⁸¹ David Lester, "The Policeman's Lot: A Positive Viewpoint," Law and Order (February 1979):58.

pattern is alcoholism or excessive drinking (a traditional view - some would say this is a medical problem, and it will be discussed later). Finally, no one physiological stress symptom pattern seems to stand out, but, an accelerated deterioration of general health is noticeable.

V. RATIONALE:

Interest in, and devotion to, this study is derived directly from the differences experienced personally, and the unsolicited comments by family members and friends about the outward manifestations of those differences. In addition, contacts with family, friends, and other officers have supported my observations about the major dimensions of the two types of police work.

Secondly, many authors have also discovered that what I experienced as being stressful are not just my locally derived guesses, but a national Peace Officer problem phenomenon as evidenced by the listings in Appendix 1.

This study attempted to collect and analyze data which could provide an answer to some of the questions regarding the alleged seriousness of Peace Officer problems, while exploring the hypotheses on the following pages.

VI. HYPOTHESES:

A hypothesis of this study is that Peace Officers who have been in the "High-stress" assignments for an extended period of time are more susceptible to suffer various deleterious personal problems ("stress symptom patterns") than are (1) Peace Officers who are in the "Low-stress" assignments for any length of time, or, (2) officers in the High-stress assignments for a short period of time. More specifically:

A. Peace Officers who are/have been in stressful assignments for an extended period of time are more likely to suffer drinking problems than those officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions.

B. Peace Officers who are/have been in stressful assignments for an extended period of time are more likely to suffer health problems than those officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions.

C. Peace Officers who are/have been in stressful assignments for an extended period of time are more likely to suffer family problems than those officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions.

As previously mentioned (in the paragraphs on positive

coping mechanisms, above), not all veteran officers in High-stress assignments succumb to the stresses and are stricken with unreasonable rates of the previously mentioned maladies or afflictions. Intervening variables can buffer the negative effects of stress. Therefore, a second hypothesis is:

The maladies and afflictions rates of Peace Officers who are in or have been in the "High-stress" assignments for lengthy periods of time are mitigated by intervening variables such as participation in sports, school, and a second job.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

I. REVIEW PURPOSE:

The purpose of the following review of literature on the topic of personal problems of Peace Officers is to present a sampling of research studies, personal experiences, and opinions on whether officers suffer more or less maladies and afflictions than would be considered normal for the population in general. What follows is not a recapitulation of everything ever written on the topic because there are limited ways one can say a certain group has or does not have, for example, a drinking problem. To write over and over again that Peace Officers commit suicide (another example) and simply change the footnoted author's name makes for rather redundant writing and reading.¹

Therefore, the following review will give the reader an overview of the various, and sometimes contradictory, points of view regarding the problems faced and endured by Peace Officers. This review should give the reader an appreciation of the controversy this study will attempt to

¹ In Appendix 2, paragraph #1, 52 authors are listed who address the issue of alcoholism and drinking problems among officers. Paragraph #38 of the same Appendix contains the names of 49 authors who address the issue of suicide as it pertains to the officers.

shed some light on. Personal biases aside, it is an objective of this study to see: (1) if a locally derived perception is accurate; and, (2) if Peace Officers are resistant to the problems that recruiting process attempted to screen out.

II. INTRODUCTION:

Adding up numbers of studies and literature references should not be the primary factor in deciding whether Peace Officers suffer maladies and afflictions at a higher rate than most other occupations, or whether the opposite is true. In the following review, it was found that more studies, articles, researchers, and authors supported the legend of high malady and affliction rate in the police ranks, either through research, or from first hand observations. However, as evidenced by the other studies and articles cited in this paper, there are strong arguments that contest the high rates claims.

Finding supportive literature on a specific problem to investigate, or in this case the three trouble areas of health, family, and drinking problems, is not difficult. Apparently many others perceive Peace Officers as being noticeably less healthy, less happily married, and less sober than those in most of other occupations. A review of current research and literature on which occupational

groups suffer more afflictions than others reveals mixed findings, opinions, and interpretations of research data. It is the lack of consensus on the severity of Peace Officer problems which was a factor that stimulated interest in this research effort.

Studies comparing problem rates between apples and oranges can be more misleading than a study focusing on only the apples. Lester used the example of stress in attempting to demonstrate there is no way to compare certain variables between occupations. He explained:

The stresses are different in each case, and we can't give them sizes. How do we compare the risk of being injured for a police officer at the hand of a suspect with the risk of being trapped underground for a miner? 2

An example of the problems, confusion, and misleading information that can be generated by doing an inter-occupational comparison can be seen in an exploratory study that appeared in Psychological Reports which asked, "Is Stress Higher In Police Officers ?" The study reached the conclusion that, "...there appeared to be few differences between the stress of being a policeman in a small town, and that of an office worker..."³. This particular study finding can mislead a reader in several ways:

2 David Lester, "Stress In Police Officers," Law and Order 29 (September 1979):50.

3 David Lester and Stanley Mink, "Is Stress Higher In Police Officers ? An Exploratory Study," Psychological Reports 45 (October 1979):554.

1. The title suggests a study of Police Officers.

These authors sampled "a small police department in a semi-rural town." Many in the law enforcement profession could justifiably ask, "Is this a representative sample of all police?" The answer should be obvious.

2. The mean age of the officers (all male) was 22.8 years. These sample subjects were hardly more than rookies still mounted in armor on their white charger horses, and it's doubtful that they could be considered as generalizable representatives of the named population.

3. The police were compared to factory office workers (both male and female) with a mean age of 30.9 years.

4. The sample consisted of fifteen office workers and fifteen policemen. The title of this article would have more accurately described the project as being a "poll" than a study.

The example of research referenced above was found to be an exception rather than the rule during the literature review. It is cited here only to illustrate some of the problems in making inter-occupational comparisons, and some of the advantages in using an intra-occupational comparison as was employed in this study.

Serious studies into the problems being addressed were many, and they fell along a continuum which depicted the range of Peace Officer problems from being the most

afflicted, to average or normal affliction rates, categorizing officers high in one area and at the same time low in another traditionally thought of high affliction area. The following review will attempt to sort out the conflicting findings and clarify if there is a consensus or even a majority opinion on the questions of malady and affliction rates for Peace Officers.

III. LITERATURE WHICH CONTRADICTS THE MANY PROBLEMS LEGEND

In Phillips' book, Stress, Health, and Psychological Problems in the Major Professions, a reader would expect to find a reference to the police maladies and afflictions problems. On the contrary, Phillips describes stress and its causes as they afflict the medical profession, dentists, nursing, allied health professionals, psychologists, teachers, women (a profession?), clergy, university professors and students, lawyers, and executives 4. Even given the possibility that the author didn't have any data on police, a reader of the reference cited above could still interpret the affliction rates of stress, health, and psychological problems so low among Peace Officers as to not even warrant listing.

Another article that suggests there is little evidence

4 E. Lakin Phillips, Stress, Health, and Psychological Problems in the Major Professions (Washington, D.C.: University Press of America, 1982).

supporting the disproportionate afflictions legend is "The Personal Problems of the Police Officer: A Plea for Action". Personal problem areas discussed are the workaholic, burnout, divorce, alcoholism, physical problems, retirement problems, and suicide. Although the authors support a few of the high incidence categories, they point out:

...it may be that many of the personal problems discussed in this paper are simply characteristic of the population that enters policework. It is also possible that many of these problems are related to nonstress aspects of the police officer's job.⁵

A study which attempted to deal directly with occupational comparisons was Job Demands and Worker Health: Main Effects and Occupational Differences ⁶. This work examined "occupational differences in psychological stresses in the job environment and the impact of stress on affective and physiological strains and on illnesses reported by the worker"⁷. Twenty three different occupations were examined through a questionnaire given to 2,010 men, including 111 policemen. Among other occupations represented in the study were forklift drivers, machine tenders, tool and die makers, electronic technicians, train dispatchers, air traffic controllers,

⁵ Jeffery A. Schwartz and Cynthia B. Schwartz, "The Personal Problems of the Police Officer: A Plea for Action," Job Stress and the Police Officer (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1975):132.

⁶ Caplan et al, 341 pages.

⁷ Ibid., p. abstract.

accountants, engineers, professors, administrators, and physicians. The police were listed along with professors, family physicians, white collar supervisors, and air traffic controllers at small sites as being "the most satisfied occupations"⁸. One of the findings of this particular study that contradicts the high afflictions claim was that policemen were third lowest in cardiovascular disease rates ⁹. Also, the police were not included among those occupations labeled as being high in stress. Those identified as having the highest occupational stress were assembly line workers, forklift drivers, and machine tenders ¹⁰. In analyzing this study by Caplan, French wrote, "Compared to the other occupations the policemen in this study were not an extreme group, but they were higher than average on some stresses and lower than average on other stresses"¹¹.

Alcoholism and drinking problems are popular causes for those who support the high police problems theories. However, John Stratton, an author with numerous research efforts and articles directed at problems of police officers, wrote:

8 Ibid., p. 191.

9 Ibid., p. 157.

10 Ibid., p. 201.

11 John French, "A Comparative Look at Stress and Strain in Policemen," Job Stress and the Police Officer (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975): 60.

There have been popular treatises in books, movies, and literature dealing with police and often implied in these works is the idea that many police have drinking problems. Although there are no verifiable statistics, it would appear that they should be about the same as the norm.¹²

Lester echoed Stratton's conclusion, writing, "Alcoholism is often claimed to be high in police officers, but there is no evidence for this"¹³.

Also supporting the de-emphasis on police drinking problems, Nordlicht wrote, "...it would be a gross misunderstanding if we were to attribute the abuse of alcohol simply to the stresses of police work"¹⁴. One interpretation of Nordlicht's conclusion is simply, (1) there is a problem (excessive drinking), and (2) it has many causes (not just a person's job).

A survey, whose findings contradict probably the most traditionally infamous affliction rate, specifically suicide, was conducted by Dash and Reiser ¹⁵. Not only did this survey refute a high suicide rate among Peace Officers, it would lead a reader to believe the opposite is

¹² John Stratton and Brian Wroe, "Alcoholism and the Policeman," F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin 48 (March 1979): 22.

¹³ Lester, "Stress in Police Officers," p. 50.

¹⁴ Stephen Nordlicht, "Effects of Stress on the Police Officer and Family," New York State Journal of Medicine 79 (March 1979):401.

¹⁵ Jerry Dash and Martin Reiser, "Suicide Among Police in Urban Law Enforcement Agencies," Journal of Police Science and Administration 6 (March 1978):18-21 (also found in Reiser, 1982, p. 171).

true by concluding, "To the contrary, suicide experience on the Los Angeles Police Department appears to be significantly below both the Los Angeles County and national averages"¹⁶.

Reiser questions another officer afflictions allegation - high divorce rate - and writes that his study indicated just the opposite condition existed as divorce pertains to officers:

The rumor of high divorce experience among Los Angeles policemen was not substantiated by this survey. To the contrary, divorce experience on the Los Angeles Police Department appears significantly below both the state and national averages.¹⁷

Interestingly, Reiser speculated that the lower than average divorce rate may be traced to the "rigorous evaluation" during the recruiting program. An impetus behind this study was to try to solve the apparent paradox of selective screening and high afflictions rates, including divorce.

Another study which speculated about the rigid recruit screening was conducted by Fenster and Locke. They contradicted studies which indicate that policemen may be neurotic or even psychotic. Their study (sampling New York City policemen and citizens) indicated "neuroticism is not a major characteristic of the average New York City policeman", and theorized, "The intensive screening of

16 Ibid., p. 20.

17 Reiser, Police Psychology, p. 155.

police applicants, advertently or inadvertently, eliminates many neurotics"¹⁸.

A study conducted of police husbands and wives attending the Traffic Police Administration Training Program at Northwestern University reported mixed conclusions. "The notion that divorce and marital conflict among the law enforcement occupation is higher than most other occupational groups, although indicated, was not significantly substantiated due to the limitations of this study"¹⁹.

Many individual studies and articles could not come to a definite conclusion regarding overall high maladies and afflictions rates among Peace Officers. For example, Lester wrote that alcoholism and divorce rates were no worse for police than other professions. However, he did concur with another historically high rate idea when he wrote, "The only area for which data exist to support a negative view is suicide"²⁰.

Literature which did not report new research but reviewed the studies of others refuted the Peace Officer high afflictions allegations. Malloy and Mays critiqued

18 C. Abraham Fenster and Bernard Locke, "Neuroticism Among Policemen: An Examination of Police Personality," Journal of Applied Psychology 57 (1973): 358, 359.

19 James Durner, Mark Kroeker, Charles Miller, and William Reynolds, "Divorce - Another Occupational Hazard," The Police Chief 42:11 (November 1975):52.

20 Lester, "The Policeman's Lot: A Positive Viewpoint", p. 58.

much of the existing literature on whether or not police work is more stressful than other occupations and concluded, "Judging from the most well-controlled studies available (and even these have potentially significant methodological confounds), the answer is no, yet this present conclusion remains very tentative"²¹. Lester wrote there is no evidence that divorce and alcoholism rates are especially high among Peace Officers as a profession ²².

IV. LITERATURE THAT SUPPORTS THE MANY PROBLEMS LEGEND

A. NON-STUDY AREAS OF INQUIRY:

Finally, we come to a review of the studies and articles which support the hypotheses that Peace Officers have unusually high malady and affliction rates. In reviewing literature addressing law enforcement officer problems, a reader continually comes across introductory statements such as: Police work is..., "a high stress occupation which affects, shapes, and also scars the individuals and families involved"²³; "...one of the most hazardous"²⁴; "...by far, the most emotionally dangerous

²¹ Thomas Malloy and Larry Mays, "The Police Stress Hypothesis: A Critical Evaluation," Criminal Justice and Behavior 11 (June 1984):207.

²² Lester, "Stress in Police Officers", p. 50.

²³ Reiser, Police Psychology, p.125.

²⁴ Selye, "Stress of Police Work", p. 7.

occupation"²⁵; "...one of the most difficult jobs in America in terms of stress, pressures and personal emotional impact"²⁶; and, "It is an accepted fact that a police officer is under stress and pressure unequalled by any other profession"²⁷.

One of the studies which compared police officers with other occupations was Silbert's "Job Stress and Burnout of New Police Officers". In her research, Silbert compared 267 San Francisco police officers with 724 human service professionals from around the country and 205 other professionals from various occupations in the San Francisco area. Data gathered by a questionnaire revealed that, "...the police officers were more highly stressed by their jobs,"²⁸ than the comparison occupations.

Agreeing with Silbert is Sewell who developed a "Critical Life Events Scale" of law enforcement officers for his research. He concluded that, "The physical and psychological evidence of stress within this (law enforcement) occupation include a particularly high incidence of Selye's diseases of adaption and accompanying circumstances, such as reportedly severe rates of divorce,

25 Sewell, "Police Stress," p. 17.

26 John Stratton and Peter Pitchess, "The Police Professional: Another Perspective," Law and Order 26 (September 1978):18.

27 S.A. Somodevilla, "The Psychologist's Role In The Police Department," The Police Chief 45 (April 1978):21.

28 Silbert, p. 18.

suicide, and alcohol abuse"²⁹.

Meredith addressed the generally poor mental health of Peace Officers writing:

"The police culture is a sick culture. We take healthy people and make them sick," says one police psychologist who prefers to remain anonymous. "The institution itself -- the policies and procedures it insists on -- sabotages the mental health of police officers."³⁰

The topic with most support for a high rate occurring in Peace Officers is the subject of SUICIDE. Often quoted criminal justice author, David Lester, in an article titled, "Suicide In Police Officers", wrote, "It is clear that police officers are more likely to kill themselves than men in other occupations"³¹. Dr. Lester referenced three studies ³², which put police suicide rates at 21.7, 22.7, and 47.6 per 100,000 per year, while the rate for all males in the U.S. during the same periods was 16.7 per 100,000.

Mike Wowk quoted unpublished research by Cass W. Gaska (who studied the deaths of 4,000 Detroit Police retirees

²⁹ Sewell, p. 7.

³⁰ Nikki Meredith, "Attacking the Roots of Police Violence," Psychology Today (May 1984):21.

³¹ David Lester, "Suicide In Police Officers," The Police Chief (April 1978):17.

³² P. Friedman, "Suicide Among Police," in E. Shneidman (ed.), Essays In Self-Destruction (New York: Science House, 1967).

Niederhoffer (No other footnote information).

S. Labovitz and R. Haredorn, "An Analysis of Suicide Rates Among Occupational Categories," Sociological Inquiry 41 (1971):67-72.

between 1944 and 1978). While citing national averages of suicides at 33.5 per 100,000 for white men ages 27 to 78 (the age range of Gaska's sample), and 11.1 per 100,000 for suicides of all ages, Gaska's data indicated a suicide rate of 334.7 per 100,000 for Detroit Police retirees ³³. This figure may seem shocking, but the rate for policemen who received a disability pension was 2,616 per 100,000 ³⁴.

Lastly, Arthur Niederhoffer presented the results of a fifteen year study of New York City police officers which revealed their suicide rate at 22.7 per 100,000 population, while "the suicide rate for males in the general New York City population is about 15 per 100,000" ³⁵.

B. STUDY AREAS OF INQUIRY:

1. DRINKING:

a. Etiology of Alcoholism:

In reviewing the evidence for an etiology of alcoholism it was quickly discovered that various authors assigned "causes" differently due in large part to the different definitions they applied to ALCOHOLISM. The review that follows will give the reader an appreciation of

³³ Mike Wowk, "Ex-Cop Suicides Soar," Police Stress (July-August 1983):38.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield: The Police In Urban Society, (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Company, 1969), p. 101-102, quoting from "Annual Reports of the New York City Police Department 1950-1965", and personal communication from the Chief Medical Examiner's Office of New York City, September 20, 1965.

the diversity of theories and the lack of consensus on an alcoholism etiology.

Some authors took this tremendously complex topic and applied a short and seemingly inadequate definition, such as, "Alcoholism is a disease and the alcoholic a sick person requiring skilled rehabilitative assistance"³⁶.

This definition does not even suggest a cause(s), and is analogous to saying epilepsy is a disease and the epileptic a sick person. A little more descriptive definition, but still in the simple category, is Kinney's, "Alcoholism is a disease in which the person's use of alcohol continues despite problems it causes in any area of life"³⁷.

Stratton and Wroe quoted The American Medical Association which described alcoholism as "a chronic, progressive disease which, if left untreated, can cause permanent damage, physical incapacities, or death"³⁸. Although it appears that individuals and organizations cannot come together on wordage, most agree on one thing - alcoholism is a disease. The American College of Physicians, the American Psychiatric Association, the World Health Organization, and other recognized scientific bodies have

³⁶ Joseph Dunne, "Counseling Alcoholic Employees in a Municipal Police Department," Quarterly Journal of Studies On Alcohol 34 (1973):425.

³⁷ Jean Kinney, Loosening the Grip: A Handbook of Alcohol Information (St. Louis: C.V. Mosby Company, 1978), p. 44.

³⁸ John Stratton, Brian Wroe, "Alcoholism and the Policeman," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, " 48(1979):20.

formally and scientifically recognized alcoholism as a disease 39. Those that deviated from the term DISEASE did so only slightly. The next most common link in ALCOHOLISM definitions is the use of the term ILLNESS, a word closely associated with disease (1. any departure from health; illness in general"40.) In Origins of Alcoholism, the McCords seem to combine all the concepts the others are trying to express in their definition of alcoholism, keying on the term ILLNESS:

Alcoholism is a chronic illness, psychic or somatic or psychosomatic, which manifests itself as a disorder of behavior. It is characterized by the repeated drinking of alcoholic beverages, to an extent that exceeds customary dietary use or compliance with the social customs of the community and that interferes with the drinker's health, or his social or economic functioning.41

However, the definition which seems to be the source of this issue comes from the World Health Organization which defined alcoholism as:

...any form of drinking which in extent goes beyond the traditional and customary 'dietary' use, or the ordinary compliance with the social drinking customs of the community concerned, irrespective of etiological factors leading to such behavior, and irrespective also of the extent to which such etiological factors are dependent upon heredity, constitution, or

39 A Joint Union-Management Approach to Alcoholism Recovery Programs (New York: National Council on Alcoholism, Inc, 1976), p. 2.

40 Friend and Guralnik, "Webster's Dictionary," p. 418.

41 William and Joan McCord, Origins of Alcoholism (Stanford: University Press, 1960), p. 9, from M. Keller and V. Efron, in "Alcoholism", Encyclopedia Americana, I, 348.

acquired physio-pathological and metabolic influences.⁴²

Taken all together, the definitions presented above (and there are many, many more) alluded to the possible etiological factors which may be the cause(s) of alcoholism - medical, genetic, social, or psychological. The following is a review of the evidence.

(1) That Alcoholism Stems From Medical Factors:

For the purpose of this review, physiological theories of alcoholism will be considered as evidence of medical factors. These theories attribute "alcoholism to a physically based craving for alcohol - a craving caused by nutritional deficiencies, glandular disorder, innate metabolic dysfunctions, or an unfortunate inheritance"⁴³. There are several categories of physiological theories of the etiology of alcoholism, which include:

(a) Those that focus on metabolic or nutritional deficiencies as a source. Also listed in this group is the theory that, "...certain genetic blocks lead to diminished production of specific enzymes", and only a steady intake of alcohol can restore the balance.⁴⁴

42 Kinney, p. 41-42.

43 McCord, Origins of Alcoholism, p. 22.

44 Ibid.

(b) Other researchers have discovered a positive relation between mesomorphy and alcoholism.

(c) An endocrine malfunction has been suggested as the basic source of the metabolic disorder as a cause of alcoholism.⁴⁵

Several other authors supported the physiological theories, some more forcefully than others. Burgin described alcoholism as a "physiological problem" along with other stress-related disorders ⁴⁶. Alcohol consumption is "commonly thought to be elevated in conjunction with the distress and tension that accompany psychological stress", according to Conway of the Naval Health Research Center ⁴⁷. Royce wrote, "...alcoholism is due in large part to physiological factors, innate or acquired"⁴⁸.

(2) That Alcoholism Stems From Genetic Factors:

Genetics is the branch of biology that deals with heredity. To say something negative (e.g., alcoholism) is inherited almost seems to be a bigot's answer to an issue he cannot solve. That alcoholism stems from genetics smacks of the "bad-seed" idea. This is the impression this

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ A. Lad Burgin, "The Management of Stress in Policing," The Police Chief (April 1978):53.

⁴⁷ Terry Conway, et al, "Occupational Stress and Variation in Cigarette, Coffee, and Alcohol Consumption," Journal of Health and Social Behavior 22 (June 1981):155.

⁴⁸ James E. Royce, Alcohol Problems and Alcoholism (New York: The Free Press, 1981), 148.

researcher got when first reviewing the evidence supporting genetics as a theory of alcoholism causes. Surprisingly, there are some convincing research data and arguments that give this school of thought credibility.

Lanier tackled this issue head on in his article, "Familial Alcoholism". He discussed three research methods used to separate genetic influences from environmental factors and reported, "...research provided evidence that alcoholism does, at least in part, have a genetic basis"⁴⁹. It was during these studies that, "...the presence of an alcoholic biological parent was shown to be the only consistent predictor of alcoholism; simply living with an alcoholic parent did not appear to increase the likelihood that alcoholism would develop in the offspring"⁵⁰. Lanier differentiated between "highly heritable" and "milieu-limited" familial alcoholism. Characteristics of the former were, (1) early onset of alcoholism, (2) severe symptoms, (3) absence of other psychopathology, and (4) family history of alcoholism. Characteristics of the latter included, (1) milder alcohol abuse in the biological parents, (2) medical problems occurring later in life, and (3) usually no history of treatment or inability to maintain jobs or families ⁵¹. Lanier summed up by

⁴⁹ David Lanier, "Familial Alcoholism," Journal of Family Practice 18 (March 1984):418.

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ Ibid., pp. 418-419.

presenting a strong argument for the heredity theories of alcoholism etiology, noting that of all the known risk factors for alcoholism, "a family history of alcoholism is by far the strongest"⁵².

Stabenau also strongly supported the genetic theory of alcoholism etiology, writing, "Family and adoptee studies of alcoholism have demonstrated that vulnerability to alcoholism is genetically transmitted"⁵³. He listed increased risk factors for becoming an alcoholic as being, (1) a male, (2) having an antisocial personality, and (3) having a family history of alcoholism, and that these three factors had "genetic determinants"⁵⁴.

Other authors and researchers addressed this theory less fervently, noting the research data arguments, but diluting this theory by tagging it on or adding it to other theories of the etiology of alcoholism, such as sociological theories.

(3) That Alcoholism Stems From Social Factors:

Sociological theories of alcoholism take the position that the rates of alcoholism are significantly related to the social structure. Included are theories which focus on

52 Ibid., p. 421.

53 James Stabenau, "Implications of Family history of Alcoholism, Antisocial Personality, and Sex Differences in Alcohol Dependence," American Journal of Psychiatry 141 (October 1984):1178.

54 Ibid.

ethnic groups, social class, and general attitudes about alcohol. Ethnic theorists will point out the stereotypically convivial and inebriated Irishman in contrast to the traditionally religious and ritualistic Jew or the family oriented Italian. It should be remembered, sometimes sadly, that certain stereotypical traits have tenaciously endured through the years because there is some truth to them, else why would they still be around ?

The McCords did not single out just one particular ethnic group. Rather, they generalized, saying, "...alcoholism will be at its' highest level in ethnic groups in which tension is high and drinking habits are not subjected to consistent social control"⁵⁵.

Social class theorists maintain there are different views and degrees of acceptability of drinking between the various social classes. For example:

Dollard argued that the upper-class holds a tolerant view of drinking, (and) condones it... In the lower-upper class...drinking is aggressive and a necessity in climbing the social ladder. The upper-middle class, Dollard believes, is neutral in its attitude, but the lower-middle class places a strong taboo on drinking (because of its desire for respectability). In the lower classes, drinking is rife and relatively uncontrolled...⁵⁶

There are few authors who address the issue of etiology of alcoholism in terms of social class. Many, however, implied some kind of mystical social pressure as an

⁵⁵ McCord, p. 38.

⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 40.

inducement if not a cause of alcoholism.

In a research article focusing on the effect of labeling on people's perceptions of others (labeled "normative" and "excessive" drinkers), several college psychologists discovered, "...interpersonal conflict and social pressure to drink were the two social situations that most frequently preceded relapse among alcoholics"⁵⁷. Bacon studied what he described as a slowly developing pattern (during five to fifteen years) addiction to alcohol, and directly related (in part) the change in drinking practices to "increasing social difficulties"⁵⁸. The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare simply points its' accusatory finger at the American bar (i.e., pub, inn, tavern. etc.). However, first they point out that other cultures - Jews, native Indians, Spaniards, Greeks, Lebanese, and Chinese - all "enjoy the benefits of alcohol", and sometimes use it heavily, but, "without the devastating related problems that afflict most societies"⁵⁹.

