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## Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, and Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers

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ANALYZING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB DEMANDS, JOB RESOURCES, AND  
PERSONAL RESOURCES ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EXHAUSTION OF  
JUVENILE PROBATION/PAROLE OFFICERS

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## ABSTRACT

### **Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, and Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers**

by

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Organizations should constantly strive to improve their levels of employee engagement, because improving employee engagement influences the well-being of both employees and organizations (Bakker, 2011, p. 268). In today's workplaces, organizations need employees who are psychologically connected to their work, who are willing and able to invest themselves in their roles, and who are proactive and committed to high quality standards." (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011, pp. 4-5). This is important; not only for private organizations but for public organizations as well, especially organizations in the criminal justice system who continuously strive to keep the peace, have constant contact with citizens, sometimes encounter dangerous and volatile situations, and have heightened scrutiny by the public. (McCarty & Skogan, 2012). There needs to be increased attention to the antecedents of employee engagement, especially in terms of job resources, personal resources, and job demands (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Providing decision makers with tangible information and data gives them an opportunity to make informed decisions about where to allocate their energy and resources.

This study explored the relationship between job resources, personal resources, and job demands on employee engagement/exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. The study's primary representation was drawn from juvenile probation/parole officers who currently work

for two juvenile justice agencies in a southwest state of the United States. The data were collected using a quantitative methodology in the form of a survey to a population of juvenile probation/parole officers and analyzed using multiple regression analysis and an independent samples *t*-test, data were checked for validity and reliability. Results show that job resources were statistically significant predictors of employee engagement and that job resources and job demands were statistically significant predictors of employee exhaustion. In addition, independent samples *t*-tests showed that juvenile parole officers have higher employee engagement than juvenile probation officers and women officers are more exhausted than their male counterparts. A qualitative piece was included, semi-structured interviews were conducted with top level managers from both juvenile justice organizations. Interview results show that managers are aware of the variables (job demands, job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, and exhaustion) and how they might affect their employees.

*Keywords:* juvenile probation officer, juvenile parole officer, burnout, job resources, personal resources, job demands, exhaustion, employee engagement.

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This moment is a culmination of years of study. I have enjoyed every moment of it and have been fortunate that I have had the ability to incorporate my research with my professional life. My interest in employee well-being has increased throughout the years. I would like to give a special thanks to Dr. Cecilia Maldonado, she has been extremely patient and helpful. In addition, I would like to thank Dr. Andrew Spivak, Dr. William Sousa, Dr. Karen Danielsen, and Dr. Tiffany Tyler. I am grateful for their kindness and for their help each step of the way. I'd also like to acknowledge the many great parole/probation officers I've met over the years who continuously give their best.

## DEDICATION

I would like to give thanks to my parents for always being supportive and providing me with the structure and encouragement to constantly move forward in life. I would also like to thank my daughter Alejandra, for providing me with the motivation to continue my education in order to provide a positive example. To my brothers, uncles, aunts, and cousins, this achievement is also dedicated to you. Last but not least, a special thanks is in order for my wonderful, supportive, encouraging, and loving wife, Aysa.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Schaufeli and Salanova (2008) discussed how modern-day organizations have been focusing on management of human capital, instead of organizational structures and economic principles. Modern organizations expect their employees to be proactive, show initiative, be involved, work well with others, develop personally, and be “committed to high quality performance” (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008, p. 137). Consequently, for the past 30 years there has been an expanding body of research related to job burnout, employee engagement, job demands, and job resources. Bakker and Demerouti (2012) created the Job Demands-Resources Theory (JD-R), a theory of employee well-being, that looks at the mismatch between job demands and resources (job resources and personal resources). The theory is based on supporting research that noted employees who do not have the resources to meet job demands might experience exhaustion (a component of job burnout) (Bakker, Boer, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2012; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). On the other hand, if employees have enough resources (job and personal resources) to meet their job demands, they will have increased employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012). According to Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002), an employee who is engaged has a:

Positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior. (p. 74)

Studies have linked employee engagement with improved customer service, increased profits, and the increased employee innovation (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Petrou,

Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Conversely, studies have shown that employees suffering from job burnout have more health problems, are absent from work more often, and do not view their organization in a positive light (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Rivera and Flinck (2011) explained how “estimates show that in recent employee engagement studies, employees who are disengaged cost organizations approximately 35% of their payrolls” (p. 479).

Job burnout has been defined as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This definition has been revised to include all occupations, not just occupations where employees work with people (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). Both of these positive (employee engagement) and negative (job burnout) concepts can be best analyzed by using JD-R, a theoretical framework of employee well-being (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Decision makers should understand that if their employees are engaged it benefits the employee and the performance of their organization (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Schaufeli and Salanova (2008) explained that engaged employees look for new challenges, are committed to performing at a high level, generate positive feedback from supervisors as well as from customers, have values that match those of the organization, and are engaged in activities outside of work. During his discussion of human motivation, Maslow (1943) pointed out that “a musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What man *can* be, he *must* be” (p. 10). Facilitating employee engagement allows employees to thrive in the workplace and helps them with being what they “can be.” Bakker and

Demerouti (2012) explained that “employees achieve the best job performance in challenging, resourceful work environments; they add that “employees need to have sufficient job challenges, and job resources, including feedback, social support, and skill variety” (p. 22).

There is a strong call for more research in the area of employee engagement, especially research in different employment sectors (Saks, 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a). Of note is that much of the JD-R literature in this area comes from Europe and includes research on different professions ranging from restaurant employees to police officers.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Packer (1968) argued that there are two persistent ideologies in criminal justice, the crime control model and the due process model. The crime control model focuses on community safety, repression of criminal conduct, and the efficiency in which criminal conduct is handled. On the other hand, the due process model focuses on upholding the rights of the individual, pointing out the errors of criminal justice, and rehabilitating the offender in the process (Marion & Oliver, 2012). Keeping in line with these two models, juvenile probation/parole officers are charged with keeping the community safe and are tasked with helping rehabilitate juvenile delinquents. Properly navigating between the two principles dictated by Packer’s (1968) crime control model and due process model affects the lives of youth, their families, and our communities. According to Schaufeli et al. (2002), engaged employees have high levels of absorption, dedication, and vigor; while according to Maslach and Jackson (1981), burned out employees experience high levels of exhaustion, cynicism, and lack self-efficacy.

Young, Farrell, and Taxman (2013) explained that more than “1.6 million youth are under juvenile court jurisdiction in the United States and delinquency cases processed by

juvenile courts have increased 44% since 1985” (p. 1069). Puzzanchera and Hockenberry (2013) added that “probation remains the most likely sanction imposed by juvenile courts (at 61%)” (p. 50). Young et al. (2013) argued that many of the problems juvenile justice agencies face are due to challenges in achieving organizational change. Juvenile justice agencies are characterized by constant administration transitions, high employee turnover, inadequate training, not enough resources, top-down change efforts, and little administrative follow up or accountability.

Today, as organizations seek to do more with less and for less, there is much thought about maximizing employee contribution to the organization. In order to facilitate this, organizations need to create optimal psychological, social, and physical environments for employees, environments that have adequate resources such as well-functioning equipment, supplies, effective work processes, and competent supervision (Towers Watson, 2013). We are running 21<sup>st</sup> century businesses with 20<sup>th</sup> century workplace practices and programs and the “cracks in the foundations are starting to show in both small and large ways” (Towers Watson, 2012, p. 2).

Extensive research has been conducted in the area of negative psychology and job burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009) and positive psychology and employee engagement (Bakker, 2011; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002). While the above research in job burnout and employee engagement has helped organizations understand employee well-being, the researchers have oftentimes not explained their antecedents nor their expected outcomes. At the same time, previous engagement and burnout research fails to address that probation/parole officers, in addition to typical workplace stressors, have conflicting work roles, increased demands, as well as the fact that their work affects community safety and youth re-habilitation. Exploring the employee well-being of

juvenile probation/parole officers by utilizing the JD-R Theory could help organizations understand some of the causes of employee engagement or job burnout, and how these concepts affect performance.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. This study used a quantitative survey research design, where a Likert (1932) style survey was used to explore independent and dependent variables. Juvenile justice organizations provide juvenile probation/parole officers with job resources such as training, equipment, supervisors, and direction. At the same time, juvenile probation/parole officers provide the organization with personal resources such as education, life experiences, level of optimism, level of self-efficacy, and more.

Rivera and Flinck (2011) explained that the “majority of employee engagement research has been focused on the private sector where relationships and causality is informed by management metrics and financial spreadsheets” (p. 486). There exists a gap in the literature and research in the area of employee well-being in the public sector; especially in the area of juvenile justice in the United States, it is virtually non-existent. This study provides a much needed examination of the world of juvenile probation/parole officers and what they think about their job demands, job resources, and their personal resources.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions guided this study:

1. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with work engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?

2. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?
3. Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?

### **Theoretical Framework**

Research suggests that engaged employees produce “better business outcomes than their less engaged co-workers,” this however must be maximized by the organization, as it has to “enable and energize” the employee’s efforts (Towers Watson, 2013, p. 4). Job design theories have “ignored the role of job stressors or demands, job stress models have largely ignored the motivating potential of job resources” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012, p. 2). Miao and Evans (2012) explained that a “central thesis of the JD-R is that combinations of job demands and job resources can affect employee performance via their interactive effects on job engagement and job stress” (p. 75).

Many studies have paved the way for Bakker and Demerouti’s (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory. The first researchers of note are Maslach and Jackson (1981), who argued that job burnout mainly affects people who do social work of some kind. They identified three components as being at the core of job burnout: exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of self-efficacy. They presented the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) as a valid instrument to measure job burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Kahn (1990) turned the focus from job burnout and discussed personal engagement; he explained that in order for employees to be engaged they need “meaningfulness, safety, and availability” in the workplace (p. 718). Schaufeli et al. (1996) introduced the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS), a survey to measure job burnout for all occupations, not just some occupations as originally presented by Maslach and

Jackson (1981). Maslach and Leiter (1997) then argued that not only can job burnout be measured by the MBI-GS but employee engagement can be measured with the same instrument as well.

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) introduced the idea of job crafting by arguing that “individuals have latitude to define and enact the job, acting as job crafters” (p. 179). Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2001) introduced the Job Demands-Resources Model which looks at the levels of job burnout for people involved in human services fields and how their job demands and resources affect job burnout. Schaufeli et al. (2002) introduced the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) which measures employee engagement. They argued that you can’t measure employee engagement with the MBI-GS, and instead explained that you measure it by a person’s level of vigor, dedication, and absorption. When talking about the Job Demands-Resources Model, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007) explained that personal resources are also antecedents of employee engagement or job burnout. Bakker and Demerouti’s (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory incorporates and utilizes all of the above ideas and presents a clear way to understand employee well-being (e.g., burnout, motivation, employee health, employee engagement).

JD-R stems from Demerouti et al. (2001) Job Demands-Resources Model, which initially focused on job burnout. It accounts for the antecedents of employee engagement/exhaustion and it also incorporates the possible outcomes of engaged or exhausted employees. Literature is fragmented into different concepts and ideas, which the JD-R Theory brings together. JD-R utilizes a health impairment process and a motivational process; the health impairment process indicates that job demands lead to burnout and ultimately ill health and the motivational process indicates that job resources leads to work engagement (De Beer, Pienaar, & Rothmann, 2013, p.

1). When discussing the JD-R Theory's past, Inoue, Kawakami, Tsuno, Shimazu, Tomioka, and Nakanishi (2013) explained: "a number of cross-sectional epidemiological studies have shown positive and significant association of a wide range of job resources with work engagement" (p. 442).

Demerouti et al. (2001) stated that the "JD-R model assumes that burnout develops irrespective of the type of occupation when job demands are high and when job resources are limited because such negative working conditions lead to energy depletion and undermine employees' motivation, respectively" (p. 499). The JD-R proposes reversed causal effects through job crafting, "whereas burned out employees may create more job demands over time for themselves, engaged workers mobilize their own job resources to stay engaged" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012, p. 2). This study utilized the JD-R Theory as a theoretical framework to guide the study of juvenile probation/parole officers and the variables that affect their levels of employee engagement/exhaustion.

### **Significance of the Study**

This study is significant because understanding job demands, job resources, and personal resources of juvenile probation/parole officers can provide decision makers with a better idea of how to improve employee well-being within their agency. With this information they can make better decisions to allocate resources where needed in order to improve employee well-being. Rivera and Flinck (2011) explained that in doing more with less environments "where the mission success comes first, it becomes increasingly more challenging for agency leaders to understand: mission success is only possible through collective employee success" (p. 486). A study of this nature might also be a starting point for future studies; it could establish a baseline for measuring employee engagement or exhaustion in organizations throughout the public sector.



Engaged probation/parole officers will do a better job of keeping the community safe and aid in their work with rehabilitating juvenile delinquents. In addition, an exhaustive literature review revealed that this might be the first study utilizing the JD-R Theory in a juvenile justice agency in the United States.

Considering the potential impact that employee engagement has on the performance of the public organization, and the importance of juvenile probation/parole officers working towards keeping the community safe and rehabilitating juvenile delinquents, it is imperative that decision makers understand these concepts. Data from this study can help them identify areas in which to improve, whether it is by reallocating or establishing resources, or by helping to change policies and procedures that affect job demands, job resources, or affect the personal resources of their employees. Towers Watson (2013) argued that employees who are engaged outperform employees who are not engaged.

### **Definition of Terms**

In order to improve clarity of the different concepts and ideas used throughout this dissertation the main concepts will be defined.

#### **Absorption**

Bakker (2011) defines absorption as an employee “being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in work, such that time passes quickly” (p. 265).

#### **Cynicism**

According to Maslach et al. (2001), cynicism is the “interpersonal context dimension of burnout, referring to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job” (p. 399).

## **Dedication**

Bakker (2011) defines dedication as “being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge” (p. 265).

## **Emotional Energy**

Emotional energy is an individual’s ability to “self-engage” and possesses the “willingness to invest effort toward task goal attainment” (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 9).

## **Emotional Dissonance**

Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, and Isic (1999) explained that emotional dissonance occurs “when an employee is required to express emotions that are not genuinely felt in the particular situation” (p. 375). They also pointed out that emotional effort is the “degree to which employees actively try to change their inner feelings to match the feelings that they are expected to express” (p. 375).

## **Employee Engagement**

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior” (pp. 4-5).

## **Exhaustion**

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), exhaustion refers to employees no longer being able to give themselves at a psychological level because their emotional resources have been depleted (p. 99).

## **Job Burnout**

Maslach and Jackson (1981) identified job burnout as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do ‘people-work’ of some kind” (p. 99).

## **Job Crafting**

Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, and Hetland (2012), defined job crafting as “a proactive employee behavior consisting of seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands” (p. 1122).

## **Job Demands**

Job demands are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are, therefore, associated with physical and/or psychological costs” (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, p. 122).

## **Job Resources**

According to Xanthopoulou et al. (2007), job resources are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that (a) are functional in achieving work related goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (p. 122).

## **Optimism**

Scheier and Carver (1985) defined optimism as the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good outcomes in life.

## **Personal Resources**

Personal resources are “aspects of the self that are generally linked to resiliency and refer to individuals’ sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully” (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003, p. 632).

## **Physical Energy**

Physical energy can be best observed by working hard even when work is physically demanding (Czarnowsky, 2008, p. 11).

## **Self-Efficacy**

Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) defined self-efficacy as an individual’s perceptions of his/her ability to meet demands in a broad array of contexts.

## **Vigor**

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined vigor as being characterized by “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (p. 74).

## **Organization of the Study**

This study is relevant because of the gap in research and understanding of how job demands, job resources, and personal resources affect the employee engagement/exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. This chapter outlined the problem, purpose, significance, key terms, introduced the research questions, and explained the theoretical framework.

The next chapter provides a review of literature that focuses on the different components of the JD-R Theory: job burnout, employee engagement, job resources, personal resources, job demands, job crafting, performance, and how JD-R has been used in the area of criminal justice. Chapter three consists of an overview of the methodology and research design. Chapter four

addresses this study's key findings by explaining descriptive statistics, testing the research questions, additional analysis, and presenting results. Finally, chapter five provides a summary, discussion, implications for practice, recommendations for future research, and a conclusion.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. In order to understand the significance of the JD-R in juvenile probation/parole this chapter discusses Bakker and Demerouti's (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory. This chapter is divided into the following eight segments: (a) job burnout; (b) employee engagement; (c) Job Demands-Resources Theory; (d) job resources; (e) personal resources; (f) job demands; (g) outcomes of employee engagement and job burnout; and (h) JD-R and criminal justice. The investigation into JD-R begins with what is deemed the antipode of employee engagement, "job burnout" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a, p. 294).

#### **Job Burnout**

A fictional novel by Greene (1961) titled, "A Burnt-Out Case," about a troubled architect who quits his job and moves to the jungles of Africa is one of the earliest accounts of the concept of job burnout. Academically, "job burnout" was first discussed in articles by Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976); the first researchers to attempt to measure job burnout were Maslach and Jackson (1981) who wrote the *Measurement of Experienced Burnout*. Initially, they identified job burnout as a "syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p. 99).

According to Maslach et al. (2001), burnout is composed of "overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment" (p. 399). Initial studies of burnout focused on employees who work in the human services field such as teachers, parole officers, probation officers, nurses, counselors,

psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach and Jackson (1981) argued that there are three main components to job burnout: exhaustion, cynicism, and a lack of self-efficacy.

Exhaustion is the first of three components of burnout and is also the most reported and analyzed component. Exhaustion refers to employees no longer being able to give themselves at a psychological level because their emotional resources have been depleted (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99). Maslach et al. (2001) believed that exhaustion occurs when there are feelings of “being overextended and depleted of one’s emotional and physical resources” (p. 399). Exhausted employees are not able to perform at the same level; they are emotionally and/or physically tired. Exhaustion is not limited to a specific work setting, rather it can be “observed in virtually any occupational group,” with some of them being higher than others (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004, p. 84).

The second component of burnout is cynicism. According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), cynicism represents the development of “negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about one’s clients” (p. 99). Cynicism is also thought of as the “interpersonal context dimension of burnout, referring to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399). Schaufeli et al. (2002) explained that cynicism is indifference, not necessarily towards other people, but towards work (p. 72). Maslach et al. (2001) stated that they found a strong relationship between exhaustion and cynicism; they stated that exhaustion leads to cynicism and distancing from work (p. 403).

The third component of burnout is “reduced efficacy” or “feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399). Maslach et al. (2001) argued that constant exhaustion and cynicism lead to reduced efficacy in the workplace.

They explain the lack of efficacy seems to arise from the lack of resources, and that exhaustion and cynicism arise from “work overload and social conflicts” (p. 403). Maslach and Jackson (1981) believed that a person has the “tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to one’s work with clients” (p. 99). Using his social cognitive model, Bandura (1977) explained that there are three factors that influence self-efficacy: behaviors, environment, and personal/cognitive factors. Bandura explained that “people process, weigh, and integrate diverse sources of information concerning their capability, and they regulate their choice behavior and effort expenditure accordingly” (p. 212). Bandura (1982) defined self-efficacy as being concerned with “judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (p. 122). Bandura (1977) explained that self-efficacy is a behavior specific construct that is tailored to narrow situations. Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) introduced the concept of general self-efficacy. Rimm and Jerusalem (2007) referred to general self-efficacy as a “global confidence in one’s coping ability across a wide range of demanding or difficult situations,” an ability that “reflects a broad and stable confidence in dealing effectively with rather diverse stressful situations” (p. 330).

In addition to their conceptualization of job burnout, Maslach and Jackson (1981) also introduced the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), a questionnaire that takes into account exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment using a 25-item questionnaire (p. 101). Originally, the MBI focused its questions towards people in the human services fields, but since then an alternative questionnaire has been expanded to include all types of jobs, using Schaufeli et al.’s (1996) Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS).

Maslach et al. (2001) argued that when one analyzes the opposite results of job burnout (exhaustion, cynicism, and personal efficacy) one encounters the concept of “employee



engagement.” Maslach et al. (2001) stated that “energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness” (p. 416). Building on this argument, Maslach et al. (2001) noted that the direct opposite of job burnout is employee engagement and that employee engagement can also be measured by using the MBI.

Discussing possible antecedents to employee burnout, Maslach et al. (2001) introduced six areas of work-life: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (pp. 414-415). Maslach et al. (2001) pointed out that excessive workload can exhaust an individual’s energy, and that insufficient control over resources needed to complete work, a lack of appropriate rewards, loss of a sense of positive connection with co-workers, inequity, and a conflict between the values of the employee and the organization could also lead to job burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). In addition, Schaufeli et al. (2009) explained that substantial “changes in job demands predict future burnout” (p. 911).

Similarly, a person has the ability to enter a state of burnout by being over-engaged (doing too much), from work-overload (high workload with few resources), from under-load (becoming bored and not challenged with work), or by suffering from the end results of “chronic job stressors” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 405). Warshawsky, Havens, and Knafl (2012) added that the demands of work may overwhelm the resources which “foster work engagement, thus resulting in burnout” (p. 419).

### **Employee Engagement**

Psychology research has been focused more on negative than positive states (Maslach et al., 2001). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) explained that, “since 1887, 70,000 scientific articles appeared on depression against only 3,000 on happiness and 850 on joy” (p. 138). The study of “positive psychology,” or the study of human strengths and optimal functioning, has been slowly

gaining popularity among researchers (Maslach et al., 2001). “Negative psychology,” such as job burnout, has constantly received more attention than positive psychology, and most of the models of occupational health have focused on the negative effects of work such as job stress and strain while ignoring positive effects such as employee engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2009). The pattern of focus on negative aspects of workers’ health and well-being is not only persistent for areas of occupational health psychology but in psychological articles as well (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b).