Of course not all nor even a majority of authorities on the subject will put their backs against the wall for

⁵⁷ Thomas Cash, et al, "When Alcoholics Are Not Anonymous: Socioperceptual Effects of Labeling and Drinking Pattern," Journal of Studies On Alcohol 45 (May 1984):274.

⁵⁸ Selden D. Bacon, "Process of Addiction to Alcohol: Social Aspects," Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol 34 (1973):1.

⁵⁹ U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, The Whole College Catalog About Drinking (Rockville, MD: Public Health Service, 1977), p. 9.

sociological theories. While not rejecting them outright, many authorities seem to add a disclaimer while commenting on the efficacy of these theories. For example, Ewing and Rouse wrote, "At the present moment we have no reason to believe that social and cultural factors alone are operating, but we can believe that these are significant powerful influences in the development of alcoholism"⁶⁰. Hayman also seemed to be straddling the fence on this issue when he wrote, "The sociological approach is of more potential than current value"⁶¹.

(4) That Alcoholism Stems From Psychological Factors:

Psychological theories about the etiology of alcoholism ask, "Is there anything in a person's character, or personality makeup, that makes him likely to become an alcoholic?"⁶². The McCords have categorized these theories into three main groupings:

(a) "The Freudians": These theorists and their supporters believe alcoholism stems from three unconscious tendencies:

- (i) Self-destructive urges
- (ii) Oral fixation
- (iii) Latent homosexuality

⁶⁰ John Ewing and Beatrice Rouse, Drinking (Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall, 1978), 114-115.

⁶¹ Max Hayman, Alcoholism: Mechanisms and Management (Springfield: C.C. Thomas Publisher, 1966), 37.

⁶² Kinney, p. 62.

(b) "The Adlerians" (from Alfred Adler): These support the notion that alcoholism is a result of a striving for power, or a reaction to a pervasive feeling of inferiority.

(c) Fromm and the interpersonal psychologists see the disease as a response to a suppressed conflict between dependent drives and aggressive urges 63.

(5) Consensus:

What at first might seem to be a dearth of authors and researchers who are supportive of one theory or another is not as bad as it might seem. The reason for this is that those who attempt to answer the question of the etiology of alcoholism simply cannot. The consensus seems to be there is no single cause or answer. If there is a single reason it is still in the realm of science fiction, and the experts in the area only allude to the possibility of "it" being out there somewhere. As one source put it:

The informed consensus is that psychological, physical, social, and cultural conditions all contribute to alcohol addiction. However, most authorities do not discount the possibility that a single underlying cause, sometimes referred to as the X-factor, may be at the root of the problem. 64

An author who appears to be in the minority is Marty

63 McCord, p. 28.

64 Old Myths and New Facts About Alcoholism, brochure provided by The National Council On Alcoholism - Greater Detroit Area, vol. 3, no. 1 (Detroit: NCA-GDA, 1984), p. 3.

Mann, former Executive Director of the National Council on Alcoholism, who wrote, "...since the causes are not known, there is no way to prevent it (alcoholism) from happening to that small percentage of those who drink who are susceptible to it"⁶⁵. The only other reviewed source which came close to supporting Mann's no-known-cause position was the book by Ewing and Rouse. They felt that a single cause for alcoholism may never be found, and answered the question of the etiology by writing, "Much has been said and written about the cause or causes of alcoholism and here it is necessary to say first that it is at present a condition of unknown etiology"⁶⁶. They allude to a combination of factors approach ("causes"), but seem to reject it in the end.

The majority of authorities believe the cause(s) have been identified (with the exception of the X-factor), but simply cannot agree on which ones, or which combination is responsible for a person becoming alcoholic. Kinney's novel suggestion to this dilemma was the "Slot-Machine Theory" of the etiology of alcoholism. He combined the causes this way:

To be alcoholic requires getting three cherries. An individual may be born with a physiological cherry. The environment and culture he is raised in may provide a second, or sociological, cherry. And his personality makeup, with its unique set

65 Marty Mann, Answers To Your Questions About Drinking and Alcoholism (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1970), 37.

66 Ewing and Rouse, p. 101.

of holes, may be the third cherry. Or it may be some variation: say two-thirds psychological and one third sociological. But one lone cherry is not an accurate predictor of who becomes alcoholic.⁶⁷

The unfortunate aspect of this explanation to alcoholism causes is that it sounds so silly and may not be taken seriously. However, if the "theory" name and its' metaphorical reference to cherries is ignored, the logic of this approach closely resembles more serious explanations.

Chafetz and Demone were one of those many authorities who gave more a serious, and more acceptable, explanation. They were unable to accept any single-factor explanation of the etiology of alcoholism. A summation of their approach is:

We shall consider the etiology of alcoholism from a general perspective which will include consideration of prenatal influences, psychological, physiological, and biochemical factors of personality development, cultural influences, and individual and social attitudes toward alcohol.⁶⁸

In this single explanation, the authors combined the four factors which are the focus of this review of the etiology of alcoholism. However, they later simplified this etiology by writing, "We consider that alcoholism exists when alcohol becomes the main focus of a person's thoughts and emotions, physiology, and environment"⁶⁹.

67 Kinney, p. 68.

68 Morris Chafetz and Harold Demone, Alcoholism and Society (New York: Oxford University Press, 1962), 17.

69 Ibid., p. 27.

Royce further explained the combination of factors approach, and he included another important variable - individuality. He wrote, "...we stress that two or more causes can work together in the same individual, and in different proportions in different individuals"⁷⁰. Royce labeled his approach as a "holistic view" which takes into account all aspects of the etiology question.

The seemingly impossible task of identifying the etiology of alcoholism discouraged one author from even attempting a definition of alcoholism. Hayman wrote, "Since there is no specific etiology, no specific definition (of alcoholism) is possible"⁷¹. The best he could do was to describe it as the loss of the power of choice.

In summation of the drinking problem etiology issue, Mann appears to have voiced the majority opinion when he wrote, "...there is no single cause such as a germ or a virus or alcohol itself...the causes will be found in all of the three areas - physiological, psychological, and social"⁷². In attempting to determine if there is a cause for alcoholism one is faced with the same dilemma as when looking for the reason for alleged excessive or disproportionate maladies and afflictions striking Peace

70 Royce, p. 141.

71 Hayman, p. 3.

72 Mann, Answers, p. 67.

Officers. It is futile to search for the germ. Just as the Peace Officers' problems are multi-factorial, so to it appears that alcoholics are the victims of a combination of factors. Like Peace Officer affliction theories, there seems to be no universal agreement as to what is the cause or causes of alcoholism.

b. Peace Officers and Drinking:

That Peace Officers as a profession suffer from a "drinking problem" seems to be an indisputable claim - only the degree to which it is a problem is contested. Authorities who have attempted to address the problem have put "problem drinkers" at 20% of the profession ⁷³, and "23.4% alcohol problems" among officers ⁷⁴. Other chroniclers have not been so specific, but have instead referred to the problem in generalities. Panyard wrote, "...the rates of alcoholism among police officers is higher than the general public and the number of problem drinkers is probably higher"⁷⁵. Others have written that police "are problem drinkers about twice as often as the general population"⁷⁶; have a greater alcoholism problem than most

⁷³ Somodevilla, p. 21.

⁷⁴ R. Michael Buren, "Stress - Talk or Substance," Law and Order (July 1981):22.

⁷⁵ Christine Panyard, "Alcohol: A Danger to Health, Career, Family," Tuebor 44 (March 16, 1981):3.

⁷⁶ Ronald Constant, "Not So Obvious Police Stress," Law and Order 32 (September 1984):65.

other professions 77; "...include a disproportionate number of problem drinkers"78; and prone to developing drinking problems 79. Another clinical psychologist summed up the majority opinion that, "...among police officers, there is little doubt regarding the high rates of..alcoholism"80.

2. HEALTH:

Looking back over my career as a Peace Officer, the first time I was exposed to the phenomenon of "premature death" was during my first year on the job. At roll-call (a formal briefing period before to going on the street), in addition to the night's assignments, wanted person descriptions, special attentions, etc., it is a common occurrence to read off personnel orders, which include transfers, promotions, deaths of current and former members, etc.. I was startled the first time I heard a very old former police officer's name read off with the dates of his service (before some of our birth dates) and my shift mates applauded ! My first reaction was that this response was tasteless bordering on cruel. I am now one of those who applauds an old timer's passing on, saying (at least in my own mind), "That-a-boy, you beat them." The

77 Charles Unkovic, "The Drunken Cop," The Police Chief (April 1978):19.

78 Hitz, p. 496.

79 Bruce Danto, "Police Suicide," Police Stress 1/1 (1978):32.

80 Besner, p. 62.

act that seemed cruel in my rookie year is now an act of admiration for a former officer who beat the odds and collected his pension for a long time. A discovery of the Fell-Richard-Wallace study was that, "...police had significantly high rates of premature death"⁸¹.

If the case has been made that police work is stressful, then studies on stress in other occupations can give us an insight into certain dependent variables. Veninga and Spradley studied the relationship between work and stress. They cited an extensive study in 1979 by the American Academy of Family Physicians which determined there was a link between a stressful job and health problems:

Those workers who reported high levels of work stress had two, three, and even four time the number of health problems. They Had allergies, migraines, backaches, nervousness, headaches, depression, insomnia, and other classic job-burnout symptoms.⁸²

With regard to physiological problems, the Schwartzes take the position that, "Police officers exhibit an uncommonly high incidence of heart disease, back trouble and hypertension for a group that is initially selected on stringent physical fitness criteria"⁸³.

Eisenberg wrote, "Current research has implicated

⁸¹ Donald Fell, Wayne Richard, and William Wallace, "Psychological Job Stress and the Police Officer," Journal of Police Science and Administration 8 (June 1980):141.

⁸² Veninga and Spradley, p. 12.

⁸³ Schwartz and Schwartz, p. 135.

psychological stress as an important causal agent in such health problems as coronary heart disease, gastro-intestinal malfunction, dermatological problems, severe nervous conditions, neurosis, and a number of other physical and mental disorders"⁸⁴.

A man who is sometimes referred to as "the father of stress theory", Hans Selye, labels police work as one of those occupations which, "...are more likely to cause stress-related maladies (for example, high blood pressure, cardio-vascular disease, gastric ulcers, mental disturbances, etc.) than others"⁸⁵.

An interview with Officer "V.M." supports this observation by Selye. The officer had such high blood pressure that it was necessary for him to take medication for the problem. Then in May 1981 he took a one week leisurely vacation in Florida. When he returned to work, his blood pressure was almost normal. He did nothing more than get away from the stresses of his police job, which in turn serendipitously corrected (albeit temporarily) a serious health problem ⁸⁶. Panyard had a similar experience with her own spouse:

Panyard's husband (a police officer) recently suffered an injury and recuperated at home for

⁸⁴ Terry Eisenberg, "Labor-Management Relations and Psychological Stress - View From the Bottom," The Police Chief (November 1975):54.

⁸⁵ Selye, p. 7.

⁸⁶ Once again, as with Officer J.B. referenced earlier the person and the event are real.

six weeks.

During the time he was away from his work, "he was a much nicer person to live with," she says. "He was more compassionate, more understanding and more patient."⁸⁷

Fell, Richard, and Wallace conducted a study which attempted to determine whether psychological job stresses caused Tennessee police officers health problems at abnormally high rates (NOTE: According to the authors, the Tennessee work force closely approximated national percentages in each of the major occupational groupings). The method used was "an epidemiological examination of the records of death certificates, community health centers, and medical hospitals to determine the incidence of stress related disorders for a wide range of occupations"⁸⁸. Of the 130 different occupations included in the study, police ranked third highest in suicides (behind laborers and house painters), sixteenth in hospital admissions"⁸⁹. The report concluded that, "...a relatively high rate of police officers develop serious disorders that appear to be stress related"⁹⁰. Caplan's study also rated police high in "visits to the medical dispensary"⁹¹.

⁸⁷ Sandra Davis, "Stress: It Goes With the Badge", Detroit Free Press, 31 October 1988, sec. C, p. 4C.

⁸⁸ Fell et al, p. 140.

⁸⁹ Ibid., p. 141.

⁹⁰ Ibid., p. 143.

⁹¹ Caplan et al, p. 192.

3. FAMILY/MARRIAGE:

If there are victims of the alleged police job stress, they are not limited to just the officers. As Christine Panyard, a clinical psychologist who has had extensive experience with police personnel in Detroit and its' suburbs wrote, "There's more negative stuff brought home in police households than in other professions, because their job changes them in ways other professions don't"⁹². Dr. Panyard is also married to an officer.

What first alerted me to the possibility that Peace Officers had marital/family problems came one midnight shift while my partner and I were discussing the latest divorce among our shift colleagues. As we ticked off the recent apparent rash of divorces amongst our shift mates, a startling fact became apparent: of the 36 members of our shift we could count only five that we considered "happily married". I use the previous quote marks because we defined a "happily married" officer on our shift as one who:

- a. Was never divorced;
- b. Not currently "having trouble" with the marriage;
- c. Not currently "cheating", nor ever have cheated on their spouse.

Of course we were guilty of imposing our own values on a happy marriage definition - that infidelity was a key

⁹² Sandra Davis, "Stress: It Goes With the Badge," Detroit Free Press, October 31, 1988, Section C, p. 1C, interview with Dr. Panyard.

indicator of trouble in a marriage.

Depue wrote, "Police occupational development often seems to have an adverse impact on familial development"⁹³. He also addressed the uniqueness mentioned earlier saying, "Since the police family lifestyle is atypical, it is probable that there will be more adjustment for family members and more areas of conflict to resolve"⁹⁴. Eisenberg suggests, "...high rates of divorce and marital discord among law enforcement personnel may be attributable, at least in part, to occupational stress"⁹⁵. In Hageman's study on occupational stress and marital relationships, she supports Eisenberg's suggestion stating it is a fact that a "high divorce rate among police officers has been consistent throughout the decades..."⁹⁶. Nordlicht wrote that such job related circumstances as social rejection and shifting schedules can promote, "...problems which may ultimately lead to estrangement and separation between husband and wife"⁹⁷.

The study conducted of police husbands and wives attending the Traffic Police Administration Training Program at Northwestern University reported in the study's

⁹³ Depue, p. 2.

⁹⁴ Ibid., p. 6.

⁹⁵ Eisenberg, p. 54.

⁹⁶ Mary Hageman, "Occupational Stress and Marital Relationships," p. 411.

⁹⁷ Nordlicht, p. 400.

Program at Northwestern University reported in the study's introduction the divorce rates from the authors' own departments: 17% in Baltimore; 27% in Santa Ana; and 33.3% in Chicago. Compare these figures against their quoted U.S. Census figures which indicated a divorce rate of, "... 2.4 percent for males in the same age group category"⁹⁸.

The Schwartzes observed, "Although there is some contradictory evidence on this point, divorce appears to be a very high-frequency occurrence for young police officers"⁹⁹.

V. LITERATURE REVIEW SUMMARY

This review attempted to provide the reader with a cross section of literature that contradicted the high maladies and afflictions theories, partially supported and partially refuted the theories, and supported the theories.

This study will attempt to provide evidence on whether there is a differential in malady and affliction rates between officers in high stress assignments as compared to officers in low stress assignments. If a differential exists, this study will also attempt to identify probable "causes" in the form of stressors or stressor clusters.

⁹⁸ Durner et al, p. 52.

⁹⁹ Schwartz, p. 134.

Chapter 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

I. PURPOSE:

To prove whether Peace Officers are victims of certain problems to a greater or lesser extent than other more traditional occupations is not a purpose of this study. A limited amount of research has already addressed that topic with conflicting findings, as was reported in the previous chapter. The general consensus of the studies seems to endorse the belief that Peace Officers are disproportionately high in many of the problems mentioned, but support for these findings is not universal.

It is the hypothesis of this study that the more stressful an assignment an officer works in, and the longer an officer functions in that stressful assignment, the more likely the officer will suffer afflictions and maladies to a greater degree than officers in less stressful assignments, and more than officers with less time in stressful assignments. Conversely, the less stressful an assignment is, and the longer an officer serves in that capacity, the less likely the afflictions and maladies rates will be as prevalent as those in the high stress assignments. If the hypothesis is supported by the data gathered for this study, the rate of differences between the High-stress assignment and the Low-stress assignment

respondents will become greater with time and exposure in their respective categories.

II. POPULATION/SAMPLING:

The population for this study was Peace Officers in the State of Michigan, including State Police, county sheriff's deputies, municipal and campus police. A random sample (by agency type and size) was taken of all law enforcement agencies listed in A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies in Michigan, the 1984-1985 edition 1. This source contains a listing of 630 law enforcement agencies in Michigan.

The actual sampling of agencies used the following guidelines:

A. An agency was randomly drawn from each of the following classes, for each type of Peace Officer to be queried (i.e., state, county, local):

- Class I - Agencies with over 1,000 sworn officers
- Class II - Agencies with 401 to 1,000 sworn officers
- Class III - Agencies with 76 to 400 sworn officers
- Class IV - Agencies with 15 to 75 sworn officers
- Class V - Agencies with less than 15 sworn officers 2

1 Michigan Bell Telephone Company, A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies in Michigan (Southfield, MI, 1983): 1-26.

2 The five classes of law enforcement agencies were as modeled by Gerald Douglas Gourley in, Effective Municipal Police Organization, (Beverly Hills, CA: Glencoe Press, 1970), 32.

B. There is only one Class I agency in the state, specifically the Detroit Police Department. In this case, one precinct was randomly selected as the representative sample of the entire department. This is a plausible method because each precinct could be looked upon as a "mini" department, with the wide variety of assignments found in the parent department (street officers, undercover, investigative, clerical, supervisory) also found at the precinct level.

When an agency chose to not participate, or neglected to respond to the letter sent to the head of the agency (see Appendix 3) asking for their participation, another agency was randomly selected and solicited from the same class.

Seventeen different Michigan law enforcement agencies agreed to participate in this study. These included seven sheriff's departments, five city police departments, four Michigan State Police posts, and one college public safety department. To these agencies were mailed 1118 questionnaires of which 415 were returned (response totals and breakdown by agency type can be found in Appendix 4). The participants according to agency size were as follows:

- 53 from Class I (over 1,000 sworn officers)
- 146 from Class II (401 to 1,000 sworn officers)
- 106 from Class III (76 to 400 sworn officers)
- 68 from Class IV (15 to 75 sworn officers)
- 39 from Class V (less than 15 sworn officers)

Figure 3.1 - Number of Participants by Agency Class

Characteristics regarding the individual respondents included:

Sex of P.O.: 365 Males, 45 Females
 Race: 328 Whites
 71 Blacks
 1 Hispanic
 1 American Indian
 Currently Attending School: 45 Yes, 362 No
 Currently Working A Second Job: 76 Yes, 323 No
 Currently Active in Sports: 221 Yes, 179 No

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Minimum</u>	<u>Maximum</u>
Age	37	21	59
Highest Education		less	Ph. D.
Attained	2 yrs col	than HS	
Time as P.O.	12.2 yrs	6 Mo.s	36.7 yrs

Figure 3.2 - Sample Characteristics

The number of respondents by JOB TITLE are listed in Appendix 5. The specific numbers of respondents belonging to a certain ASSIGNMENT are detailed in Appendix 6.

III. METHODOLOGY:

A. AN INTRA-PROFESSION MEASURE:

This study attempted what is believed to be a rare intra-profession comparison of the sample subjects. The need for such an approach was suggested several years after this project was initiated (and before its' completion) by Malloy and Mays who wrote, "Future research on police stress should focus not only on intergroup (that is, police-nonpolice) comparisons but on intragroup (that is, among police officers) which make them more or less susceptible to the deleterious effects of stress"³. By

3 Malloy and Mays, p. 208.

doing so, looking at whether Peace Officers are more divorce-prone than those in other occupations (such as tool and die makers) is avoided.

This method was used because I believe answers to the previously mentioned problems can be found not by measuring or comparing outside the profession (e.g., air traffic controllers versus Peace Officers), but by measuring within it. Law enforcement agencies, especially the large ones, contain many employee positions which can be considered almost civilian-like. That is, some officers' routine duties are similar in function to those of a traditionally civilian occupation. An example of this situation is a police precinct clerks' job. It is not uncommon for sworn Peace Officers to be responsible primarily for typing, filing, phone answering, and other typically clerical or office-type tasks, and have little or no responsibilities in the traditionally thought of law enforcement/crime fighting activities usually associated with an officer's normal work day. On the other hand, certain officers have assignments which can be considered uniquely police-like. In other words, no comparable job can be found among the traditional civilian occupations. An example of the latter is that of an undercover narcotics officer.

B. PROCEDURE:

A random sample was taken of all law enforcement agencies listed in A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies

in Michigan, the 1984-1985 edition 4. Once an agency was selected, a letter (see Appendix 3) was sent to the head of the agency asking for his/her permission to allow the questionnaire (Appendix 7) and cover letter (Appendix 8) to be made available to their members. A self addressed stamped envelope, a consent form (Appendix 9), and a copy of the cover letter and questionnaire were attached to the Chief's letter for him/her to see exactly what was being proposed. Once a positive reply was returned to the author, a package consisting of one questionnaire with cover letter, and one self addressed stamped envelope for each member of the agency was delivered to the participating agency for distribution. After the participants filled out the questionnaire and mailed the form back to this researcher, the answers were codified using a codebook developed for this study (see Appendix 10). The codified data was then analyzed using a computer statistical program named "Minitab"⁵. After final data analysis and review, a findings summary and cover letter (see Appendix 13) was mailed to the individual respondents and agencies who requested feedback.

4 Michigan Bell Telephone Company, A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies in Michigan (Southfield, MI, 1983): 1-26.

5 "Minitab" Standard Version Data Analysis Software, Release 5. 1. 3, for IBM PC/XT/AT (Minitab, Inc., 3081 Enterprise Drive, State College, PA).

IV. MEASURING DEVICE:

A. THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

The instrument was a written questionnaire (Appendix 7) requesting baseline data, job descriptions and stress scores (Job Stress Scale), and stress symptom patterns (i.e., afflictions and maladies).

The questionnaire had different types of questions depending on the subject matter and the nature of the responses sought. The questions were grouped into five parts:

Part A:

1. Background information
2. "Satisfaction" scale (Stress Symptom Pattern)

Part B - The Job Stress Scale (Stress Symptom Pattern)

Part C - Past and present drinking habits (Stress Symptom Pattern)

Part D - Past and present health condition (Stress Symptom Pattern)

Part E - Past and present marriage/family situation (Stress Symptom Pattern)

B. QUESTION SOURCES:

The various sources for the individual questions were derived from the following:

1. Questions composed by this writer and theoretically derived for this study:

- a. Based on experience and exposure to the aforementioned afflictions and maladies over 19 years of law enforcement service.

- b. Interviews (normally about eight hours in duration) with active veteran "street cops" and "day lords" (In police jargon the civilian-like positions are staffed by officers sometimes known as "day lords".)

c. Obvious census-type data used to describe the respondents in fundamental terms relevant to most sociological issues, and to establish bases for comparison.

2. Specific questions on drinking habits/problems and alcoholism (in addition to those mentioned in 1 above):

a. A "list of manifest behavior patterns and reported attitudes of feeling tones which are characteristic of the ...Progressive Pattern in Alcohol Addiction" came from an article in Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol 6.

b. A flyer, "Alcoholism: The Family Illness"⁷.

c. A flyer, "Before You Drink...Know the Facts About Alcohol Abuse"⁸.

d. An article, "Burned-Out Cops and Their Families"⁹.

e. An article, "The Drunken Cop"¹⁰.

f. This writer's observations of (and participation in) colleagues' drinking habits and problems.

3. Questions regarding specific health problems were derived from the articles in the literature review (Chapter 2), and were selected based on the frequency a specific illness was discussed.

4. Questions on marital and family problems (in addition to those applicable sources mentioned above) came from:

6 Bacon, p. 2.

7 Greater Detroit Area National Council on Alcoholism, Alcoholism: The Family Illness (Detroit:), a flyer.

8 Kenneth Williams, Before You Drink...Know the Facts About Alcohol Use (Birmingham, MI: Junior League of Birmingham): a flyer.

9 Maslach and Jackson, p. 59-62.

10 Unkovic and Brown, p. 18-20.

a. An article, "Correlates of Dissatisfaction in Marriage"¹¹.

b. An article, "Burned-Out Cops and Their Families"¹².

c. This writer's observations of colleagues family/marital problems.

C. MEASURES

1. THE JOB STRESS SCALE:

a. Discussion:

The most critical part of the Questionnaire is the Job Stress Scale (Part B of the questionnaire, Appendix 7). I realize that the end result of this device is the respondent's perceived content of his or her tasks, and as such the score will have some emotional tone. Additionally, the Likert-type quality of the measure is not an exact reading of the respondents position on an issue, thus caution must be used when attempting inferences from the data.

The 20 questions contained in the Job Stress Scale do not address every potentially stressful situation faced by officers. More than 50 such situations were identified in the literature review (as evidenced in Appendix 1). While developing this measure, I was concerned of the length of the questionnaire, and its negative effect on response

¹¹ Karen S. Renne, "Correlates of Dissatisfaction in Marriage," Journal of Marriage and the Family (February 1970):54-67.

¹² Maslach and Jackson, p. 59-62.

rate. I limited the measure to 20 items, drawing from thirteen years (at the time it was designed) experience and exposure to both ends of the spectrum of High-stress to Low-stress assignments. The order that the questions appear on the questionnaire carry no significance.

b. Rationale for Question Selection:

With regard to the twenty individual questions, it was (and still is) my perception that constantly changing work hours (Questionnaire, Part B, question #1) is highly stressful both psychologically and physically. This also holds true for working at night (Part B, question 2). On the other hand, I felt much better when I worked a straight day shift with regular (usually weekends) days off. Unsolicited support for this condition came from family and friends who commented on an improved appearance and attitude while I was working a "normal" day.

When "on the street" my tasks were unpredictable with regard to timing (Part B, 3) and the nature of the task (B,17) for the whole eight hour shift. At any minute the police radio might send us (my partner and I) off on foot or in a scout car (B, 10) to a potentially life-threatening scene (B, 11). Or, we were equally likely to be on "routine patrol" for the whole eight hours. On the other hand, when I had a "day lord" assignment I knew before getting to the station each morning what I was going to be doing for that day.

When on the street, to not carry a gun (B, 4) was fool hardy. When working in an office assignment the gun actually got in the way many times.

The street also provided exposure to such things as tragedy (B, 5), the seamy elements of the city and its inhabitants (B, 9), corruption (B, 15), and stressful situations (B, 12). These same stressful exposures were rare when working in a civilian-like ("day lord") assignment.

When working the street, the vast majority of contacts with other people were tense (B, 8), stressed (B, 6), and hostile (B, 7). When contact was made, the situation frequently demanded split-second decision making (B, 13) which could result in extreme and even fatal results (B, 14) with consequent severe punishment (B, 16) as an outcome of mistakes. When working in the office, such stressful contacts were not common because by the time an explosive situation reached the precinct station it had been diffused considerably (usually by the street cops). On the street it is happening now and demands action now.

A delayed result of working the street is the necessity of testifying in court (B, 18) at a later time and date, where sometimes an officer feels as though he or she is on trial rather than the defendant. Additionally, when scheduling court cases, an officer's work schedule is given little or no consideration. It is not uncommon for an officer to get off work at 8:00 A.M., go to the court

building for a trial, sit for 8 hours, and then be ordered to come back again tomorrow morning. Working as a day lord obviates this requirement or opportunity.

While on the street, the officers' sometimes mystical power of discretion (B, 19) is constantly being used and, of course, being subjected to second-guessing. There is much less need for this "power" to be exercised while working in an office job.

Finally, what might seem trivial to others, is the stress experienced during the meal breaks (B, 20). Breaks are usually strictly limited in time (e.g., 30 minutes), taken in fast food restaurants (i.e., less than nutritional foods), and subject to, "Excuse me officer, I know that you are eating, but..."!

2. DRINKING MEASURES:

a. Drinking Level Change (DLC):

The first measure of a possible drinking problem was a simple before-and-after question which attempted to determine the difference between the officer's current drinking level and his/her drinking level when he or she first became a Peace Officer. On a 1 to 7 scale, a "1" answer represented not drinking at all, and a "7" represented a "daily" drinker before becoming a Peace Officer, and an alcoholic now. The difference, both positive and negative, between the two scores then became the respondent's Drinking Level Change (DLC) score. A

positive score indicated an increase in the officer's drinking level. A negative score indicated that the officer's consumption of liquor was actually reduced between the time the officer came on the job to the time he/she filled out the questionnaire. The rationale for the different wording on the "7" value was that an alcoholic presumably would not have been accepted as an officer recruit in the first place if it was known he/she was an alcoholic. However, no evidenced surfaced during the literature review precluding the possibility of alcoholic "rookies". This may be due in part to the notion of alcoholism being so vague and ambiguous in the first place.

b. Drinking Problem Indicators (DPI):

The second measure of a possible drinking problem was a list of eleven drinking problem indicators, and a "YES" or "NO" answer by the respondents. The specific indicators can be found in the Questionnaire, Part C, questions 3a through 3k, Appendix 7).

3. HEALTH MEASURES:

a. Health Level Change (HLC):

Another simple then-and-now report from the officer on his/her perception of their health when they first became a Peace Officer, and a later evaluation of how they judge themselves currently. Both measures asked for their description of their health based on an EXCELLENT-GOOD-FAIR-POOR-BAD scale, with "excellent" scored at 4 and "bad"

scored at 0. The difference between the two scores, both positive and negative, became the officer's "Health Level Change" (HLC) score. A negative score indicated a reduction or deterioration in the officer's health level, and a positive score indicated an improvement in general health level from the time of becoming an officer to the time of answering the Questionnaire.

b. Health Problem Indicators (HPI):

Using nine frequently mentioned health problems as determined in the literature review, a "Health Problems Indicators" chart was incorporated in the questionnaire. The past and present status of the following maladies was asked:

- Heart disease
- Ulcers
- High blood pressure
- Chronic headaches
- Chronic stomach aches
- Diabetes
- Lung disease
- Arthritis
- Hypertension

The participants were first asked to indicate if the health problem was present when before they became an officer, and secondly, if they were suffering any of the maladies at the time of answering the questionnaire.

4. FAMILY/MARRIAGE MEASURES:

a. Family Score (FS):

Eight questions of the questionnaire were grouped into a "Family Score" by using a Likert-type scale. The

specific questions can be found in Part E of the Questionnaire, questions 5 through 12, Appendix 7. The officers were asked to respond to each question indicating "Always", "Often", "Sometimes", "Seldom", or "Never" as responses to each question. Each answer was scored 1 through 5 depending on the nature of the question. A high "Family Score" was indicative of a happy stable family life. Conversely, a low Family Score was indicative of a troubled family environment.

b. Marital Happiness Level Change (HC):

The questionnaire contained two questions (spaced apart in the Questionnaire on separate pages) asking the officers how they rated their marriage at the time of answering the Questionnaire (very happy, happy, somewhat happy, unhappy, very unhappy), and how they rated their marriage when first became a law enforcement officer. Subtracting the "now" rating from the "then" rating became the participants' Marriage Happiness Level Change score. A positive score indicated that the officer's happiness level in marriage actually went up during his/her tenure as a Peace Officer, and a negative score indicated the officer's marriage was less happy than when he/she first became an officer.

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS

I. INTRODUCTION:

A paraphrasing of the hypothesis might read, "The longer Peace Officers are in stressful assignments, the greater their chances of falling victim to deleterious personal problems."

The analysis of data accumulated for this study attempted to determine the validity of the statement above, but more specifically to answers three questions:

1. Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of drinking problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?
2. Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of health problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?
3. Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of marital/family problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?

As a measure of stressful work experiences, the questionnaire included a "Job Stress Scale" which was developed for this study. It used a Likert-type score to differentiate the work environments of the participants in this study. The possible Job Stress Score (JSS) had a range of 20 to 100. The study sample's range of scores was

27 through 96, with an average of 67.53. The sample's distribution of Job Stress Scores is as shown in Table 4.1 below:

TABLE 4.1 - JOB STRESS SCORES DISTRIBUTION

Midpoint	Count	N = 413
25	1	>
30	4	**
35	7	***>
40	3	*>
45	17	*****>
50	28	*****
55	34	*****
60	44	*****
65	64	*****
70	55	*****>
75	49	*****>
80	48	*****
85	29	*****>
90	22	*****
95	8	****

Each * represents 2 observations

Hereafter, the participants' position on the Job Stress Scale will be referred to as the "Job Stress Score" (JSS), or the "Stress Score".

Correlations between the individual Job Stress Scale questions and the total score, and cross tabulations between the individual questions themselves are presented in Table 4.2 below:

TABLE 4.2 - JOB STRESS SCALE CROSS TABULATIONS*

	JSS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Hours	.33										
2. Nights	.34	.23									
3. Tasks #1	.56	.20	.20								
4. Gun	.51	.11	.05	.32							
5. Tragedy	.68	.17	.14	.36	.42						
6. Stress #1	.50	.06	.03	.15	.08	.32					
7. Hostile	.64	.06	.06	.20	.25	.39	.59				
8. Tension	.55	.07	.02	.20	.12	.33	.75	.64			
9. Seamy	.59	.06	.04	.19	.33	.39	.41	.60	.41		
10. Mobile	.64	.19	.22	.39	.42	.39	.07	.30	.11	.35	
11. Danger	.79	.19	.16	.34	.47	.49	.32	.57	.38	.52	.62
12. Stress #2	.65	.11	.17	.32	.12	.37	.45	.47	.49	.36	.28
13. Quick Dec	.74	.15	.25	.39	.26	.46	.35	.44	.37	.29	.42
14. Misconduct	.72	.08	.23	.34	.23	.46	.38	.49	.43	.34	.37
15. Corruption	.37	.00	.01	.18	.05	.17	.24	.30	.24	.23	.12
16. Mistakes	.54	.04	.16	.19	.11	.25	.28	.36	.33	.28	.21
17. Tasks #2	.63	.23	.20	.44	.37	.46	.10	.16	.10	.25	.59
18. Court	.47	.12	.05	.20	.40	.41	.13	.20	.16	.35	.33
19. Discretion	.52	.07	.13	.39	.24	.32	.22	.14	.19	.21	.36
20. Meals	.48	.21	.25	.26	.10	.28	.13	.21	.16	.14	.25
		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
12. Stress #2		.51									
13. Quick Decision		.64	.61								
14. Misconduct		.60	.54	.68							
15. Corruption		.24	.24	.23	.30						
16. Mistakes		.40	.39	.42	.55	.35					
17. Tasks #2		.45	.32	.46	.36	.11	.25				
18. Court		.36	.15	.21	.19	.12	.10	.36			
19. Discretion		.36	.36	.41	.35	.21	.26	.36	.23		
20. Meals		.28	.33	.36	.36	.07	.27	.37	.13	.18	

* Any time correlations are given in this study the usual Pearson product moment correlation coefficient is used.

The highest correlation ($r = .79$) was between a high Job Stress Score and the potential for danger in an officer's assignment. The two lowest correlations were between the Job Stress Score and changing work hours on a regular basis ($r = .33$) and always working a night time shift ($r = .34$).

Also included in the questionnaire were background questions, and questions addressing the three areas of concern (the rationale for these were previously explained in detail in Chapter 3).

II. SAMPLES AND SUB-SAMPLES:

The sample for this study was drawn from Peace Officers in the State of Michigan, including State Police, county sheriff's deputies, municipal, and local, and campus police. A random stratified sample by agency type, and classified by size according to Gourley's model, was taken of all law enforcement agencies listed in A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies in Michigan, 1984-1985 edition 1. This source contains a listing of 630 law enforcement agencies. These agencies were broken down by size and type as indicated in Table 4.3 below:

1 Michigan Bell Telephone Company, A Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies in Michigan (Southfield, MI, 1983): 1-26.

TABLE 4.3
MICHIGAN LAW ENFORCEMENT ORGANIZATION SIZES AND TYPES

	SIZE OF THE ORGANIZATION				
	Class I (1000+)	Class II (400-1000)	Class III (75-399)	Class IV (15-74)	Class V (less 15)
AGENCY TYPE:					
Police	1	0	22	106	355
Sheriffs	0	1	6	43	33
M.S.P.	0	0	0	30	33
Sub-totals:	1	1	28	179	421
<u>TOTAL LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES IN MICHIGAN.....630</u>					

For this study sample, the size and type of organization participating are listed in Table 4.4 below:

TABLE 4.4
STUDY ORGANIZATIONS SIZES AND TYPES

	SIZE OF THE ORGANIZATION				
	Class I 1000+	Class II 400-1000	Class III 75-399	Class IV 15-74	Class V less 15
AGENCY TYPE:					
Police	1 (53)*	0	1 (55)	2 (28)	2 (9)
Sheriffs	0	1 (147)	1 (51)	3 (38)	2 (11)
M.S.P.	0	0	0	1 (8)	3 (15)
Sub-totals:	1 (53)	1 (147)	2 (106)	6 (74)	7 (35)
<u>TOTAL NUMBER OF AGENCIES PARTICIPATING.....17</u>					
<u>TOTAL NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENTS.....415</u>					

*Numbers in parentheses (n) indicate study respondents

The hypotheses are directed at the officers who have served in the assignments with the most stress over extended periods of time. Therefore, operationalizing the sub-samples is necessary, and they are described below.

A. "Low-stress Officer" vs "High-stress Officer":

The sample's average Job Stress Score was 67.53 (which is the dividing point for the two comparison groups) with a range of 27 through 96. For the purpose of the following data analysis, those respondents who scored 27 through 67 on the Job Stress Scale are defined as having "Low-stress Officer" assignments, and those who scored 68 through 96 are defined as having "High-stress Officer" assignments. The use of the terms "low" and "high" stress does not eliminate those with "some" stress, nor does it imply a black and white, either-or outlook. As used in this study, the terms are simply used to differentiate two groups of study subjects.

To validate this measure, I put myself in the mental position of two former partners of mine, and filled out the Job Stress Scale (pages 2 and 3 of the Questionnaire) answering what I thought they would answer. The results of applying their respective careers to the Job Stress Scale can be found in Appendix 11. The majority of "Bob's" career was spent as a precinct staff clerk (administration). "John", on the other hand, spent a majority of his career as a narcotics officer (undercover). Using a Likert-type scale, with a score of 5 for answers in the extreme left column, with descending scores down to 1 in the extreme right hand column, Bob's probable score would have been around 30, and John's would have been

around 91. These scores were then applied to the following scale:

20-67 = "Low-stress Officer"
68-100 = "High-stress Officer"

As a result, Bob would be classified as being in a Low-stress Officer assignment, and John would be in a High-stress Officer category.

A cursory review of the data obtained during this research effort reveals similar outcomes. There were 66 different assignment positions described in the returned questionnaires (See Appendix 6 for assignment titles and the number of respondents for each). Of these, eight clusters were formed based on their similar tasks (See Appendix 12 for Assignment Clusters). Of those officers who described their assignments as falling in the "Administrative" category (e.g., Bob's civilian-like position), 69% scored in the lower half of the Job Stress Scale. On the other hand, 72% of the "Undercover" officers (e.g., John's police-like assignment) placed in the higher half of the scale. Further supporting the high-stress of street work hypothesis were the officers who classified themselves in the "Patrol" cluster, 71% of whom scores in the high half of the scale. On the other hand, of the responding officers in the usually tranquil setting of the court room, 80% scored in the lower half of the scale (see Table 4.5 below):

TABLE 4.5
JOB STRESS SCALE SCORES vs ASSIGNMENTS

	JOB STRESS SCALE				Total
	[27-57]	[58-67]	[68-77]	[78-96]	
ASSIGNMENT:					
Administrative:	44	32	21	12	109
% of group	40%	29%	19%	11%	
Corrections:	6	15	14	6	41
% of group	15%	37%	34%	15%	
Courts:	7	9	3	1	20
% of group	35%	45%	15%	5%	
Investigations:	5	10	5	7	27
% of group	19%	37%	19%	26%	
Miscellaneous:	1	1	1	2	5
% of group	20%	20%	20%	40%	
Patrol:	15	32	47	68	162
% of group	9%	20%	29%	42%	
State/Federal:					0
(all these were found in the "Previous Assignment")					
Supervision:	14	7	8	6	35
% of group	40%	20%	23%	17%	
Undercover:	2	2	5	5	14
% of group	14%	14%	36%	36%	
					N = 413

B. "VETERAN" vs "ROOKIE" OFFICERS:

The variable of TIME was part of the hypotheses statements. Simply being a current member of a stressful assignment group may not make an officer an immediate victim of the maladies and afflictions previously suggested. An officer's physiological, psychological, and sociological well-being may be eroded over a period of time in stressful assignments. Therefore, not only must we look at the differences between the Low-stress Officer and High-stress Officer groups, but these groups must be further refined by the variable of time. To that end, the Low-stress Officer and the High-stress Officer groups were both further divided according to each officers' time in assignment. The average time in an assignment was 62.2

months, with a range of 1 month to 300 months. The distribution of the respondents' time served in their current assignments was:

TABLE 4.6
DISTRIBUTION OF TIME (MONTHS) SERVED IN CURRENT ASSIGNMENTS

Midpoint	Count	N = 412
0	43	*****>
20	114	*****
40	88	*****>
60	31	*****
80	26	*****
100	31	*****
120	20	****
140	15	***
160	16	***
180	2	>
200	9	**
220	8	*>
240	6	*
260	1	>
280	0	
300	2	>

Each * represents 5 observations

Both the Low-stress Officer and the High-stress Officer groups were therefore further divided into "rookie" (1 month to 62 months) and "veteran" (63 months to 300 months) sub-groups. (Note: These terms are not used to connote any judgments, rather they are simply handy.)

Would the deleterious effects of police work show up in any significant numbers in the younger officers no matter how stressful their current assignments? A few areas were tested to explore this question. Some examples are:

1. With regard to Drinking Problem Indicators (DPI), there was no significant difference ($df = 1, 226$; F-score

of $2.98 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84 \text{ at } p < .05$) in group average scores between rookies with the Low-stress Officer jobs ($x = 1.101 \text{ DPI}$) and rookies with High-stress Officer jobs ($x = 1.504 \text{ DPI}$).

2. There was no significant difference ($df = 1, 247$; F-score of $2.98 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84 \text{ at } p < .05$) in group average scores between the Drinking Level Changes (DLC) of rookies in the Low-stress Officer jobs ($x = -0.226 \text{ DLC}$) and rookies in High-stress Officer jobs ($x = 0.080 \text{ DLC}$).

3. Correlations between Rookie stress scores, drinking level changes, and drinking problem indicators were quite small. They included:

- a. Rookies in Low-stress Officer assignments:
 Stress score & drinking level change: $r = .091$
 Stress score & drinking problem indicators: $r = .003$
- b. Rookies in High-stress Officer assignments:
 Stress score & drinking level change: $r = .004$
 Stress score & drinking problem indicators: $r = .102$

4. When measuring Health Problem Indicators (HPI), there was no significant difference ($df = 1, 263$; F-score of $0.01 < \text{the Critical Value of } 3.84 \text{ at } p < .05$) in group average scores between rookies in the Low-stress Officer group ($x = -0.795 \text{ HPI}$) and those in the High-stress Officer group ($x = -0.812 \text{ HPI}$).

5. There was no significant difference ($df = 1, 264$; F-score of $0.40 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84 \text{ at } p < .05$) in group average scores between the Health Level Changes (HLC) of rookies in the Low-stress Officer assignments ($x = -0.591$) and rookies in the High-stress Officer assignments ($x = -0.657$).

6. Correlations between Rookie stress scores, health level changes, and health problem indicators were also small. They included:

- a. Rookies in Low-stress Officer assignments:
 Stress score & health level change: $r = .03$
 Stress score & health problem indicators: $r = .10$
- b. Rookies in High-stress Officer assignments:
 Stress score & health level change: $r = .15$
 Stress score & health problem indicators: $r = .01$

In summary, the time served in and the type of an assignment seem to have very little relation to the onset of maladies and afflictions for rookie officers.

III. ORGANIZATIONAL SIZE AND TYPE CORRELATES OF STRESS:

Before looking at the main issues of interest, the possibility that the type or the size of the officers' work organization more adequately accounts for differences in the maladies and afflictions rates will be investigated.

The first organization-related question to be explored is, "Are stressful assignments peculiar to a certain TYPE (i.e., State, Sheriffs, municipal/local) of law enforcement agency ? The job stress scores of the different political types of organizations that participated in the study were compared as reflected in Table 4.7 below.

As a means to investigate this question, the null hypothesis that there was no difference in the average Job Stress Scores of the three types of agencies (municipal or local police, sheriffs, State Police) was tested. Using

one way analysis of variance, a test statistic (F-score) was computed. Since the computed F-score of 4.03 is greater than the Critical Value (R) of 3.00, we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude we have evidence that there are some significant differences among the various agency types ($df = 2, 410$; $p < .05$).

TABLE 4.7
AVERAGE JOB STRESS SCORE by TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION:	JOB STRESS SCORE		Total
	Low-stress [27-67]	High-stress [68-96]	
Municipal/Local Police:	62	82	144
Mean JSS = 69.98	$x = 55.6$	$x = 80.85$	
Sheriff:	128	118	246
Mean JSS = 66.48	$x = 56.86$	$x = 76.92$	
State Police:	12	11	23
Mean JSS = 63.39	$x = 52.17$	$x = 75.64$	
	202	211	413

Looking at the scores of all three types of agencies we see that the greatest difference in averages is between the municipal/local police and the State Police (6.59 points). However, the difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 165$; F-score of 3.73 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$). On the other hand, while the difference between average scores of the municipal/local police and the Sheriffs is not as large (only 3.5 points), the difference between them is statistically significant ($df = 1, 388$; F-score of 5.89 > Critical value of 3.84, $p < .05$). The difference between the State Police and the Sheriffs average stress scores (3.09) is not significant ($df = 1, 267$; F-score of 1.21 < Critical Value of 3.84 at $p < .05$).

In the "High-stress Officer" category (scores of 68 through 96), the difference in average scores between the Sheriffs and State Police (1.32) are not significantly different ($df = 1, 127$; F-score of 0.34 < Critical Value of 3.92, $p < .05$). The municipal/local police participants' job stress score average is significantly higher, with almost 4 and over 5 points higher than both the Sheriffs and the State Police ($df = 1, 198$; F-score of 14.44 > Critical Value of 3.84 at $p < .05$; and, $df = 1, 91$; F-score of 4.89 > Critical Value of 3.11, $p < .05$, respectively).

This data would indicate that the municipal/local police are in a more stressful work environment, or at least perceive themselves that way.

The second question regarding the organizations' impact on officers is, "Are stressful assignments peculiar to a certain SIZE of law enforcement agency ? To investigate this question, the organizations were divided according to Gourley's model as shown in Table 4.8 below. The only significant job stress score average is the Class II (from 400 to 1,000 sworn members) organization's average score of 63.88, which was the lowest of the five classes. This statistic is especially surprising because the Class II group was drawn from an organization (a large Sheriff's department) which covered basically the same geographical area as the Class I organization (a large municipal police department) which had the highest job stress score average. The difference between the two averages is significant (df

= 1, 197; F-score of 11.47 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$). This statistic would indicate that high job stress is more a function of the type or nature of the organization than a function of organization size OR geographic location. This assumption supports the findings in the paragraph on organization TYPE, which concluded that, "...the local or municipal police are in a more stressful environment, or at least perceive themselves that way."

TABLE 4.8
JOB STRESS SCORE by LAW ENFORCEMENT ORGANIZATION SIZE

	JOB STRESS SCORES	
	Low-stress [27-67]	High-stress [68-96]
AGENCY SIZE:		
Class I (over 1,000)(n=53):	n = 22	n = 31
X = 70.91	x = 53.36	x = 83.35
Class II (400-1,000)(n=146):	n = 89	n = 57
X = 63.88	x = 57.25	x = 74.25
Class III (75 - 399)(n=106):	n = 42	n = 64
X = 69.3	x = 54.95	x = 78.72
Class IV (15 - 74)(n=68):	n = 29	n = 39
X = 69.96	x = 57.52	x = 79.21
Class V (less than 15)(n=39):	n = 19	n = 20
X = 67.74	x = 55.05	x = 79.8

As a final check on possible effects of organization TYPE and SIZE on job stress scores, the size and type of organization were combined to look at the relationship between the stress scores and, (a) large municipal police departments, (b) large sheriff departments, (c) medium-to-small sized police departments, (d) medium-to small sized sheriffs departments, and (e) State Police posts. Table 4.9 shows the results. The group that seems to jump out

from this chart is the city police in the highest job stress quartile. Of the 53 big city police who responded to the questionnaire almost half of them (47%) placed in the highest quarter of the Job Stress Scale.

Repeating the paradox discovered in the previous question, the highest quartile of the job stress scale (scores of 78 through 96) shows the large Sheriff department participants scoring significantly lower ($df = 1, 38$; F-score of 8.32 > Critical Value of 4.10 at $p < .05$) than the large city police. Only 10% of the deputies reported the highest stress assignments compared to 47% of the police officers reporting highest stress assignments.

TABLE 4.9
JOB STRESS SCORE vs LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCY TYPE AND SIZE

	JOB STRESS SCORES			
	[27-57]	[58-67]	[68-77]	[78-96]
AGENCY TYPE:				
Large City (n=53):	n=11	n=11	n=6	n=25
% of type =	21%	21%	11%	47%
X = 70.91	x=46.27	x=60.46	x=72.33	x=86.0
Large Sheriff (n=146):	n=39	n=50	n=42	n=15
% of type =	27%	34%	29%	10%
X = 63.88	x=49.59	x=63.22	x=71.67	x=81.5
Medium/Small PD(n=91):	n=17	n=23	n=23	n=28
% of type =	19%	25%	25%	31%
X = 69.44	x=47.71	x=63.57	x=73.3	x=84.3
Medium/Small SD(n=100):	n=19	n=19	n=28	n=34
% of type =	19%	19%	28%	34%
X = 70.43	x=48.0	x=63.74	x=72.25	x=85.3
State Police (n=23):	n=8	n=4	n=6	n=5
% of type =	35%	17%	26%	22%
X = 63.39	x=47.5	x=61.5	x=70.33	x=82.0

Before leaving the question of an organization's effect on officer personal problems, the differences in maladies and afflictions rates between the large municipal

police department and the large sheriff's department were investigated.

Of the six indices compared, the less-stressed sheriffs were generally better off than the more stressed big city police. By using analysis of variance on the average Family Scores, it was discovered that there was a significant difference ($df = 1, 122$; F-score of 4.43 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$) between the average Family Scores of the sheriffs ($x = 29.97$) and the police ($x = 27.52$).

Looking at other indices, although not statistically significant, reveals the sheriffs also reported fewer drinking problem indicators (an average of 1.2 vs an average of 1.5 for the police), averaged no drinking level change as opposed to the officers' average increase of 0.24, and had a lower decline in their average health level (-0.73) than did their more stressed colleagues in the big city police (-0.85) department. The sheriffs did report a slightly higher average health problem indicator score (-.897) than did the police (-.865), and reported a slightly lower average marital happiness level change score (-.27) than did the police whose average did not change (0.00).

In summation of the data on an organization's type and size influence on officer problem rates, it appears that an organization's size does not have as much effect on a Peace Officer's perceived job stress as does the type (nature) of the organization.

IV. TESTING THE HYPOTHESES:

A. DRINKING PROBLEMS:

"Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of drinking problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?"

The first hypothesis suggests that officers with long-term High-stress assignments are more likely to suffer "drinking problems" than officers with Low-stress assignments, or officers with less time in their assignment. To investigate this contention, two measures of drinking habits were included in the questionnaire:

1. DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE (DLC):

The distribution on this drinking question was unimodal and symmetrical (see Table 4.10) with...

115 (30%) reported DECREASED drinking levels,
180 (46%) respondents reported NO CHANGE in
drinking levels, and,
93 (24%) reported INCREASED drinking levels.

The sample's range for changes in the drinking level was an increase of five levels (i.e., drinking problem worsened), to a decrease in drinking of five levels, with an average change of -0.103, or a slight overall reduction in the drinking levels of all the study's participants.

TABLE 4.10
DISTRIBUTION OF DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE SCORES

MIDPOINT	NUMBER = 388	
-5	1	>
-4	6	**
-3	17	****
-2	37	*****
-1	54	*****
0	180	*****
1	51	*****
2	20	****
3	13	***
4	7	**
5	2	>

Each * represents 5 observations

Comparing the veteran officers in the High-stress assignments with the veteran officers in Low-stress jobs revealed that, as hypothesized, the drinking level change of the veteran officers in the High-stress jobs increased (an average of +.101 levels), whereas the veteran officers in the low stress jobs decreased their drinking levels (an average of -.393). However, a one-way analysis of variance does not indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups' drinking level changes ($df = 1, 123$; F-score of 2.75 < Critical Value 3.84, $p < .05$).