There has been a shift in direction, and increased attention paid to positive psychology, the study of “human strength and optimal functioning” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). One of the main reasons that employee engagement originally received much attention is due to the research linking it to employee productivity and profits (Saks, 2006). Employee engagement has been a subject growing in popularity, especially in the human resource management and development consultant fields (Shuck & Wollard, 2009, p. 89). Some employees are more absorbed, dedicated, innovative, productive, energetic, and motivated than other employees and organizations want to know why (Bakker, 2011).

One of the problems that the concept of employee engagement currently faces is that there is a lack of agreement of a definition or conceptualization (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008). This could possibly be attributed to the many fields of study that have attempted to define it, such as business, psychology, and the human resource field (Shuck & Wollard, 2009). Macey and Schneider (2008) attributed the lack of clarity of the concept to its bottom-up evolution, where it quickly evolved in the practitioner community instead of academia. Shuck and Wollard (2009) noted that the first step in defining employee

engagement is developing a definition of engagement and a “common language that situates the concept across relevant fields in a usable format” (p. 92).

Researchers have discussed concerns that employee engagement is merely a repackaging of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and involvement; and that both researchers and organizations do not have a working definition of the concept (Shuck & Wollard, 2009, p. 90). Kahn (1990) believed that “commitment” and “satisfaction” are “broad context free sweeps at how present people are at work, yet neither goes to the core of what it means to be psychologically present in particular moments and situations” (p. 693). Saks (2006) argued that engagement is different from job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction; it is a “distinct and unique construct that consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance” (p. 602).

Bakker et al. (2011) insisted that it is time to put to rest the argument that employee engagement is merely an old wine in a new bottle concept stemming from “commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions”; they argued that those factors are but outcomes of engagement (p. 9). Macey and Schneider (2008) explained that engagement is “above and beyond simple satisfaction, that engagement is, in contrast, about passion and commitment – the willingness to invest oneself and expend one’s discretionary effort to help the employer succeed” (p. 7).

Similar to the argument that employee engagement is but a “repackaging” of old concepts, Cole, Walter, Bedeian, and O’Boyle (2011), explained that employee engagement and job burnout are redundant because they are measured in a similar fashion through the same concepts. They stated: “concept redundancy is a major problem in understanding and advancing burnout-engagement research” (p. 1576). Shuck and Wollard (2009) pointed out that there is a

lack of empirical research of the concept and most of the existing literature is based on “opinion” instead of “evidence based scholarship” research. When speaking of employee engagement and job burnout, Cole et al. (2011) argued that “to date conclusive empirical evidence supporting one or the other is lacking” (p. 1551). In sum, it is argued that researchers might be measuring the same concepts (job burnout and engagement) and some argue that there is not enough empirical data to support engagement. Even though there are a number of criticisms of employee engagement, there is no denying the interest that it has created in academia and organizations; mainly due to the research indicating its positive impact on profits and customer satisfaction.

Perhaps the most influential author on the subject of employee engagement is Kahn (1990) who wrote the *Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work*. This seminal document introduced the concept of employee engagement, which he identified as “personal engagement” (p. 700). Kahn (1990) defined personal engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances (p. 694). Kahn observed how engaging behaviors convey and bring alive the “self and obligatory role”; he explained that people who are engaged are “physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others, cognitively vigilant, and empathetically connected to others in the service of the work they are doing” (p. 700).

Kahn (1990) believed that, in order for someone to be engaged, three psychological conditions need to be present: availability, meaningfulness, and safety. Availability is “the sense of having the physical, emotional, or psychological resources to personally engage at a particular moment” (p. 714). Availability assesses the “readiness or confidence” that a person may have to engage in work while being engaged in other life activities (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004, pp. 17-

18). Kahn (1990) defined meaningfulness as a return on investment of “one’s self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy” (pp. 703-704). Similarly, May et al. (2004) defined meaningfulness as the “value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual’s own ideals or standards” (p. 14). The third component that Kahn (1990) felt was needed for someone to be engaged is “safety.” Kahn (1990) defined safety as a feeling of being “able to show and employ one’s self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career” (p. 708). May et al. (2004) argued that individuals feel safe at work when they can express themselves and when they understand the “boundaries surrounding acceptable behaviors” (p. 15).

A definition that changed what Kahn (1990) originally envisioned as employee engagement is Maslach et al.’s (2001) definition. They explained that employee engagement is composed of “energy, involvement, and efficacy,” not of availability, meaningfulness, or safety (p. 416). They argued that their three employee engagement components are the exact opposite of the three job burnout components; energy is the direct opposite of exhaustion, involvement is the direct opposite of cynicism, and personal efficacy is the direct opposite of lack of self-efficacy. They went on to explain that employee engagement could be measured using the opposite scores of Maslach and Jackson’s (1981) MBI questionnaire.

Maslach et al.’s (2001) definition of engagement was quickly opposed by scholars, as it was felt that there is much more to employee engagement than it being merely the opposite of job burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 75). Schaufeli et al. (2002) argued that they do not “feel that engagement is adequately measured by the opposite profile of MBI scores” (p. 75). They explained that while job burnout and employee engagement are the direct opposites, employee

engagement is not on the same plane as job burnout, and thus cannot be measured using the same questionnaire (p. 75).

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption”; they added that rather than engagement being a momentary and specific state, it refers to a more “persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior” (p. 74). In 2007, Schaufeli and Salanova noted that the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) questionnaire is available in seventeen languages and has an international database, which includes engagement records of about 30,000 employees. The original version of the questionnaire was composed of 24 questions, but after psychometric evaluation seven unsound items were removed, thus leaving the questionnaire with seventeen questions (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p. 702). In addition to the original seventeen-question version of the test, a version that has fifteen questions has also been used (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b, p. 7). In an effort to make the questionnaire even smaller, Schaufeli et al. (2006) established a version of the UWES that has nine questions, which they stated still makes the questionnaire responses statistically significant. This study uses the nine item version of the UWES to measure the levels of employee engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers.

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined vigor as being characterized by “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (p. 74). Bakker (2011) defined dedication as “being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge” (p. 265). Maslach et al. (2001) defined dedication as a “strong involvement in one’s work,

accompanied by feelings of enthusiasm and significance, and by a sense of pride and inspiration” (p. 417).

The third component of employee engagement is “absorption.” Bakker (2011) defined absorption as an employee “being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in work, such that time passes quickly” (p. 265). Maslach et al. (2001) defined absorption as a “pleasant state of total immersion in one’s work, which is characterized by time passing quickly and being unable to detach oneself from the job” (p. 417). Both Kahn’s (1990) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) definitions are the most cited and prevalent definitions of employee engagement. For the purposes of this study, we used Schaufeli et al. (2002) definition of employee engagement: “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74).

According to Macey and Schneider (2008), “engagement behavior includes innovative behaviors, demonstrations of initiative, proactively seeking opportunities to contribute, and going beyond what is, within specific frames of reference, typically expected or required” (p. 15). In their framework for understanding the elements of employee engagement, Macey and Schneider (2008) included three different types of engagement: trait engagement, state engagement, and behavioral engagement. Trait engagement is composed of a number of interrelated facets, including “trait positive affectivity, conscientiousness, proactive personality, and the autotelic personality” (p. 21). Macey and Schneider argued that, if an employee possesses the traits, he/she can “experience work in positive, active, and energetic ways and behave adaptively” (p. 21). They explained that state engagement is the “investment of self in the person’s work and the perceived importance of work outcomes and organization membership to that person’s identity” (p. 13). Macey and Schneider (2008) defined behavioral engagement as

possessing different components such as “citizenship behavior, role expansion, proactive behavior, and demonstrating personal initiative, all strategically focused in service of organizational objectives” (p. 19).

For engaged employees the work being completed needs to be able to connect with the employee and provide him/her with a sense of challenge, inspiration, pride, enthusiasm, and significance (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) stated that there are varying degrees of engagement and that some people might perform at higher levels than others. In addition, some engaged employees might have off days where they are not engaged (p. 183). Employee engagement is strongly affected by the resources provided by the job/organization, which we discuss next. As we can see in Bakker and Demerouti’s (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory, job resources and personal resources interact with each other and when they are able to match job demands, they lead to employee engagement.

### **Job Demands-Resources Theory**

The Job Demands-Resources Theory (JD-R) was first introduced by Demerouti et al. (2001) and while it was originally focused solely on job burnout, it has since changed to include both job burnout and employee engagement. Demerouti et al. (2001) stated that the “JD-R model assumes that burnout develops irrespective of the type of occupation when job demands are high and when job resources are limited because such negative working conditions lead to energy depletion and undermine employees’ motivation, respectively” (p. 499). The JD-R is inspired by job design and job stress theories, combines both research traditions, and explains “how job demands and resources have unique and multiplicative effects on job stress and motivation” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012, p. 2).



According to Bakker and Demerouti (2012), the JD-R Theory combines principles from the Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1966), the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), the Demands-Control Model (Karasek, 1979), and the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (Siegrist, 1996). Bakker and Demerouti (2012) explained that the JD-R has been used to “predict job burnout, organizational commitment, work enjoyment, connectedness, and work engagement” (p. 10). In addition, Bakker and Demerouti (2012) argued that the theory has been used to predict consequences such as absenteeism and job performance. They discussed that the theory can be used to “make predictions about employee well-being (e.g., burnout, health, motivation, work engagement) and job performance” (p. 11).

Bakker and Demerouti (2012) explained that the JD-R proposes reversed causal effects, “whereas burned out employees may create more job demands over time for themselves, engaged workers mobilize their own job resources to stay engaged” (p. 2). The JD-R works from two characteristics or work environments, job demands and resources (job resources and personal resources). Job demands are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are, therefore, associated with physical and/or psychological costs” (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, p. 122). On the other hand, job resources are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that (a) are functional in achieving work related goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (p. 122). According to Demerouti and Bakker (2011), “personal resources were found to partly mediate between job resources and work engagement, suggesting that job resources foster the development of personal resources” (p. 3). Hobfoll et al. (2003) noted that personal resources are “aspects of the

self that are generally tied to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully" (p. 632).

The theory works on two psychological processes, the health impairment process and the motivational process. The health impairment process suggests that high job demands require sustained effort, which have the ability to exhaust employee resources and lead to exhaustion and even medical problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012; Bakker et al., 2003c; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Bakker et al. (2003c) pointed out that their study of home care institutions over a seven-year period revealed that "job demands are primarily and positively related to exhaustion, whereas job resources are primarily and negatively related to cynicism and positively related to professional efficacy" (pp. 26-27). Gruman and Saks (2011) discussed "the basic premise of the JD-R model is that high job demands exhaust employees' physical and mental resources and lead to a depletion of energy and health problems" (p. 126). Bakker et al. (2003b) explained that their research on call center employees shows how the "energy depletion process starts with high job demands, which lead to health problems and consequently, to longer periods of absence" (p. 408). Demerouti and Bakker (2011) proposed that employees may be at risk for burnout if they are exposed to high job demands, not enough job resources, and low personal resources such as self-efficacy and optimism.

The second psychological process is the motivational process which assumes job resources lead to organizational commitment and employee engagement, and job resources have an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational potential (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012; Bakker et al., 2003c; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). An assumption of the JD-R model is that "job resources particularly influence motivation or work engagement when job demands are high" (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011, p. 3). Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2003) explained how their call center

research, noting they found that “call center employees who can draw upon job resources such as social support from colleagues and performance feedback feel more dedicated to their work and more committed to their organization, and, consequently, are less inclined to leave the organization” (p. 409).

The argument is that employees with sufficient job resources will “feel efficacious, important to the organization, optimistic about their future, and, consequently, stay engaged in their work” (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, p. 125). Bakker and Demerouti (2012) stated “job demands, cost effort and consume energetic resources, whereas job resources fulfill basic psychological needs, like the need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence” (p. 12). The JD-R assumes every occupation has its own specific risk factors associated with job related stress (Demerouti, & Bakker, 2011).

Demerouti and Bakker (2011) explained how the interaction between job demands and resources is the key for the development of job strain and motivation. Bakker and Demerouti (2012) added: “Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on strain,” and, “employees who have many job resources available can cope better with daily job demands” (p. 14). They also pointed out how another interaction “is the one where job demands amplify the impact of job resources on motivation/engagement” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012, p. 14).

When there is a lack of resources “individuals cannot reduce the potentially negative influence of high job demands and they cannot achieve their work goals” (Bakker et al., 2004, p. 88). Bakker et al. (2004) concluded: “when demands are high – specifically when workload, emotional demands, and work-home conflicts are elevated – it becomes difficult for employees to allocate their attention and energy efficiently because they have to engage in greater activation and/or effort and this, in turn, negatively affects their performance” (p. 96).

Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) argued that employees who “work in a resourceful environment feel more capable to perform their tasks without investing excessive effort, and as a result, it is likely that they will not become overly fatigued” (p. 136). Thus the main assumption of the JD-R Theory is that “although every occupation may have its own specific work characteristics associated with burnout, it is still possible to model these characteristics in two broad categories – namely job demands and job resources” (Bakker et al., 2004, p. 86).

The JD-R Theory also includes the concept of “job crafting.” Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) first introduced the idea of job crafting by arguing that “individuals have latitude to define and enact the job, acting as job crafters.” They defined job crafting as the “physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 179). Bakker (2011) stated that “employees may actively change the content or design of their jobs by choosing tasks, negotiating different job content, and assigning meaning to their tasks of their jobs” (p. 268). Petrou et al. (2012) defined job crafting as “a proactive employee behavior consisting of seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands” (p. 1122). Bakker (2011) added that job crafting allows employees to find meaning in their work by changing it to match their skills, abilities, and knowledge (p. 268). He also argued that engaged employees increase their job resources, increase their job demands, and create challenging work environments for themselves (p. 268). Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) pointed out how “over time, individuals, through learning experiences, form stronger positive beliefs about themselves and comprehend or create resourceful work environments” (p. 242). Petrou et al. (2012), wrote that there is limited research on the subject of “job crafting” (p. 1020).

Bakker et al. (2011) argued that engaged employees may “proactively change their job demands and resources so that their performance is optimal” (p. 16). They explained that

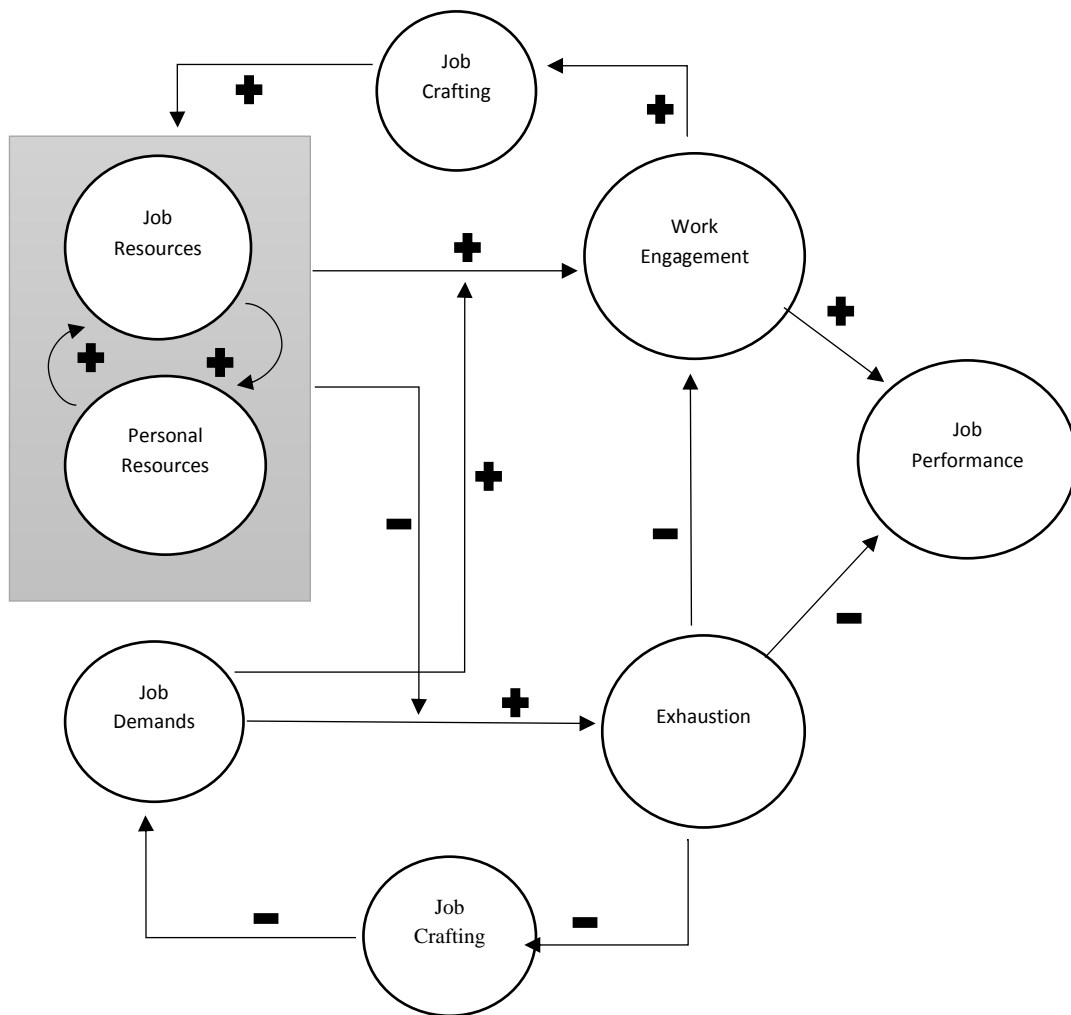
engaged workers possess the “psychological capital that helps them control and impact their work environment successfully” (p. 7). They concluded that engaged employees are “not passive actors in work environments, but instead actively change their work environments as needed” (p. 17). Similarly, Macey and Schneider (2008) explained how engaged employees are adaptive; they “select and proactively work to create the environment” in which their behaviors can be supported and encouraged (p. 21).

Petrou et al. (2012) also explained that employees anticipate and create change; they do this to cope with ongoing changes, and it is a strategic advantage during change. They discussed how employees might seek resources by asking for advice and feedback from peers and supervisors, and seek learning opportunities. They also discussed that employees might seek challenges while at work, except when the jobs are too demanding. Employees could also reduce job demands which may include behaviors such as targeting “towards minimizing the emotionally, mentally, or physically demanding job aspects or reducing one’s workload and time pressure” (p. 1123).

Petrou et al. (2012) stated that they re-conceptualized job crafting at both the general and day-to-day level. Job crafting consists of the three dimensions (seeking resources, challenges, and reducing demands). They noted that when employees sought more challenges or reduced their demands they were more engaged, and new “clients” were associated with higher “seeking resources” and “higher seeking challenges” (p. 1135). When employees experienced higher job autonomy and job pressure, they responded by seeking resources and reducing demands (p. 1135). Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2013) explained that not all “employees work in resourceful environments, but they may be able to respond proactively to their work situation and actively mobilize their job resources” (p. 236). Tims et al. (2013) observed a significant relationship

between an employee crafting more challenging demands and increased work engagement, and concluded that employees who craft their jobs increase their resources and thus increase their own well-being (p. 237).

Bakker and Demerouti (2012) argued that well designed jobs and working conditions facilitate employee motivation and reduce stress. With unfavorable working conditions or design, employees might change the design, choose tasks, assign meaning to tasks, or negotiate different job content; they might “craft” their jobs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2012). The JD-R Theory includes the concept of job crafting, and shows that either employee engagement or employee exhaustion can lead to an employee crafting his/her job positively or negatively (see Figure 1). Demerouti and Bakker (2011) argued that job crafting is the “missing link in the reversed causal path from work engagement to future job demands and job resources” (p. 7).



**Figure 1. Bakker and Demerouti's (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory. This figure illustrates relationships between the different components of the Job Demands-Resources Theory.**

### Job Resources

When thinking of employee engagement, it is critical to know what the antecedents are in order to better understand where employee engagement or exhaustion might originate. Wollard and Shuck (2011) pointed out that organizations are complex and that the “antecedents that drive the development of engagement at the organizational level revolve around basic

employee/human needs” (p. 435). Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) noted that job and personal resources are equally strong correlates of each other and work engagement (p. 242). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) argued that the “more job resources are available; the more likely employees will feel engaged” (p. 149).

Schaufeli et al. (2009) found that when job resources (i.e., job control, feedback, social support, and opportunities for learning) increase, employee engagement also increases (p. 908). They explained that resources are necessary to deal with the daily job demands and they are also key because they increase work engagement (p. 911). Warshawsky et al. (2012) defined job resources as being “physical, psychological, and organizational features that reduce job demands, enhance an employee’s ability to meet work goals, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (p. 419). Salanova et al. (2005) defined organizational resources as “the organizational aspects of a job that are functional in achieving work goals could reduce job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs, and finally, could stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (p. 1218).

Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) pointed out that job resources serve as two different types of motivators, intrinsic motivators and extrinsic motivators (p. 185). As intrinsic motivators, job resources fulfill basic human needs and foster individual development and as extrinsic motivators they motivate employees to exert effort (p. 185). Bakker (2011) provided a similar definition, explaining that intrinsic resources are resources that improve learning and growth while extrinsic resources help with achieving work goals (p. 266). Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) explained that “on days with available resources, employees are self-confident, more engaged and perform better than on days without these resources” (p. 196).



Warshawsky et al. (2012) add that resources may be obtained from a variety of sources such as interpersonal relationships, structures within the organization, or from the “task itself” (p. 419). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) found that job resources refer to physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that (1) reduce job demands and the associated psychological costs; (2) are functional in achieving work goals; or (3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (p. 296). Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) noted how their “results show that employees who experience autonomy at work, have supportive colleagues, receive proper coaching and high quality feedback, and have opportunities for professional development possess the instrumental means and are intrinsically motivated to achieve their work goals” (p. 241). In addition, the authors pointed out that “when employees are autonomous, receive support, and have opportunities for development, they are likely to reciprocate by showing higher levels of engagement” (p. 241).

Bakker (2011) added to this discussion by explaining that job resources such as “support from colleagues, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities” are positively related with work engagement (p. 266). Bakker et al. (2011) observed that job and personal resources play a significant role in employee engagement; they also suggested that increasing such resources improves employee engagement (p. 21). Similarly, Czarnowsky (2008) argued that it is crucial to make sure that employees have the resources they need to perform their jobs correctly, as it improves engagement (p. 24). He explained that it is imperative for leaders to be able to allocate resources and to use the resources to their full potential to help employees do their jobs (p. 24).

Studies link green buildings (job resource) to employee well-being and productivity. Singh, Syal, Grady, and Korkmaz (2010) found that “improved indoor environmental quality

(IEQ) contributed to reductions in perceived absenteeism and work hours affected by asthma, respiratory allergies, depression, and stress and to self-reported improvements in productivity” (p. 1665). Their IEQ research looked at seven attributes of buildings: indoor air quality, temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting, acoustics, ergonomic design, and safety. Singh et al. (2010) explained that their study supported “IEQ and occupational health and public health outcomes from expanded use of green office buildings” (p. 1666). The next section briefly introduces themes that continuously presented themselves when researching job resources: norms, values, and culture, leadership, direction, co-worker influence, recruitment and training, and compensation, rewards, and benefits.

### **Norms, Values, and Culture**

Vance (2006) explained that developing a positive culture requires more complete integration of engagement into organizational values” (p. 33). He also argued that this process starts with employer practices such as “job and task design, recruitment, selection, training, compensation, performance management, and career development” (p. 7). Maslach et al. (2001) noted that “values shape the emotional and cognitive relationships that people develop with their work” (p. 409). Czarnowsky (2008) discussed onboarding practices and organizational culture, noting how onboarding and orientation processes need to be in line with the culture in order to bring the newly hired employees more closely aligned with the culture of the organization (p. 28).

Bakker et al. (2011) wrote that employees need a “supportive, involving, and challenging climate” from the organization, and if this is provided, employees respond by “investing time and energy and by being psychologically involved in the work of their organization” (p. 13). Saks (2006) observed that when employees believe their organization is interested in them and

cares about them, they are more likely to respond by fulfilling “their obligations to the organization and becoming more engaged” (p. 605). Saks also wrote that when employees feel they are being treated fairly, when there is a sense of justice in the organization, employees respond by being “just” and becoming more engaged (p. 606). Alternatively, employees in unsafe environments “characterized by ambiguous, unpredictable and threatening conditions, are likely to disengage from their work and be wary to try new things” (May et al., 2004, p. 19).

## **Leadership**

Much of the research found that leadership has a strong influence on employee engagement. Bakker et al. (2011) suggested that having supportive supervisors increases the chances of employees being successful in the workplace (p. 6). In addition, it is argued that employees who are supported, inspired, and have quality coaching from their supervisors are more engaged in the workplace (Bakker, 2011, p. 267; Bakker et al., 2011, p. 13). Kahn (1990) explained that leaders need to provide an environment for employees where they are allowed to “try and fail without the fear of consequences” (p. 711). Bakker et al. (2011) discussed that leadership, “specifically transformational and empowering leadership, will have a direct and positive influence on motivational constructs such as employee engagement” (p. 14). Bakker et al. (2011) pointed out that fostering employee engagement requires “senior leadership endorsement” of initiatives that promote employee engagement (p. 21).

Czarnowsky (2008) observed that it is imperative for organizations to promote a culture of engagement, and this needs to be established by implementing “leadership and management practices that drive engagement, leverage learning opportunities in a more effective and strategic manner, connect with employees through communication and values, and establish effective engagement practices” (p. 11). He argued that in order to accomplish this, leaders need to be

provided with the appropriate skills and resources needed to drive such change (p. 21). Several researchers have identified additional measures organizations should take in order to improve the way in which leadership influences and improves employee engagement. Czarnowsky (2008) explained that managers need to be held accountable for increasing engagement; he argued that this can be done by evaluating leaders on their abilities to coach workers in ways that “engage,” as well as rewarding leaders when they engage employees (p. 24). Harter et al. (2002) noted that leaders can help employees identify how they connect with the broader purpose of the organization by constantly “reminding them about and helping them to see the larger context of their work” (p. 276).

Additional research emphasized the level of engagement management needs to have in order to engage their employees. Warshawsky et al. (2012) stated that “managers must be engaged in their own work to create stimulating work environments” (p. 418). May et al. (2004) pointed out that the relationship between an employee and the supervisor affects the “individual’s perception of safety of a work environment,” and that trustworthy supervisors affect psychological safety and the willingness of employees to invest themselves in work (p. 16). Similarly, Saks (2006) found that a key aspect of “safety stems from the amount of care and support employees perceive to be provided by their organization as well as their direct supervisors” (p. 605). A good leader prevents job stress and burnout and enhances job motivation and engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Maslach et al. (2001) indicated that “stressful interactions with supervisors increase the workers’ feelings of exhaustion” (p. 405). They also argued that employees need constant feedback about their job performance; they describe how employees prefer participating in decision-making, and how a lack of autonomy is related with burnout (p. 407). In addition, they

identified six areas of work-life that leaders influence: work overload, employee inefficacy or a sense of reduced personal accomplishment, rewards, recognition, having positive connections with others in the workplace (improving the work environment), fairness in the workplace, and employees having conflict between values (pp. 414-415). De Beer et al. (2013) explained that their results showed “burnout leads to a deterioration of relationships at work, namely, supervisor and colleague support over time” (p. 8).

Leadership and the organization affect employee work engagement in terms of the level of trust that the employee possesses toward the organization and vice versa. Macey and Schneider (2008) pointed out that “trust (in the organization, the leader, the manager, or the team) is essential to increase the likelihood that engagement behavior will be displayed” (p. 22). Trust is closely tied in with feelings of “safety” and is heavily influenced by the organization’s leaders and the relationship that leaders have with their employees (p. 22). Macey and Schneider believed that leaders need to promote a sense of trust within the organization so that employees benefit from “psychological and relational contracts in which they enter with the organization (p. 25). According to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007), a good leader should acknowledge and reward good performance, be fair, put problems on the agenda, inform employees, coach employees, and regularly interview employees. In her dissertation, Marquard (2010) argued that leadership capability, employee engagement, and performance outcomes are interconnected. Marquard stated that organizations are “living organisms” (p. 74). This variety of perspectives on the ways leaders affect employee engagement exemplify the daunting and complicated task leaders face engaging employees.

## **Direction**

Making sure that employees understand the direction of the organization is paramount for employee engagement. Employees need to understand the organization's vision, mission, and strategic plan; in addition, employees' personal goals and aspirations need to be aligned with the direction of the organization (Czarnowsky, 2008). Czarnowsky (2008) argued that leaders need to create direction by constantly communicating the organization's goals to employees using a variety of channels. Czarnowsky added that clarifying the mission and goals of the organization is one of the most significant things that a leader needs to do (p. 33). Czarnowsky (2008) observed that organizations need to include their employees in the organization's goal development process, and make sure that goals are clearly understood by employees (p. 48).

## **Social Support / Co-worker Influence**

Bakker et al. (2011) argued that developing social support and altering processes to allow for feedback could lay the foundation for employee engagement (p. 21). They pointed out that by improving and facilitating co-worker relations in the organization, the organization's performance increases (p. 15). In their study of 2,229 Royal Dutch constabulary officers, Bakker, Van Emmerick, and Euwema (2006) found that "engaged workers who communicated their optimism, positive attitudes, and proactive behaviors to their colleagues, created a positive team climate, independent of the demands and resources they were exposed to" (p. 482). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) discussed that "it seems that team members feel engaged because they converge emotionally with the engagement of others in their work team" (p. 153).

When speaking of human motivation, Maslow (1943) noted that an individual's hunger for "affectionate relations with people in general, namely, for a place in his group, and he will strive with great intensity to achieve his goal" (p. 9). Employees who have meaningful

interpersonal interactions with their co-workers obtain higher meaning from their work and positively influence their co-workers, causing their teams to perform better (Bakker et al., 2011; May et al., 2004). May et al. (2004) explain that co-worker interactions improve social identity, meaning, and belonging (p. 15).

In addition, when suggesting how to improve co-worker interactions, Warshawsky et al. (2012) observed that it is imperative for a leader to share the rewards with the group in order to improve team performance (p. 424). They also explained how “high quality interpersonal relationships (IPRs) foster work engagement,” and that “together, work engagement and IPRs may promote proactive work behaviors associated with improved organizational performance” (p. 419). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) pointed out that it is crucial to increase job resources such as social support and team building, as it eventually leads to more engagement (p. 311).

### **Opportunities for Professional Development**

Bakker et al. (2011) explained that not only does the organization need to be able to recruit top talent but also needs to inspire that talent (p. 6). Discussing police officers, Smith (1940) championed for police departments to hire “capable and reliable man power,” and argued that organizations need to pay attention to the quality of police recruits they attract (p. 111). He stated that evidence points to the recognition that “manpower is the most important single factor in law enforcement” (p. 119). More current, Gillet, Huart, Colombat, and Fouquereau (2012) pointed out that it is in the best interest to recruit police officers with strong self-determined motivation as it is linked positively to work engagement (p. 53).

Vance (2006) identified how training helps all employees obtain skills they need to perform their jobs. Vance added that training enhances their employability, and this causes employees to be engaged (p. 13). Training in general and the focus of training can improve

employee engagement. Bakker et al. (2011) stated that training should focus on “building positive affect, emotional intelligence, and positive adaptive behavioral strategies” (p. 21). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) noted that training should include “time management, stress management, personal effectiveness, and self-management” (p. 164).

Czarnowsky (2008) identified onboarding and orientation as important in developing emotional intelligence. Czarnowsky noted that onboarding introduces the employees to the culture of the organization and causes the establishment of connections quickly (p. 28). In that same vein, Vance (2006) identified employee orientation as being the appropriate place to explain how the organization is organized, pay and benefits, work schedules, company policies, introduce co-workers, provide new hires with a tour, explain safety regulations, and go over procedural matters (p. 13). Czarnowsky (2008) found that managers need to be trained on how to properly coach their employees, how to properly select and hire employees for specific jobs, and how to acquaint them with the skills employees need to perform their jobs (p. 31). He also stressed that it is critical to train managers to be more supportive in order to create a caring environment within the organization (p. 31).

According to Czarnowsky (2008), an organization’s training needs to be engaging; it should be interactive in nature, and new technology should be used to “simulate real work scenarios to help workers build practical skills” (p. 31). In addition, organizations should design training that define and communicate desired on-the-job behaviors (p. 31). Training should include practical exercises, role models, coaching and encouragement, and successive attainable steps (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). In addition, organizations should make sure their employees are provided with numerous quality training opportunities, create quality on-boarding and orientation programs, design learning with engagement in mind, track learning and development,



and promote a learning culture (Czarnowsky, 2008, p. 48). Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, and Farr-Wharton (2012) conducted research on police management and police officers and found that “police management needs to ensure that police officers are not only competent and trained but also provided with sufficient resources and supportive supervision so that their work performance can be optimized and, importantly, their likely retention increased” (p. 439).

### **Compensation, Rewards, and Benefits**

The idea that employee engagement can be improved by increasing the employee’s compensation is invalid. Instead, as Czarnowsky (2008) pointed out, recognition and rewards are more highly rated as influential factors in employee engagement (p. 39). Saks (2006) noted that it is imperative that employees have a sense of return on their investments into the organization. The return of investment could come in the form of rewards and recognition both of which causes employees to feel obliged to respond with higher levels of engagement (p. 605). Gillet et al. (2012), in their research on police officers, stated that “police officers who feel that they are supported by their organizations (e.g., recognition, approval, appreciation of work) show higher levels of self-determined motivation and work engagement” (p. 53).

Vance (2006) stated that, when designing compensation plans, an organization needs to consider engagement and commitment strategically, and that the most effective compensation plans support the organization’s strategic objectives (pp. 14-15). Vance noted that incentive pay (performance pay) and certain pay-styles might be appropriate for some organizations but not others. He also discussed “competency-based pay,” or the rewarding of “employees not only for mastering job-relevant knowledge and skills, but also for using those abilities to produce results that the organization values” (p. 15). He observed that the organization needs to provide a rewards system that improves the way in which knowledge and expertise is transferred and

shared within the organization (p. 17). Vance (2006) added that management needs to take the differences between employees into account when making decisions to alter the policies or benefits. Management needs to make sure that it will benefit the majority of the workforce, not just some individuals, and to also think of unintended consequences with such change (p. 24).

In terms of police personnel, Smith (1940) stated that a mere increase in salary is not going to produce better police personnel; he argued that it is important to improve recruiting, training, and promotion opportunities (p. 121). Similarly, Eck and Spellman (1987) stated that changes in police departments such as the way in “promotion and reward procedures, implementation of management by objectives, and explicit training in effective problem solving techniques can both motivate officers to solve problems and show them that the administration is serious about its efforts” (p. 76). While there are myriad job resources available to an employee, following Bakker’s (2014) research, this study measured job resources by utilizing the levels of autonomy, social support, level of feedback, supervisory coaching, and opportunities for professional development.

Maslach et al. (2001) explained that the organization is shaped by larger structures and forces, and there has been much change recently in terms of what is expected from employees such as “time, effort, skills, and flexibility, whereas they receive less in terms of career opportunities, life employment, and job security” (p. 409). They argued that a type of violation of the psychosocial contract organizations and employees have held in the past has occurred and it ends up eroding the notion of “reciprocity, which is crucial to maintaining well-being” (p. 409).

## **Personal Resources**

Personal resources come from the individual, such as the individual's level of optimism, education, and experience. Optimists are people "who expect good things to happen to them," they are confident, have little doubt, and are persistent in life's daily challenges (Carver, Scheier, & Segerstrom, 2010, pp. 879-880). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) explained that "employees who hold personal resources are confident about their future, and thus may identify or even create more aspects of their environment that facilitate goal attainment" (p. 137). They concluded that personal resources play a significant role in the JD-R Theory, and that along with job demands and job resources they explain exhaustion and work engagement (p. 137).

## **Demographics**

Employees do not merely respond to the work setting, they possess "unique qualities" such as personality characteristics and attitudes that have been influenced by and shaped from different experiences throughout their lives (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 409). The employee's level of engagement can be affected by demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, or education. Noting one of those factors, age, Maslach et al. (2001) reported that younger employees (under the age of 30) experience more burnout than older employees do, they attribute it to work experience and the fact that as one gets older one obtains more work experience (p. 409). They explained that there isn't agreement if gender plays a significant role in job burnout, but they did notice that males are sometimes higher on cynicism scales and women score higher on exhaustion scales (p. 410). They observed that unmarried employees tend to experience higher levels of burnout than married employees (p. 410). In regards to education, Maslach et al. (2001) found that employees who have higher education experience higher levels of burnout when compared with "less educated employees" (p. 410).

## **Self-Efficacy/Mindset**

Maslach et al. (2001) pointed out that employees who are not involved in activities, are not open to change, and do not have a “sense of control over events” have increased burnout scores (p. 410). They also argued that people who have an “external locus of control,” cope with problems in a passive defensive way, and have poor self-esteem also experience higher burnout rates (p. 410). On the other hand, Bakker et al. (2011) argued that employees who possess “self-esteem, optimism, and self-efficacy” are better able to cope with the daily demands of the organization (p. 8). From their study of nurses in the Netherlands, Bakker and Sanz-Vergel (2013) found that “positive self-beliefs foster nurses’ weekly work engagement, and can have a positive relationship with flourishing, particularly when emotional demands are high and when work pressure is low” (p. 408).

May et al. (2004) found that, in order for an individual to truly immerse in work, employees must be able to engage the “cognitive, emotional and physical dimensions of themselves in their work” (p. 12). They explained that individuals must have optimism and the “physical, emotional, and cognitive resources in order to immerse themselves in their roles” (p. 19). Confidence and optimism are essential components employees should possess in order to be engaged in the organization. Warshawsky et al. (2012) discussed that personal resources such as optimism and self-efficacy are traits that can be improved upon to increase work engagement (p. 419). Schaufeli and Salanova (2008) explained that “there might exist upward spirals, that self-efficacy promotes engagement, which, in turn, increases efficacy beliefs, and so on” (p. 386).

Optimism is the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good outcomes in life (Scheier & Carver, 1985). According to Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994), optimists have been shown to have rapid recovery after surgery, use problem-focused coping strategies

(acceptance, humor, and positive reframing of the situation), have positive expectancies of the future, and deal better with adversity. Another personal resource that has the potential to affect employee engagement, is the expectations that an employee has of his/her job. These expectations could include anticipating promotional opportunities, having an exciting or challenging job, or achieving success by other factors; when the expectations are not met the employee could become disengaged (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 411). Another influential personal factor that needs to be looked into when studying engagement is that some employees might engage in “activities for the sake of participating rather than for personal gains or rewards” (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 20).

### **Effort and Work Ethic**

Macey and Schneider (2008) argued that effort is an “elusive and ill-defined construct in literature” (p. 14). They defined “demonstrating effort” as “one of the dimensions of a taxonomy of performance” and explained that dimension as the “consistency of performance, maintaining work levels under adverse conditions and in other ways, expending extra effort when required – all of which speak strongly to the issue of persistence” (p. 14). An employee has the capacity to provide varying degrees of effort within the organization. Employees who are engaged at a high level believe that their performance produces positive effects in the organization’s customer service, and thus provide more effort (Czarnowsky, 2008, p. 14).

Work ethic goes hand in hand with effort. Czarnowsky (2008) explained that work ethic is the pinnacle of what it means to be engaged in work; he stated that it is the willingness to “go the extra mile” (p. 10). Engaged employees go beyond the status quo, they are innovators, advocates of change, and oftentimes solve problems that organizations face (Macey & Schneider,

2008, p. 18). Optimism, strong work ethic, self-efficacy, and effort are important components of personal resources.

### **Work Pressure / Employee Energy**

The concept of “energy” is another factor that affects personal engagement; it could be represented by emotional or physical energy. Emotional energy is an individual’s ability to “self-engage” and the “willingness to invest effort toward task goal attainment” (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008). The other type of energy is physical energy which can be best observed by working hard even when work is physically demanding (Czarnowsky, 2008: Kahn, 1990). Macey and Schneider (2008) argued that there are “limits to the pool of energy and resources available to employees,” and that “sustained levels of engagement are difficult to achieve” (p. 25). Discussing the demands of police officers, Gillet et al. (2012) pointed out that “police work demands considerable energy and autonomy. It involves analysis, observation, and action. Successful outcomes require officers to be perspicacious when confronted by the various difficulties the job entails” (p. 48).

Levels of energy have the potential to be depleted because people possess limited amounts of energy (Kahn, 1990: Macey & Schneider, 2008). According to the Kahn (1990) and Macey and Schneider (2008), when individuals in organizations are engaged, they provide positive physical and emotional energy, but there are limited amounts of such energy that each individual has the ability to possess. Bakker et al. (2004) noted that mental fatigue is how the mind responds to a reduction in resources due to mental task execution (p. 87). Generally, people become tired when doing their everyday work, and their energy resources are sufficient to meet job demands. When a person is tasked with high workloads, extra energy has to be utilized to meet job demands, and thus, fatigue or exhaustion arises (p. 87). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007)

pointed out how “work engagement is characterized by a high level of energy and strong identification with one’s work, whereas burnout is characterized by the opposite: a low level of energy and poor identification with one’s work” (p. 141).

Demerouti, Taris, and Bakker (2007) explained that humans need to recover from work while at home; they stated that the need for recovery is “the sense of urgency that people feel to take a break from their demands, when fatigue builds up” (p. 205). Demerouti et al. (2007) discussed the need for recovery is the sense of urgency that people feel when they are overwhelmed by their demands, when fatigue builds up (p. 205). They argued, “the higher the need for recovery, the higher the strain experience during non-work time and consequently, the higher the potential that this strain will interfere with work” (p. 207). Demerouti et al. (2007) found that a high need for recovery is associated with low levels of concentration; high levels of fatigue and stress are associated with impaired cognitive functioning, and people will self-regulate and do everything to avoid failure (p. 214). Bakker et al. (2004) noted that when there is incomplete recovery, the effects of a high workload accumulate gradually and lead to exhaustion (p. 87).

## **Outside Environment**

The employee’s “outside environment” is composed of the 128 hours outside of work employees are exposed to each week (assuming that an employee works 40 hours each week). Kahn (1990) argued that the outside lives of employees affect them in the organization and that at times psychological energy could be focused on issues that the employee has in his/her outside life, thus influencing the employees’ psychological availability while at work. Not many people would argue that the time people spend outside of work affects the time a person spends inside of

work (Demerouti et al., 2007). Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) explained that a “positive interplay between work and home is associated with engagement” (p. 151).