The average difference in drinking level change between the High-stress veteran officers (+.101) and High-stress rookie officers (+.066) is also not significant ($df = 1, 173$; F-score of 0.02 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

Correlations:

Comparing the overall sample's job stress scores

against their drinking level change scores revealed a correlation of $+0.108$, suggesting that as the level of job stress went up there was a slight increase in the officers' average drinking level.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the overall sample's stress scores and its' drinking level changes, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The t -value corresponding to 339 degrees of freedom and a 95% confidence is 1.96. The Job Stress Score "t-ratio" of 2.24 is significant, giving us evidence that B is probably not zero. This implies that a high job stress score is useful as a predictor of an increase in an officers drinking level.

A breakdown of the respondents by drinking level changes (down, no change, up) compared against job stress scores also supported the hypothesis. It revealed 61% of the respondents who reported an increase in their drinking levels were also in the High-stress half (scores of 68 through 96) of the Job Stress Scale as shown in Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11
JOB STRESS SCORE vs DRINKING LEVEL CHANGES

	JOB STRESS SCORES		
	[27-67]	[68-96]	Total
DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE SCORES:			
Down:	61/53%	54/47%	115
Expected Counts*	(56)	(59)	
No Change:	91/51%	89/49%	180
Expected Counts*	(87)	(93)	
Up:	36/39%	57/61%	93
Expected Counts*	(45)	(48)	
	188	200	= 388

df = 2; ChiSqr = 4.82 > Critical Value of 4.61 (p < .10)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Other Differences and Correlations:

All officers in Low-stress assignments had an average decrease (-.241) in their drinking levels, and all the officers in the High-stress positions had the predicted average increase (+.080) in their drinking levels. This difference is significant (df = 1, 339; F-score of 3.97 > Critical Value of 3.84, p < .05).

Some would suggest that the differences in the average Drinking Level Change was due in large part to an increase in age, time on the job, or time in assignment. As Tables 4.12A through 4.12C show below, when time is the controlling variable there is no significant difference in the percentages of officers who reported an increase in their drinking levels and those who reported a decrease.

Table 4.12A
AGE vs DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE

	AGE		Total
	20-39	40-59	
DLC Down:	77/66% (73)*	37/64% (42)	114
DLC Up:	54/59% (59)	38/41% (34)	92
	131	75	206

df = 1; ChiSqr = 1.72 < C.V. of 3.84 (p < .05)

Table 4.12B
TIME ON THE JOB vs DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE

	TIME ON THE JOB (in months)		Totals
	6-145	146-441	
DLC Down:	57/50% (54)*	58/50% (61)	115
DLC Up:	41/44% (44)	52/56% (49)	93
	98	110	208

df = 1; ChiSqr = 0.62 < C.V. of 3.84 (p < .05)

Table 4.12C
TIME IN ASSIGNMENT vs DRINKING LEVEL CHANGE

	TIME IN ASSIGNMENT (in months)		Totals
	1-62	63-300	
DLC Down:	74/65% (75)*	40/35% (32)	114
DLC Up:	62/67% (61)	31(33%) (32)	93
	136	71	207

df = 1; ChiSqr = 0.07 < C.V. of 3.84 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

2. DRINKING PROBLEM INDICATORS (DPI):

The distribution of the respondents according to drinking problem indicators is graphically represented in Table 4.13 below. The sample had an average of +1.325 drinking problem indicators, or a slight increase in the

overall sample's drinking habits.

TABLE 4.13
DISTRIBUTION OF DRINKING PROBLEM INDICATORS

# of Drinking Indicators	Number = 354	
0	169	*****
1	74	*****
2	47	*****
3	20	****
4	17	***
5	7	*
6	9	**
7	8	**
8	1	>
9	1	>
10	0	
11	1	>

Each * represents 5 observations

Comparing the veteran officers in High-stress assignments with veteran officers in Low-stress jobs revealed the drinking problem indicators of the High-stress veterans increased an average of +1.694, whereas the Low-stress veterans had an increase in their drinking problem indicators an average of +1.137. While the difference between the drinking problem indicators was supportive of the hypothesis, the difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 111$; F-score of 1.90 < Critical Value of 3.93, $p < .05$).

The difference in the average drinking problem indicators of the High-stress veteran officers ($x=1.694$) and High-stress rookie officers ($x=1.560$) is also not significant ($df = 1, 160$; F-score of 0.16 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

Correlation:

Comparing the Job Stress Scores to the drinking problem indicator scores revealed a correlation of $+0.168$, or, as the job stress goes up so do the drinking habits, but only slightly.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the Job Stress Scores and drinking problem indicators, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The critical value corresponding to 312 degrees of freedom and a 95% confidence is 1.96. The stress score t-ratio of 3.02 is significant, and implies that high job stress scores are useful in predicting an increase in drinking problems.

Job Stress Scores vs DPI:

A breakdown of the respondents by drinking problem indicators (none, 1, 2, 3 or more) and Low/High Job Stress Scores also supported the hypothesis. It revealed 66% of the respondents who reported three or more drinking problem indicators ($n = 64$) came from the High-stress column (scores of 68 through 96) of the Job Stress Scale (see Table 4.14).

TABLE 4.14
JOB STRESS SCORES vs DRINKING PROBLEM INDICATORS

	JOB STRESS SCORES		
	[27-67]	[68-95]	Total
DRINKING PROBLEM INDICATORS:			
0 Indicators :	93/55% (80)*	76/45% (89)	169
1 Indicator :	30/41% (35)	44/59% (39)	74
2 Indicators :	23/49% (22)	24/51% (25)	47
3+ Indicators:	22/34% (30)	42/66% (34)	64
	168	186	354

df = 3; ChiSqr = 9.74 > Critical Value of 7.82 ($p < .05$)
 *Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

Other Differences and Correlations:

(1) The average Drinking Problem Indicator score for the entire Low-stress Officer group was +1.092. The average for the High-stress Officer group was slightly more at +1.611. The difference between the two groups, like the difference between the two Drinking Level Change scores, was significant (df = 1, 312; F-score of 5.86 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

(2) The average job stress score for those who reported no drinking problem indicators was 65.4, whereas the average stress score of those who reported three or more drinking problem indicators was 71.84. A one-way analysis of variance gives an F-score of 3.62, which, at the $p < .05$ level with 3 and 350 degrees of freedom, is significant (Critical Value = 2.60).

In determining if there was any statistically

significant evidence of an association between drinking level changes and drinking problem indicators, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The critical value was 1.645. The drinking level change "t-ratio" was 6.50, and the drinking problem indicator "t-ratio" was 13.46, both of which are highly significant. This implies that high drinking problem indicators and relatively large drinking level changes are useful as predictors of one another.

Correlations between the job stress scores and the two measures of drinking were calculated with the following results:

Low-stress Officer:

Stress and Drinking Level Change:	$r = .122$
Stress and Drinking Problem Indicators:	$r = .087$
Drinking Level Change and	
Drinking Problem Indicators:	$r = .269$

High-stress Officer:

Stress and Drinking Level Change:	$r = -.028$
Stress and Drinking Problem Indicators:	$r = .117$
Drinking Level Change and	
Drinking Problem Indicators:	$r = .354$

(3) When correlating job stress scores, drinking level changes, and drinking problem indicators, the only consistent area of significant relationship was the one between drinking level changes and drinking problem indicators. For the entire study sample the correlation was +.33.

B. HEALTH PROBLEMS:

"Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of health problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?"

The second hypothesis suggests that officers with long term High-stress assignments are more likely to suffer "health problems" than officers with "Low-stress" assignments, or officers with short tenures in their assignments, stressful or not. However, when the question of health is investigated it is only natural to consider simply getting older, or age, as a major "cause" for significant differences in health levels between different groups. Table 4.15 (below) displays a cross tabulation of the Low/High Stress groups by age quartile. To determine if the differences in the count for each cell were more than could reasonably be due to chance alone, the null hypothesis that the proportions in the four categories of job stress are the same for the younger officers as for the older officers was tested. If the null hypothesis were true, the expected counts in each cell could reasonably be assumed to be roughly the same (the "expected counts" for each cell are indicated in parentheses below the observed counts). As the reader can see, over a third of the officers in the Low-stress assignments were the oldest officers (in the highest age quartile) in the sample.

Application of the chi-square test provides strong evidence that the distribution of low-stress assignments among the oldest officers is different from that of the younger officers.

TABLE 4.15
LOW/HIGH STRESS SCORES vs AGE

	AGE				Total
	(21-31)	(32-37)	(38-41)	(42-59)	
JOB STRESS SCORES:					
Low-stress:	37/19% (46)*	62/31% (64)	33/17% (34)	68/34% (56)	= 200
High-stress:	57/27% (48)	70/33% (68)	37/16% (36)	46/22% (58)	= 210
	94	132	70	114	= 410

df = 3; ChiSqr = 8.98 > Critical Value of 7.81 ($p < .05$)
*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

Table 4.16 shows a 4 X 4 breakdown (by quartiles) of Job Stress Scale scores compared to the sample's age groups to further pinpoint where the differences occur.

TABLE 4.16
JOB STRESS SCORES vs AGE (BY QUARTILE)

	JOB STRESS SCORES				Total
	[27-57]	[58-67]	[68-77]	[78-96]	
AGE ($x = 37.03$):					
21-31 years:	8/9% (21)*	29/31% (25)	34/36% (24)	23/24% (25)	= 94
32-37 years:	26/20% (30)	36/27% (34)	29/22% (33)	41/31% (34)	= 132
38-41 years:	18/26% (16)	15/21% (18)	16/23% (17)	21/30% (18)	= 70
42-59 years:	41/36% (26)	27/24% (30)	24/21% (29)	22/19% (30)	= 114
	93	107	103	107	= 410

df = 9; $p < .05$
*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

There seems to be a relationship amongst the older officers between age and a lower stress score ($r = -.18$). As the veteran officers get older they seem to gravitate to less stressful assignments. On the other hand, with younger officers there is almost no relationship between these two variables ($r = -.05$), although the trend (as evidenced by the negative correlation) apparently has started.

If a lowering of health levels (from excellent, to good to average, to poor, to bad) were merely a function of getting older, one would expect to see a significant increase in numbers from left to right on the following table. In other words, the older a person gets the more reports of a worsening health level. No pattern of as-you-get-older your health level goes down is indicated. To determine if the differences in the count for each cell were more than could reasonably be due to chance alone, the null hypothesis that the proportions in the three categories of health level changes are the same for the younger officers as for the older officers was tested. If the null hypothesis were true, the expected counts in each cell could reasonably be assumed to be roughly the same (the "expected counts" for each cell are indicated in parentheses below the observed counts, and rounded off to the nearest whole number). Application of the chi-square test provides strong evidence that the distribution of health level changes among the oldest officers is not

significantly different from that of the younger officers even at the $p < .10$ level.

TABLE 4.17
AGE vs HEALTH LEVEL CHANGES

	AGE				
	[21-32]	[33-38]	[39-43]	[44-59]	Total
HEALTH LEVEL CHANGES:					
Health Level down 1:	35/23%	46/30%	39/26%	31/21%	151
	(31)*	(47)	(34)	(39)	
Health Level down 2:	10/16%	19/31%	9/15%	24/39%	62
	(13)	(19)	(14)	(16)	
Health Level down 3+:	2/17%	5/42%	2/17%	3/25%	12
	(3)	(4)	(3)	(3)	
	47/21%	70/31%	50/22%	58/22%	225

df = 6; ChiSqr = 9.95 < C.V. of 10.64 ($p < .10$)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

The most obvious pattern of decreases in health levels came in the age 33 to 38 group where almost a third of the respondents reported decreases in health levels. This trend seems to support the suspicion of a gradual erosion of health that, according to the data above, manifests itself most in the officers' second quarter of their careers.

Also contrary to the simply-getting-old theory is the "Rookie" officers reporting an average of -0.77 illness indicators, whereas veteran officers reported an average of only -0.68 illness indicators. While not statistically significant (F-score of 0.33 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$) these figures are contrary to a logical assumption that the veteran officers would report more health problems than the younger officers.

Whereas with the older officers there is some relationship between higher stress scores and a reported increase in illness indicators ($r = .19$), there is almost no relationship ($r = .03$) between the same two measures of the younger officers, possibly indicating that the hypothesized negative effect of having a high stress assignment negatively effects the older officers more than it does the younger officers.

2. Two measures of HEALTH were included in the questionnaire:

a. Health Level Change (HLC):

This is another simple then-and-now report from the officers on their perceptions of their health status when they first became Peace Officers, and a later evaluation of how they judge themselves currently. Both measures asked for a judgement of their health levels based on an EXCELLENT-GOOD-FAIR-POOR-BAD scale. The distribution of the respondents' health level changes is graphically represented in Table 4.18 below. The sample's average health level change was -0.728 , or a slight decrease in their physiological well-being.

TABLE 4.18
DISTRIBUTION OF HEALTH LEVEL CHANGES

# of Levels Changed	Number = 412	
-4	1	>
-3	11	**
-2	63	*****
-1	152	*****
0	171	*****
1	13	***
2	1	>

Each * represents 5 observations

Comparing the veteran officers in the High-stress assignments with their counterparts in the Low-stress jobs revealed the health level change of veteran officers in High-stress jobs decreased an average of -0.97, whereas the Low-stress veteran Officers had an decrease in their health levels of an average of -0.87. This difference between their respective health levels, while supportive of the hypothesis, is not statistically significant (F-score of $0.47 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

Significant support for the hypothesis of greater health level changes of veteran officers than Rookie officers in the same type job, came from the comparison of the study sample's data in those categories. As previously mentioned, the veterans in the High-stress assignments had an average health level decrease of -.97, but their younger partners had an average decrease of only -.66, which is significant at the $p < .05$ level (F-score of 5.82 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

Using the entire sample, the correlation between job

stress scores and health level changes was almost non-existent at $r = -0.009$. Similarly, there was a correlation of only $-.04$ between the High-stress veteran officers' health level changes and their job stress scores.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the job stress scores and health level changes, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The critical value is 1.96. The job stress score "t-ratio" of -0.18 , is not significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Job Stress vs HLC:

As the reader can see in Table 4.19 below, there appears to be no significant percentages of any certain group when changes in health levels and job stress scores are investigated.

TABLE 4.19
JOB STRESS SCORES vs HEALTH LEVEL CHANGES

	JOB STRESS SCORE		Totals
	Low-stress [27-67]	High Stress [68-96]	
HEALTH LEVEL:			
Minus Scores:	111/49% (111)*	116/51% (116)	227
No Change Scores:	83/49% (84)	88/51% (87)	171
Plus Scores:	8/57% (7)	6/43% (7)	14
	202	210	412

df = 2; ChiSqr = 0.39 < Critical Value of 5.99 ($p < .05$)

Minus Scores indicate a deterioration in health levels

Plus scores indicate an improvement in health levels

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

b. Health Problem Indicators (HPI):

Using nine of the most mentioned health problems as determined in the literature review, a "Health Problems Indicators" chart was incorporated in the questionnaire. The participants were first asked to indicate if they had a certain health problem (e.g., high blood pressure) when they first became an officer, and secondly, if they were suffering any of the nine listed problems at the time of the questionnaire (See Appendix 7, Part D, question 3 for the specific maladies surveyed). The distribution of respondents' health problem indicators is graphically represented in Table 4.20 below. The sample's average health problem indicator score was -0.96, or a slight increase in the number of health problems.

TABLE 4.20
DISTRIBUTION OF HEALTH PROBLEM INDICATORS

# of Health Problems	Number = 411
-8	1 >
-7	0
-6	2 >
-5	5 *
-4	16 ***
-3	37 *****
-2	58 *****
-1	70 *****
0	213 *****
1	8 **
2	1 >

Each * represents 5 observations

Comparing the veteran officers in the High-stress assignments with their counterparts in the Low-stress jobs revealed that the officers in the High-stress jobs reported

an average health problem score of -1.38. The Low-stress veteran Officers, on the other hand, reported an average score of -1.13 on the same scale. The difference between the two groups' respective health problem indicators is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 143$; F-score of 1.05 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$), but it did tend to go in the direction of the hypothesis in that High-stress veteran officers did have health problems to a greater degree than did their Low-stress veteran Officer counterparts.

Supporting the hypothesis of a higher degree of health problems of veterans than their rookies partners in the same type job was the comparison of the study sample's data in those categories. Again, the veterans in the High-stress Officer assignments had an average health problem indicator score of -1.38, while their younger colleagues had an average of only -.81. These figures are statistically significant ($df = 1, 207$; F-score of 7.12 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

There was almost no correlation ($r = .015$) between the health problem indicators and the job stress scores.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the job stress scores and health problem indicators, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The job stress score "t-ratio" of 0.30, is not significant at the $p < .05$ level in which the Critical

Value is 1.96.

Job Stress vs HPI:

Surprisingly, of those who reported an improvement in health, that is fewer health problems at the time of the questionnaire than when they first came on the job (n=27), 89% also placed themselves in the high end (68-96) of the Job Stress Scale (Table 4.21 below):

TABLE 4.21
JOB STRESS SCORES vs HEALTH PROBLEM INDICATORS

	JOB STRESS SCORES		Total
	Low-stress [27-67]	High-stress [68-96]	
HEALTH PROBLEM INDICATORS:			
Minus Scores:	95/56% (84)*	76/44% (87)	171
No Change Scores:	104/49% (105)	109/51% (108)	213
Plus Scores:	3/11% (13)	24/89% (14)	27
	202	209	411

df = 2; ChiSqr = 18.45 > Critical Value of 5.99 (p < .05)
 "Minus scores" are indicative of deterioration in health
 "Plus scores" are indicative of an improvement in health
 *Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

This would seem to be contrary to the hypothesis that implies the higher the job stress, the worse the health. A closer examination of the officers who reported an improvement in health in spite of being in a High-stress assignment reveals other surprises. The officers who reported an improvement in health did not come from the younger or "rookie" officer groups as logic would suggest. The average age of the officers reporting an improvement in health was 40 years as compared to the sample's average of

37 years. Of the 27 officers who reported an improvement, only 4 were below the age of 34. The "improved" officers' average time in their respective stressful assignments was 121 months as opposed to the sample's average of 62.2 months in their assignments.

Other Differences and Correlations:

(a) When health problem indicators were compared for all officers in the Low-stress assignments against all officers in the High-stress jobs, the "un-stressed officer" had a score of -0.91 compared to the "stressed officer" who had a score of -1.02 problems reported. While not statistically significant ($df = 1, 409$; F-score of 0.69 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$), this too shows a trend toward supportive evidence that the High-stress Officers report more health problems than their Low-stress Officer colleagues.

(b) A consistently high correlation was discovered between the health level change scores and the health problem indicator scores as summarized below:

For the total sample:	$r = +.40$
For all Low-stress Veterans:	$r = +.40$
For all High-stress respondents	$r = +.41$
For all High-stress rookies	$r = +.44$

C. FAMILY/MARITAL PROBLEMS:

"Do Peace Officers who have been in stressful assignments for extended periods of time suffer from higher rates of marital/family problems than officers who have not served extended periods of time in such positions ?"

The third area of interest was marital/family problems. Table 4.22 below graphically represents the distribution of the respondents' marital status.

TABLE 4.22
DISTRIBUTION OF MARITAL STATUS

<u>STATUS</u>	Number = 411	
Widowed	1	
Widowed and Remarried	3	>
Single, Never Married	48	*****
Divorced and Remarried	78	*****
Divorced	63	*****
Married	218	*****

Each * represents 5 observations

To investigate issues in this area, several background questions were asked, a then-and-now happiness measure, and several questions were grouped into a "Family score" along the same Likert-type scale used previously in this paper.

1. FAMILY SCORE (Married/Family Officers):

Eight questions of the questionnaire were grouped into a "Family Score" by using a Likert-type scale. The specific questions can be found in Appendix 7, Part E, questions 5 through 12. Those officers (n = 293) answering these questions had a Family Score range of 10 to 39, with an average score of 29.77. A high Family Score was indicative of a harmonious family environment. Conversely, a low family score indicated a troubled family life. The distribution of the Family Scores is graphically represented in Table 4.23 below:

TABLE 4.23
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY SCORES

Midpoint Number = 293
of Score

10	1	*
12	0	
14	1	*
16	1	*
18	6	*****
20	9	*****
22	12	*****
24	19	*****
26	24	*****
28	34	*****
30	49	*****
32	43	*****
34	31	*****
36	32	*****
38	26	*****
40	5	*****

Each * represents 1 observation

Comparing the veteran officers in the High-stress assignments with their counterparts in the Low-stress jobs revealed that the veteran officers in the High-stress jobs reported an average family score of 29.14. The Low-stress Officers, on the other hand, reported an average family score of 31.83. The difference between their two average scores is statistically significant ($df = 1, 97$; $p < .05$; F -score of $7.23 > \text{Critical Value of } 3.87$), and supported the hypothesis that officers in high stress assignments would tend to have their home lives negatively effected.

The average Family Score of the High-stress veteran officer was 29.14, and the average family score of the High-stress rookie officer was 28.61. Although not statistically significant ($df = 1, 125$; F -score of $0.27 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84$, $p < .05$), the scores contradicted

the predicted lower family score that the High-stress veteran officer would have compared to the younger officers in the same type of assignment.

The correlation between the job stress scores and the Family Scores of all the participants was $-.226$, indicating that as the job stress went up the family harmony went down.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the Job Stress Score and the Family Scores, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The critical value of 1 and 291 degrees of freedom is 1.96. The job stress score "t-ratio" was -3.96 , the difference of which is significant. This implies that a high job stress score is useful as a predictor of a potential increase in an officer's problems at home.

Job Stress vs Family Score:

When a 2 X 2 Chi Square Test is performed on the responding officers' Job Stress and Family Scores the results are insignificant as demonstrated in Table 4.24 below:

TABLE 4.24
FAMILY SCORES vs JOB STRESS SCORES

	JOB STRESS SCORES		Total
	Low-stress [27-67]	High-stress [68-96]	
FAMILY SCORES:			
10-29:	59/45% (67)*	73/55% (65)	132
30-39:	90/56% (82)	71/44% (79)	161
	149	144	293

df = 1; ChiSqr = 3.64 < Critical Value of 3.84 (p , .05)
*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

However, when the respondents were distributed by quartiles significant differences are discovered as is presented in Table 4.25. The table shows that over a third (37%) of the officers who had the lowest family scores (10 through 26), indicative of a troubled family environment, also came from the upper fourth (scores of 77 through 95) of the Job Stress Scale (indicative of a stressful assignment). Conversely, 39% of the officers reporting the highest (happiest) Family Scores also placed themselves in the lowest quarter of the Job Stress Scores.

TABLE 4.25
JOB STRESS SCORES vs FAMILY SCORES

	JOB STRESS SCORES				
	[27-56]	[57-67]	[68-76]	[77-96]	Total
FAMILY SCORES:					
1st Quartile (0-26) :	12/16%	16/22%	18/25%	27/37%	73
	(18)*	(17)	(19)	(19)	
2nd Quartile (27-29):	12/20%	18/31%	15/25%	14/24%	59
	(15)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
3rd Quartile (30-33):	17/21%	20/25%	21/26%	23/28%	81
	(20)	(19)	(21)	(21)	
4th Quartile (34-39):	31/39%	14/18%	22/28%	13/16%	80
	(20)	(19)	(21)	(21)	
	72	68	76	77	293

df = 9; ChiSqr = 18.63 > Critical Value of 16.92 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest number

Other Differences and Correlations:

(1) By focusing on just the veteran officers, the percentages in the fringe groups become more extreme as Table 4.26 indicates. Of the 42 veteran officers who reported a low family score (i.e., 14-29), nearly two thirds (64%) had high Job Stress scores.

TABLE 4.26
VETERAN OFFICER JOB STRESS SCORES VS FAMILY SCORES

	VETERAN OFFICER JOB STRESS SCORES		
	[27-67]	[68-93]	Totals
VETERAN OFFICER FAMILY SCORES:			
Score of 14-29:	15/36%	27/64%	42
	(21)*	(21)	
Score of 30-39:	42/58%	30/42%	72
	(36)	(36)	
	57	57	114

df = 1; ChiSqr = 5.43 > Critical Value of 3.84 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n)

A more detailed look at the same officers gives a better idea of where exactly the officers are located with respect

to the extremes of the groups. As can be seen in Table 4.27 below, of the 26 officers who reported the lowest family scores (i.e., 14-27) nearly half (46%) scored in the highest quarter of the Job Stress Scale. Conversely, 41% of the officers who reported the highest (read happiest) family scores, came from the lowest quarter (lowest-stress) of the Job Stress Scale.

TABLE 4.27
QUARTILE VETERAN OFFICER JOB STRESS SCORES VS FAMILY SCORES

VETERAN OFFICER JOB STRESS SCORES					
	[27-56]	[57-67]	[68-77]	[78-93]	Total
VETERAN FAMILY SCORES:					
Score of 14-27:	4/15% (6)*	3/12% (7)	7/27% (6)	12/46% (7)	26
Score of 28-29:	2/13% (4)	6/38% (4)	5/31% (4)	3/19% (4)	16
Score of 30-34:	10/23% (11)	12/28% (11)	10/23% (11)	11/26% (11)	43
Score of 35-39:	12/41% (7)	8/28% (7)	6/21% (7)	3/10% (7)	29
	28	29	28	29	114

df = 9; ChiSqr = 16.08 < Critical Value of 16.9 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

(2) Also supportive of the hypothesis is the data showing officers in Low-stress assignments having an average higher family score ($x = 30.64$) than do their counterparts in the High-stress assignments ($x = 28.68$). The difference is significant (df = 1, 291; F-score of 8.29 > Critical Value of 3.84, p < .05).

2. MARITAL HAPPINESS LEVEL CHANGE:

The range of marital happiness level change scores ran from an officer's perceived happiness going down 5 levels (fortunately only one respondent scored this low), to other officers reporting a happiness level increase of up to 3 levels as displayed in Table 4.28 below:

TABLE 4.28
DISTRIBUTION OF MARITAL HAPPINESS LEVEL CHANGES

Midpoint	Number	= 129
-5	1	>
-4	0	
-3	0	
-2	1	>
-1	14	*****
0	70	*****
1	37	*****
2	4	**
1	2	*

Each * represents 2 observations

The average change in marital happiness levels for the responding officers was +.23, indicating that as the officers got "seniority" in their marriages, they actually became happier!