According to May et al. (2004), memberships in outside organizations, such as other employment, activities, or education create demands on time and energy that could affect the engagement of employees within the organization by causing employees not to be available to focus on role tasks. They argued that these activities are “likely to distract an individual’s attention” (May et al., 2004, p. 18). The outside environment could either be a positive or negative factor towards engagement. Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) pointed out that engaged employees are more likely to participate in and enjoy activities outside of work.

In her study of recovery and employee engagement, Sonnentag (2003) discussed how “life outside work has an impact on how one feels and behaves at work” (p. 518). Sonnentag (2003) conducted research in the area of recovery from work when employees are on breaks, vacations, or on days off; she argued that recovery “brings some relief from negative experiences at work” (p. 518). She explained that work engagement is not necessarily a steady phenomenon, it fluctuates from day to day and it not only differs between individuals, but it also differs within the individual throughout the day (p. 518). Sonnentag argued that when individuals are not fully recovered from work it hinders the level of work engagement; she urged organizations to anticipate and facilitate appropriate recovery time, especially after highly stressful work days (p. 527). Similarly, Demerouti et al. (2007) explained how their study found that “problems in the home could easily intrude in the work domain, adversely affecting work performance” (p. 216).

Demographics, mindset, work ethic, effort, previous education, amounts of energy, and the outside environment all affect employee engagement. Personal resources are the link between job resources and employee engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, p. 132). While there are



countless ways to analyze the personal resources of an employee, following Bakker et al. (2004), this study measured personal resources by utilizing the levels of self-efficacy to measure an employee's "personal resources." We now turn our focus to job demands and how it affects employee engagement and exhaustion. As noted in Bakker and Demerouti's (2012) Job Demands-Resources Theory, both resources (job resources and personal resources) and job demands make up the antecedents for employee engagement.

### **Job Demands**

Job demands can include countless different variables that an employee might be exposed to while at work. Re-occurring themes appear in the literature of job demands including role design, employees being exposed to challenging and complex tasks, and emotion work. Job demands can include working shift work, working weekends, having high workloads, emotional demands, and so forth. Schaufeli et al. (2009) found that an increase in job demands and a decrease in job resources leads to employees feeling burned out (p. 906). They also found that the "greater the increase in job resources but not in job demands, the more the employees feel engaged" (p. 906). These next three sections discuss role design, having challenging and complex tasks, and emotion work.

### **Role Designs**

Organizations provide employees with role identities, which employees should assume, and employees can choose to like or dislike these role identities (Kahn, 1990, p. 706). Roles are crucial for employees as they have the potential to provide status or a sense of being needed, a sense of feeling important, and a place within the organization (p. 707). In his discussion of "presence," Kahn (1992) explained that psychological presence is essential for role performance. Kahn identified four dimensions of psychological presence: "people feel and are attentive,

connected, integrated, and focused in their role performance” (p. 2). Kahn believed that there is a need to have one’s thoughts, feelings, and beliefs accessible while performing a role (p. 2).

May et al. (2004) pointed out that people look for roles which allow them to “express their authentic self-concepts”; they explained how excessive “stress, emotional exhaustion and injuries may prevent individuals from being available for their roles” (p. 15). In addition, they explained how roles have varying degrees of “meaningfulness, safety and availability for individuals,” and understanding the relationships between psychological conditions might provide leadership with a better idea of how to improve employee engagement (p. 32). Kahn (1992) argued that if employees find the role identity that is asked of them fits well with how they see themselves, they are likely to find the roles appealing and interesting enough for them to be psychologically present at work (p. 9).

It is crucial for employees to actively participate in their roles within their organization. Studies of job demands and burnout have focused on role conflict and role ambiguity (Maslach et al., 2001). Role ambiguity occurs when the roles are not clear for employees and role conflict happens when there are conflicting roles in the organization (p. 407). In addition, “anxiety and fatigue caused by one role will likely make it difficult to perform well in another role” (Demerouti et al., 2007, p. 206). Relevant to this study, juvenile probation/parole officers have two conflicting roles; the role of keeping the community safe and the role of rehabilitating youth.

Employees willingly give their time when their roles are in line with their personal goals, and they see themselves “invested in their role performance” (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 15). Engaged employees “exemplify behavior both qualitatively and quantitatively different from those less engaged”; they bring more of “themselves to their work, transcending typical

boundaries in relating to others and thereby doing something different and not just something more” (p. 15).

In addition, while working an employee may display in-role and extra-role performance. In role performance is defined as “those officially required outcomes and behaviors that directly serve the goals of the organization” (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Extra-role performance is defined as discretionary behaviors on the part of an employee that are believed to directly promote the effective functioning of an organization, without necessarily directly influencing a person’s target productivity (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

### **Challenging Complex Tasks / Autonomy**

Bakker et al. (2011) argued that job rotation might help employees stay or become engaged; in addition, management should “challenge employees, increase their motivation, and stimulate learning and professional development” (p. 21). Kahn (1990) added that when organizations provide work that is “challenging, clearly delineated, varied, creative and somewhat autonomous,” employees become engaged (p. 704).

Macey and Schneider (2008) discussed that merely showing up to work on time and completing one’s job does not define engagement, but that it is when an individual can implement his/her preferred self, has passion, commitment, and involvement that it makes a difference; the organization must provide challenge, autonomy, and variety. Saks (2006) defined engagement as providing a “sustainable workload, feelings of choice and control, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work community, fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work” (p. 603).

## **Emotional Demands/Dissonance**

Zapf et al. (1999), when discussing the work of health care professionals, argued that “personal relationships with patients, clients, or children are very demanding and require a high amount of empathy and emotional involvement” (p. 527). They went on to explain that during these interactions employees are required to express appropriate emotions required by work, and that these emotions cause stress for the employee, especially if the emotions that are required are not in line with what the employee feels. Zapf et al. (1999) explained that emotional dissonance occurs “when an employee is required to express emotions that are not genuinely felt in the particular situation” (p. 375). They also pointed out that emotional effort is the “degree to which employees actively try to change their inner feelings to match the feelings that they are expected to express” (p. 375).

## **Outcomes of Employee Engagement and Job Burnout**

Job burnout has the potential to severely impact the organization. Maslach and Jackson (1981) argued that the consequences of job burnout are critical as they affect the organization, the employees, and clients. Czarnowsky (2008) pointed out how high levels of employee engagement have been shown to improve financial performance and productivity, and the opposite occurs when there are low levels of employee engagement (p. 15). Maslach and Leiter (1997) stated that “high-quality work requires time and effort, commitment and creativity, but the burned out individual is no longer available to give these freely” (p. 19). Czarnowsky (2008) discussed that engaged employees contribute to the effectiveness of the organization and its “long term success” (p. 13). Czarnowsky added that having an engaged workforce provides benefits to the organization such as improved productivity, decreased health care costs, and improved loyalty by employees and clients (p. 14). Czarnowsky highlighted the importance of

employee engagement by suggesting that there is an increasing talent shortage in the world and organizations with engaged employees will ultimately win the “war for talent” (p. 15).

### **Profits**

Employee engagement has been linked with improved profits. Harter et al. (2002) found that employee engagement leads to decreased levels of employee turnover and increased levels of customer satisfaction; which translates into improved financial outcomes. Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009b) found support for the “link between job resources, work engagement, and financial returns” (p. 196). They pointed out that “when employees are immersed in their work and focused on their customers (i.e., engagement), there is a higher probability to bring in profit, instead of when they just believe that they are capable to serve their customers adequately (i.e., self-efficacy)” (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b, p. 197).

In their study of 54 companies worldwide, Gallup Consulting (2010) found that median earnings of the top engaged companies were more than four times those of their competitors (p. 4). Czarnowsky (2008) explained how “improving employee engagement can have a huge positive impact in terms of health-care costs, productivity, retention, customer loyalty, and profitability” (p. 14). This is one of the main reasons why the interest by private companies in employee engagement has grown so much in the last few decades.

### **Customer Service**

In their study of employees of restaurants and hotels, Salanova et al. (2005) found that employee engagement leads to improved service climates, thus causing improving customer loyalty (p. 1217). They concluded that providing individual employees and work units with adequate resources increases collective engagement, which in turn fosters improved service climates (p. 1224). Similarly, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) argued that “when employees are

immersed in their work and focused on their customers, they have a higher probability to bring in profit, than when they just believe that they are capable to serve their customers adequately” (p. 197). On the other hand, employees who are experiencing job burnout have the ability to negatively influence other employees in the organization; thus, disrupting job tasks and causing conflict (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 406).

## **Employee Health**

Kahn (1990), one of the most influential researchers of employee engagement, defined personal disengagement as the “simultaneous withdrawal and defense of a person’s preferred self in behaviors that promote a lack of connections, physical, cognitive, and emotional absence, and passive, incomplete role performances” (p. 701). Employees who are burned out are absent more, experience personal distress, physical exhaustion, insomnia, increase their alcohol and drug use, experience marital and family problems, have higher turnover rates, have sub-par quantity and quality of work, and generally feel increased stress (Czarnowsky, 2008; Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) observed that high job demands have the potential to lead to burnout, health problems, and to negative organizational outcomes such as intentions to leave the organization. They found that high job demands lead to burnout, which in turn leads to health problems. In addition, they found that having job resources leads to employee engagement which in turn leads to low turnover intentions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Outcomes of burnout don’t necessarily display themselves in decreased job performance; they could also affect the health of the employee by increasing stress and decreasing psychosocial functioning (Bakker et al., 2011; Maslach et al., 2001). Gallup Consulting (2010), using their Q<sup>12</sup> Employee Engagement Items, administered a worldwide questionnaire to 47,000 employees; they found that actively

disengaged employees were more stressed out, angry, and experienced more health problems (p. 7).

Schaufeli et al. (2009) found that, when comparing employees with low levels of burnout and employees with high levels of burnout, the employees with high levels of burnout were sick for longer periods of time. They also pointed out that, when comparing employees with high levels of engagement with employees with low levels of engagement, the employees with high levels of engagement called in sick less often. They concluded that when job demands are high and job resources are low, burnout scores increase, thus causing employees to be sick for longer periods of time. In addition, burnout has been linked with the “personality dimension of neuroticism and the psychiatric profile of job related neurasthenia” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 406). Neuroticism is a fundamental personality trait in the study of psychology characterized by being “abnormally sensitive, obsessive, or tense and anxious” (Oxford Dictionary, 2015). Neurasthenia is defined as a “medical condition characterized by lassitude, fatigue, headache, and irritability, associated chiefly with emotional disturbance” (Oxford Dictionary, 2015).

### **JD-R and Criminal Justice**

Grove (2014) explained that numerous studies “have demonstrated that an engaged workforce begets much higher productivity, which gets better results for clients and shareholders” (p. 4). He argued that it is imperative that we “enable employees to come together to generate the best ideas, the best insights, and to share information that delivers a better outcome for our clients” (p. 2). A dearth of studies analyze employee well-being, especially in the area of criminal justice, and it is virtually non-existent in the area of juvenile justice. In order for organizations to survive and improve in the continuously changing environment,

organizations do not only need healthy employees, but they need employees who are vigorous, dedicated, and absorbed in their work (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008).

Most of the research being conducted on the JD-R Theory and criminal justice is in the area of policing in Europe; this study drew from those studies and identified areas that are of importance to juvenile justice. When discussing emotions and law enforcement, McCarty and Skogan (2012) explained that “all jobs in law enforcement are demanding, requiring employees, both sworn and civilian, to make emotional connections with citizens or suppress emotions when being exposed to information about crime” (p. 70). More recently, law enforcement organizations have been asking why some employees are more resourceful, innovative, absorbed, dedicated, and have more vigor than others (Richardsen, Burke, & Martinussen, 2006).

From their study of 156 police officers in Norway, Richardsen et al. (2006) found that job resources are positively related to engagement and a lack of resources and job demands are related to cynicism (one of the three contributors to job burnout). In addition, organizational factors such as “bad management” are more frequently identified as negative stressors on police officers and deputy marshals than exposure to human misery or violence (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004; Storch & Panzarella, 1996). Similarly, Biggam, Power, MacDonald, Carcary, and Moody (2007) explained that for Scottish police officers, organizational factors (such as low manpower and not enough resources) produced the highest levels of stress.

Richardsen et al. (2006) examined relationships between job demands, job resources, cynicism, and engagement. They found that “both job demands and lack of resources were related to cynicism, and resources were positively related to engagement” (p. 564). They also found that conflict at work and family conflict were positively related to cynicism. In addition, Richardsen et al. (2006) pointed out that none of the job demands they studied were significantly



related to employee engagement, but that job resources were significantly related. They also found a strong relationship between employee engagement and organizational commitment, thus possibly indicating that the rewarding aspects of the job compensate for the demanding and stressful aspects.

Martinussen, Richardsen, and Burke (2007) noted that one of the outcomes of constant police stress is job burnout; they conducted a study of 223 Norwegian police officers using the JD-R Theory as a theoretical framework and found that “exhaustion was the only burnout dimension significantly related to age.” Their study showed that there were higher levels of emotional exhaustion for older police officers (p. 245). They also found that high work demands and lack of resources were correlated with job burnout. In addition, they explain how the job “contributed significantly to the prediction of all three burnout dimensions after controlling for demographic variables” (p. 245).

Martinussen et al. (2007) explained how the level of burnout among police officers was not higher when compared to other occupational groups (air traffic controllers, journalists, and building constructors) sampled in Norway. They state that police officers scored lower on levels of cynicism and exhaustion than their comparison groups. They also stated that this may be due to the stringent selection process of police officers and possibly due to the three years of training at the National Police Academy (many of the people who have high cynicism drop out of training or are not hired in the first place).

In addition, Martinussen et al. (2007) explained that their results showed “police officers who reported high levels of exhaustion, experienced a high degree of cynicism and withdrawal from their jobs, and who reported low perceived efficacy in their work, also experienced low job satisfaction, commitment, and had frequent thoughts of leaving their job” (p. 247). Similarly,

Hall, Dollard, Tuckey, Winefield, and Briony (2010), who studied 257 Australian police officers, argued that “high levels of job demands could tax resources leading simultaneously to spillover in both the personal (emotional exhaustion) and family domains” (p. 239).

McCarty and Skogan (2012) conducted a study of 500 civilian employees and more than 2,000 sworn officers from twelve United States law enforcement agencies of varying sizes. They found that the average burnout scores of civilian law enforcement personnel and sworn officers were not different and both groups felt “used up” two to three times a month, and emotionally drained between one to three times a month (p. 75). They also found that there were some statistically significant differences: sworn officers had more perceptions of danger, had more work-life conflict, their perceptions of unfairness by the organization were higher, and sworn officers showed higher levels of perceptions of social support by their co-workers and supervisors when compared to civilians (p. 76). Officers in larger law enforcement agencies had lower burnout scores, African Americans and Hispanics had lower burnout scores than their White counterparts, and female officers reported significantly higher levels of burnout than males, but these same differences were not seen with their civilian counterparts (McCarty and Skogan, 2012).

### **Summary**

Bakker et al. (2004) argued that tailor-made interventions can be created from the JD-R Theory, that they can be aimed at “reducing the identified job demands and increasing the most important job resources, which, in turn, may decrease the risk of burnout and consequently improve performance” (p. 100). There is a noticeable lack of research on employee engagement in the criminal justice area, especially in the area of juvenile probation/parole. From the research literature, one can see that levels of employee engagement are relatively low throughout the

world. Gallup Consulting group found that, out of the 47,000 employees they surveyed, only 11% are engaged, 62% are not engaged, and 27% are actively disengaged (Gallup Consulting, 2010). They explained how studies of work engagement have “proven far more powerful at identifying well-functioning workplaces and pinpointing the problems with those that are less effective” (p. 2). The juvenile justice system encompasses a large quantity of probation/parole officers, probation/parole supervisors, some probation managers, and support personnel throughout the United States.

This study used Bakker and Demerouti’s (2012) Job Demands-Resource Theory as a theoretical framework of employee well-being. From the research literature we see that the antecedents for employee engagement are resources (job resources and personal resources) and job demands, and that both of them interact and create an environment for either work engagement or exhaustion to exist, which in turn might lead to improved or decreased job performance. In addition, the theory also shows us that employees who are engaged are able to craft their own resources and meanings of work through job crafting (Bakker, 2011, p. 267). Engaged employees seek new challenges, are committed to performing at a high quality, generate positive feedback, and have similar values to those of the organization (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Appendix VII is a brief summary of some of the most important research that has been conducted in the areas of job burnout, employee engagement, job demands, job resources, personal resources, job crafting, and the Job Demands-Resources Theory.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. This study utilized multiple linear regression analysis and independent sample *t*-tests to analyze data and answer the research questions presented in Chapter I. In addition, it explains the process used to analyze the structured interviews conducted with top level management of both juvenile justice agencies. The methodology utilized to test these research questions is explained in this chapter, which is broken down into thirteen sections; (a) research questions; (b) discussion of participants; (c) qualitative research design; (d) quantitative aspect; (e) human subjects; (f) data collection; (g) survey instrumentation and operationalization; (h) semi-structured interview instrumentation and operationalization; (i) sampling procedure; (j) data analysis; (k) assumptions; (l) limitations; and (m) delimitations.

#### **Research Questions**

The following research questions guided this study:

1. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with work engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?
2. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?
3. Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?

### **Discussion of Both Groups of Participants**

The first group of participants provided the means to study juvenile probation officers from a county in the southwest United States with a population of approximately 2,000,000. Due to privacy concerns the juvenile justice organization are not named. In recent years, these law enforcement officers have faced increased workloads and decreased resources. According to the United States Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (2011), “as the fiscal conditions worsen and costs continue to escalate, many have articulated that America must learn how to do more with less” (p. 10). The Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (2011), goes on to explain that “law enforcement agencies must develop ways to do things differently, and use the resources that are available in the most efficient and effective way possible” (p. 10).

The juvenile probation agency which participated in this study has three departments with a total of 259 front line probation officers (232 juvenile probation officers, 27 juvenile probation supervisors) (see Table 1). All the above officers are commissioned by the state’s peace officer standards and training organization at a category 2 level. The juvenile justice agency is divided into three departments: field probation, juvenile detention, and a youth camp located about 30 miles outside the metropolitan area. While all the juvenile probation officers work for the same agency, each department provides officers with unique job demands and job resources, as well as different avenues for them to use their personal resources.

The “field probation” department employs 10 juvenile probation supervisors, and 105 juvenile probation officers. It has a total of 8 units: 1 juvenile intake unit, which includes a consent decree program, 4 field probation units, one of them with probation officers tasked with

managing the drug court program, a juvenile sex offender unit, an intensive supervision/global positioning (GPS) unit, and an evening reporting unit.

The juvenile detention department employs 10 juvenile probation supervisors, and 91 juvenile probation officers. Within juvenile detention there is a male high risk unit, a male intake/court unit, 3 regular male units, a female unit, a transport unit, and juvenile booking. The local school district sends teachers into juvenile detention each day to provide age appropriate educational instruction. A multitude of community based entities and non-profit organizations work with the youth while they are in juvenile detention.

The youth camp is composed of 6 probation supervisors, and 36 juvenile probation officers. Similar to juvenile detention, the local school district sends teachers to the youth camp daily to provide age appropriate educational instruction. In addition, probation officers help the school district coach high school sports (wrestling, football, basketball, baseball, track and field). In addition, the probation officers supervise select youth for paid work during the summer months (e.g., they help maintain the hiking trails of nearby mountains).

The second group of participants is composed of juvenile parole officers; their job functions are similar to those of juvenile probation officers. The difference between probation and parole officers is that probation takes place with delinquent youth before they are committed to an institution and parole takes place post commitment. Juvenile parole officers make sure that youth under their supervision complete their court orders, conduct home visits, make recommendations to the court, and are involved with their local community members. The juvenile parole agency is composed of 25 front line parole officers and 4 supervisors broken up into the “north” sector and the “south sector.” In addition, between both juvenile agencies, there

are 8 personnel that are considered top level managers, they are composed of directors, assistant directors, managers, and assistant managers (see Table 1).

**Table 1. Breakdown of Probation/Parole Officers.**

		Probation Officers	Probation Supervisors	Total
<i>Front Line Probation Officers Per Department</i>	Field Probation	105	10	115
	Juvenile Detention	91	10	101
	Youth Camp	36	6	42
	Administration	0	1	1
	Total	232	27	<b>259</b>
		Juvenile Parole Officers	Juvenile Parole Supervisors	Total
<i>Front Line Parole Officers per Department</i>	South	17	2	19
	North	8	2	10
	Total	25	4	<b>29</b>
<i>Total Top Level Manager Population from Both Agencies</i>	Top Level Managers			
	8			8
	Total	8		<b>8</b>
<i>Total from Both Agencies</i>				<b>296</b>

### Quantitative Research Design

According to Creswell (2003), in a quantitative approach an investigator uses “cause and effect thinking, reduces to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, uses measurement and observation, and tests theories” (p. 18). Creswell (2003) explained that with a quantitative

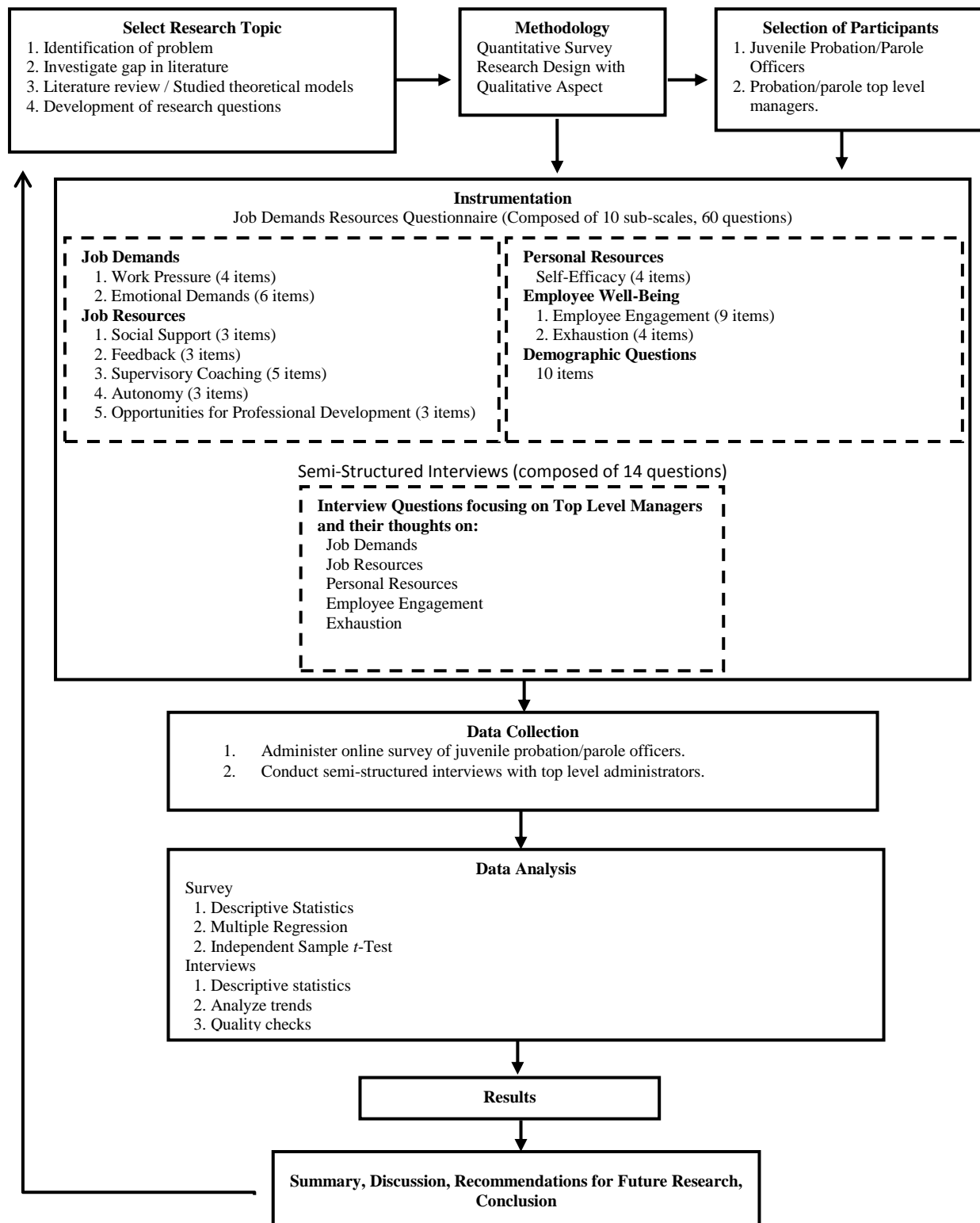
approach an investigator employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments and yields statistical data. Greenhalgh and Taylor (1997) noted that quantitative research papers should “clearly distinguish results (usually a set of numbers) from the interpretation of those results (the discussion)” (p. 742). Since the variables “have scores that provide information about the magnitude of differences between participants in terms of the amount of some characteristics,” this study used a quantitative methodology of data collection and analysis (Warner, 2013, p. 9).

### **Qualitative Aspect**

Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) explained that qualitative data are “a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of human processes” (p. 4). Creswell (2007) noted that “qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 37). Creswell adds that qualitative research involves the “collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study, and data analysis that is inductive and establishes patterns or themes” (Creswell, 2007, p. 37). Maxfield and Babbie (2005) explained that, “non-numerical observations seem to convey a greater richness of meaning than do quantified data” (p. 24).

In terms of this study, semi-structured interviews focused on the participant’s (top level management) perceptions of the levels of personal resources, job resources, job demands, employee engagement and exhaustion that their employees might face. The interviews were not meant to develop concepts/schematics, rather the questions were purposeful, in order to triangulate data with the quantitative portion. Participants provided additional details related to the stressors juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers encounter on a daily basis.





**Figure 2. Visual Representation of Research Process. This figure displays the research process utilized for this study.**

## **Survey Instrumentation and Operationalization**

This survey utilized Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire as a guide. Bakker's (2014) questionnaire has a total of 107 questions that measure work pressure, cognitive demands, emotional demands, role conflict, hassles, autonomy, social support, feedback, opportunities for professional development, coaching, self-efficacy, optimism, work engagement, exhaustion, in-role performance, extra role performance, strength use, job crafting, self-handicapping, and demographics. The researcher obtained permission from Dr. Arnold Bakker to use the above scales (Arnold Bakker, personal communication, February 17, 2015).

Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, Julian, Thoresen, Aziz, Fisher, and Smith (2001) argued that survey fatigue is often associated with "the multi-varitative nature of modern organizational research," thus, a "brief but psychometrically sound measure" is desirable (p. 1105). Galesik and Bosnjak (2009) found that "more respondents started their questionnaire when they were told that it would last 10 minutes (75 percent) than when they were told that it would last 30 minutes (63 percent)" (p. 358). They concluded that "as fatigue and boredom accumulate throughout the survey, the respondents may be less and less willing to invest the effort needed for good quality answers" (p. 358).

To avoid survey fatigue, the survey was constructed using a portion of Bakker's (2014) questionnaire, utilizing a total of 60 questions for the purpose of keeping employee participation time at a minimum. Not all of the question groups asked by Bakker (2014) were included since they were beyond the scope of this study (see Table 2). This study explored some of the antecedents (personal resources, job resources, and job demands) of employee engagement and exhaustion. Below is a breakdown of the three independent and two dependent variables with their corresponding subscales (see Appendix VIII, Survey Questions). A pilot study was not

conducted as the following individual scales have been assessed individually and have shown to be reliable by researchers.

### **Job Demands (Independent Variable)**

**Work pressure.** In a response to develop an instrument to assess the psychological hypothesis of the demand/control models, Karasek et al. (1985) developed the Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ). The study focused on psychological and physical demands and has a total of 49 questions which include psychological and physical demands, job insecurity, social support, physical work hazards, computer interfaces, customer interaction, and psychological strain. The scale's internal consistency tends to be similar across populations and between genders; the Cronbach's alpha coefficients are .73 for women and .74 for men (p. 336).

Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study measured work pressure by using four questions borrowed from Karasek et al.'s (1985) JCQ. Warner (2013) explained that "the internal consistency reliability of a multiple-item scale tells us the degree to which the items on the scale measure the same thing" (p. 931). Warner (2013) also explained that Cronbach's Alpha has become the most popular form of "reliability assessment," and that it tells us "how reliable our estimate of the 'stable' entity that we are trying to measure is, when we combine scores from  $p$  test items" (p. 931).

**Emotional demands.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study used six questions from Van-Veldhoven & Meijman's (1994) Questionnaire on the Experience and Evaluation of Work. This questionnaire was constructed from 1992 through 1996, and "has been widely used since by both Dutch occupational health care services and in applied scientific research (work and organizational psychology, occupational health, occupational health psychology) in the Netherlands" (Van-VeldHoven,

Jonge, Broersen, Kompier, & Meijman, 2002, p. 212). The original instrument has a Cronbach's alpha of at least .75 (Van Veldhoven, Jonge, Broersen, Kompier, & Meijman, 2002).

### **Job Resources (Independent Variable)**

**Autonomy.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study measured the amount of autonomy an employee feels that he/she has in the workplace by using a three item scale borrowed from Karasek et al.'s (1985) Job Content Questionnaire. The JCQ has a standard of 49 questions (Cronbach's Alpha = .73 for females and .74 for males).

**Social support.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study used three out of nine "relationship with colleagues" questions which were borrowed from Van Veldhoven & Meijman's (1994) questionnaire to gauge the employee's perceived social support in the workplace. Van Veldhoven and Meijman's (1994) questionnaire consists of 49 items ranging from opportunities to learn to ambiguities at work (Cronbach's Alpha = .75).

**Feedback.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study measured the amount of feedback that an employee feels that he/she receives on his/her performance in the workplace by using a three item scale influenced by Karasek's (1985) Job Content Questionnaire, a questionnaire that has 49 questions (Cronbach's Alpha = .73 for females and .74 for males).

**Supervisory coaching.** Traditional leadership theories are focused on leader traits and characteristics, however, the Leader Member Exchange (LMX) Theory focuses on "the quality of exchange between subordinates and their manager" (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992, p. 66). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) explained the measures consistently showed that studies of the LMX 7 have an internal consistency of Cronbach Alpha between .80 and .90. Following

Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study used five questions from Graen and Uhl-Bien's Leader Member Exchange 7 questionnaire (which has seven questions).

**Opportunities for professional development.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study measured the number of opportunities for professional development that an employee feels he or she has by using a three-item scale influenced Bakker et al. (2003c) Job Demands-Resources model study. The study consisted of 3,092 home care employees and it was conducted over a period of seven years. Bakker et al. (2003c) devised their own seven-item questionnaire to measure "opportunities for professional development," the questionnaire's Cronbach's alpha is .90 (p. 25).

#### **Personal Resources (Independent Variable)**

**Self-efficacy.** Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, the employees' level of self-efficacy was assessed with four items influenced from Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale, which has a total of ten items. Other scales that measure self-efficacy follow Bandura's (1977) approach measuring situation-specific beliefs (the belief in one's ability to perform a specific action), while Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) scale focuses on generalized self-efficacy beliefs. These beliefs are "general beliefs in one's ability to respond to and control environmental demands and challenges" (Schwarzer, 2014). This survey has been used in numerous research projects, where it has yielded internal consistencies between alpha .75 and .90 (Schwarzer, 2014).

#### **Employee Engagement (Dependent Variable)**

Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study measured employee engagement by using Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). The scale was developed as an alternative to using Maslach and Leiter's (1997) idea

that job burnout and employee engagement can both be measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004b) explained that it is possible for a person to have low engagement and not be burned out and that the relationship between both of the concepts cannot be measured by the same instrument. They noted that, while the concept of employee engagement and job burnout are opposite to each other, they must be treated as being independent from each other.

Employee engagement analyzes the concepts of vigor, dedication, and absorption. “Vigor” has been measured by asking questions which look into “high levels of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort, not being easily fatigued, and persistence in the face of difficulties” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b, p. 5). “Dedication” has been measured with items which look into having a “sense of significance from one’s work, feeling enthusiastic and proud about one’s job, and feeling inspired and challenged by it” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b, p. 5). “Absorption” has been measured by items which “refer to being totally and happily immersed in one’s work and having difficulties detaching from it so that time passes quickly and one forgets everything else around” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b, p. 5).

Initially, the UWES included 24 items, but after psychometric evaluations in two different samples of employees and students, seven of the items were removed, thus, lowering the number of questions of the UWES to 17 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). Since then, more items have been removed as a result of them being identified as “weak” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b, p. 7). For the purposes of this study, this researcher used the nine item version of the UWES, where the three original scales of the UWES are reduced to three items each. Based on a large international database, Schaufeli et al. (2006) explained that they found the nine item UWES to share more than 80% of the variance with their original 17 item counterpart (Schaufeli

et al., 2006, p. 712). They also found that in the nine item UWES, 10% of the cases had a Cronbach's Alpha lower than .70, in 23% of the cases the value of alpha ranged between .70 and .80, and in 67% of the cases the Cronbach's Alpha is over .80 (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p. 712).

### **Exhaustion (Dependent Variable)**

Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire, this study used four questions from Maslach and Jackson's (1981) MBI to measure emotional exhaustion (the emotional exhaustion subscale originally had nine questions). Emotional exhaustion's Cronbach's coefficient alpha has reliability coefficients of .89 (frequency) and .86 (intensity) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 105). The three questions from Maslach and Jackson's (1981) MBI are slightly reworded by Bakker (2014), a format this study utilized.

### **Personal and Work Situation Characteristics**

The survey also included ten demographic questions in order to get a better understanding of the participants and allow comparisons between different groups. Participants were asked their gender, age, marital status, and ethnicity. In addition, they were asked how long they have been working for the organization, if they have a supervisory role, their current unit assignment, the length of time of employment in their current unit, type of shift work they perform, their plans of changing jobs in the next two years, and if their job requires them to work weekends. Care was taken so that anonymity was maintained.

### **Semi-Structured Interview Instrumentation and Operationalization**

Warner (2013) explained that multiple operationalization of a construct (also called triangulation of measurement) can greatly strengthen confidence in the results of a study (p. 787). In addition to the surveys, and in order to strengthen the study, semi-structured interviews with seven top level administrators from both juvenile justice agencies were conducted.

Interview questions were purposeful, they were designed to incorporate variables related to the JD-R Theory, the interviews were not meant to develop concepts/schematics, but to triangulate data with the quantitative portion. Participants provided additional details related to the stressors juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers encounter on a daily basis. The aim was to obtain information of job resources, personal resources, job demands, employee engagement, and exhaustion from top level administrators and see if it was in line with the results from front line juvenile probation/parole officers and their supervisors. In person interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

**Table 2. Summary of Variables and Data Analysis Procedures.**

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Type of Data</b>	<b>Analysis Technique</b>
1. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with work engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?	<b><i>Independent Variables</i></b> <b>Job Resources</b> - Social Support (soc) - Feedback (feedb) - Supervisory Coaching (coach) - Opportunities for Professional Development (oppor) - Autonomy (auto) <b>Personal Resources</b> - Self-Efficacy (se) <b>Job Demands</b> - Work Pressure (wp) - Emotional Demands (emo)	Ratio (sum of all Likert scores for each variable)	Multiple Linear Regression Analysis
2. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?	<b><i>Dependent Variables</i></b> <b>Work Engagement (we)</b> <b>Exhaustion (ex)</b>		
3. Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?	<b><i>Independent Variables</i></b> <b>Personal and Work Situation Characteristics</b> - Current Unit (Unit) <b><i>Dependent Variables</i></b> <b>Work Engagement (we)</b> <b>Exhaustion (ex)</b>	Ratio (sum of all Likert scores for each variable)	Independent Samples <i>t</i> -Test



## **Sampling Procedure**

### **Sampling Frame**

As mentioned earlier, this study was limited to juvenile probation officers who work for the same entity in a county located in the southwest United States, and juvenile parole officers who work for a juvenile justice agency that operates in the same state. As a requirement to become a juvenile probation/parole officer, individuals need to have a combination of education and work experience; pass a physical fitness test, background examination, psychological examination, and various other interviews/tests. A broad range of ages, ethnicities, and cultures were represented. The survey was sent electronically to the entire population ( $N=266$ ) of the juvenile justice organization's probation officers, probation supervisors, and top level managers. It was also sent to the entire population ( $N=30$ ) of juvenile parole officers, their supervisors, and their managers.

### **Cross Sectional Sample**

This cross sectional sample (both the survey and semi-structured interviews) are composed of probation/parole officers and their supervisors who work for two different juvenile justice agencies within the same state. According to Fowkes and Fulton (1991), a cross sectional study is a survey of the frequency of "risk factors, or other characteristics in a defined population at one particular time" (p. 1137). Hoe and Hoare (2012) argued that cross sectional surveys "can be used to explore causal relationships (cause and effect) between variables" (p. 56).

### **Recruitment**

An invitation email was sent by leadership from both agencies to all employees in the juvenile probation and the juvenile parole agencies. However, only probation and parole officers gained access to the survey as there were questions to filter out "other" employees, such as

support personnel. The invitation email included a description of the study and identified the individuals who can participate, as well as provided the link to the survey. Once the survey was accessed, participants provided consent in order to continue. After consent, participants were required to answer qualifying questions, such as “are you a probation/parole officer?” Participants who gained access to the survey were front line probation/parole officers, their immediate supervisors, and their top level managers.

For interview participants, a personal invitation was sent via email by the researcher to each of the eight managing administrators inviting them to participate in a 30 minute semi-structured in-person interview. Participants received a description of the study, were provided with information for scheduling the interview with the researcher if they chose to participate, and selected their preferred method for the interview (all of them chose in-person interviews). After the interview was scheduled (n=7), consent was obtained by the researcher reading the consent form, the participant signing the consent form, the researcher providing a copy, and the researcher beginning the audio tape. Copies of the consent were given to each participant. In addition, all interviews were recorded using an audio recording device.

### **Sampling Size and Power**

While it is important for there to be statistical significance, it is also of importance for there to be “practical” or “clinical significance” (Kirk, 1996). Thus, a “result that is statistically significant may be too small to have much real world value” (Warner, 2013, p. 103) A medium effect size represents “an effect likely to be visible to the naked eye of a careful observer” (Cohen, 1992, p. 156). In order for this study to have practical significance (a medium effect size) a sample of 91 participants was needed, since there are five variables (personal resources, job resources, job demands, engagement, and exhaustion) in each of the multiple regressions that

were conducted (Cohen, 1992, p. 158). This achieves a medium effect size of  $f^2=.15$ , an alpha of .05, and a power of .80 (Cohen, 1992, p. 158). The aim of this study was to have at least 91 participants in the study in order to reach a power of .80, and alpha of .05, and an effect size of at least  $f^2=.15$ . There were a total of 296 potential participants from which 106 fully answered the survey, for a response rate of 35.81%.

### **Reliability**

Warner (2013) states that “a good measure should be reasonably reliable – that is, it should yield consistent results,” and explains that variables with “low reliability tend to have low correlations with other variables” (p. 901). According to Kelley (1927) a measure is valid if it measures what it intends to measure. Based on the results of the study a Cronbach’s alpha assessment of internal consistency was calculated for job demands, job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, and exhaustion. Table 3 shows that all of the scores had an alpha score above .80, with the exception of job demands which has a score of .78. Thus, all of the independent and dependent variables demonstrate a high level of reliability.

**Table 3. Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability for Independent and Dependent Variables ( $n=106$ ).**

Variable	Cronbach’s Alpha	Number of Items
Job Demands	.789	10
Job Resources	.942	17
Personal Resources	.836	4
Employee Engagement	.931	9
Exhaustion	.811	4
JD-R Questionnaire	.871	44

## **Human Subjects**

In order to conduct the study, the Facility Authorization Forms were obtained, and approval obtained from University of Nevada, Las Vegas's Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects. In addition, permission from both the director of juvenile justice service and from the chief of the state's juvenile parole agency were obtained. The director and chief were provided with an overview of the study's aims, as well as an overview of the survey instrument that employees were asked to complete. They sent invitations to their employees on behalf of the researcher.

## **Quality Checks**

Semi-structured interviews with a representative sample of the leadership in both agencies were completed (N=7). The interviews were scheduled with seven of the eight top level managers and the method for the interview selected (all selected in person interviews), during the interview the researcher read the consent form, requested a signature, and provided a copy of the consent form to the participant. Semi-structured interviews focused on the participant's perceptions of the levels of job resources, job demands, personal resources, employee engagement and exhaustion that their employees might be facing (see Appendix VIII - Survey Questions). The researcher transcribed each of the recordings into written text for analysis. These transcripts are password protected and stored electronically. Any information that might allow the participants to be identified was redacted from the transcripts and they were assigned pseudonyms. The researcher sent the original transcripts to participants for member checking and provided them with the opportunity to request changes.

## **Data Collection**

Qualtrics software was used for conducting the survey. Following Dillman, Smyth, and Christian's (2014) guidelines, for maximum response rates, the researcher sent three emails asking for survey participation from juvenile probation/parole officers in a three-week period (total time which the survey was available). The data were then entered into IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 software for statistical analysis.

Dillman et al. (2014) explained that it is important to consider coverage error, sampling error, and nonresponse error. They stated that coverage errors occur when "the list from which sample members are drawn does not accurately represent the population on the characteristic(s) one wants to estimate with the survey data" (p. 3). Sampling errors occur when "we decide to only survey some, rather than all, members of the sample frame"; nonresponse errors occur when "those who respond are different from those who do respond" (p. 3). They also state that, "measurement errors occur when participants provide "inaccurate answers to survey questions" (p. 3). The questionnaire portion of this study included all (census study of front line probation officers, front line parole officers, and their respective top level managers) of the population of juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers from both juvenile justice agencies (N=296).

Dillman et al. (2014) provided guidelines for researchers conducting and implementing web questionnaires, making suggestions such as deciding how the survey will be hosted, making sure that the technological capabilities of the survey population are taken into account, deciding how many questions will be displayed in each web page, creating interesting and informative welcome and closing pages, having consistent page layout and format, allowing respondents to back up in the survey, trying to limit required responses, designing item-specific error messages, allowing respondents to stop the survey and complete it at a later time, and personalizing the

contacts to the respondents. When designing the survey, the researcher followed the guidelines presented by Dillman et al. (2014).

### **Data Analysis**

A quantitative analysis of data was performed from numerical ratings obtained from items 1-60 on the survey. Likert (1932) presented a scale to measure attitudes, a scale that since then has been widely used in the social sciences. These scales ask participants to choose a response that most represents him/herself and are oftentimes in a five-point order (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree).