Comparing the veteran officers in the High-stress assignments with their counterparts in Low-stress jobs revealed that the officers in the High-stress jobs reported an average increase in their marital happiness level of +.45. The Low-stress Officers, on the other hand, reported an average marital happiness level increase +.08. This finding is contrary to the hypothesis that predicted the High-stress veteran officers would have lower marital

happiness level scores than their Low-stress Officer counterparts. The difference between the two group averages, however, is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 45$; F-score of $1.66 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

The average marital happiness level change score of the High-stress veteran officer was $+.45$, and the average marital happiness level score of the High-stress rookie officer was $+.41$. Again, the findings were contrary to the predicted scores of the High-stress veteran officers having less happy marriage environment than their High-stress rookie officer partners. Although not statistically significant ($df = 1, 57$; F-score of $0.06 < \text{Critical Value of } 4.01, p < .05$), the scores did contradict the hypothesis once again.

The correlation between the job stress scores and the Marital Happiness Level Change scores of all the participants was $+.20$, indicating that as the job stress went up the marital happiness level also went up slightly, contrary to the hypothesis.

Regression:

In determining if there was any statistically significant evidence of an association between the job stress scores and the Marital Happiness Level Change scores, the hypothesis that the regression weight equalled zero ($B = 0$) was tested. The critical value is 1.96 at $p < .05$ with 1 and 125 degrees of freedom. The job stress score "t-ratio" was 2.35 . The difference is significant.

Other Differences and Correlations:

All officers in the High-stress assignments had a marriage happiness level increase of +.42 levels. On the other hand, the officers in Low-stress assignments had a marriage happiness level increase of +.05. The difference is significant ($df = 1, 127$; F-score of 5.42 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$), and is contrary to the hypothesis.

3. NUMBER OF FRIENDS:

Another measure of marital bliss (or lack of same) is the number of close friends one has ². This indices includes people that one feels at ease with, can talk to about private matters, and can call on for help. The rationale behind asking this question is that few intimate friends relates to an unsatisfactory/dissatisfied marriage.³

When reviewing the distribution (Table 4.29 below) of the married officers' number of close friends compared to the Job Stress Scale quartiles, there does not appear to be any obvious significant patterns that one could draw conclusions from. In some cases the data even appear contradictory, such as 60% of the officers with six or more friends coming from the High-stress group.

² Renne, p. 65.

³ Ibid.

TABLE 4.29
JOB STRESS SCORES vs MARRIED OFFICERS' NUMBER OF FRIENDS

	JOB STRESS SCORES		Total
	[27-67]	[68-96]	
NUMBER OF FRIENDS:			
0-5 Friends:	100/51% (93)*	97/49% (104)	197
6+ Friends:	39/40% (46)	59/60% (52)	98
	139	156	295

df = 1; ChiSqr = 3.16 < Critical Value of 3.84 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

Therefore, how many friends an officer has may not be as efficient a gauge of a good family environment as the source author suggests.

4. DIVORCE RATE:

For the purpose of analysis, the various marital status groupings (see Table 4.22) were combined into three general groups: married, divorced, and single. The married group included those officers who were either widowed, widowed and re-married, or currently married (n = 222). The divorced group included those officers who were currently divorced and those who were divorced and re-married (n = 141). The single group included only those who were currently single and never married (n = 48). The three groups' distribution into "Low-stress" and "High-stress" sub-groupings are presented in Table 4.30 below:

TABLE 4.30
MARITAL STATUS vs JOB STRESS SCORES

MARITAL STATUS:	JOB STRESS SCORES		Totals
	Low-stress	High-stress	
Married:	114/51% (109)*	108/49% (113)	222
Divorced:	63/45% (69)	78/55% (72)	141
Single:	25/52% (24)	23/48% (24)	48
	202	209	411

df = 2; ChiSqr = 1.72 < Critical Value of 5.99 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

As the reader can see, the actual distribution is very close to the expected distribution, and application of the Chi Square test reveals there are no significant differences between the groups' percentages.

However, when the different groups' average Job Stress Scores are analyzed, some interesting and significant differences are discovered. For example, when the average Job Stress Score (\bar{X} = 66.46) for the officers who were married for the first time (n = 218) is compared to that (\bar{X} = 70.52) of the divorced officers (n = 63), the difference is significant (df = 1, 279; F-score of 4.20 > Critical Value of 3.84 at p < .05). Yet, when the average Job Stress Score (\bar{X} = 68.65) of the officers who were divorced and re-married (n = 78) is compared to the same married officers, the difference is not statistically significant (df = 1, 294; F-Score of 1.46 < Critical Value of 3.84, p < .05). Marital status seems to have a mitigating effect on the officers' perception of the amount of job stress

they are experiencing.

On the other hand, by examining the distribution in Table 4.31 below, two patterns become evident: (1) In all three categories, as the job stress scores go higher, so do the percentages of divorced officers; and (2), the majority of officers having experienced divorce come from the High-stress end of the Job Stress Scale (scores of 68 through 96), especially those who were divorced (60%) at the time of the survey.

TABLE 4.31
JOB STRESS SCORES vs DIVORCE RATES

	JOB STRESS SCORES				Totals
	[27-58]	[59-67]	[68-78]	[79-96]	
DIVORCED:					
Currently Divorced:	11/17%	14/22%	16/25%	22/35%	63
Currently Remarried					
after Divorce:	18/23%	20/26%	20/26%	20/26%	78
	39/28%	34/24%	36/25%	42/30%	141

5. Hit Spouse:

It is a generally accepted fact that physical violence between husband and wife is indicative of serious family or marital problems between the two. To that end, the questionnaire contained a question asking if the officer ever struck his or her spouse in anger with their hands or an object, and if they did how many times did they do so. The next Table gives an insight into this question.

As the reader can see in Table 4.32, 53 officers (or 18% of the 295 officers who reported being/having been married and answered the question) admitted to striking their spouse. Their average Job Stress Score was 69.27,

compared to the 66.04 average of officers who reported that they did not strike their spouse ($n = 242$). While the average stress score of the more abusive officers is higher than the average scores of those who did not report hitting their spouses, the difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 295$; $F\text{-Score} = 2.41 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

That a person hit their spouse once upon a time is not shocking. However, of the officers who admitted hitting their spouse, over a third (38%) reported doing it more than once. A most revealing statistic found in this data is that of those officers (21) who admitted to hitting their spouse more than once, fully two thirds (14) of them placed in the high half (High-stress assignments) of the Job Stress Scale.

TABLE 4.32
JOB STRESS SCORES vs HIT SPOUSE

	HIT SPOUSE ?			TOTAL
	NO	ONCE	MORE THAN ONCE	
LOW-STRESS OFFICERS:	130	13	7	150
	(123)*	(16)	(11)	
HIGH-STRESS OFFICERS:	112	19	14	145
	(119)	(16)	(10)	
	242	32	21	295

$df = 2$; $\text{ChiSqr} = 4.71 < \text{Critical Value of } 5.99 (p < .05)$

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

A large percentage of the Job Stress Scale questions (i.e., numbers 4 through 9, 11, 12, and 14) could be considered related to violence or violent situations. It would seem from the data above that being exposed to violence on the

job promotes violence at home in those officers who are prone to being physically assaultive in their relationships.

V. INTERVENING VARIABLES EFFECT:

"The maladies and afflictions rates of Peace Officers who have been in the 'High-stress Officer' assignments for lengthy periods of time are mitigated by intervening variables such as participation in sports, school, and a second job."

Many intervening variables such as a strong family or marriage, or supportive non-police friends, can blunt the negative effects of police work. I selected three that, (1) my subjective opinion felt were influential, and (2) are easily measurable (by simply answering yes or no) in a written questionnaire survey such as the one conducted for this study. The three I elected to investigate were:

- (1) Current schooling
- (2) Working a second job
- (3) Being active in sports

The effect of these variables as they apply to the participants in this study are discussed below.

A. CURRENT SCHOOLING:

Of those participants who responded to this question, 45 indicated that they were currently in school, 362 indicated that they were not. Analyses of variance was calculated for the following areas:

1. AS ATTENDANCE IN SCHOOL EFFECTED DRINKING PROBLEMS:

a. Drinking Level Change:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average drinking level change of $-.103$, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' drinking levels.

The participating officers in school reduced their drinking level an average of $-.37$, whereas the officers who were not in school reduced their drinking levels an average of $-.08$. While not statistically significant, the trend is in the direction the hypothesis suggests ($df = 1, 380$; F-score of $1.39 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

b. Drinking Problem Indicators:

All the study samples' participants reported an average of drinking problem indicators of $+1.33$, or a slight overall increase in the participants' drinking habits.

The officers attending school reported fewer drinking problem indicators than did their non-school colleagues. The officers who were in school had an average drinking problem indicator score of $+0.97$, while the non-school officers had an average of $+1.36$ drinking problem

indicators. Again, the difference was not statistically significant, but the trend was in the direction the hypothesis suggests ($df = 1, 347$; F-score of 1.34 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

2. AS ATTENDANCE IN SCHOOL EFFECTED HEALTH PROBLEMS:

a. Health Level Change:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average health level change of -0.73, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health levels.

As attending school effected the officers' health level change, those officers who were attending school reported a significantly lower average reduction in their health levels (-0.49) than did the officers who were not attending school and had an average reduction of -0.76 ($df = 1, 404$, F-score of 3.96 > Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

b. Health Problem Indicators:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average of -0.73 health problem indicators, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health problems.

As attending school effected the officers' health problem indicators, those officers who were attending school reported a slightly lower average (-0.69) than did the officers who were not attending school and had an average of -0.74 ($df = 1, 403$; F-score of 0.05 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

3. AS ATTENDING SCHOOL EFFECTED FAMILY/MARRIAGE PROBLEMS:

a. Family Score:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average family score of 29.77.

As attending school effected the officers' family score, those officers who were attending school reported a higher average (30.8) (read happier) than did the officers who were not attending school who had an average of 29.7. Once again, this difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 285$; F-score of 1.17 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$), but once again the trend was in the same direction as the hypothesis suggests.

b. Marital Happiness Level Change:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average marital happiness level change of +0.23, or a slight overall increase in the participants' level of happiness in his/her marriage.

As attending school effected the officers' marital happiness level change score, those officers who were attending school reported a higher/happier average score (+0.36) than did the officers who were not attending school and who had an average of +0.21. However, once again, although in the right direction, this difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 124$; F-score of 0.30 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$).

B. WORKING A SECOND JOB:

Of those participants who responded to this question, 76 indicated that they were working a second job, and 323 indicated that they were not. Analyses of variance was calculated for the following areas:

1. AS WORKING A SECOND JOB EFFECTED DRINKING PROBLEMS:

a. Drinking Level Change:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average drinking level change of $-.103$, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' drinking levels.

The responding officers who indicated that they worked second jobs reported their drinking level going down an average of $-.46$. Those officers who did not report that they worked a second job indicated their drinking levels going down an average of only $-.03$. The difference between the two averages is significant ($df = 1, 373$; F-score of $4.75 > \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

b. Drinking Problem Indicators:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average of $+1.33$ drinking problem indicators, or a slight overall increase in the participants' drinking habits.

The officers with second jobs contradicted the hypothesis and reported an above sample average of 1.47 drinking problem indicators. The officers not working second jobs reported a lesser average of 1.29 drinking problem indicators. The difference between the two groups

is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 341$; F-score of $0.43 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

2. AS WORKING A SECOND JOB EFFECTED HEALTH PROBLEMS:

a. Health Level Change:

All of the study's participants reported an average health level change of -0.728 , or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health levels.

As working a second job effected the officers' health level change, there was absolutely no difference between the health level reduction of the officers who worked a second job and those who didn't work a second job; both had an average lowering of health level of -0.72 .

b. Health Problem Indicators:

All of the study's participants reported an average of -0.96 health problem indicators, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health problems.

As working a second job effected the officers' health problem indicators, those officers who were working a second job reported an insignificantly higher average (-0.87) than did the officers who were not working a second job and had an average of -0.69 ($df = 1, 395$; F-score of $0.84 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

3. AS WORKING A SECOND JOB EFFECTED FAMILY/MARRIAGE:

a. Family Score:

All of the study samples' participants reported an average Family Score of 29.77.

As working a second job effected the officers' Family Score, those officers who were working a second job again contradicted the hypothesis and reported a slightly lower average family score (29.2) than did the officers who were not working a second job who had an average of 29.9. This difference was not statistically significant ($df = 1, 279$; F-score of $0.74 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

b. Marital Happiness Level Change:

All of the study's participants reported an average marital happiness level change of +0.23, or a slight overall increase in the participants' level of happiness in his/her marriage.

As working a second job effected the officers' marital happiness level change score, the scores of those officers who were working a second job supported the hypothesis and reported a slightly higher average (+0.36) level of happiness than the officers who were not working a second job and who had an average happiness level of +0.22. Once again, this difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 121$; F-score of $0.07 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

C. ACTIVE IN SPORTS:

Of those participants who answered to this question, 221 indicated that they were active in sports, and 179 indicated that they were not. Analyses of variance was calculated for the following areas:

1. AS BEING ACTIVE IN SPORTS EFFECTED DRINKING PROBLEMS:

a. Drinking Level Change:

All of the study's participants reported an average drinking level change of $-.103$, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' drinking levels.

The officers who were not active in sports reported a larger decline in their drinking levels with an average of $-.27$, than did the sports active officers who reported an average of $-.02$. The difference between the two averages is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 373$; F-score of $2.58 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

b. Drinking Problem Indicators:

All of the study's participants reported an average of $+1.33$ drinking problem indicators, or a slight overall increase in the participants' drinking habits.

The officers who were not active in sports reported an average of $+1.32$ increase in their drinking problem indicators, which was over the average ($+1.30$) of those officers who were active in sports. The difference between the scores was not significant ($df = 1, 341$; F-score of $0.01 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

2. AS BEING ACTIVE IN SPORTS EFFECTED HEALTH PROBLEMS:

a. Health Level Changes:

All of the study's participants reported an average health level change of -0.728, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health levels.

As being active in sports effected the officers' health level change, those officers who were active in sports reported a lesser average (-0.65) lowering of health level than did the officers who were not active in sports and had a greater average (-0.82) decrease in health levels. However, these differences were not significant ($df = 1, 397$; F-score of 3.83 < Critical Value of 3.84, $p < .05$ level).

b. Health Problem Indicators:

(1) All of the study's participants reported an average of -0.96 health problem indicators, or a slight overall reduction in the participants' health problems.

(2) As being active in sports effected the officers' health problem indicators, those officers who were active in sports supported the hypothesis and reported fewer health problem indicators ($x = -0.64$) than did the officers who were not active in sports and had an average of -0.83 health problem indicators. The difference, however, is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 396$; F-score of 1.58 < Critical Value of 3.84 at the $p < .05$).

3. AS BEING ACTIVE IN SPORTS EFFECTS FAMILY/MARRIAGE:

a. Family Score:

All of the study's participants reported an average Family Score of 29.77.

As being active in sports effected the officers' Family Score, those officers who were active in sports reported a slightly higher average family score (30.0) than did the officers who were not active in sports and who had an average of 29.5. However, once again, this difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 280$; F-score of $0.56 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

b. Marital Happiness Level Change:

All of the study's participants reported an average marital happiness level change of +0.23, or a slight overall increase in the participants' level of happiness in his/her marriage.

As being active in sports effected the officers' marital happiness level change score, those officers who were active in sports reported a slightly lower average (+0.20) increase of happiness than did the officers who were not active in sports and who had an average happiness level increase of +0.27. However, once again, this difference is not statistically significant ($df = 1, 123$; F-score of $0.19 < \text{Critical Value of } 3.84, p < .05$).

VI. SERENDIPITOUS and SURPRISING FINDINGS:

A surprising finding was the relationship between the officers' SATISFACTION score and reported support from the spouse for the officers chosen profession. The satisfaction scores were unimodal with a range of 6 through 30, as graphically depicted in Table 4.33 below:

TABLE 4.33
DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES

Score Midpoint	Count	
6	2	*
8	2	*
10	15	*****
12	41	*****
14	54	*****
16	75	*****
18	94	*****
20	64	*****
22	39	*****
24	19	*****
26	3	**
28	3	**
30	1	*

Each * represents 2 observations

The spouse support scores were skewed heavily to the positive spouse support and "tolerates" end of the scale, with a drastic drop off to the "indifference", wanting the officer to stop being a P.O., and "I don't know", as graphically depicted in Table 4.34 below:

TABLE 4.34
DISTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE SUPPORT SCORES

Category	Count (n = 296)
"I don't know"	7 *
"Against it"	14 ***
"Indifferent"	47 *****
"Tolerates"	123 *****
"Wants it"	105 *****

Each * represents 5 observations

As the reader can see from Table 4.35 below, of the officers who reported that their spouses supported them being Peace Officers, 76% also reported being in the upper half of the Satisfaction Scale. Conversely, of those officers who reported that their spouses wanted them to stop being a P.O., 57% scored in the lowest quarter of the Satisfaction Scale. The correlation between the officers' career satisfaction scores and the spouse career support scores is +.334. This data suggests that as support for the officer's career choice goes up by his or her spouse, so does the officer's job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.35
JOB SATISFACTION SCORES vs SPOUSE SUPPORT

	SPOUSE SUPPORT				Total
	Wants	Tolerates	Indifferent	Stop	
JOB SATISFACTION SCORES:					
LOW - 6 thru 16:	25/20%	65/53%	22/18%	10/8%	122
	(45)*	(52)	(20)	(10)	
HIGH- 17 thru 30:	80/48%	57/34%	25/15%	4/2%	166
	(61)	(70)	(27)	(8)	
	105	122	47	14	288

df = 3; ChiSqr = 25.98 > Critical Value of 7.81 (p < .05)
*Expected values are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

We therefore have strong evidence that the distribution of degrees of spouse support among officers who are satisfied in their jobs is different from that of officers who are not satisfied in their jobs. This implies that support from an officer's spouse may well be useful as a predictor of an officer's job satisfaction. This phenomenon could have a significant impact on recruiting, as will be discussed in the following chapter.

As the reader can see from Table 4.36 below, few (only 2 of 35) older (67 through 201 months) supervisors were in the high job stress categories (scores of 68 through 96). On the other hand, over half (12 of 22) of the younger supervisors were in the high stress categories. It has been my experience that when I was promoted on two separate occasions, the new job and responsibilities initially were highly stressful. However, as I gained experience in the new positions, I learned to set priorities on what was important, and not worry about what didn't need my immediate attention and concern.

TABLE 4.36
JOB STRESS SCORES vs TIME IN ASSIGNMENT - SUPERVISION

	MONTHS IN SUPERVISION ASSIGNMENT		
	5-66 Mo.s	67-201 Mo.s	Total
JOB STRESS SCORES:			
Low:	10(13)*	11(8)	21
High:	12(9)	2(5)	14
	22	13	35

df = 1; ChiSqr = 5.22 > Critical Value of 3.84 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

Data obtained during this research also supported the premise that working nights is stressful, and never or seldom working nights is less stressful. As indicated in Table 4.37, of the five possible categories given (never, seldom, half, usually, and always) for the Low-stress officers, 42% of the respondents never work nights, and only 12% of the officers who were considered as low-stress also always worked nights.

TABLE 4.37
JOB STRESS SCALE vs WORKING NIGHTS

	WORK NIGHTS					TOTAL
	Never	Seldom	Half	Usually	Always	
JOB STRESS SCORE:						
Low:	85/42% (60)*	50/25% (38)	26/13% (44)	16/8% (26)	25/12% (35)	202
High:	37/18% (62)	27/13% (39)	64/30% (46)	37/18% (27)	46/22% (36)	211
	122	77	90	53	71	413

df = 4; ChiSqr = 56.16 > Critical Value of 9.49 (p < .05)

*Expected counts are indicated in parentheses (n) and have been rounded off to the nearest whole number

Therefore, we have strong evidence that the distribution of working hours among Low-stress officers is different from that of High-stress officers.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

I. CONCLUSIONS:

In the beginning, I thought the answers to the hypotheses or questions were obvious and only needed to be proven by this research project. Many were not shown. Had they been as obvious as I previously thought, (1) there would not have been the conflict and controversy as evidenced in the literature review in Chapter Two, and (2) if the answers were so obvious, someone else would have "proven" them long before my attempt !

It is not clear what this STRESS business is all about. It is very much a social-psychological issue. Complicated relationships are working. Underlying factors such as race, class, politics, and occupational culture, while not specifically addressed in this study, are important but are difficult as best to ferret out.¹

What follows is a synopsis of the data analysis, looking at the results from five views:

- A. Those issues which the hypotheses predicted and were statistically significant.
- B. Those issues which supported the hypothesis, but were not statistically significant.

¹ Interview with Dr. Peter Manning, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 27 June 1989.

- C. Those issues in which the data ran contrary to the hypotheses.
- D. Effects of variables which are useful as predictors.
- E. Intervening variable effects.

A. STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS WHICH WERE SUPPORTIVE OF THE HYPOTHESES:

1. DRINKING PROBLEMS:

The drinking level averages of all the officers who were classified as working in "Low-stress Officer" assignments went down, while their "High-stress Officer" counterparts reported their average drinking level going up. The drinking problem indicator averages of all the officers who were classified as working in "Low-stress" assignments were less than their "High-stress" counterparts' average drinking habits. The officers who reported no drinking problem indicators averaged 65.4 on the Job Stress Scale, significantly lower than the officers who reported three or more drinking problem indicators and averaged 71.84 on the Job Stress Scale.

2. HEALTH PROBLEMS:

The average health level for the veteran officers in "High-stress" (a primary focus of this study) assignments went down significantly more than did the health level of their rookie colleagues.

3. FAMILY/MARITAL PROBLEMS:

Veteran officers in Low-stress assignments had a higher Family Score (i.e., less conflict at home) than did their counterparts in High-stress assignments. All officers in Low-stress assignments had an average Family Score of 30.64. The officers in the High-stress assignments had a significantly lower Family Score average of 28.68.

B. TRENDS SUPPORTIVE OF THE HYPOTHESES BUT NOT STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT:

There were, of course, several disappointments when the data indicated support for the hypotheses but the differences were not statistically significant. What became apparent as the data analysis continued was that some of the categories being analyzed were so small (e.g., the family scores of officers attending school, $n = 30$) while the comparison group was so large (e.g., family scores of officers NOT attending school, $n = 257$), that the confidence intervals overlapped, in effect clouding possible significance. The following are some examples:

1. DRINKING PROBLEMS:

The average drinking level of veterans in High-stress assignments went up, while the average drinking level of the officers in Low-stress assignments went down. Veteran

officers in High-stress assignments reported more bad drinking habits (DPI) than did the veteran officers in Low-stress assignments. Of the officers who reported that their drinking levels went up, 61% scored in the High-stress half of the Job Stress Scale. Of the officers who reported 3 or more drinking problem indicators, 66% scored in the High-stress half of the Job Stress Scale. The correlations between the Job Stress Scale and drinking level changes ($r = +.113$) and drinking problem indicators ($r = +.150$) were both positive, indicating that as the job stress score went up so did the drinking.

2. HEALTH PROBLEMS:

The average health level of veteran officers in High-stress assignments decreased further than did the average health levels of their Low-stress Officer counterparts.

3. FAMILY/MARITAL PROBLEMS:

The correlation between the Job Stress Scale and the Family Score ($r = -.23$) indicated that the higher the job stress score, the lower the family score, or the more stressful the assignment the more conflict in the family life. Of the officers who scored in the lowest quartile of the Family Score, 37% of them also scored in the highest quartile of the Job Stress Scale. When comparing the job stress scores with the family scores of veteran officers, it was discovered that: (1) of the officers who scored in

the lowest quartile of the family score, 46% of them also scored in the highest quartile of the Job Stress Scale; and, (2) of the officers who scored in the highest quartile of the Family Scores, 41% of them also scored in the lowest quartile of the Job Stress Scale. Of the officers who admitted to hitting their spouse more than once, 66% of them came from the High-stress Officer group.

C. DATA CONTRADICTING THE HYPOTHESES:

1. HEALTH PROBLEMS:

Veteran officers in High-stress assignments reported a greater average reduction in health problem indicators than did their rookie colleagues and their Low-stress Officer counterparts. All officers in High-stress assignments reported a greater average reduction in their health problem indicators than did their Low-stress Officer counterparts. Speculation is that there is a selection factor at work here. There are good possibilities that subjective selection on the part of the organization picks the fittest of the species. Also, self-selection may play an important role. It is not likely that an out-of-shape or sickly officer will apply for the SWAT-Team (nor that he or she would be selected).

2. FAMILY/MARITAL PROBLEMS:

Many of the job stress score comparisons with family and marriage indices flew in the face of the hypothesis that a high stress score would result in lower (read less happy) family and marriage scores. The following are examples:

a. Veteran officers in High-stress positions scored higher than did their rookie colleagues in Family Score, indicating that the vets family life was more harmonious than was the rookies'.

b. Veteran officers in High-stress assignments had a greater marital happiness level increase in their marriages than did the veteran officers in Low-stress assignments.

c. Veteran officers in High-stress assignments had a greater marital happiness level increase in their marriages than did the rookie officers in High-stress assignments.

d. The correlation between the marital happiness level change and the stress scores was $+.20$, indicating that as the stress of the job went up, so did the marriage happiness level.

e. The officers in High-stress assignments had a significant increase in their marital happiness level over their Low-stress Officer counterparts.

D. STRESS AS A POSSIBLE PREDICTOR:

During the calculations of the previous data analysis the following variables were found (through t-tests) to be

correlated with stress.

1. A high job stress score is useful as a predictor of an increase in officers' drinking levels (DLC); is useful as a predictor of an increase in officers' bad drinking habits (DPI); and is useful as a predictor of family problems (FS).

2. A high job stress score also turned out to be at least slightly useful in predicting a positive increase in a marital happiness level change.

E. INTERVENING VARIABLE EFFECTS:

Contrary to fitness fanatics' propaganda, the alleged soothing effect of sports or recreation did not materialize in the study. The officers who reported being active in sports also reported a higher average stress score than their sedate colleagues, with an average score of 69.58, compared to the less active officers' average of 65.27. The difference in their average scores was significant. A calculated guess on this finding is that sports activity is not necessarily a stressful activity in itself, but the sports environment is conducive to alcohol consumption. "Tail-gate" parties, for example, are part and parcel of the college football scene. Bars and taverns are frequent sponsors for amateur slow-pitch softball teams for another example.

Similarly, although not statistically significant, the officers who reported having second jobs or are attending

school also reported more stress (averages of 69.68 and 69.07, respectively) than the officers who did not have second jobs nor were attending school (average scores of 67.14 and 67.39, respectively).