Warner (2013) explained that researchers add or average the scores of Likert scales to obtain total scores, and that these scores are often normally distributed. Data in this study used Likert scales that have from four to seven response categories. Data were summed up based on the group of questions. For example, there were three questions that inquired about a person's perceived level of "autonomy." The scores from the three responses were summed and provided an "autonomy score" for that participant to be used as a comparison with other participants and/or variables. Data were entered into SPSS version 22.0 for each of the respondents along with demographic information. According to Warner (2013), Likert scales probably "fall into a fuzzy category somewhere between ordinal and interval levels of measurement" (p. 10). "Many researchers apply statistics such as means and standard deviations to these type of data despite the fact that these ratings may fall short of the strict requirements for equal interval level of measurement" (Warner, 2013, p. 10).

Carifio and Perla (2008) concluded that applying parametric statistics to Likert scales produces meaningful results (p. 1151). Baggaley and Hull (1983) explained that an investigator "need not worry about applying parametric statistics to ordinal data, at least when there are as

many as four categories per variable,” that investigators in the field of “attitude and personality measurement can apply correlation, discriminant analysis, factor analysis, and other multi-variative techniques” (p. 490). Maurer and Pierce (1998) found that traditional styles of measurement and Likert scales provide similar data, have similar reliability, have similar error variance, and thus, there is “no advantage in terms of reliability for the traditional over the Likert measurement format” (p. 328).

### **Multiple Linear Regression**

Miles and Shevlin (2001) explained that multiple regressions calculate proportions and “takes into account the correlations between independent variables, and assesses the effect of each independent variable” (p. 31). Warner (2013) added that a regression “that includes several predictor variables can be used to evaluate theories that include several variables that – according to the theory – predict or influence scores on an outcome variable” (p. 548). When conducting a regression analysis, the researcher should be checking the following assumptions: variable types (quantitative, interval/ratio, unbounded), non-zero variance (predictors should have variance in value), multicollinearity, uncorrelated predictors with external variables, homoscedasticity (constant variance of residuals), independent errors, normally distributed errors, independence (values of outcome are independent), and linearity (Field, 2009).

According to Newton and Rudestam (2013), the first two research questions, number of independent variables, and existence of co-variates, suggest this study utilize a multiple regression analysis as a statistical test (p. 177). Richardsen et al. (2006) and Inoue et al. (2013) used multiple regression analysis to analyze their JD-R questionnaires, which were similar to the one presented in this study. These statistical tests were utilized to measure the relationships

between variables and the demographics of juvenile probation/parole officers, in addition to the differences in departments.

According to Field (2009), “multi-collinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in a regression model” (p. 223). If there is a correlation coefficient of 1, two variables are “perfectly correlated” (p. 223). Having two perfectly or near perfectly correlated variables causes a problem because the values of  $b$  become “untrustworthy” (interchangeable), it limits the size of  $R$  because the second variable accounts for “very little unique variance,” and it makes it difficult to decide which predictors are more important (p. 224). Multi-collinearity was checked by analyzing variance inflation factor (VIF) in SPSS.

Newton and Rudestam (2013) explained that, when attempting to describe relationships between independent and dependent variables, the “simultaneous entry of all variables is appropriate” (p. 287). They explained that it is the general multiple regression technique and that the researcher can evaluate “ $R^2$  without worrying about eliminating variables or considering causal explanations” (p. 287).

### **Independent Samples $t$ -Test**

In order to best address the third research question, an independent sample  $t$ -test was used to show there is a statistical significant difference in mean scores between groups (Warner, 2013, p. 185). This type of test is appropriate when “the groups that are being compared are between subjects” (p. 186). The groups tested were juvenile probation officers and juvenile parole officers. The output provides us with differences in employee engagement or exhaustion between the two groups; it determined which group has the highest (or lowest) levels of employee engagement and exhaustion: and if the differences are statistically significant.



## **Content Analysis**

Data analysis for the semi-structured interviews were completed using NVivo data analysis Software; QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 11, 2014. A content analysis was conducted using first cycle and second cycle coding in order to assign meaning, and identify patterns and themes in the transcribed information. Busch, DeMaret, Flynn, Kellum, Le, Meyers, Saunders, White, and Palmquist (2012) explained the first step is to decide the level of analysis. Next is to decide how many concepts to code for, whether to code for existence or frequency, how one will distinguish among concepts, rules for coding texts, and what to do with irrelevant information. This information was used as a triangulation measurement in order to strengthen the results of the study. According to Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014), the aim of triangulation is to “pick triangulation sources that have different foci and different strengths, so that they can complement each other” (p. 299). Maxfield and Babbie (2005) described content analysis as involving the systematic study of messages (p. 338). Cole (1988) stated that content analysis is a “research method for analyzing written, verbal or visual communication” (p. 1).

The transcriptions of the interviews were coded. According to Miles et al. (2014), codes are “labels that assign symbolic meaning to the description or inferential information compiled during a study” (p. 71). Cavanagh (1997) explained that “it is assumed that words, phrases and so on, when classified in the same categories, share the same meaning” (p. 1). This study used first cycle codes or “codes initially assigned to data chunks” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 73). In Vivo coding is coding that “uses words or short phrases from the participant’s own language in the data record as codes” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 74). Finally, this study used second cycle coding, coding which groups “summaries into a smaller number of categories” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 86).

Through coding data, the researcher was better able to identify patterns and themes within the interviews and determine similarities or differences with interview data.

First cycle coding was accomplished by separating interview information into the independent variables (work pressure, emotional demands, social support, autonomy, opportunities for professional development, supervisory coaching, feedback, and self-efficacy) and dependent variables (employee engagement and exhaustion) of this study. Second cycle coding was accomplished by breaking down each of those variables into “current climate,” how things are currently done in the organization. They were also broken down into “management ideas,” the philosophy, theory, and where managers see the organization headed in the future. With the exception of some significant other ideas of top level leaders, other information was not included in the results. This information was then used as a triangulation measurement in order to strengthen the results of the quantitative portion.

A peer review of the interview findings was conducted in order to reduce personal bias. According to Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014), personal bias is the “researcher’s personal agenda, personal demons, or personal axes to grind, which skew the ability to represent and present fieldwork and data analysis in a trustworthy manner” (p. 294). A peer was asked to review the semi-structured interview data and see if she came up with the same conclusions about the interviews as the researcher did (see Appendix IX). Miles et al. (2014) suggest that the researcher ask a “friendly colleague to perform a rapid replicability check” (p. 308). Miles et al. (2014) add that, “based on a few hours review of the project database and methods, how easy or difficult would it be for your colleague to repeat your studies” (p. 308). After the peer review, the reviewer responded with, “I agree largely with your interpretations of the responses of your

participants. The text within the interview transcripts was coded similarly to how I coded them” (see Appendix IX).

### **Assumptions**

The following assumptions were made:

1. The population was truthful when responding to questions.
2. Study data collection and analysis allowed for accurate reflection and perceptions of participants.

### **Limitations**

This study has the following limitations:

1. The study relied on self-reports, which might lead to common method variance and reliability problems.
2. Many variables other than the variables analyzed have the ability to impact employee engagement or exhaustion.
3. The sample was a census sample of professionals who work for the same organization, the results cannot be generalized to other populations.
4. There are political/economic/environmental factors that the researcher cannot control.
5. Officers who answer the survey might have different mindsets than officers who do not answer the survey.

### **Delimitations**

This study was conducted in order to better understand the relationship between job demands, job resources, personal resources, and employee engagement/exhaustion for parole/probation officers in southwest agencies.

1. The Job Demands-Resources Theory was used as a theoretical framework to study employee engagement and employee exhaustion.
2. The study was delimited to juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers.
3. The study used Likert scale surveys and semi-structured interviews to obtain data.
4. The study was delimited to two juvenile justice agencies in one southwest state.

### **Summary**

This chapter reiterated the purpose of this study, presented the research questions, explained how the participants were selected, quantitative research design, qualitative aspect, survey instrumentation, semi-structured interview instrumentation, sampling procedure, and discussed data collection. In addition, the methods used to analyze data were presented, and assumptions, limitations and delimitations were discussed. The next chapter discusses the results of the data analysis, and answers to the research questions which guided this study.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to explore job demands, job resources, and personal resources, and their relationship to employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. This chapter presents (a) a description of the study participants; (b) a discussion of the findings for each research question; (c) additional analyses; and (d) a summary of semi-structured interview findings.

This study investigated the perceptions of job demands, job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers who work in the same state. Data were obtained via a Job Demands Resources questionnaire geared toward front line staff/supervisors and semi-structured interviews with their respective top level managers. Survey data were measured using descriptive statistics, independent samples *t*-tests, and multiple regression analysis. In order to triangulate these data, semi-structured interviews with top level managers for both agencies were also conducted. This chapter presents the results of the data analyses for the three stated research questions.

1. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with work engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?
2. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?
3. Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?

## Preparation of Data

The findings presented in this chapter are based on data from 106 survey questionnaire participants and 7 semi-structured interview participants. Likert scale data were summed to produce total participant scores. Provided are the mean, minimum scores, maximum scores, and standard deviations for the variables of interest (see Table 4).

**Table 4. Independent and Dependent Variable Descriptive Statistics.**

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
<i>Dependent Variables</i>	Employee Engagement	106	13	63	42.98	9.419
	Employee Exhaustion	105	4	16	10.62	2.524
<i>Independent Variables</i>	Personal Resources	106	11	16	14.61	1.589
	Job Demands	106	21	49	34.19	6.633
	Job Resources	106	30	85	61.36	13.799

Survey data were gathered by using Qualtrics: Online Survey Software and Insight Platform. Survey data were collected for a period of 20 days, in which 288 invitations were sent, 146 participants opened the survey, 31 did not complete the survey, thus producing 115 participants who completed the survey. Data were transferred from Qualtrics to Microsoft Excel to preview results. Results were checked for participant identifying information and Internet protocol (IP) addresses, emails, and external identifications were erased. During this preliminary phase it was discovered that, of the 115 participants who completed the survey, 5 people did not respond to the majority of questions and were removed. Four participants completed the survey but due to researcher error were not prompted to provide consent, thus, these four questionnaires were also removed from the results. The final number of participants used for data analysis was 106 (out of 296, a 35.81% response rate).

Data were reviewed for missing information, abnormalities, and spelling errors. In the process of cleaning up data, some data were re-coded, including labeling missing responses as “declined” (see Appendix XII). Once data were analyzed in Microsoft Excel, it was transferred to IBM’s Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 software for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were checked in SPSS for errors, outliers, and/or missing information.

### **Demographic Information**

The 106 participants in the survey portion of this study represented various backgrounds. The average age of a participant was  $M = 41.26$ ,  $SD = 8.73$ ; the youngest person who participated was 23, the oldest person was 65, and 4 participants declined to respond to their age. The average time that probation/parole officers have been working in their respective organization was 11 years and 4 months, the average time a probation/parole officer has worked for their current unit was 4 years and 6 months. Table 5 presents the characteristics of the participants. There were 82 (77.4%) juvenile probation officers and 24 (22.6%) juvenile parole officers. There were 67 (63.2%) males, 34 (32.1%) females, 3 (2.8%) other, and two declined to respond (1.9%). In addition, 63 (59.4%) participants were married, 21 (19.8%) were never married, 13 (12.3%) were divorced/widowed, 5 (4.7%) were other, and 4 (3.8%) declined to respond. There were 49 (46.3%) Whites, 22 (20.8%) African Americans, 18 (17%) Hispanics, 8 (7.5%) Other, 3 (2.8%) Pacific Islanders, 3 (2.8%) declined to respond, 2 (1.9%) Asians, and 1 (.9%) Native American. The response rate for probation officers was 30.82% (82 of 266 potential participants) and for parole officers it was 80% (24 out of 30).

**Table 5. Participant Demographics.**

		Frequency	Percentage
<i>Type of Officer</i>	Probation (N=266)	82	77.4%
	Parole (N=30)	24	22.6%
<i>Gender</i>	Male	67	63.2%
	Female	34	32.1%
	Other	3	2.8%
	Declined	2	1.9%
<i>Marital Status</i>	Married	63	59.4%
	Never Married	21	19.8%
	Divorced/Widowed	13	12.3%
	Other	5	4.7%
	Declined	4	3.8%
<i>Ethnicity</i>	White	49	46.3%
	African American	22	20.8%
	Hispanic	18	17.0%
	Other	8	7.5%
	Pacific Islander	3	2.8%
	Declined	3	2.8%
	Asian	2	1.9%
	Native American	1	.9%

Table 6 provides frequencies and percentages regarding the participants' attitudes toward work in their current workplace, questions related to their plans to change jobs in the next two years were asked. These questions show that 44 (41.5%) participants stated they would definitely not change jobs in the next two years, 30 (28.3%) stated that they would probably not change jobs, 11 (10.4%) stated that they would maybe change jobs, 11 (10.4%) stated that they would probably "yes" change jobs, and 10 (9.4%) stated that they would definitely change jobs.

When asked what days of the week they work, 59 (54.7%) stated they work only during the weekdays, 12 (11.3%) work weekdays and a Saturday, for 12 (11.3%) it varies from week to



week, 11 (10.4%) work weekdays and both a Saturday and a Sunday, 9 (8.5%) respondents work weekdays with a Sunday, three (2.9%) work other shifts, and one (.9%) declined to respond. Participants mostly work day shift, 64 (60.4%) participants, 21 (19.8%) participants identified themselves as working a combination shift, 19 (17.8%) worked a swing shift, and two (1.9%) participants work the night shift (see Table 6).

When asked to identify the department they work for, 36 (34.1%) declined to respond. The most represented departments were Field Probation with 24 (22.6%) respondents, and youth parole at 24 (22.6%); detention had 14 (13.2%) respondents, and youth camp had eight (7.5%) respondents. Table 6 shows that 77 (72.6%) participants did not have supervisory roles and 29 (27.4%) participants did have supervisory roles. Demographic variables were checked against dependent and independent variables using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), *t*-tests, and Pearson correlations; nothing was found to be significant, possibly due to the low number of participants.

**Table 6. Participant Workplace Information.**

		Frequency	Percentage
<i>Thinking about Changing Jobs in the Next Two Years?</i>	Definitely Not	44	41.5%
	Probably Not	30	28.3%
	Maybe	11	10.4%
	Probably Yes	11	10.4%
	Definitely Yes	10	9.4%
<i>What Days of the Week Do You Work?</i>	Only Weekdays	59	54.7%
	Weekdays and a Saturday	12	11.3%
	Varies from Week to Week	12	11.3%
	Weekdays and Both Saturday and Sunday	11	10.4%
	Weekdays and a Sunday	9	8.5%
	Other	3	2.9%
	Declined	1	.9%
<i>What type of Shift do You Work?</i>	Day	64	60.4%
	Combination	21	19.8%
	Swing	19	17.9%
	Night Shift	2	1.9%
<i>Where do You Currently Work?</i>	Declined	36	34.1%
	Field Probation	24	22.6%
	Youth Parole	24	22.6%
	Detention	14	13.2%
	Youth Camp	8	7.5%
<i>Do you have a Supervisory Role?</i>	No	77	72.6%
	Yes	29	27.4%

## Bivariate Comparisons

Previous research has shown employee engagement and exhaustion to be negatively correlated (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b) and this study supports these findings. A Pearson Correlation shows these two variables to be negatively correlated,  $r = -.452$ ,  $n = 105$ ,  $p < .001$ . Job demands are positively correlated with exhaustion,  $r = .378$ ,  $n = 105$ ,  $p < .001$ . Job resources

are negatively correlated with exhaustion,  $r = -.457$ ,  $n = 105$ ,  $p < .001$ . Employee engagement is positively correlated with job resources,  $r = .495$ ,  $n = 106$ ,  $p < .001$  (see Table 7).

**Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among the Study Variables ( $n=106$ ).**

	1	2	3	4
1. Employee Exhaustion				
2. Employee Engagement	-.452**			
3. Personal Resources	-.136	.152		
4. Job Demands	.378**	-.115	-.167	
5. Job Resources	-.457**	.495**	.055	-.180

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

### Research Question One

*To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with employee engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?* In order to address this research question, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers. The variables were entered in a forced entry method, as the researcher looked for relationships amongst the independent variables with the dependent variables (Newton & Rudestam, 2013, p. 287). Job demands, job resources, and personal resources were utilized as independent variables and employee engagement was utilized as a dependent variable.

To test this research question, a regression analysis was conducted using the summed engagement score as the dependent variable and the summed job demands, job resources, and personal resource scores as independent variables. For the sample, the average job demands

score was 34.19 ( $SD = 6.633$ ), the average job resources score was 61.36 ( $SD = 13.799$ ), the average personal resources score was 14.61 ( $SD = 1.589$ ), and the average engagement score was 42.98 ( $SD = 9.419$ ). Regression assumptions were met and tested prior to analyzing the data. The variables were continuous in nature. Linearity, outliers, and normality were assessed with construction of a P-P plot. In statistics, the Durbin–Watson statistic tests “whether adjacent residuals are correlated, which is useful in assessing the assumption of independent errors” (Field, 2009, p. 785). Independence of observations was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic, demonstrating an acceptable value of 1.823. A value of 2, means that residuals are un-correlated, a value greater than 2 means that residuals have a negative correlation and a value below 2 means residuals have a positive correlation (Field, 2009). Homoscedasticity was confirmed with visualization of a plot of the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values.

An ordinary least squares multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a predictive model for employee engagement with the three predictor variables entered using a forced entry method. Out of the three predictor variables, only job resources significantly correlated with the outcome employee engagement, ( $p < .001$ ); job resources were the only predictor with significant partial effects in the full model (see Table 8 for regression model summary values). The final model was significant, ( $F [3, 102] = 12.002, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .261$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .239$ . Participants’ predicted employee engagement is equal to  $12.158 - .010$  (job demands) +  $.332$  (job resources) +  $.736$  (personal resources). Employee engagement decreased by  $.010$  for each job demand introduced. Employee engagement increased  $.332$  for each job resource introduced, and increased  $.736$  for each personal resource introduced. Job resources were a significant predictor of employee engagement,  $p < .001$ . The three predictors account for 23.9% of the variance in employee engagement. This means that 76.1% of the

variation of employee engagement cannot be explained by job demands, job resources, and personal resources.

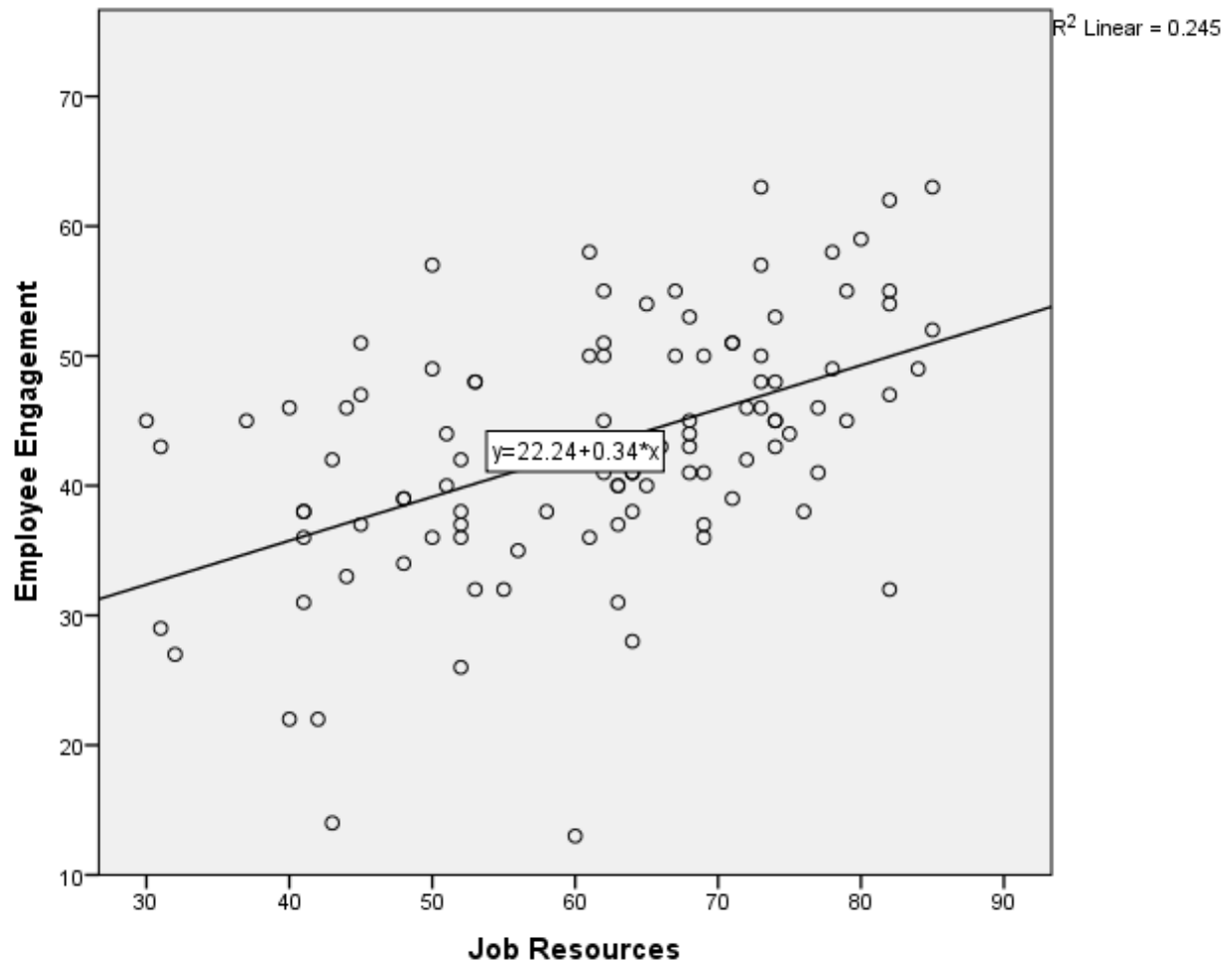
The analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows  $F = 12.002$ , which is significant at  $p < .001$ . This tells us that the regression model is a significantly better prediction of employee engagement than if we used means to analyze the data. Therefore, out of the three predictors, job resources significantly predict employee engagement,  $p < .001$ ; personal resources are not significant,  $p = .153$ ; and job demands are not significant,  $p = .937$  (see Table 8). Figure 3 provides us with a visual of job resources (significant predictor) and its relationship with employee engagement.

**Table 8. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Employee Engagement.**

<i>Variable (Predictor)</i> <i>n=106</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>S. E.</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
(Constant)	12.158	10.102		1.204	.232
Job Demands	-.010	.124	-.007	-.080	.937
Job Resources	.332	.059	.487	5.627	.000***
Personal Resources	.736	.512	.124	1.438	.153

( $F [3, 102] = 12.002, p = .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .261$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .239$ .

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$



**Figure 3. Scatterplot Showing Employee Engagement and Job Resources.**

The findings resulting from the regression model show that job resources were the only predictor that positively and significantly influenced employee engagement. Personal resources did not have a significant relationship with employee engagement; this is probably due to measuring only self-efficacy in the study as a variable. Job demands also did not have a significant relationship with employee engagement.

## Research Question Two

*To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?* A multiple regression analysis was used to develop a predictive model for exhaustion with the three predictor variables (job demands, job resources, and personal resources) using a forced entry method. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the data were screened for the assumptions of independence (Durbin-Watson statistic = 2.052); linearity, outliers, and normality; and homoscedasticity was confirmed with visualization of a plot of the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values.

Of the three predictor variables, job demands ( $p = .001$ ) and job resources ( $p < .001$ ) significantly correlated with the outcome, exhaustion; job demands and job resources were also the only predictors with significant partial effects in the full model (see Table 9 for regression model summary values). The final model was significant, ( $F [3, 101] = 14.143, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .296$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .275$ . Participants predicted exhaustion is equal to  $12.826 + .109$  (job demands) -  $.073$  (job resources) -  $.098$  (personal resources). Exhaustion increased  $.109$  for each job demand introduced, decreased  $.073$  for each job resource introduced, and decreased  $.098$  for each personal resource introduced. Job demands and job resources were significant predictors,  $p = .001$  and  $p < .001$ , respectively. The predictors account for 27.5% of the variance in exhaustion. This means that 72.5% of the variation of employee exhaustion cannot be explained by job demands, job resources, and personal resources.

The ANOVA shows  $F = 14.143$ , and is significant at  $p < .001$ . This tells us that the regression model is a significantly better prediction of exhaustion than if we used means. Therefore, out of the three predictors, job demands significantly predicts exhaustion  $p = .001$ , job resources are negatively correlated and significantly predicts exhaustion  $p = .001$ , and personal

resources is not significant to exhaustion  $p = .467$  (see Table 9). Figure 4 provides us with a visual of job demands with job resources (significant predictors) and their relationship with exhaustion.

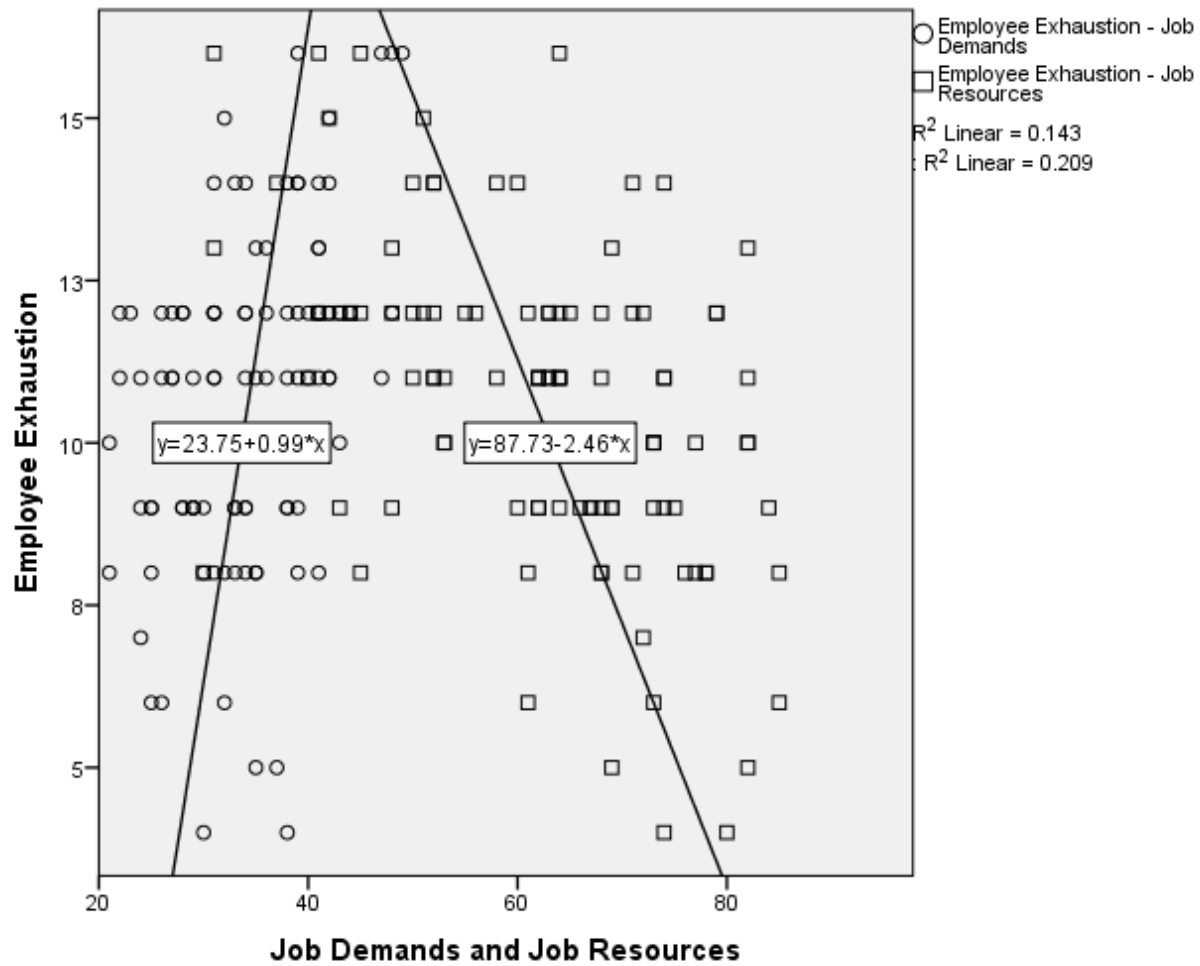
**Table 9. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Employee Exhaustion.**

<i>Variable (Predictor)</i> <i>n=106</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>S. E.</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
(Constant)	12.826	2.658		4.826	.000
Job Demands	.109	.033	.285	3.303	.001***
Job Resources	-.073	.016	-.393	-4.590	.000***
Personal Resources	-.099	.134	-.062	-.730	.467

( $F [3, 101] = 14.143, p = .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .296$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .275$ .

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$





**Figure 4. Scatterplot Showing Employee Exhaustion and Job Demands with Job Resources.**

The regression model found that job demands have a significant positive relationship with exhaustion. The model also shows that job resources have a significant negative relationship with employee exhaustion. Findings show that if employees gain more job resources, employee exhaustion is lowered. This is in line with previous JD-R research, as pointed out in the second chapter of this study. Job demands increase exhaustion and job resources decrease employee exhaustion. The model found that personal resources (self-efficacy), was not a significant predictor of exhaustion.

### Research Question Three

*Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?*

In order to answer research question three, independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables with juvenile probation officers and juvenile parole officers (1 = probation officer, 2 = parole officer).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of employee engagement of juvenile probation officers ( $M = 42.23$ ,  $SD = 10.253$ ,  $N = 82$ ) than of juvenile parole officers ( $M = 45.54$ ,  $SD = 5.099$ ,  $N = 24$ );  $t(78.450) = -2.152$ ,  $p = .034$ , two tailed (see table 10). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -3.310, 95% CI: -6.371 to -.248) was small (eta squared = .043).
2. There was a significant difference for the scores of job demands of juvenile probation officers ( $M = 33.29$ ,  $SD = 6.561$ ,  $N = 82$ ) than of juvenile parole officers ( $M = 37.25$ ,  $SD = 6.052$ ,  $N = 24$ );  $t(104) = -2.643$ ,  $p = .009$ , two tailed (see table 10). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -3.957, 95% CI: -6.927 to -.988) was moderate (eta squared = .063).
3. There was a significant difference for the scores of feedback of juvenile probation officers ( $M = 9.02$ ,  $SD = 2.944$ ,  $N = 82$ ) than of juvenile parole officers ( $M = 10.42$ ,  $SD = 2.586$ ,  $N = 24$ );  $t(104) = -2.091$ ,  $p = .039$ , two tailed (see table 10). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -1.392, 95% CI: -2.712 to -.072) was small (eta squared = .040).
4. There was a significant difference for the scores of work pressure of juvenile probation officers ( $M = 11.09$ ,  $SD = 3.693$ ,  $N = 82$ ) than of juvenile parole officers ( $M = 14.42$ ,  $SD$

= 2.717,  $N = 24$ );  $t(104) = -4.101$ ,  $p < .001$ , two tailed (see table 10). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -3.331, 95% CI: -4.942 to -1.720) was large (eta squared = .139).

Guidelines, set by Cohen (1988) explain that: .01 = is a small effect, .06 = is a moderate effect, and .14 = is a large effect. According to Cohen (1990), a small effect size is not so small as to be trivial and a medium effect size is visible to the eye of a careful observer. These results show that the levels of employee engagement are significantly higher for parole officers than for probation officers (small effect), feedback scores were significantly higher for parole officers than for probation officers (small effect), job demands were significantly higher for parole officers (moderate effect), and work pressure scores were significantly higher for parole officers than for probation officers (large effect).

**Table 10. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Probation and Parole Officers.**

Category			Probation Officers			Parole Officers			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Dependent Variable	<i>Employee Engagement</i>	82	42.23	10.253	24	45.54	5.099	-2.152	.034*
2	Independent Variable	<i>Job Demands</i>	82	33.29	6.561	24	37.25	6.052	-2.643	.009**
3	Independent Variable	<i>Feedback</i>	82	9.02	2.944	24	10.42	2.586	-2.091	.039*
4	Independent Variable	<i>Work Pressure</i>	82	11.09	3.693	24	14.42	2.717	-4.101	.001***

Levene's test for equal variances was significant for employee engagement, all others assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

The *t*-test found that juvenile parole officers presented significantly higher employee engagement scores than juvenile probation officers (small effect). There isn't research with which to compare these results; parole officers in this study typically work with older youth, have a smaller organization, and have different work benefits than juvenile probation officers. Their training (they have field training officers) is slightly different and they might have an opportunity to travel throughout the state more. In addition, *t*-tests found that juvenile parole officers had statistically significant higher job demands (medium effect), statistically significant higher scores of feedback (small effect), and had statistically significant higher levels of work pressure than probation officers (large effect).

### **Additional Analyses**

#### **Predictors of Employee Engagement**

Other demographic variables were checked against dependent and independent variables; there was no statistical significance. Since job resources was the only significant predictor of employee engagement, a multiple regression analysis was completed to determine which of the five job resource subscales accounted for the greatest amount of variance in employee engagement. Autonomy, feedback, opportunities for professional development, supervisory coaching, and social support were used as independent variables in a multiple regression analysis; Employee engagement was used as a dependent variable. The variables were entered in a forced entry method. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the data were screened for the assumptions of independence (Durbin-Watson statistic = 2.338); linearity, outliers, and normality; and homoscedasticity were confirmed with visualization of a plot of the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values.

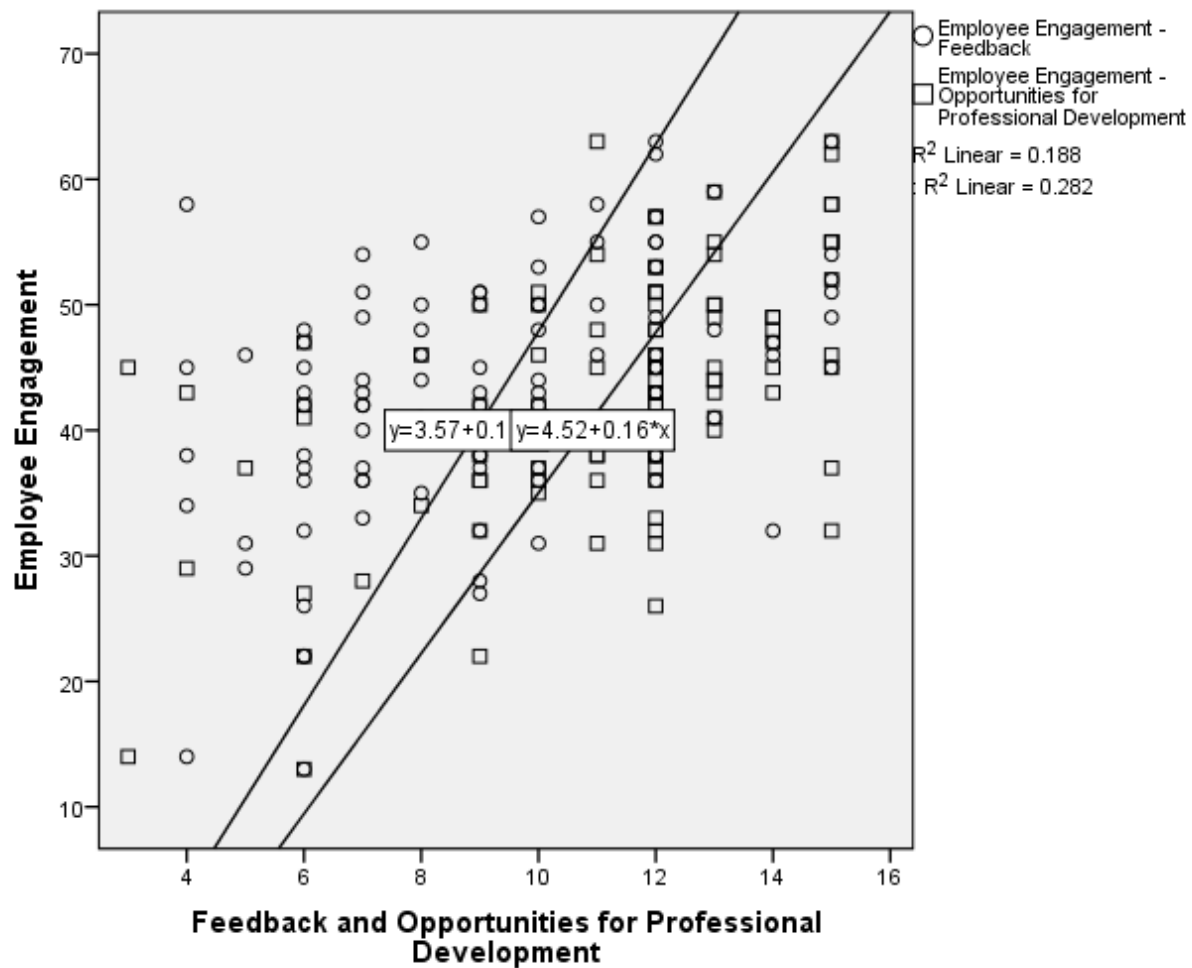
As expected, the model was significant, ( $F [5, 100] = 10.629, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .347$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .314$  (see Table 11). Participants predicted employee engagement is equal to  $17.973 + .107$  (social support)  $+ .720$  (feedback)  $- .216$  (supervisory coaching)  $+ 1.246$  (opportunities for professional development)  $+ .570$  (Autonomy). Employee engagement increased .107 for each unit of social support introduced, increased .720 for each feedback introduced, decreased -.216 for each supervisory support introduced, increased 1.246 for each opportunity for professional development introduced, and increased .570 for each autonomy introduced. Feedback and opportunities for professional development were significant predictors for employee engagement,  $p = .05$  and  $p < .001$  respectively. The predictors account for 31.4% of the variance of employee engagement. This means that 68.6% of the variation in employee engagement cannot be explained by the model's independent variables. The ANOVA shows  $F = 10.629$ , and is significant at  $p < .001$ ; this tells us that the regression model is a significantly better prediction of employee engagement than if we used means to analyze data. Figure 5 is a scatterplot showing feedback with opportunities for professional development (two significant predictors) and their relationship with employee engagement.

**Table 11. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Job Resource Variables Predicting Employee Engagement.**

<i>Variable (Predictor)</i> <i>n=106</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>S. E.</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
(Constant)	17.973	3.781		4.753	.000
Social Support	.107	.380	.033	.281	.779
Feedback	.720	.363	.223	1.982	.050*
Supervisory Coaching	-.216	.198	-.128	-1.094	.277
Opportunities for Professional Development	1.246	.345	.367	3.613	.000***
Autonomy	.570	.341	.188	1.672	.098

( $F [5, 100] = 10.629, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .347$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .314$ .

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$



**Figure 5. Scatterplot Showing Employee Engagement and Feedback with Opportunities for Professional Development.**

Results show that feedback and opportunities for professional development positively and significantly predicted employee engagement. Employees knowing how they are doing in the workplace, knowing their work objectives, and receiving information about the results of their work are significantly related to their engagement. In addition, learning new things, developing strong points, and developing themselves also have a significant relationship with employee engagement.

## Predictors of Employee Exhaustion

As job resources and job demands were statistically significant predictors of employee exhaustion, a multiple regression analysis was completed to determine which, if any, of the five subscales of job resources and the two sub-scales of job demands accounted for the highest variance in exhaustion scores. Autonomy, feedback, opportunities for professional development, supervisory coaching, social support, emotional demands, and work pressure were used as independent variables in a multiple regression analysis, exhaustion was used as a dependent variable, the variables were entered in a forced entry method. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the data were screened for the assumptions of independence (Durbin-Watson statistic = 1.828); linearity, outliers, and normality; and homoscedasticity was confirmed with visualization of a plot of the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values.

As expected, the final model was significant, ( $F [7, 97] = 6.940, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .334$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .28.6$  (see Table 12). Participants predicted exhaustion is equal to  $12.093 + 1.83$  (work pressure)  $+ .066$  (emotional demands)  $- .178$  (social support)  $+ .090$  (feedback)  $- .085$  (supervisory coaching)  $- 1.23$  (opportunities for professional development)  $- .083$  (autonomy). Employee exhaustion increased 1.83 for each work pressure introduced, increased .066 for each emotional demand introduced, decreased .178 for each social support introduced, increased .090 for each feedback introduced, decreased by .085 for each supervisory support introduced, decreased 1.23 for each opportunity for professional development introduced, and decreased .083 for each autonomy introduced. The predictors account for 28.6% of the variance of employee exhaustion. This means that 71.4% of the variation of employee exhaustion cannot be explained by the independent variables.

Work Pressure is a statistically significant predictor of exhaustion,  $p = .002$ . The ANOVA shows  $F = 6.940$ , and is significant at  $p < .001$ . This tells us that the regression model is a significantly better predictor of employee engagement than if we used means to analyze data. Work pressure questions dealt with working at speed, having too much work to do, having to meet deadlines, and working under time pressure. Figure 6 is a scatterplot showing work pressure (significant predictor) and its relationship with exhaustion.