The following intervening variable effects were supportive of the hypotheses that suggested attending school, working a second job, or being active in sports would mitigate the negative effects of having a High-stress Officer assignment:

1. ATTENDING SCHOOL:

The effects of attending school seem to be mostly positive. This study's data indicates that officers attending school had a significantly lower health level change (-0.49) than did the officers not in school(-0.76); had a greater decrease in drinking level than did the non-school officers; reported fewer drinking problem indicators than did the non-school officers; reported fewer health problem indicators than did the non-school officers; reported a higher Family Score than did the non-school officers; and reported a higher marriage happiness level increase than did the non-school officers.

2. WORKING A SECOND JOB:

Officers working a second job had a significantly reduced drinking level average over the officers who didn't

work a second job, and increased their marriage happiness level more than the officers who didn't work a second job.

3. BEING ACTIVE IN SPORTS:

Officers who were active in sports reported fewer drinking problem indicators than did the officers who were not active in sports, reported a lower health level change (-0.65) than did the officers who were not active in sports (-0.82), and reported a slightly higher Family Score than did the officers who were not active in sports.

The following intervening variable effects were contrary to the hypotheses that suggested attending school, working a second job, or being active in sports would mitigate the negative effects of having a High-stress Officer assignment:

1. WORKING A SECOND JOB:

Officers working a second job had more drinking indicators than did the officers who didn't work a second job, had a slightly lower Family Score than did the officers who didn't work a second job, and reported a higher level of stress on the job than did the officers who didn't work a second job.

2. BEING ACTIVE IN SPORTS:

Officers who were active in sports did not lower their drinking levels as much as did the officers who were not active in sport, and reported a significantly higher job stress score than did the officers who were not active in sports.

Officers who were not active in sports reported a greater reduction in health problem indicators than did the officers who were active in sports, and reported a larger positive marriage happiness level change than did the officers who were active in sports.

3. ATTENDING SCHOOL:

Contrary to the hypothesis, officers in school scored higher on the Job Stress Scale than did the non-school officers. We can assume that this score does not reflect the stresses of school itself, because the questions specifically measured job related stress, and not stress in general. However, the schooling may have been tied to the job by, for example, the need to have college credits in order to get promoted on the job (my own department has such a requirement). A result of failure in school could have a negative effect on the officer's job opportunities and therefore increase the job stress.

DATA SUMMARY:

The introduction of the Literature Review (Chapter Two) listed objectives to be assessed with data of this study, including:

1. If a higher personal problem rate among veteran officers in stressful assignments exists.
2. To determine if Peace Officers are resistant to maladies and afflictions.

Just as in the Literature Review, evidence in this study for the high afflictions legend for Peace Officers was not clear cut. There are problems associated with working in stressful assignments for Peace Officers. The drinking level of officers in such assignments tends to go up, and they report more drinking problem indicators than their counterparts in Low-stress assignments. Veteran officers in High-stress assignments had a significantly lower Family Score than did their Low-stress counterparts, indicating that the family life of these officers was being negatively effected. Also, the health levels of the veteran officers in High-stress assignments went down significantly more than did their rookie partners.

Conversely, several previous assumptions about the deleterious effects of the stressful police-like jobs are now questioned. Veteran officers in High-stress assignments had fewer health problems than did both their rookie colleagues and Low-stress counterparts. The same trend held true when all the High-stress Officers were contrasted to all the officers in Low-stress assignments.

Veteran officers in High-stress positions apparently have a more harmonious family life do their rookie colleagues.

Veteran officers in High-stress assignments also had a greater happiness level increase in their marriages than did both the veteran officers in Low-stress assignments and the rookie officers in High-stress assignments.

The supposed beneficial effects of several intervening variables are now under suspicion. For example, officers in school, having a second job, or active in sports all scored higher on the Job Stress Scale than did the officers who were not active in those three variables investigated. Officers working a second job had more drinking indicators and a slightly lower Family Score than did the officers who didn't work a second job. Officers who were not active in sports lowered their drinking levels more, reported a greater reduction in health problem indicators, and reported a larger positive marriage happiness level change than did the officers who were active in sports.

II. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS:

If there is evidence that certain assignments are more conducive to promoting negative personal problems in officers, then the obvious answer is to set time limits that an officer can serve in such an assignment, or establish some kind of measure of stress symptom patterns

to make an assignment change before the symptoms manifest themselves in the forms of maladies or afflictions. Both of the suggestions above will probably meet with a great deal of resistance due to such things as: (1)

Organizational resistance - Personnel changes are costly in terms of training the new officers, and loss of efficiency during the break-in period, and (2) Individual resistance -

An officer gets "comfortable" in an assignment that he or she has been in for a long period of time. Close friendships and working relationships are made. There is a real feeling or sense of security in knowing the system and what one can and cannot do within a unit. These "benefits" take time to learn or assimilate. To voluntarily leave such a situation because of something negative that might happen may be a naive expectation.

The important issue to be considered here is what are the costs of the two possibilities above compared with an Officer's physical and psychological well being.

As evidenced by the finding regarding the spouse support question, current practices of in-home pre-employment interviews should be continued. Those organizations who do not take into consideration the feelings of the spouse towards an applicant's desire to be a Peace Officer are apparently risking future avoidable stress caused unhappiness and job dissatisfaction.

III. FUTURE RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

While analyzing the data I was frustrated about more specific data I could have used to better explain some of the findings. Some examples:

A question on number of children in the family could have been useful to determine if the Family Score was truly that -- a family related response or simply a response regarding two people, namely, the husband and the wife.

A separate question on how many years of marriage would have proven useful. Just as an eroding effect of a job may not manifest itself in the early years of an officer's career, so too it is guessed that evidence of the negative effects of being a police family will also take time.

At least two questions could have been added to the Job Stress Scale which would have been useful in separating the Low-stress Officers from the High-stress Officers: (1) Making ARRESTS is a stressful function and not one that is commonly associated with officers in Low-stress assignments, and (2) CHASES, both high speed vehicle and not-so-high speed foot, are stressful situations that are not uncommon for High-stress Officers, but rare for Low-stress Officers.

The Job Stress Scale could have been reduced slightly in the number of questions asked. For example: Question #3 and #17 (both dealing with daily task predictability)

could be combined, as they both address similar issues, and (2) Question #14 and #16 (both dealing with the consequences of mistakes) could be combined as addressing similar situations. A reduced form may have provided more predictive power of the dependent variables than the scale in its present form.

The question on whether the officer is currently attending school could be altered to whether or not the officer has attended school during his or her tenure as a Peace Officer.

Finally, this was a social-psychological oriented dissertation. There was data that suggested things such as the organization, size, and position do have an effect. All respondent comments were recorded and a large percentage were critical of the research because of what they perceived as an ignorance of organizational issues. Comments included, "I am very displeased to see that nowhere are you taking into consideration internal stress - stress placed on road officers by administration...", and, "I think that the one item that is overlooked when job dissatisfaction is considered is administrative attitudes." Future research efforts on police stress could pursue more organizational features such as rewards, salaries, and promotions.

IV. SUMMARY

A. LIMITS OF THIS STUDY

Possibly the most serious limitation of this study was the unavoidable absence of any data on the most important sub-group of Peace Officers effected by the stress of the profession - those who became its victims, could not handle it, and dropped out. The hypotheses suggest serious personal consequences for Peace Officers exposed over an extended period of time to the deleterious effects of the unusual combination of stresses of police work. The "drop-outs" could provide the best evidence that problems exist, and could supply invaluable data and insights into possible causes of their submission. "Officer J.B." (referred to on page 27 in Chapter 1) is such a victim. He is currently and permanently on a duty disability retirement for a drinking problem.

If it were not for another limitation of this study, the problem in the preceding paragraph could have been eliminated. A researcher with the necessary access to official police personnel records, availability of research facilities and equipment, and generous amounts of time and money, could interview not only Officer J.B., but others like him in sufficient numbers to produce meaningful data. This author found his resources strained to the breaking point in attempting to be a husband, father, homemaker, Peace Officer (swinging shifts !), AND researcher all at

the same time.

The measuring device itself could certainly be considered a limitation of this study. Whereas this study's questionnaire did lend itself to relatively easy quantification of data, allow access to a large number of potential participants, and allow the participants to answer anonymously sensitive and possibly embarrassing questions they might not otherwise have answered, it also contains the inherent questionnaire limitations of respondent confusion and unanswered questions regarding its word interpretation, the inability to understand and properly interpret the meaning of incomplete and unreturned questionnaires, the inability to answer respondent questions and follow up on the responses, and the curse of amateurs of the tendency to collect too much information.

There are those who would question the heterogeneous nature of the sample and the sample size as limiting factors. An objection could be raised to using statistical tests on a heterogeneous sample of police and police organizations then trying to generalize to the population. First, the earlier use of the term heterogeneous was to imply a sampling of several types of Peace Officers - State Police, Sheriffs, and municipal - in contrast to most research studies which seem to concentrate on one group (e.g., big city), and then generalize to all police types. Secondly, the focus of this research effort was on the officer, not the police organization to which he or she is

a member. The participating organizations are admittedly different, but organizational generalizations are not a consideration here.

Sample size was at times a limiting factor in data analysis, especially when the number of respondents in a certain variable (e.g., officers attending school) was limited. If future attempts at data gathering on the issues addressed in this study are to be made, I would increase the sample size to gain smaller confidence intervals. Thus, if there is truly a difference the "F-tests" will show a statistical significance. Many of the articles reviewed prior to this study reported research findings which described a certain city's police force characteristics (e.g., Los Angeles). Results concluded from such small geographical areas are difficult to generalize and are sometimes misleading in their interpretations (e.g., L.A. police are lower in average of suicides and divorces than the general population). Other studies combined homogeneous groups of officers, such as large urban police departments (e.g., Chicago, Baltimore, Santa Ana, by Durner et al). My study broadened the geographical base (to state-wide) and attempted to get a heterogeneous sampling of different Peace Officer types - large, medium and small agencies, and state, county, and local agencies. However, I am not satisfied with a state-wide sampling and would in the future, resources permitting, attempt a similar study using a nation-wide

sampling.

Finally, answers to some of the data "surprises" such as why do high-stress officers seem to have happier marriages than the low-stress officers are unavailable at this time. Personal interviews would best serve the purpose of gleaning the answers out. Common sense does not seem accurate with such findings. A possible explanation of this phenomenon is that those officers who have the solid, stable, and happy family and marriage environments can afford, or risk, the high stress type of assignment.

B. CONSEQUENCES

The data in this study, just as the pre-existing studies and literature dealing with the Peace Officers' personal problems, does not present a definitive answer to the question of whether or not the officers have extraordinary problems. The measures one item at a time, in and of themselves, do not show a remarkable picture. But, people have said for years, "There's something going on here." It is just extremely difficult to pin it down. Some of the data presented in this study, such as evidence of a higher drinking problem average among veteran officers in stressful assignments, was right on target with regard to a potentially dangerous and deleterious situation that can adversely effect an officer's well-being. Other data in this study indicated that parts of the hypotheses which where the result of locally derived guesses and personal

experiences do not apply to the state's law enforcement population in general. An example of the latter is the greater average reduction in health problem indicators of the veteran officers in stressful assignments as compared to their rookie colleagues and their Low-stress Officer counterparts.

The important point to be made here is, "What are the consequences for being wrong for both positions ?" If those who are raising the alarm (let us call them the "Chicken Littles") by saying Peace Officers are experiencing an unacceptable amount (greater than the national average if you will) of maladies and afflictions are WRONG, then what are the consequences ? The consequence of the Chicken Littles being wrong is GOOD news for the Peace Officer ! They are okay and need not worry about the false alarm issues. The "cost" for this group being wrong is only time, effort, money, and the reader's patience with studies such as this one.

On the other hand, if the "Non-believers" are wrong, the consequences can be FATAL ! This statement is not intended to be melodramatic, rather it is intended to make a point about the harmful consequences of a laissez faire attitude about the personal problems of the Peace Officers examined in this study. If the Non-believers prevail, and are WRONG, the well-being of many public servants, as well as the public they serve, may be placed in jeopardy. Those same people who are called on at three o'clock in the

morning (because nobody else is available at that hour) to act as doctor, lawyer, minister, or social worker may not be there to help.

To raise the alarm and be wrong will not have fatal consequences; to scoff at the alarm, and be wrong, may !

EPILOGUE

It should be stated here that becoming a Peace Officer is not the fatal decision that parts of this dissertation imply. The myriad of problems discussed on the previous pages can be corrected and/or reduced in severity. An active and concerned administration is of vital necessity to accomplish a reduction though. However, "According to the Washington-based Police Foundation, no more than five percent of the more than 17,000 police departments in the United States have begun programs that use staff psychologists, trained officers, or outside consultants to teach their officers to thwart the debilitating effects of stress"².

Through it all the person choosing a career, or even a lesser amount of time, as a Peace Officer will derive intangibles. The department I have worked for over 19 years is presently by no stretch of the imagination a desireable choice (NOTE: It was when I joined). Unlike prestigious, popular and desireable law enforcement organizations (e.g., the Michigan State Police or the Traverse City Police Department), few officers are leaving other agencies to work for my employer. On the other hand, many of my department's officers, especially the younger ones, leave for the more desireable agencies. When they go I bid them farewell by giving them all the same message.

2 Daviss, p. 10.

They have gone through the toughest school they could possibly find in the United States - the street - and they have survived. Now they can handle ANY job or situation unafraid and with confidence. Little will scare them or intimidate them in the future for they have seen and handled life at its worse and its best. One of the previously referenced authors put it more eloquently when he wrote:

The officer who successfully survives the multiplex influences from within himself, from the organization, and from his working environment benefits from the process. Having been tested and tempered in some of the most difficult crisis situations possible, he has coped, gained maturity, poise, judgement, and increased self-confidence. Authority has replaced authoritarianism. At this point the John Wayne syndrome is no longer predominant because he is now functioning as a professional.³

Amen.

³ Reiser, p. 159.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1

LIST OF STRESSORSSOURCES OF POLICE STRESS: (the INDEPENDENT/CAUSE VARIABLES)

1. References that mentioned abuse (physical and/or verbal): Kirkham (1974).
2. References that mentioned arrests: DeSanto & Fennelly (1979).
3. References that mentioned bad assignments: Kroes et al (1974).
4. References that mentioned unfavorable minority and/or majority attitudes/negative public image/community relations: Berg (1984), Besner & Robinson (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Meadows (1981), Stratton (April 1978), Tipps (1984).
5. References that mentioned organizational and public expectations of police behavior beyond reproach both on and off duty: Burgin (1978), Reiser (1974).
6. References that mentioned boredom: Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Panyard (1986), Stratton (April 1978), Wowk (May 1981).
7. References that mentioned high speed chases: Desanto & Fennelly (1979).
8. References that mentioned hostile police/community relations/apathy: Axelberd & Valle (), Fell (1980), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Moore & Donohue (1978), Panyard (1986), Tifft (1974), Wenz (1979).
9. References that mentioned professional vs military conflict: Constant (1984), Souryal (1981).
10. References that mentioned consequences of actions/possibly fatal: Banks (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Haynes (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975).
11. References that mentioned ineffectiveness of corrections system: Eisenberg (1975), Kirkham (1974).

12. References that mentioned lenient courts/unfavorable court decisions/misunderstood judicial procedure: Axelberd & Valle (), Besner & Robinson (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Fell (1980), Haynes (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kirkham (1974), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Moore & Donohue (1978), Panyard (1986), Stratton (April 1978), Tifft (1974), Violanti (1982), Wenz (1979).

13. References that mentioned competition and/or inequities for advancement or promotion: Besner (1984), Reiser (1974), Schaefer (1983).

14. References that mentioned corruption: DeSanto and Fennelly (1979).

15. References that mentioned decision making ("split-second"): Kirkham (1974).

16. References that mentioned absence or lack of career development opportunities: Eisenberg (1975), Schaefer (1983), Souryal (1981), Stratton (April 1978).

17. References that mentioned double-dip discipline: Reiser (1974), Violanti (1982).

18. References that mentioned discretion: Hillgren & Bond (1975), Muscari (1984).

19. References that mentioned responding to domestic disputes/crisis intervention: Banks (1984), Besner & Robinson (1984), Burgin (1978), DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), Kirkham (1974), Mueller (1983).

20. References that mentioned disruption of, hasty, and unbalanced eating habits/"junk food": Brinegar (1981), Hageman et al (1979), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes et al (1974), Panyard (1983).

21. References that mentioned poor equipment/inadequate resources: Besner (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Fell (1980), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Moore & Donohue (1978), Panyard (1986), Souryal (1981), Stratton (April 1978).

22. References that mentioned FEAR and/or DANGER: Chandler (1979), Eisenberg (1975), Hageman (1978), Kirkham (1974), Pendergrass (1984), Souryal (1981), Stratton (April 1978), Tifft (1974).

23. References that mentioned handling drunks: Burgin (1978).

24. References that mentioned handling guns/the potential for taking lives: Nix (1986), Wowk (May 1981).
25. References that mentioned handling stressed persons: Burgin (1978), Kirkham (1974).
26. References that mentioned being at homicide scenes: Burgin (1978).
27. References that mentioned on the job injuries/reactions of other to same: Kroes & Gould (1975), Lawrence (1984).
28. References that mentioned social isolation: Chandler (1979), Constant (1984), Hageman (1978), Kroes et al (1974), Meadows (1981).
29. References that mentioned jurisdictional isolationism: Eisenberg (1975).
30. References that mentioned lack of department guidance in critical areas: Moore & Donohue (1978), Souryal (1981).
31. References that mentioned distorted media accounts of police incidents: Berg (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Meadows (1981), Stratton (April 1978).
32. References that mentioned non-police work: Kroes et al (1974).
33. References that mentioned police administration bureaucracy/ internal organization/intraorganizational practices and characteristics: Axelberd & Valle (), Berg et al (1984), Besner (1984), Desanto & Fennelly (1979), Eisenberg (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), Fell (1980), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Nix (1986), Panyard (1986), Pendergrass (1984), Souryal (1981), Stratton (April 1978), Tifft (1974), Violanti (1982).
34. References that mentioned other policemen (the bad ones)/peer-colleague pressure (the blue brotherhood): Kroes et al (1974), Reiser (1974).
35. References that mentioned uncertain overtime: Haynes (1978), Stratton (April 1978).
36. References that mentioned excessive paperwork: Besner (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Stratton (April 1978).
37. References that mentioned pay: Besner (1984), Kroes et al (1974), Moore & Donohue (1978), Panyard (1986), Silbert (1982), Souryal (1981), Stratton (April 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981).

38. References that mentioned discovering abused children/people pain: Burgin (1978), Eisenberg (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), Pendergrass (1984), Stratton (April 1978).
39. References that mentioned responsibility for people: Kroes & Gould (1979), Pendergrass (1979), Panyard (1986), Stratton (April 1978).
40. References that mentioned inappropriate personnel policies: Burgin (1978).
41. References that mentioned inadequate reward/punishment reinforcement system: Eisenberg (1975), Moore & Donohue (1978), Stratton (April 1978).
42. References that mentioned role conflict/ambiguity/conflicting demands: Axelberd & Valle (), Besner (1984), Eisenberg (1975), Felkenes (1984), Hageman (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Lawrence (1984), Panyard (1986), Reese (1982), Stratton (April 1978).
43. References that mentioned a second job: Panyard (1986).
44. References that mentioned the need for self-control/"the John Wayne syndrome"/superman image/image armor: Chandler (1979), Chamberlain (1978), Haynes (1978), Reese (1982), Stratton (April 1978), Wowk (May 1981).
45. References that mentioned crisis, racial, extraordinary situations /violence/taking a life in the line of duty/post-shooting trauma: Besner & Robinson (1984), Chandler (1979), Constant (1984), Haynes (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Meadows (1981), Panyard (1986), Pendergrass (1984), Wenz (1979).
46. References that mentioned relations with supervisors/poor supervisory practices: Burgin (1978), Eisenberg (1975), Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Moore & Donohue (1978), Stratton (April 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981).
47. References that mentioned traffic stops: Constant (1984).
48. References that mentioned inadequate training: Burgin (1978), Stratton (April 1978).
49. References that mentioned having to be ever vigilant: Hageman (1978).

50. References that mentioned adverse work scheduling/shift of the diurnal pattern /SHIFT WORK /disruption of sleep habits: Axelberd & Valle (), Besner (1984), Bratz (1986), Eisenberg (1975), Fell (1980), Hageman (1978), Haynes (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes & Gould (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Lawrence (1984), Meadows (1981), Moore & Donohue (1978), Nordlicht (1979), Panyard (1983 & 1986), Pendergrass (1984), Stratton (April 1978), Tipps (1984), Wowk (May 1981).

51. References that mentioned "the unknown"/"the startle" (e.g., man with a gun, disorderly male, see a woman): Desanto & Fennelly (1979), Eisenberg (1975), Stratton (April 1978).

APPENDIX 2

AFFLICTIONS AND MALADIES

(NOTE: Sources that are CAPITALIZED and in bold print are research/study references in the respective topics.)

1. Sources that refer to drinking problems / alcoholism: Axelberd & Valle (1980), Besner & Robinson (1984), Beutler & O'Leary (1980), Bratz (1986), Buren (1981), Burgin (1978), Constant (1984), Danto (1978), Daviss (1982), DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), Dunne (1973), Durner et al (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), Harvard (1984), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), Hill (1981), HITZ (1973), Lester (Apr, Nov 1979), Malloy & Mays (1984), Martin (1980), Meadows (1981), Meredith (1984), Mueller (1983), NBC News (1987), Nordlicht (1979), Panyard (1981, 1982, 1983 & 1986), Ready (1979), Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), SEWELL (1981), Somodevilla (1978), Souryal (1981), Stratton (1975, Apr 1978), Stratton & Wroe (1979, Sept & Oct 1980), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984), Unkovic & Brown (1978), Van RAALTE (1979), Wagner & Brzeczek (1983), Wenz (1979), Wowk (May 1981).
2. Sources that refer to arthritis: Haynes (1978).
3. Sources that refer to authoritarian attitudes / personality: Fenster & Locke (1973), HAGEMAN (1979), Hanewicz (1978), Lefkowitz (1975), Niederhoffer (1967), Reiser (1974), Vastola (1978).
4. Sources that refer to back problems: Axelberd & Valle (1980), Bonney (1978), Hill (1981), Meadows (1981), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), SILBERT (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981).
5. Sources that refer to burnout / emotional exhaustion: Bratz (1986), Burgin (1978), Chamberlain (1978), Daviss (1982), Ellison & Genz (1978), Kroes & Gould (1979), Lester (Nov 1979), MASLACH & JACKSON (1979), Moore & Donohue (1978), Reese (1982), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Shaw (1983), SILBERT (1983), Stratton (Apr 1978), Tipps (1984), Veninga & Spradley (1981).
6. Sources that refer to circulatory / heart problems / cardiovascular disease / heart disease / heart attack / coronary problems: Ashworth (1980), Axelberd & Valle (1980), B. Bennett (1978), Besner & Robinson (1984), Bonney

(1978), Brinegar (1981), Burgin (1978), Dash & Reiser (1978), Daviss (1982), Dorangrichia (1981), Eisenberg (1975), **FELL** et al (1980), Gettman (1980), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), Hill (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kroes et al (1974), Lester (1979), Malloy & Mays (1984), Martin (1980), Panyard (1983), **PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE** (1984), Schaefer (1983), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Selye (1978), Sewell (1981), Shuman (1982), Singleton & Teahan (1978), Somodevilla (1978), Stratton (Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Veninga & Spradley (1981), Webb & Smith (1980) Wenz (1979).

7. Sources that refer to corruption: DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), Muscari (1984), O'Brien (1978), Poole et al (1978).

8. Sources that refer to cynicism: **BERG** (1984) Chamberlain (1978), Chandler & Jones (1979), Davis (1988), DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), **HAGEMAN** (1979), Hanewicz (1978), Hill (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Lefkowitz (1975), Lester (Nov 1979), **LESTER** (1984), Meadows (1981), Morgan (1980), Morris (1981), **NIEDERHOFFER** (1967), O'Brien (1978), **PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE** (1984), **POOLE** et al (1978), Reese (1982), Reiser (1974), **REGOLI & POOLE** (1979), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Shaw (1983), Stratton (Apr 1978), **TIFFT** (1974), Tipps (1984), Vastola (1978), **WILT & BANNON** (1976).

9. Sources that refer to death anxiety: **WENZ** (1979).

10. Sources that refer to depression: Harvard (1984), Moore & Donohue (1978), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Sewell (1981), Shuman (1982), Souryal (1981), Stratton (1975, Sept 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981), Webb & Smith (1980).

11. Sources that refer to dermatological problems: Eisenberg (1975), Kroes et al (1974), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985).

12. Sources that refer to diabetes: Burgin (1978), Malloy & Mays (1984), Panyard (1983), Terry (1981).

13. Sources that refer to digestive disorders / ulcers / colitis / gastro-intestinal malfunction: Ashworth (1980), Axelberd & Valle (1980), Besner (1984), Brinegar (1981), Dash & Reiser (1978), Daviss (1982), Dorangrichia (1981), Eisenberg (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), **FELL** et al (1980), Haynes (1978), Hill (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), **KROES et al** (1974), Martin (1980), Meadows (1981), **PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE** (1984), Reese (1982), Schaefer (1983), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Selye (1978), Sewell (1981), Shuman (1982), **SILBERT** (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Webb & Smith (1980), Wenz (1979).

14. Sources that refer to divorce / marital and/or family problems / strain: Ashworth (1980), Axelberd & Valle (1980), B. Bennett (1978,1979), Beutler & O'Leary (1980), Bratz (1986), Buren (1981), Burgin (1978), Chandler & Jones (1979), Constant (1984), Danto (1978), Daviss (1982), DePue (1981), DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), DURNER et al (1975), Eisenberg (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), Eyler (1982), Fell et al (1980), HAGEMAN (1978), Hall (1982), Harvard (1984), Healey (1981), Hill (1981, 1983), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Korczynski (1979), Kroes et al (1974), Lester (Apr, Nov 1979), Malloy & Mays (1984), Martin (1980), MASLACH & JACKSON (1979), Meadows (1981), Moore & Donohue (1978), Morris (1981), Mueller (1983), NBC News (February 3, 1987), Nix (1986), Nordlicht (1979), Panyard (1982, 1983 & 1986), Ready (1979), Reese (1982), Reiser (1978), Rogers (1984), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), SEWELL (1981), SINGLETON & TEAHAN (1978), Somodevilla (1978), Souryal (1981), Stratton (1975, Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984), Unkovic & Brown (1978), Wenz (1979), Wowk (May 1981).

15. Sources that refer to drug/substance abuse: Bratz (1986), Buren (1981), Ellison & Genz (1978), Hill (1981), Malloy & Mays (1984), Meadows (1981), Wagner & Brzeczek (1983).

16. Sources that refer to emotional problems, detachment, withdrawal, instability or repression/blocking or blunting of feelings: BERG (1984), Burgin (1978), Daviss (1982), Hageman (1978), Haynes (1978), Hill (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), KROES et al (1974), Meredith (1984), Reiser (1974), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Stratton (Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984), Webb & Smith (1980).

17. Sources that refer to use of excessive force: Burgin (1978), Moore & Donohue (1978), Sewell (1981).

18. Sources that refer to guilt feelings over not feeling guilty: Hill (1984).

19. Sources that refer to gambling: Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Souryal (1981).

20. Sources that refer to headaches: Ashworth (1980), Axelberd & Valle (1980), Fell et al (1980), Haynes (1978), Hill (1981), Meadows (1981), PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE (1984), Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Shuman (1982), SILBERT (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Veninga & Spradley (1981), Webb & Smith (1980).

21. Sources that refer to hemorrhoids/bowel problems: Brinegar (1981), Haynes (1978), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985).

22. Sources that refer to high blood pressure: Bonney (1978), Brinegar (1981), Gettman (1979), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), **PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE** (1984), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Selye (1978), Sewell (1981), Shuman (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978), Webb & Smith (1980).

23. Sources that refer to hypertension: Axelberd & Valle (1980), B. Bennett (1978), Dash & Reiser (1978), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Panyard (1983), Schaefer (1983), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Wenz (1979).

24. Sources that refer to impotence problems: Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Shuman (1982), Souryal (1981).

25. Sources that refer to isolation from/of family, isolation from friends, community, loss of friends, alienation from non-cop world: Besner (1984), Chandler 7 Jones (1979), **CLARK** (1965), Constant (1984), **EYLER** (1982), **HAGEMAN** (1978), **HAGEMAN** (1979), Korczynski (1979), **KROES et al** (1974), Lefkowitz (1975), Meredith (1984), Moore & Donohue (1978), Morris (1981), Nordlicht (1979), Owens (1978), **PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE** (1984), Reiser (1974), Shuman (1982), Stratton (Apr, Sept 1978), Terry (1981), **TIFFT** (1974).

26. Sources that refer to juvenile offspring problems: Schwartz (1975), Somodevilla (1978), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984).

27. Sources that refer to nervous conditions: Eisenberg (1975), Kroes et al (1974), Shuman (1982), **SILBERT** (1982), Stratton (1975, Sept 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981).

28. Sources that refer to mental disorders/illness, neurosis: Eisenberg (1975), Fell et al (1980), **FENSTER & LOCKE** (1973), Kroes et al (1974), Malloy & Mays (1984), Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Selye (1978), Somodevilla (1978), Stratton (1975, Sept 1978).

29. Sources that refer to obesity/overweight: Bonney (1978), Brinegar (1981), Gettman (1979), Gilbert (1984), Healey (1981), Panyard (1983), Reese (1982), Shuman (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978).

30. Sources that refer to functional paranoia, chronic suspiciousness: Haynes (1978), Kirkham (1974), Morris (1981), Poole et al (1978), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Sewell (1981), **SINGLETON & TEAHAN** (1978), Stratton (1975, Sept 1978), **TIFFT** (1974), Vastola (1978).

31. Sources that refer to premature natural death: **FELL et al** (1980), Haynes (1978), Malloy & Mays (1984), Meredith (1984), Nix (1986), Stratton (Apr 1978).

32. Sources that refer to respiratory problems: **CAPLAN** (1980), Terry (1981).
33. Sources that refer to retardation of social development: Meredith (1984).
34. Sources that refer to retirement problems: Schwartz & Schwartz (1975).
35. Sources that refer to sleeping problems, insomnia, anxiety in sleep patterns, disruption in physiologic/circadian rhythm: Dorangrichia (1981), Eisenberg (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), Fell et al (1980), Haynes (1978), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Korczynski (1979), KROES (1976), KROES et al (1974), Meadows (1981), Nix (1986), Nordlicht (1979), PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE (1984), Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Shuman (1982), SILBERT (1982), Stratton (Apr 1978), Veninga & Spradley (1981), Webb & Smith (1980).
36. Sources that refer to STRESS: Ashworth (1980), Axelberd & Valle (1980), Beutler & O'Leary (1980), Bonney (1978), Bratz (1986), Brinegar (1981), Buren (1981), Burgin (1978), Constant (1984), Craig (1981), Dash & Reiser (1978), Davis (1988), Daviss (1982), DePue (1981), DeSanto & Fennelly (1979), Dorangrichia (1981), Ellison & Genz (1978), Eisenberg (1975), FELL et al (1980), FRENCH (1975), Gettman (19769), Gilbert (1984), Hanewicz (1978), HAGEMAN (1978), Hageman et al (1979), Hall (1982), Hanewicz (1978), Harvard (1984), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), Hill (1981, 1983), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Kirkham (1974), Korczynski (1979), Kroes & Gould (1979), KROES (1976), KROES et al (1974), LAWRENCE (1984), LESTER & MINK (1979), Lester (1978, Apr, Nov 1979), Ludos & Mijares (1981), Malloy & Mays (1984), Martin (1980), MASLACH & JACKSON (1979), Meadows (1981), Meredith (1984), Moore & Donohue (1978), Morris (1981), Nix (1986), Nordlicht (1979), Panyard (1983 & 1986), PENDERGRASS & OSTROVE (1984), Ready (1979), Reese (1982), Reiser (1974, 1978), Schaefer (1983), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Selye (1978), SEWELL (1981), Shaw (1983), Shuman (1982), SILBERT (1982), SINGLETON & TEAHAN (1978), Somodevilla (1978), Souryal (1981), Stratton (1975, Apr & Sept 1978), Symonds (1970), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984), Van Raalte (1979), Veninga & Spradley (1981), Violanti (1982), Webb & Smith (1980) Wenz (1979), Wowk (May 1981).
37. Sources that refer to strokes: B. Bennett (1978), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985).
38. Sources that refer to suicide, tendencies toward self-destruction: Axelberd & Valle (1980), B. Bennett (1979), Besner (1984), Beutler & O'Leary (1980), Bratz (1986), Burgin (1978), Constant (1984), DANTO (1978), DASH & REISER

(1978), Durner et al (1975), Ellison & Genz (1978), FELL et al (1980), Harvard (1984), Haynes (1978), Healey (1981), Hill (1981), Hillgren & Bond (1975), Lester (1978, Nov 1979), Malloy & Mays (1984), Martin (1980), Meadows (1981), Meredith (1984), Moore & Donohue (1978), Mueller (1983), NBC News (February 3, 1987), Niederhoffer (1967), Nix (1986), Panyard (1983 & 1986), Ready (1979), Reese (1982), Schreiber & Seitzinger (1985), Schwartz & Schwartz (1975), Sewell (1981), Singleton & Teahan (1978), Souryal (1981), Stratton (Apr 1978), Terry (1981), Tipps (1984), Unkovic & Brown (1978), Wagner & Brzeczek (1983), Wenz (1979), Wowk (May 1981 & 1982).

39. Sources that refer to susceptibility to "mid-life crises": Cowley (1984).

40. Sources that refer to vision problems: Hill (1981).

41. Sources that refer to frequency of visits to medical facilities at work or admittance to hospitals: CAPLAN (1980), FELL et al (1980).

42. Sources that refer to work alienation: BERG (1984), Chandler & Jones (1979), Lester (Nov 1979), POOLE et al (1978).

APPENDIX 3

LETTER TO AGENCY HEAD

Dear Chief Smith:

We are all concerned about the problems confronting our law enforcement officers today, and we realize that work in law enforcement agencies continues to demand the best in all of us. Unfortunately, few studies have shown how the day-to-day activities are met by officers, and what some of the consequences are for our personal lives. Identifying and lowering some of the stresses is one of the most important issues we face today. I know about many of these problems from sixteen years of personal experience on a major urban police force, and my studies as a Doctoral candidate at Michigan State University.

Attached you will find a sample of a cover letter and questionnaire that I would like to present to the members of your department. Respondents, of course, will remain totally anonymous, their individual replies strictly confidential, and no law enforcement agency or other unit will ever be identified in any report. It is my hope that you will allow me to make the questionnaire available to your members, and lend the prestige of your office to supporting the worthwhile purpose of this research. A short response form and stamped return envelope is enclosed for you to reply on.

If you kindly agree to help in this study, your agency will receive a packet consisting of a cover letter, questionnaire, and a return addressed stamped envelope for each member. Your agency's only obligation would be to make the packets readily available to the members. In return for your assistance, the results of this research and any conclusions derived therefrom will be made available to you immediately upon request.

I look forward to hearing from you in the near future, and I hope you and your agency will agree to participate in the study. If you have any questions about this research project, please do not hesitate to contact me at, Law Enforcement Officer Study, 534 Baker Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824. Thanking you in advance for any help you may extend, I remain...

Sincerely yours,

Howard Troost
Director
Law Enforcement Officer Study

2 attachments
2 enclosures

APPENDIX 4

RESPONSE TOTALS

<u>Organization Type</u>	<u># sent</u>	<u># returned</u>	<u>%</u>
Police Departments	365	145	40%
Sheriff Departments	688	247	36%
State Police	65	23	35%
TOTALS:	1118	415	37.1%

APPENDIX 5

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BY JOB TITLE

Heads of Organizations:

1 Chief

Command Positions:

2 Undersheriff

1 Commander

1 Director (SD)

Middle Management:

1 Captain

5 Lieutenant

3 Lieutenant (MSP)

1 Shift Commander (FSC)

8 Lieutenant (SD)

Investigative Ranks:

7 Detective

4 Detective Sergeant

3 Investigator

3 Detective Lieutenant

2 Sergeant (Administrative/Staff)

4 Detective Corporal (PD)

2 Investigator - Police Officer (SD)

First Line Supervision:

29 Sergeant

5 Sergeant-Road (Sheriff)

8 Sergeant (MSP)

5 Sergeant-Jail (Sheriff)

"Street" Ranks:

64 Police Officer

22 Patrolman

113 Deputy Sheriff

11 Trooper (MSP)

1 Trooper II (MSP)

4 Public Safety Officer (FSC)

60 Police Officer/Patrolman (SD)

4 Police Officer II

1 Deputy Sheriff II

2 Jailer

1 Secretary (civilian)

2 Clerk (SD)

1 Drivers License Examiner (SD)

"Pre-street":

1 Corrections Officer (non-certified)

1 Police Officer I (Non-sworn)

APPENDIX #6

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BY ASSIGNMENT

<u>#</u>	<u>Assignment</u>
128	Patrol (road-uniform)
28	Jail Division SD (Jailer / Turn-key / Security)
15	Traffic Enforcement Unit (mobile)
6	Narcotics (undercover)
5	Patrol (beat/foot)
10	Shift Supervisor (Uniform sergeant - road)
3	Complaints & Traffic (MSP)
3	Supervision / Shift Commander (FSC)
3	Vice Officer
1	Resident Deputy (SD)
13	Disciplinary Unit / Administrative
2	Ambulance Service/EMT and Road
1	Animal Control
8	Shift Supervisor - Jail (SD)
1	Community Services - PR - (MSP)
2	Desk Sergeant (MSP)
3	Post Commander - Lieutenant (MSP)
18	Investigator / Detective
2	Shift Commander (lieutenant)
1	Operations Lieutenant (PD)
1	Detectives / Supervisor Detectives / Detective Lt. (supervisor, O.I.C.)
7	Corrections / Corrections Officer
5	Dispatcher
1	Deputy - car maintenance
6	Prisoner Transportation (SD)
2	Deputy - road
1	Detective (Sheriff)
2	Juvenile Unit / Officer (SD)
1	Drivers License Examiner (SD)
2	Jail Administrator (Sgt - SD)
2	Sergeant (SD and MSP)
3	Mounted / Aviation / Marine Unit
1	Undercover / Plainclothes
3	Surveillance
7	Scientific / Laboratory Unit / Crime Scene Investigator / Evidence Tech / Polygraph Exam
7	Youth Bureau Unit / Detention Home
3	Canine (road)
2	Identification Bureau / ID Officer
3	Communications
18	Warrant Officer / Bailiff / Court Officer
3	Crime Prevention
1	Booking / Registration Desk
2	School Officer
1	Special Services / Special Events
2	Medical Section Clerk / Clerk / Desk Operations

1	Plainclothes investigator (P.O.)
1	Patrol (road-plainclothes)
1	Accident Investigator (P.O.)
1	Public Relations / Community Services / Relations
1	Operator / Switchboard
2	Ordinance Officer
1	Lieutenant PD (uniform/patrol)
2	Precinct Staff PD (P.O.)
2	Computer / LEIN Operator
1	Restricted / Limited Duty / Minor Disability
2	Special Investigations / Organized Crime
	Investigation Unit
2	Auto Theft Unit
3	Internal Affairs Unit
8	Training Unit
1	Records Unit
1	Liquor Laws Enforcement
34	Security / Court Security
2	Staff / Executive Division
5	Hospital Security / Airport Security
1	Field Services (SD)
2	Process Server

413 Total

APPENDIX 7

1. How long have you served as a law enforcement officer ?
_____ years, _____ months.
2. What is your present job title ?

(e.g. police officer)
3. What is your present assignment ?

(e.g. undercover narcotics)
4. How much time have you served in your present assignment?
_____ years, _____ months.
5. List your previous assignments as a law enforcement officer, and the length of time served in each.
 - a. _____, for _____ years.
 - b. _____, for _____ years.
 - c. _____, for _____ years.
6. What is the size of the law enforcement agency you work for ?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Over 1,000 sworn members.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Between 400 and 1,000 members.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Between 75 and 399 members.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Between 15 and 74 members.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than 15 sworn members.
7. What is your age ? _____; sex ? _____; race ? _____.
8. What is your educational attainment level ? ("X" a box)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than a high school diploma.
<input type="checkbox"/>	High school graduate or G.E.D..
<input type="checkbox"/>	Some college (less than two years).
<input type="checkbox"/>	Two years of college and/or Associate degree.
<input type="checkbox"/>	More than 2 years of college/ Associate degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Bachelor's degree.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Master's degree.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Doctorate.
9. Are you currently attending school ? YES NO
 Do you have a second job ? _____
 Are you active in sports ? _____
10. How satisfied are you with your career as an officer ?
 Extremely Very Satisfied Slightly Not At All
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
11. How satisfied are you with your pay/salary ?
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
12. How satisfied are you with the supervision you receive
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
13. How satisfied are you with the hours you must work ?
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
14. How satisfied are you with the duties you are required to perform as a law enforcement officer ?
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____
15. How satisfied are you with the recognition you get from the community for being a law enforcement officer ?
 I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

PART B

Law enforcement officers describe their jobs in different ways. For each of the following statements, how would you describe your duties? Put an "X" on the bar graph at the location that best describes your daily work experiences. For example, if the statement reads...

My supervisor is ALWAYS friendly My supervisor is NEVER friendly

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

...and your supervisor is USUALLY friendly, then you would mark an "X" on the bar graph in this manner:

I _____ I _____ X _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

Or, if your supervisor is SELDOM or INFREQUENTLY friendly, then you would mark the bar graph in this manner:

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ X _____ I _____

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS USING THE METHOD DESCRIBED ABOVE:

1. I change work hours I always work a
on a regular basis straight shift

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

2. I always work a I never work a
nighttime shift nighttime shift

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

3. My daily tasks are My daily tasks are routine;
unpredictable from hour to I know what I will be
hour, even minute to minute doing all the time

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

4. Carrying a weapon A weapon is not
(eg, gun, night stick) necessary for the
is considered essential accomplishment of my
to my daily job requirements daily job requirements

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

5. In my assignment I am My job requirements do
routinely exposed to tragedy not routinely expose
(eg, deaths, injured children) me to tragedy

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

6. People that I meet during People I come into contact
my assignment are under a with on my job are not
great deal of stress under any unusual stress

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

7. My job routinely exposes People I encounter during
me to hostile people the course of my assignment
show no hostility

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

8. People I routinely have People I routinely come
contact with are under into contact with are
very great tension under no tension

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

9. I am routinely exposed to I do not come into contact
seamy elements of the local with the seamy elements of
area and/or population the area/population

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

10. My assignment requires me to be very mobile (eg, in car, on foot)	My assignment does not require a great deal of mobility (eg, desk job)
I I I	I I I
11. My daily job tasks are potentially dangerous	My daily job tasks are not potentially dangerous
I I I	I I I
12. My daily assignment frequently subjects me to stressful situations	There are no stressful situations in my normal daily assignment
I I I	I I I
13. My assignment requires split-second decision making	My assignment allows for unhurried decision making
I I I	I I I
14. Mistakes I am subject to make on the job can have extreme, even fatal consequences	Consequences of mistakes I make on the job are not serious and never fatal
I I I	I I I
15. Exposure to, or the opportunity for, corruption (eg, offered a bribe) is commonplace	There is no opportunity for me to be corrupted while I perform my daily assignment
I I I	I I I
16. Subject to severe criticism, discipline, and even court action for some of the mistakes I make on the job	If I make mistakes on the job, criticism, discipline, or correction is not severe
I I I	I I I
17. I have little control over the type(s) of task(s) I will be performing in the course of my daily assignment (eg, I may make arrests, issue tickets, render aid, etc)	The nature of the tasks I perform in my daily assignment do not change from day to day (eg, clerks take reports, file, type, etc, each day)
I I I	I I I
18. My assignment requires my attendance in court on a regular basis	I never have to go to court as a part of my daily assignment
I I I	I I I
19. My present assignment allows for extensive use of discretion daily	My assignment does not require me to use a great amount of discretion
I I I	I I I
20. Meal breaks are strictly limited (eg, no more than 30 minutes allowed) and are subject to interruption	My meal breaks are not subject to interruption and are taken leisurely
I I I	I I I

PART C

READ AND ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS CANDIDLY AS POSSIBLE:

1. How would you describe your drinking habits with regard to alcoholic beverages (i.e., beer, wine, liquor) at the time you became a law enforcement officer ? ("X" a block)
 - ☐ I Drank daily
 - ☐ A regular drinker (several drinks, several times a week)
 - ☐ Only socially, but sometimes to excess
 - ☐ Only socially, never to excess
 - ☐ Infrequently, on special occasions
 - ☐ Only experimented to see if I would like a certain drink
 - ☐ I didn't drink at all
2. With regard to alcoholic beverages, how would you describe your drinking habits now ?
 - ☐ I'm an alcoholic
 - ☐ I drink regularly, several drinks several times a week
 - ☐ Only socially, but sometimes to excess
 - ☐ Only socially, never to excess
 - ☐ Infrequently, on special occasions
 - ☐ I only experiment to see if I like a certain drink
 - ☐ I don't drink at all (IF YOU CHECKED THIS ANSWER, GO TO PART "D")
3. For each of the following questions, "X" one line:

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>
a. Do you seek drinking opportunities ?	_____	_____
b. Has a family member or friend ever expressed concern about you drinking alcoholic beverages in amounts considered harmful?	_____	_____
c. Do you drink to make socializing easier ?	_____	_____
d. Is drinking alcoholic beverages a "must" for your social functions ?	_____	_____
e. Do you usually drink alcoholic beverages alone ?	_____	_____
f. Have you ever made a decision to "go on the wagon"?	_____	_____
g. Do you think drinking alcoholic beverages has contributed to an unhappy home for <u>you</u> ?	_____	_____
h. Do you think drinking alcoholic beverages is hurting your health ?	_____	_____
i. Do you lose time from your job because of drinking ?	_____	_____
j. Are you having more accidents (eg, in vehicles, falling, slipping with tools) on the job now than when you first became a law enforcement officer ?	_____	_____
k. Do you think drinking has made you a "different person" from the time you first became a law enforcement officer ?	_____	_____

PART D

1. How would you describe your general physical condition the day you became a law enforcement officer ?
 - ☐ Excellent
 - ☐ Good
 - ☐ Average
 - ☐ Poor
 - ☐ Bad

2. How much did you weigh (in pounds) the day you became a law enforcement officer ? _____ pounds.

3. For each of the following illnesses, indicate whether or not you had the problem listed when you first became a law enforcement officer, and whether or not you have the problem now:

<u>PROBLEM</u>	Present when first became an officer ?		Present now ?	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
Heart disease				
An ulcer				
High blood pressure				
Chronic headaches				
Chronic stomach aches				
Diabetes				
Lung disease				
Arthritis				
Hypertension				

4. Today, you weigh _____ pounds, and are _____ feet, _____ inches.

5. How would you describe your general physical condition today ?
 - ☐ Excellent
 - ☐ Good
 - ☐ Average
 - ☐ Poor
 - ☐ Bad

PART E

1. What is your current marital status ?
- ☐ Married for the first time
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Divorced and remarried _____ time(s)
- ☐ Single, never married
- ☐ Widowed and remarried
- ☐ Widowed (If you put an "X" in this box the remaining questions do not apply to you, and you have completed your questionnaire. Thank you for your help.)

2. How many close friends do you have ? (People that you feel at ease with, can talk to about private matters, and can call on for help.)
- ☐ 0 - 2
- ☐ 3 - 5
- ☐ 6 - 9
- ☐ 10 or more

ANSWER QUESTIONS 3 THROUGH 16 ONLY IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY MARRIED. IF NOT, GO ON TO QUESTION #17.

3. What was the relationship with your present spouse at the time you became a law enforcement officer ?
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Engaged to be married
- ☐ Dating
- ☐ Acquainted
- ☐ Strangers
4. How supportive is your spouse of your present job ?
- ☐ Wants me to be a law enforcement officer
- ☐ Tolerates me being a law enforcement officer
- ☐ Is indifferent to me being a peace officer
- ☐ Want me to stop being a law enforcement officer
- ☐ I don't know

5. Does your spouse understand the problems and stress of your job ?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____

6. Does your spouse show you as much affection as you would like ?

I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____
---------	---------	---------	---------	---------

7. Does your spouse give you as much understanding as you need?

I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____
---------	---------	---------	---------	---------

8. Do you and your spouse disagree about family discipline ? (eg. regarding the children)

I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____	I _____
---------	---------	---------	---------	---------

9. Do arguments with your spouse end with you saying, "Because I said so" ?

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

10. Even happily married couples have problems getting along with each other. How often does it happen to you ?

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

11. How often do you regret your marriage ?

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

12. How often have you seriously considered separation or divorce from your spouse ?

I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____ I _____

13. Does your spouse drink alcoholic beverages more now than when you first became a law enforcement officer ?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ This question does not apply to my spouse

14. Have you ever struck your spouse in anger with your hand(s) or an object ?

☐ Yes, _____ times, in _____ years of marriage

☐ No

15. Since becoming a law enforcement officer, have you ever had an extramarital affair ?

☐ Yes. _____ time(s) in _____ year(s) of marriage

☐ No

16. All in all how happy has your marriage been for you?

☐ Very happy

☐ Happy

☐ Somewhat happy

☐ Unhappy

☐ Very unhappy

ANSWER QUESTIONS 17 THROUGH 22 ONLY IF YOU'VE EVER BEEN DIVORCED WHILE YOU WERE A LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER. IF NOT, GO ON TO QUESTION #23.

17. Did your ex-spouse object to your being a law enforcement officer ?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ I'm not sure

18. Did the unusual job requirements of being an officer (eg, rotating shifts, working holidays, carrying a gun) have an adverse effect on your marriage ?

☐ Yes, a damaging one

☐ Yes, but not a serious one

☐ Little or no adverse effects

19. Did the unusual environment of being an officer (eg, social isolation sometimes experienced by police families) have an adverse effect on your marriage ?
☐ Yes, a significant one
☐ Yes, but not a serious one
☐ Little or no effect
20. Do you feel that certain job circumstances (eg, getting off duty at midnight and spouse/family asleep, so you attend "choir practice") contributed significantly to the failure of your marriage ?
☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ I don't know
21. While you were married to your ex-spouse, did you ever have an extramarital affair ?
☐ Yes
☐ No
22. While you were married, did your ex-spouse ever have an extramarital affair ?
☐ No, not to my knowledge
☐ I think so
☐ Yes, definitely
23. If you've never been married, or while you were single (if currently married), has someone you may have married declined to do so because of your profession ?
☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ This question does not apply to me
24. Is one of the reason(s) you are/were single because you don't believe your profession and marriage are compatible ?
☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ This question does not apply to me

ANSWER QUESTION #25 ONLY IF YOU WERE MARRIED TO YOUR PRESENT SPOUSE PRIOR TO BECOMING A LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER:

25. How would you rate your marriage when you first became a law enforcement officer ?
☐ Very happy
☐ As happy as most couples
☐ We were having more problems than most couples
☐ We were unhappy
☐ We were on the verge of separation or divorce

APPENDIX 8

COVER LETTER TO THE OFFICERS

Dear Fellow Officer:

We are all concerned about the problems that confront the law enforcement officer today, and we know our work continues to demand the best in all of us. Unfortunately, very few studies have shown how officers cope with the day-to-day job activities, and what are some of the consequences for our personal lives. As a sixteen year (and still counting) member of a major urban police department, I share with you the joys and sorrows that are inherent in our profession.

The questionnaire attached to this letter is intended to gather data that will give those of us trying to improve the law enforcement officer's environment an accurate picture of the officer's experiences, both on and off the job. The questionnaire will take only a few minutes to complete, and the information you provide will be invaluable for understanding the situations that confront all law enforcement officers. Only those of us who actually face the daily problems, officers like yourself, have the knowledge and experiences to provide the insights needed to address the major issues that confront our profession.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it in the attached stamped self-addressed envelope. Your answers to these questions will remain anonymous and completely confidential. Only I will see the answers before they are coded for computer analysis. In any written report, no person, unit, or organization will ever be identified in any way.

If you would like a summary of the research report, please send your name and address on a separate card to me at, Law Enforcement Officer Study, 534 Baker Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 48824, and I will be happy to mail you a copy when the study is completed. Thank you in advance for your cooperation and help with this important survey of law enforcement officers and their work.

Sincerely,

Howard Troost
Director
Law Enforcement Officer Study

2 attachments

APPENDIX 9

CONSENT FORM FROM THE CHIEFS

Date: _____

Mr. Howard Troost:

_____ The _____ Police Department
cannot participate in your research project.

_____ YES, this department will assist you in your
research project. Please provide _____
copies (number of personnel in the agency) to:

(Name of contact member)_____
(Rank)_____
(Address)_____
(Phone #)

APPENDIX 10

CODEBOOK

F	Q
O	U
R	E
M	S
#	#

- | | |
|----|-----------------------------|
| 1. | Respondent Code Number |
| 2. | " " " |
| 3. | " " " |
| 4. | 1. Years as a Peace Officer |
| 5. | " " " " " |
| 6. | Months as a Peace Officer |
| 7. | " " " " " |
| 8. | 2. Present job title |
| 9. | " " " |

JOB TITLE CODES

(Question Numbers 2 & 5)

Heads of Organizations:

(00-09)

00.....Chief

01.....Sheriff

02.....Colonel

03.....

04.....

05.....

06.....

07.....

08.....

09.....Other Title (e.g., Captain)

Command Positions:

(10-19)

10.....Deputy Chief

11.....Undersheriff

12.....Commander

13.....Deputy Director of Emergency Services

14.....Post Commander (MSP)

15.....Director (SD)

16.....

17.....

18.....

19.....

Middle Management:

(20-29)

20.....Inspector

21.....

22.....

23.....

24.....

25.....

26.....

27.....

28.....

29.....

(30-39)

30.....Captain

31.....Lieutenant

32.....Lieutenant (Administrative)

33.....Lieutenant (MSP)

34.....Shift Commander (FSC)

35.....Lieutenant (SD)

36.....

37.....

38.....

39.....

Investigative Ranks:

(40-49)

40.....Detective

41.....Detective Sergeant

42.....Investigator

43.....Detective Lieutenant

44.....Sergeant (Administrative/Staff)

45.....Detective Corporal (PD)

46.....Investigator - Police Officer (SD)

47.....

48.....

49.....

First Line Supervision:

(50-59)

50.....Sergeant

51.....Corporal

52.....Staff Sergeant

53.....Sergeant-Road (Sheriff)

54.....Sergeant (MSP)

55.....Sergeant-Jail (Sheriff)

56.....

57.....

58.....

59.....

(60-69)

60.....

61.....

62.....

63.....

64.....

65.....

66.....
 67.....
 68.....
 69.....
 "Street" Ranks:
 (70-79)
 70.....Police Officer
 71.....Patrolman
 72.....Deputy Sheriff
 73.....Trooper (MSP)
 74.....Trooper II (MSP)
 75.....Public Safety Officer (FSC)
 76.....Campus Police
 77.....Police Officer/Patrolman (SD)
 78.....Village Officer
 79.....Police Officer II
 (80-89)
 80.....Dispatcher
 81.....Crime Prevention
 82.....Dive Team
 83.....Deputy Sheriff II
 84.....Jailer
 85.....Secretary (civilian)
 86.....Clerk (SD)
 87.....Drivers License Examiner (SD)
 88.....Special Deputy Sheriff
 89.....Railroad Police Officer
 "Pre-street":
 (90-99)
 90.....Cadet, Police
 91.....Community Service Officer
 92.....Patrolman Cadet
 93.....Probation Officer
 94.....Corrections Officer (non-certified)
 95.....EMT/Rescue Squad
 96.....Reserve Police Officer
 97.....Police Officer I (Non-sworn)
 98.....Military Police
 99.....use for "not applicable"

10. 3. Present assignment
 11. " "

Assignment Codes
 (Alphabetically)

65 = Accident Investigator (P.O.)
 13 = Administrative / Disciplinary Unit*
 95 = Airport Security / Hospital Security*
 14 = Ambulance Service/EMT and Road
 15 = Animal Control
 99 = Armed Services Police (i.e., M.P., A.P., S.P.)
 84 = Auto Theft Unit

43 = Aviation / Marine / Mounted Unit*
 53 = Bailiff / Court Officer / Warrant Officer*
 56 = Booking / Registration Desk
 86 = Cadet / Reserve Officer*
 26 = Campus Police / Public Safety Officer*
 48 = Canine (road)
 82 = Census Officer / IRS Agent*
 37 = Chief of Police
 61 = Clerk / Desk Operations*
 51 = Communications
 17 = Community Services - PR - (MSP)
 67 = Community Services/Relations/Public Relations*
 08 = Complaints & Traffic (MSP)
 75 = Computer / LEIN Operator
 89 = Corporal
 27 = Corrections / Corrections Officer
 53 = Court Officer / Bailiff / Warrant Officer*
 93 = Court Security / Security*
 70 = Crime Complaints / Reports*
 54 = Crime Prevention
 46 = Crime Scene Investigator / Evidence Tech /
 Scientific / Lab / Polygraph Exam Unit(s)*
 60 = Customs Inspector
 31 = Deputy - car maintenance
 33 = Deputy - road
 18 = Desk Sergeant (MSP)
 09 = Detective (MSP)
 22 = Detective (police)*
 34 = Detective (Sheriff)
 25 = Detective Lieutenant (supervisor, O.I.C.)*
 91 = Detective Sergeant (PD)
 13 = Disciplinary Unit / Administrative*
 29 = Dispatcher
 62 = Doorman / turn-key / jailer (PD)
 38 = Drivers License Examiner (SD)
 87 = Drug Enforcement Agency (Federal)
 46 = Evidence Tech / Crime Scene Investigator /
 Lab / Scientific / Polygraph Exam Unit*
 49 = Federal Police
 96 = Field Services (SD)
 83 = Fish and Wildlife Officer (Federal)
 21 = F/Lieutenant - Management (MSP)
 95 = Hospital Security / Airport Security*
 50 = Identification Bureau / ID Officer
 55 = Instructor
 85 = Internal Affairs Unit
 22 = Investigator / Detective*
 82 = IRS Revenue Agent / Census Officer*
 39 = Jail Administrator (Sgt - SD)
 02 = Jail Division SD (Jailer/Turn-key/Security)
 35 = Juvenile Unit / Officer (SD)
 72 = Lieutenant PD (uniform/patrol)
 30 = Lieutenant SD (uniform)
 92 = Liquor Laws Enforcement

43 = Marine / Aviation / Mounted Unit*
 61 = Medical Section Clerk*
 71 = Motorcycle Officer (Traffic)
 43 = Mounted / Aviation / Marine Unit*
 04 = Narcotics (undercover)
 25 = O.I.C. Detectives / Supervisor Detectives
 68 = Operator / Switchboard
 07 = Operations Lieutenant (MSP)
 24 = Operations Lieutenant (PD)
 69 = Ordinance Officer
 77 = Organized Crime Investigation Unit / Special
 Investigations*
 57 = Park Ranger
 05 = Patrol (beat/foot)
 64 = Patrol (road-plainclothes)
 01 = Patrol (road-uniform)
 36 = Patrolman / Police Officer (PD)
 41 = Patrolman / Police Officer (SD)
 63 = Plainclothes investigator (P.O.)
 44 = Plainclothes / Undercover Officer*
 28 = Police Officer
 46 = Polygraph Examiner / Crime Scene Investigator /
 Evidence Tech / Scientific / Lab Unit*
 20 = Post Commander - Lieutenant (MSP)
 74 = Precinct Staff PD (P.O.)
 79 = Prisoner Processing
 32 = Prisoner Transportation (SD)
 97 = Process Server
 67 = Public Relations/Community Services/Relations*
 26 = Public Safety Officer / Campus Police*
 80 = Railroad Police
 90 = Records Unit
 70 = Reports / Crime Complaints*
 86 = Reserve Officer / Cadet*
 12 = Resident Deputy (SD)
 76 = Restricted / Limited Duty / Minor Disability
 58 = School Officer
 46 = Scientific / Laboratory Unit / Crime Scene
 Investigator / Evidence Tech / Polygraph Exam*
 73 = Scooter Patrol
 93 = Security / Court Security*
 42 = Sergeant (MSP and SD)*
 66 = Sergeant (PD)
 42 = Sergeant (SD and MSP)*
 10 = Shift Commander (FSC) / Supervision*
 23 = Shift Commander (lieutenant)
 16 = Shift Supervisor - Jail (SD)
 06 = Shift Supervisor (Uniform sergeant - road)
 59 = Special Events / Special Services*
 77 = Special Investigations / Organized Crime
 Investigation Unit*
 59 = Special Services / Special Events*
 94 = Staff / Executive Division
 81 = Stationary Traffic

10 = Supervision / Shift Commander (FSC)
 45 = Surveillance
 52 = S.W.A.T. Team
 78 = Tactical Unit / Riot Control Unit
 03 = Traffic Enforcement Unit (mobile)
 88 = Training Unit
 19 = Trooper - Road (MSP)
 44 = Undercover / Plainclothes*
 11 = Vice Officer
 40 = Village Officer
 53 = Warrant Officer / Bailiff / Court Officer*
 98 = Woman's Division
 47 = Youth Bureau Unit / Detention Home

* = Number used more than once

12. 4. Years in present assignment

13. " " " "
 1 - 98 = number of years in present assignment
 99 = no answer

14. Months in present assignment

15. " " " "
 1-12 = number of months in present assignment
 99 = no answer

16. 5. a. Previous assignment title

17. " " " "

18. a. Years in previous assignment

19. " " " "

20. b. Previous assignment title

21. " " " "

22. b. Years in previous assignment

23. " " " "

24. c. Previous assignment title

25. " " " "

26. c. Years in previous assignment

27. " " " "

28. 6. Agency size:

5 = Over 1,000 sworn members
 4 = Between 400 and 1,000 members
 3 = Between 75 and 399 members
 2 = Between 15 and 74 members
 1 = Less than 15 sworn members

29. 7. Age

30. "

31. Sex:
 1 = male
 2 = female
32. Race:
 1 = white
 2 = black
 3 = hispanic
 4 = oriental
 5 = arab
 6 = American Indian
 7 = Latino
 8 = other
 9 = no answer
33. 8. Educational attainment level:
 0 = less than high school
 1 = high school diploma
 2 = some college (less than 2 years)
 3 = Associate Degree/two years of college
 4 = " " " " " " plus
 5 = Bachelor's Degree
 6 = Master's Degree
 7 = Master's Degree plus
 8 = Doctorate
 9 = no answer
34. 9. Attending school ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
35. Second job ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
36. Active in sports ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No

SATISFACTION SCALE

37. 10. Career satisfaction:
 Extremely Very Satisfied Slightly Not at all
 5 4 3 2 1
38. 11. Salary satisfaction:
 Extremely Very Satisfied Slightly Not at all
 5 4 3 2 1
39. 12. Supervision satisfaction:
 Extremely Very Satisfied Slightly Not at all
 5 4 3 2 1

40.	13.	Work hours satisfaction:				
		<u>Extremely</u>	<u>Very</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Slightly</u>	<u>Not at all</u>
		5	4	3	2	1
41.	14.	Duties satisfaction:				
		<u>Extremely</u>	<u>Very</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Slightly</u>	<u>Not at all</u>
		5	4	3	2	1
42.	15.	Recognition satisfaction:				
		<u>Extremely</u>	<u>Very</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Slightly</u>	<u>Not at all</u>
		5	4	3	2	1

PRESENT JOB/ASSIGNMENT CHARACTERISTICS
(Job Stress Scale)

43.	Change hours regularly				Straight Shift	
(1)	5	4	3	2	1	
44.	Always work nights				Never work nights	
(2)	5	4	3	2	1	
45.	Unpredictable tasks				Tasks are routine	
(3)	5	4	3	2	1	
46.	Weapon necessary				Weapon not necessary	
(4)	5	4	3	2	1	
47.	Tragedy exposure routine				No tragedy exposure	
(5)	5	4	3	2	1	
48.	People under stress				People not under stress	
(6)	5	4	3	2	1	
49.	Exposure to hostile people				No exposure to hostile people	
(7)	5	4	3	2	1	
50.	People under tension				People not under tension	
(8)	5	4	3	2	1	
51.	Exposure to "seamy"				No exposure to "seamy"	
(9)	5	4	3	2	1	
52.	Mobility needed				Mobility not necessary	
(10)	5	4	3	2	1	
53.	Tasks potentially dangerous				Tasks not dangerous	
(11)	5	4	3	2	1	
54.	Stressful situations				No stressful situations	
(12)	5	4	3	2	1	
55.	Quick decision making				Unhurried decision making	
(13)	5	4	3	2	1	

56. Mistakes extreme consequences	No extreme consequences
(14) 5 4 3 2 1	
57. Corruption possibilities	No corruption possibilities
(15) 5 4 3 2 1	
58. Mistakes severely criticized	No severe criticism
(16) 5 4 3 2 1	
59. Tasks unpredictable	Tasks are predictable
(17) 5 4 3 2 1	
60. Regular court attendance	No court required
(18) 5 4 3 2 1	
61. Extensive use of discretion	No discretion
(19) 5 4 3 2 1	
62. Meal time limited	Unlimited meal time
(20) 5 4 3 2 1	

(Job Stress Scale Scores)

20-67 = "Low-stress Officer"

68-100 = "High-stress Officer"

Part C
(Drinking Codes)

63. 1. Drinking habits when became Peace Officer:

- 6 = Drank daily
- 5 = Regular drinker
- 4 = Sometimes to excess
- 3 = Socially
- 2 = Infrequently
- 1 = Experimented
- 0 = Didn't drink at all

64. 2. Current drinking habits:

- 6 = Alcoholic
- 5 = Regular drinker
- 4 = Sometimes to excess
- 3 = Socially
- 2 = Infrequently
- 1 = Experiment
- 0 = Not at all

65. 3a. Seek drinking opportunities ?

- 1 = Yes
- 0 = No
- 9 = N/A

66. 3b. Family/friend concern for your drinking ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
67. 3c. Drink to socialize ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
68. 3d. Drinking a "must" socially ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
69. 3e. Drink alone ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
70. 3f. Decide to "go on the wagon" ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
71. 3g. Drinking = unhappy home ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
72. 3h. Alcohol hurting your health ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
73. 3i. Lose time from job ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
74. 3j. More accidents now ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A
75. 3k. Drinking made you a different person ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
9 = N/A

PART D
(Health/Medical History and Status)

76. 1. General physical condition when became P.O.:
4 = Excellent
3 = Good
2 = Average
1 = Poor
0 = Bad
77. 2. Weight then:
78. " "
79. " "
80. 3a. Heart disease:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
81. 3b. An ulcer:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
82. 3c. High blood pressure:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
83. 3d. Chronic headaches:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
84. 3e. Chronic stomach aches:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
85. 3f. Diabetes:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
86. 3g. Lung disease:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
87. 3h. Arthritis:
0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)

88. 3i. Hypertension:
 0 = Yes to No answer (health improved)
 1 = Yes to Yes, or No to No (health unchanged)
 2 = No to Yes answer (deterioration in health)
89. 4. Weight today:
 90. " "
 91. " "
92. Height in feet and...
 93. Height in inches
 94. " " "
95. 5. General physical condition today:
 4 = Excellent
 3 = Good
 2 = Average
 1 = Poor
 0 = Bad

PART E
 (Marriage/family)

96. 1. Current marital status:
 5 = Married for the first time
 4 = Divorced, ____times
 3 = Divorced and remarried, ____times
 2 = Single, never married
 1 = Widowed and remarried
 0 = Widowed
97. 2. How many friends:
 0 = 0 - 2
 1 = 3 - 5
 2 = 6 - 9
 3 = 10 or more
98. 3. Relationship with spouse when became P.O.:
 4 = Married
 3 = Engaged to be married
 2 = Dating
 1 = Acquainted
 0 = Strangers
99. 4. Spouse's support for present job:
 4 = Wants me to be a P.O.
 3 = Tolerates me being a P.O.
 2 = Indifferent
 1 = Wants me to stop being a P.O.
 0 = I don't know

100. 5. Spouse understands job problems/stress:
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
5 4 3 2 1
101. 6. Spouse show affection ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
5 4 3 2 1
102. 7. Spouse give understanding ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
5 4 3 2 1
103. 8. Disagree about discipline ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
1 2 3 4 5
104. 9. Arguments end, "Because..."?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
1 2 3 4 5
105. 10. Problems getting along with one another ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
1 2 3 4 5
106. 11. Regret your marriage ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
1 2 3 4 5
107. 12. Considered separation/divorce ?
Always Often Sometimes Seldom Never
1 2 3 4 5

Family Classifications: (Questions 5 thru 12)
Low score = unsatisfactory family life
(Possible maximum score of 40)

108. 13. Spouse drink more now than then ?
1 = Yes
0 = No
8 = N/A
109. 14. Struck spouse ?
0 = No
1 = Yes
110. 1-7 = Numbers of times struck:
8 = Struck eight or more times
9 = N/A
111. Years of marriage:
112. " " "

113. 15. Affair since becoming a P.O. ?
 0 = No
 1 = Yes
114. 1-7 = Number of affairs:
 8 = Eight or more affairs
 9 = N/A
115. Years of marriage:
 116. " " "
117. 16. How happy has marriage been:
 4 = Very happy
 3 = Happy
 2 = Somewhat happy
 1 = Unhappy
 0 = Very unhappy
118. 17. Ex-spouse object to your being a P.O. ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
 8 = Not sure
119. 18. Job requirements have adverse effect ?
 3 = Yes, a damaging one
 2 = Yes, but not serious
 1 = Little or no effect
120. 19. Job environment have an adverse effect ?
 3 = Yes, a significant one
 2 = Yes, but not serious
 1 = Little or no effect
121. 20. Circumstances contribute to marriage failure ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
 8 = I have no way of knowing
122. 21. Extramarital affair?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
123. 22. Spouse have affair ?
 0 = No
 1 = I think so
 2 = Yes, definitely
124. 23. Declined marriage because of profession ?
 1 = Yes
 0 = No
 8 = N/A
 9 = No answer

125. 24. Marriage and profession incompatible ?

1 = Yes

0 = No

8 = N/A

9 = No answer

126. 25. Rate marriage when first became P.O.:

4 = Very happy

3 = As happy as most

2 = More problems than most

1 = Unhappy

0 = Verge of separation/divorce

8 = N/A

9 = No answer

My supervisor is ALWAYS friendly	My supervisor is NEVER friendly
-------------------------------------	------------------------------------

Or, if your supervisor is SELDOM or INFREQUENTLY friendly, then you would mark the bar graph in this manner:

1. I change work hours on a regular basis	I always work a straight shift
---	--------------------------------

I	J	I	I	I	I	B	I
2.	I always work a					I never work a	
	nightttime shift					nightttime shift	

English	Chinese
3. My daily tasks are unpredictable from hour to hour, even minute to minute	My daily tasks are routine; I know what I will be doing all the time

I J I I I B I I

4. Carrying a weapon (eg, gun, night stick) is considered essential to my daily job requirements	A weapon is not necessary for the accomplishment of my daily job requirements
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I	J	I	I	I	I	B	I
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5. In my assignment I am routinely exposed to tragedy (eg, deaths, injured children)	My job requirements do not routinely expose me to tragedy
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I	I	J	I	I	I	B	I
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6. People that I meet during my assignment are under a great deal of stress	People I come into contact with on my job are not under any unusual stress
---	--

I J I I I B I I

7. My job routinely exposes me to hostile people	People I encounter during the course of my assignment show no hostility
--	---

I	J	I	I	I	I	B	I
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8. People I routinely have contact with are under very great tension	People I routinely come into contact with are under no tension
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2	2
3	3
4	4
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98	98
99	99
100	100

I J I I I B I I

9. I am routinely exposed to seamy elements of the local area and/or population	I do not come into contact with the seamy elements of the area/population
I J I I	I I B I
10. My assignment requires me to be very mobile (eg, in car, on foot)	My assignment does not require a great deal of mobility (eg, desk job)
I J I I	I I B I
11. My daily job tasks are potentially dangerous	My daily job tasks are not potentially dangerous
I J I I	I I B I
12. My daily assignment frequently subjects me to stressful situations	There are no stressful situations in my normal daily assignment
I J I I	I B I I
13. My assignment requires split-second decision making	My assignment allows for unhurried decision making
I I J I	I I B I
14. Mistakes I'm subject to make on the job can have extreme, even fatal consequences	Consequences of mistakes I make on the job are not serious and never fatal
I J I I	I I B I
15. Exposure to, or the opportunity for, corruption (eg, offered a bribe) is commonplace	There is no opportunity for me to be corrupted while I perform my daily assignment
I I J I	I I B I
16. I'm subject to criticism discipline, and even court action for some of the mistakes I make on the job	If I make mistakes on the job, criticism, discipline, or correction is not severe
I J I I	I B I I
17. I have little control over the type(s) of task(s) I will be performing in the course of my daily assignment (eg, I may make arrests, issue tickets, render aid, etc)	The nature of the tasks I perform in my daily assignment do not change from day to day (eg, clerks take reports, file, type, etc, each day)
I I J I	I B I I
18. My assignment requires my attendance in court on a regular basis	I never have to go to court as a part of my daily assignment
I J I I	I I B I
19. My present assignment allows for extensive use of discretion daily	My assignment does not require me to use a great amount of discretion
I J I I	I B I I
20. Meal breaks are strictly limited (eg, no more than 30 minutes allowed) and are subject to interruption	My meal breaks are not subject to interruption and are taken leisurely
I I B I	I I J I

APPENDIX 12

ASSIGNMENT CODES - CLUSTERED

Numbers in parentheses (N) represent the number of respondents in each category

- A. Administrative (N = 109):
- Complaints & Traffic (MSP) (3)
 - Disciplinary Unit / Administrative (13)
 - Community Services - PR - (MSP) (1)
 - Dispatcher (5)
 - Deputy - vehicle maintenance (1)
 - Juvenile Unit / Officer (SD) (2)
 - Drivers License Examiner (SD) (1)
 - Scientific / Laboratory Unit / Crime Scene Investigator / Evidence Tech / Polygraph Exam (7)
 - Youth Bureau Unit / Detention Home (7)
 - Identification Bureau / ID Officer (2)
 - Communications (3)
 - Crime Prevention (3)
 - Booking / Registration Desk (1)
 - Medical Section Clerk / Clerk / Desk Operations (2)
 - Public Relations / Community Services / Relations (1)
 - Operator / Switchboard (1)
 - Ordinance Officer (2)
 - Precinct Staff PD (P.O.) (2)
 - Computer / LEIN Operator (2)
 - Training Unit (8)
 - Records Unit (1)
 - Security / Court Security (34)
 - Staff / Executive Division (2)
 - Hospital Security / Airport Security (5)
- B. Corrections (N = 41):
- Jail Division SD (Jailer / Turn-key / Security) (28)
 - Corrections / Corrections Officer (7)
 - Prisoner Transportation (SD) (6)
- C. Courts (N = 20):
- Warrant Officer / Bailiff / Court Officer (18)
 - Process Server (2)
- D. Investigations (N = 27):
- Investigator / Detective (18)
 - Detective (Sheriff) (1)
 - Plainclothes investigator (P.O.) (1)
 - Special Investigations / Organized Crime Investigation Unit (2)
 - Auto Theft Unit (2)
 - Internal Affairs Unit (3)

- E. Miscellaneous (N = 5):
 Ambulance Service/EMT and Road (2)
 Animal Control (1)
 Restricted / Limited Duty / Minor Disability (1)
 Liquor Laws Enforcement (1)
- F. Patrol (N = 162):
 Patrol (road-uniform) (128)
 Traffic Enforcement Unit (mobile) (15)
 Patrol (beat/foot) (5)
 Resident Deputy (SD) (1)
 Deputy - road (2)
 Mounted / Aviation / Marine Unit (3)
 Canine (road) (3)
 School Officer (2)
 Special Services / Special Events (1)
 Accident Investigator (P.O.) (1)
 Field Services (SD) (1)
- G. Supervision (N = 35):
 Shift Supervisor (Uniform sergeant - road) (10)
 Supervision / Shift Commander (FSC) (3)
 Shift Supervisor - Jail (SD) (8)
 Desk Sergeant (MSP) (2)
 Post Commander - Lieutenant (MSP) (3)
 Shift Commander (lieutenant) (2)
 Operations Lieutenant (PD) (1)
 Detectives / Supervisor Detectives / Detective
 Lieutenant (supervisor, O.I.C.) (1)
 Jail Administrator (sergeant SD) (2)
 Sergeant (SD and MSP) (2)
 Lieutenant PD (uniform/patrol) (1)
- H. Undercover (N = 14):
 Narcotics (undercover) (6)
 Vice Officer (3)
 Undercover / Plainclothes (1)
 Surveillance (3)
 Patrol (road-plainclothes) (1)

Total = 413

APPENDIX 13

FINDINGS SUMMARY LETTER TO THE PARTICIPANTS

Dear :

Thank you for your invaluable assistance in the Law Enforcement Officer Study recently conducted at Michigan State University. Attached you will find a summary of the findings derived from your questionnaire responses, and those of hundreds of other law enforcement officers in the state of Michigan.

The information provided by our colleagues and the conclusions derived therefrom is the most valid data we can hope for because its source is the people of whom the study is directed, and not hypotheses and guesses possibly made by an author looking only to publish. This is our data, and hopefully it will lead to changes by the various law enforcement agency administrations to change for the better the environment of the law enforcement officer.

Thank you again for your help and interest in this research project.

Yours truly,

Howard Troost
Director
Law Enforcement Officer Study

1 attachment

DATA SUMMARY:

Seventeen different Michigan law enforcement agencies participated in this study. These included seven sheriff's departments, five police departments, four Michigan State Police posts, and one college public safety department. Four hundred fifteen officers responded. Characteristics of the individual participants included:

Sex: 365 Males, 45 Females.

Race: 328 White, 71 Black, 1 Hispanic, 1 American Indian

Currently Attending School: 45 Yes, 362 No.

Currently Working A Second Job: 76 Yes, 323 No.

Currently Active in Sports: 221 Yes, 179 No.

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Minimum</u>	<u>Maximum</u>
Age	37	21	59
Highest Education Attained	2 yrs col	less than HS	Ph. D.
Time as Officer	12.2 yrs	6 Mo.s	36.7 yrs

Yes, there does seem to be some problems associated with working in stressful assignments. For one thing, the drinking level of officers in stressful jobs tends to go up, and they report more drinking problem indicators than their counterparts in less stressful assignments.

Veteran officers in stressful jobs had significantly lower family harmony than did their counterparts in less stressful jobs, indicating that the family life of these officers was being negatively effected by a stressful job.

The health levels of the veteran officers in stressful jobs went down significantly more than did their rookie or younger partners.

Conversely, several previous assumptions about the deleterious effects of the stressful jobs are now questioned. Veteran officers in stressful jobs had fewer health problems than did both their rookie colleagues and less stressed counterparts. The same trend held true when all the officers in stressful jobs were contrasted to all the officers in less stressful jobs. Veteran officers in stressful positions apparently have a more harmonious family life do their rookie colleagues. Veteran officers in stressful jobs also had a greater happiness level increase in their marriages than did both the veteran officers in less stressful jobs and the rookie officers in stressful assignments.

The supposed beneficial effects of several intervening variables are now under suspicion. For example, officers in school, having a second job, and/or active in sports all reported higher job stress than did the officers who were not active in those three variables. Officers working a second job reported more drinking indicators and slightly lower family harmony than did the officers who didn't work a second job. Officers who were not active in sports lowered their drinking levels more, reported a greater reduction in health problem indicators, and reported a larger positive marriage happiness level change than did the officers who were active in sports.

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