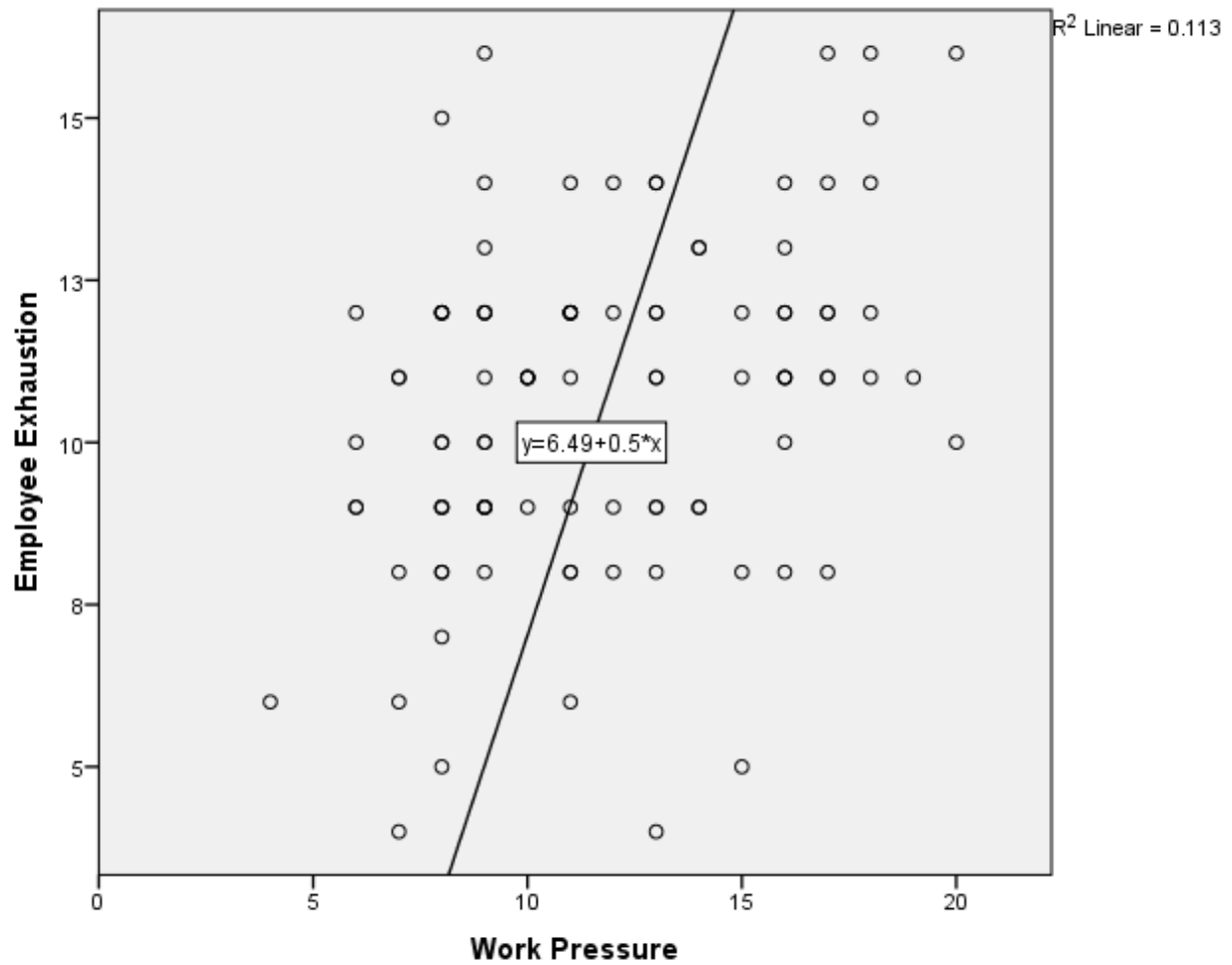
**Table 12. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Job Resources, Job Demands, and Employee Exhaustion.**

<i>Variable (Predictor)</i> <i>n=106</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>S. E.</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
(Constant)	12.093	1.717		7.044	.000
Work Pressure	.183	.058	.271	3.137	.002**
Emotional Demands	.066	.048	.123	1.392	.167
Social Support	-.178	.106	-.202	-1.684	.095
Feedback	.090	.103	.105	.875	.384
Supervisory Coaching	-.085	.057	-.183	-1.479	.142
Opportunities for Professional Development	-.123	.097	-.134	-1.272	.206
Autonomy	-.083	.095	-.100	-.873	.385

( $F [7, 97] = 6.940, p < .001$ ), with an  $R^2 = .334$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .28.6$ .

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$





**Figure 6. Scatterplot Showing Employee Exhaustion and Work Pressure.**

This regression shows that for juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers, work pressure was statistically significant with exhaustion. These findings are in line with what Newman and Rucker Reed (2004) explain, management issues are identified with higher levels of stress than human misery or violence. This is also in line with what Biggam et al. (2007) explained, organizational factors (such as low manpower and not enough resources) produced the highest levels of stress in the police agency they studied.

### Independent Samples *t*-test – Male and Female/Other

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables with participant gender. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = male or 2 = female/other (see Appendix XIII).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of exhaustion of males ( $M = 10.18$ ,  $SD = 2.640$ ,  $N = 67$ ) than for female/other ( $M = 11.25$ ,  $SD = 2.034$ ,  $N = 36$ );  $t(88.561) = -2.289$ ,  $p = .024$ , two tailed (see table 13). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -1.071, 95% CI: -2.001 to -.141) was small (eta squared =.049).
2. There was a significant difference for the scores of feedback of males ( $M = 9.76$ ,  $SD = 2.96$ ,  $N = 67$ ) than for female/other ( $M = 8.57$ ,  $SD = 2.784$ ,  $N = 37$ );  $t(102) = 2.010$ ,  $p = .047$ , two tailed (see table 13). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 1.194, 95% CI: .016 to 2.371) was small (eta squared =.038).
3. There was a significant difference for the scores of opportunities for professional development of males ( $M = 11.76$ ,  $SD = 2.680$ ,  $N = 67$ ) than for female/other ( $M = 10.35$ ,  $SD = 2.821$ ,  $N = 37$ );  $t(102) = 2.521$ ,  $p = .013$ , two tailed (see table 13). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 1.410, 95% CI: .300 to 2.519) was moderate (eta squared =.059).

These results show that the levels of exhaustion are significantly higher for females/other than for males (small effect), feedback scores were significantly higher for males than for females/other (small effect), and opportunities for professional development were significantly higher for males than for females/other (moderate effect). Table 13 displays these results.

**Table 13. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Males and Females/Other.**

	Category		Males			Females / Other			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Dependent Variable	<i>Employee Exhaustion</i>	67	10.18	2.640	36	11.25	2.034	-2.289	.024*
2	Independent Variable	<i>Feedback</i>	67	9.76	2.960	37	8.57	2.784	2.010	.047*
3	Independent Variable	<i>Opportunities for Professional Development</i>	67	11.76	2.680	37	10.35	2.821	2.521	.013*

Levene's test for equal variances was significant for exhaustion, all others assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – Married and Other Categories**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for participant marital status. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = married or 2 = all other categories (see Appendix XIII).

There was a significant difference for the scores of job demands of married officers ( $M = 35.27$ ,  $SD = 5.756$ ,  $N = 63$ ) than of officers in other categories ( $M = 32.36$ ,  $SD = 7.666$ ,  $N = 39$ );  $t(64.354) = 2.042$ ,  $p = .045$ , two tailed (see table 14). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 1.426, 95% CI: .063 to 5.759) was small (eta squared = .04). These results show that the levels of job demands are significantly higher for married officers than for officers who fall into other categories (small effect). Table 14 displays these results.

**Table 14. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Married Officers and Officers in Other Categories.**

Category			Married			Other Categories			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Independent Variable	<i>Job Demands</i>	63	35.27	5.756	39	32.36	7.666	2.042	.045*

Levene's test for equal variances was significant for Job Demands.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – White/Caucasian and Other Ethnicities/Races**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for participant race/ethnicity. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = white or 2 = all other race/ethnicities (see Appendix XIII).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of job resources of white officers ( $M = 64.98$ ,  $SD = 12.928$ ,  $N = 49$ ) than of officers belonging to other races/ethnicities ( $M = 58.57$ ,  $SD = 14.008$ ,  $N = 54$ );  $t(101) = 2.404$ ,  $p = .018$ , two tailed (see table 15). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 6.406, 95% CI: 1.120 to 11.691) was small (eta squared =.054).
2. There was a significant difference for the scores of feedback of white officers ( $M = 9.98$ ,  $SD = 2.996$ ,  $N = 49$ ) than of officers belonging to other races/ethnicities ( $M = 8.70$ ,  $SD = 2.786$ ,  $N = 54$ );  $t(101) = 2.239$ ,  $p = .027$ , two tailed (see table 15). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 1.276, 95% CI: .146 to 2.406) was small (eta squared =.047).
3. There was a significant difference for the scores of supervisory coaching of white officers ( $M = 18.67$ ,  $SD = 4.964$ ,  $N = 49$ ) than of officers belonging to other races/ethnicities ( $M = 15.81$ ,  $SD = 5.831$ ,  $N = 54$ );  $t(101) = 2.665$ ,  $p = .009$ , two tailed (see table 15). The

magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 2.859, 95% CI: .731 to 4.986) was moderate (eta squared =.066).

These results show that the levels of job resources are significantly higher for white officers than for minorities (small effect), feedback was significantly higher for white officers than for minorities (small effect), and supervisory coaching scores were significantly higher for white officers than for minorities (moderate effect). Table 15 displays these results.

**Table 15. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between White Officers and Officers of Other Ethnicity/Race.**

Category			White / Caucasian			Other Ethnicity/Race			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Independent Variable	<i>Job Resources</i>	49	64.98	12.928	54	58.57	14.008	2.404	.018*
2	Independent Variable	<i>Feedback</i>	49	9.98	2.996	54	8.70	2.786	2.239	.027*
3	Independent Variable	<i>Supervisory Coaching</i>	49	18.67	4.964	54	15.81	5.831	2.665	.009**

All variables assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – Do Not Plan to Leave and Might Leave**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for officer future plans to stay/leave the organization. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = definitely not leaving and probably not leaving, or, 2 = maybe, probably leaving, and definitely leaving (see Appendix XIII).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of employee engagement of officers who are not thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 45.42$ ,  $SD = 8.248$ ,  $N = 74$ ) than of

officers who are thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 37.34$ ,  $SD = 9.661$ ,  $N = 32$ );

$t(104) = 4.391$ ,  $p < .001$ , two tailed (see table 16). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 8.075, 95% CI: 4.428 to 11.722) was large (eta squared = .156).

2. There was a significant difference for the scores of exhaustion of officers who are not thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 10.05$ ,  $SD = 2.454$ ,  $N = 74$ ) than of officers who are thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 11.97$ ,  $SD = 2.183$ ,  $N = 31$ );  $t(103) = -3.761$ ,  $p < .001$ , two tailed (see table 16). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = -1.914, 95% CI: -2.923 to -.904) was moderate (eta squared = .12).
3. There was a significant difference for the scores of job resources of officers who are not thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 64.26$ ,  $SD = 12.914$ ,  $N = 74$ ) than of officers who are thinking of leaving the organization ( $M = 54.66$ ,  $SD = 13.630$ ,  $N = 32$ );  $t(104) = 3.456$ ,  $p = .001$ , two tailed (see table 16). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 9.601, 95% CI: 4.091 to 15.110) was moderate (eta squared = .103).

These results show that the levels of employee engagement is significantly higher for officers who are not thinking of changing work in the next two years than for officers who might be thinking of changing work in the next two years (large effect), exhaustion is significantly higher for officers who might be thinking of changing work in the next two years than for officers who are not thinking of changing work in the next two years (large effect), and job resources are significantly higher for officers who are not thinking of changing work in the next two years than for officers who might be thinking of changing work in the next two years (large effect). Table 16 displays these results.

**Table 16. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Officers Who Are Not Intending to Leave and Officers Who Think They Might Leave the Organization.**

	Category		Not Leaving			Might Leave			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Dependent Variable	<i>Employee Engagement</i>	74	45.42	8.248	32	37.34	9.661	4.391	.001***
2	Dependent Variable	<i>Employee Exhaustion</i>	74	10.05	2.454	31	11.97	2.183	-3.761	.001***
3	Independent Variable	<i>Job Resources</i>	74	64.26	12.914	32	54.66	13.630	3.456	.001***

All variables assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – Weekdays and Other Days of the Week**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for officers who work weekdays (Monday through Friday) and officers who work a combination of other days during the week. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = weekdays only, or, 2 = work other days of the week (see Appendix XIII).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of personal resources of officers who work the day shift ( $M = 14.31$ ,  $SD = 1.749$ ,  $N = 58$ ) and officers who work a combination of other days throughout the week ( $M = 14.98$ ,  $SD = 1.310$ ,  $N = 47$ );  $t(102.418) = -2.237$ ,  $p = .027$ , two tailed (see table 17). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference =  $-.668$ , 95% CI:  $-1.261$  to  $-.076$ ) was small (eta squared =  $.046$ ).
2. There was a significant difference for the scores of work pressure of officers who work the day shift ( $M = 13.07$ ,  $SD = 3.407$ ,  $N = 58$ ) and officers who work a combination of other days throughout the week ( $M = 10.38$ ,  $SD = 3.680$ ,  $N = 47$ );  $t(103) = 3.875$ ,  $p < .001$ , two tailed (see table 17). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference =  $2.686$ , 95% CI:  $1.311$  to  $4.061$ ) was moderate (eta squared =  $.127$ ).

These results show that the levels of personal resources are significantly higher for officers who work a combination of days than for officers who work weekdays (small effect) and work pressure scores were significantly higher for officers who work weekdays than for officers who work a combination of days (large effect). Table 17 displays these results.

**Table 17. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Officers Who Work Weekdays and Officers Who Work Other Days.**

Category			Work only Weekdays			Work Other Days			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Independent Variable	<i>Personal Resources</i>	58	14.31	1.749	47	14.98	1.310	-2.237	.027*
2	Independent Variable	<i>Work Pressure</i>	58	13.07	3.407	47	10.38	3.680	3.875	.001***

Levene's test for equal variances was significant for personal resources, work pressure assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – Day Shift and Other Shifts**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for officers who work the day shift and officers who work a combination of shifts. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = work day shift, or, 2 = work other shifts (see Appendix XIII).

1. There was a significant difference for the scores of exhaustion of officers who work the day shift ( $M = 11.05$ ,  $SD = 2.082$ ,  $N = 63$ ) and officers who work other shifts ( $M = 9.98$ ,  $SD = 2.984$ ,  $N = 42$ );  $t(67.263) = 2.022$ ,  $p = .047$ , two tailed (see table 18). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 1.071, 95% CI: .014 to 2.129) was small (eta squared = .038).



2. There was a significant difference for the scores of job demands of officers who work the day shift ( $M = 35.28$ ,  $SD = 6.696$ ,  $N = 64$ ) and officers who work other shifts ( $M = 32.52$ ,  $SD = 6.252$ ,  $N = 42$ );  $t(104) = 2.128$ ,  $p = .036$ , two tailed (see table 18). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 2.757, 95% CI: .188 to 5.327) was small (eta squared = .042).
3. There was a significant difference for the scores of work pressure of officers who work the day shift ( $M = 13$ ,  $SD = 3.673$ ,  $N = 64$ ) and officers who work other shifts ( $M = 10.07$ ,  $SD = 3.173$ ,  $N = 42$ );  $t(104) = 4.232$ ,  $p < .001$ , two tailed (see table 18). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 2.929, 95% CI: 1.556 to 4.301) was large (eta squared = .147).

These results show that the levels of exhaustion are significantly higher for officers who work the day shift than for officers who work other shifts (small effect), job demands are significantly higher for officers who work the day shift than for officers who work other shifts (small effect), work pressure is significantly higher for officers who work the day shift than for officers who work other shifts (large effect). Table 18 displays these results.

**Table 18. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Officers Who Work Day Shift and Officers Who Work Other Shifts.**

	Category		Day Shift			Other Shifts			<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
1	Dependent Variable	<i>Employee Exhaustion</i>	63	11.05	2.082	42	9.98	2.984	2.022	.047*
2	Independent Variable	<i>Job Demands</i>	64	35.28	6.696	42	32.52	6.252	2.128	.036*
3	Independent Variable	<i>Work Pressure</i>	64	13.00	3.673	42	10.07	3.173	4.232	.001***

Levene's test for equal variances was significant for exhaustion, all others assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Independent Samples *t*-test – Field Setting and Institution**

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare independent variables for officers who work in field settings and officers who work in institutions. Dummy coding was used to create a variable that has two possible answers, 1 = field setting, or, 2 = institution (see Appendix XIII).

There was a significantly higher difference for the scores of work pressure of officers who work in field settings (field probation and youth parole) ( $M = 12.98$ ,  $SD = 3.681$ ,  $N = 48$ ) than for officers who work in institutions (youth camp and detention) ( $M = 10.05$ ,  $SD = 3.258$ ,  $N = 22$ );  $t(68) = 3.204$ ,  $p = .002$ , two tailed (see table 19). The magnitude of the differences in the means (means difference = 2.934, 95% CI: 1.107 to 4.761) was moderate (eta squared = .131). These results show that the levels of work pressure are significantly higher for officers who work in the field setting than for officers who work in an institution (large effect). Table 19 displays these results.

**Table 19. *t*-tests for Mean Scores on Interval-Ratio Variables, Between Officers Who Work in the Field and Officers Who Work in Institutions.**

Category			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1	Independent Variable	<i>Work Pressure</i>	48	12.98	3.681	22	10.05	3.258	3.204	.002**

Work pressure assumed unequal variances.

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

### **Semi-Structured Interviews**

Out of eight potential participants, seven participated ( $n=7$ ) in the semi-structured interviews. Participants consisted of assistant managers, managers, assistant directors, and directors. The interviews were conducted in a period of two weeks. A content analysis of the text was separated into independent variables and dependent variables (first cycle coding), and each variable was further separated into two categories (second cycle coding), current climate and management ideas. “Current climate” is associated with the way that things are currently operating in the organization. “Management ideas” are general ideas that top level management has about how things should operate, how things should improve, or other ideas about the variable. Table 20 provides a breakdown of the amount of times participants referenced/mentioned variables based on results from NVivo Data Analysis Software.

**Table 20. Summary of Interviews - Each Time a Participant Discusses a Variable.**

	Variables	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4	Participant 5	Participant 6	Participant 7	Total
<i>Job Resources</i>	Autonomy	1	0	1	1	3	2	0	8
	Feedback	5	6	4	1	0	2	3	21
	Opportunities for Professional Development	3	5	5	1	5	1	1	21
	Social Support	3	3	3	4	5	4	1	23
	Supervisory Coaching	10	7	5	5	10	12	2	51
	Total	22	21	18	12	23	21	7	124
<i>Personal Resources</i>	Self-Efficacy	0	4	4	0	5	5	1	19
<i>Job Demands</i>	Emotional Demands	0	4	2	6	4	0	1	17
	Work Pressure	5	6	1	5	7	2	2	28
	Total	5	10	3	11	11	2	3	45
<i>Employee Engagement</i>		1	3	3	4	2	0	3	16
<i>Exhaustion</i>		1	9	7	5	7	5	2	36
<i>Total</i>		29	47	35	32	48	33	16	240

Data analysis was facilitated using NVivo data analysis Software; QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 11, 2014. The following is a breakdown of the results by variable: work pressure, emotional demands, social support, autonomy, feedback, opportunities for professional development, supervisory coaching, employee engagement, exhaustion, and general ideas that managers presented during the interviews. By doing this the research tried to determine if there were patterns across participant responses.

## **Work Pressure**

Work pressure is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of exhaustion. Petrou et al. (2012) define work pressure as “quantitative demanding aspects of a job” (p. 33). The following section demonstrates how top level managers perceive the level of pressure facing juvenile probation officers and juvenile parole officers (see Table 21). Top level managers highlighted what officers do each day and explained how officers’ work and manage with emotionally charged situations. They also indicated that officers work long hours, are required to have good multitasking skills, and manage requests from multiple entities such as the courts, mental health therapists, schools, and families. In addition, they face constant changes to their role of a juvenile probation and juvenile parole officer, they could be doing social work one minute and law enforcement duties the next minute.

**Table 21. Work Pressure Interview Results.**

<b>Work Pressure - Current Climate</b>	
Participant Two	<p>[Discussing what probation officers do at the youth camp] wait until they're up and get them rolling. Have them fold their sheets and blankets. Kids brush their teeth, get them ready for breakfast and have them sit in the television area. Get them going to breakfast and make sure they're aware with what's going on with the kids.</p> <p>I've always said that about <b>our supervisors, they wear so many hats</b>. They're <b>disciplinarians</b>, they're <b>role models</b>, they're <b>mentors</b>, they're <b>teachers</b>, they're <b>counselors</b>, they do so much and that's where I'd hope our frontline staff would be able to go to a supervisor and explain to them what's happening if you feel comfortable and confident that's what your supervisor should do.</p>
Participant Four	<p>[Talking about probation officers in a field setting] <b>They wear a tremendous amount of hats</b>, from attending court hearings, providing testimony to the court, writing court reports on youthful offenders who have been arrested and are going through the court process or who have already been adjudicated; they also make recommendations for sentencing.</p>
Participant Five	<p>[Talking about probation officers in an institution setting] <b>You're basically almost living with the youth</b> since you're there your whole shift. Trying to program them and help them.</p> <p>Sometimes the leadership support isn't there and <b>expectations are unrealistic</b> and then your job performance or the product that you get out of the probation officer is very poor.</p> <p>The court tries to be his boss, and the district attorney, and the public defender, and the therapeutic person assigned, and the probation officer has all these people who make decisions and expect him to carry them out. <b>There aren't many jobs that someone has that many quasi bosses, so it becomes very difficult.</b></p>
Participant Six	<p>They see us [as], quasi social workers, quasi officers, quasi transport guys, quasi institutional guys, I mean <b>we got so many different roles and so many different hats it hurts.</b></p>
<b>Work Pressure - Management Ideas</b>	
Participant Two	<p>It's not always easy because <b>there are a lot of demands on our supervisors</b> to, you know, find scheduling and deal with out-of-control youth, but you know, we encourage them to do one to ones.</p>
Participant Five	<p>The bad thing about working too much is you're pretty effective with an eight-hour work day and <b>people that go ahead and work an extra two or three or one hour after their normal work hours are not effective during that time.</b></p> <p>You know we're not going to give you any new cases for a while, or I'll help you for a while or I'll help you get your closures done or something. <b>Being able to reduce some stress</b> and realistically sometimes it's just the appearance that you're reducing the stress but if the person feels that is a help then that is a win but if you can, you know, take them out of a case rotation or reduce their workload in some way.</p> <p>For the most part we're, right now, currently in our community, we're kind of in a happy place in some ways because <b>our referrals are dropping significantly which reduces the stress load a little bit.</b></p>
Participant Seven	<p>We need to enforce our conditions of parole so we can not only protect the child but protect the community and I think the officers do it well, <b>at times very frustrating but they do it well.</b></p>

## Emotional Demands

Emotional demands is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of Exhaustion. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) define emotional demands as the qualitative demanding aspects of a job. The following section demonstrates how top level managers perceive the level of emotional demands of juvenile probation/parole officers (see Table 22). Top level managers indicate that juvenile probation and juvenile parole officers work in stressful situations; they deal with highly agitated youth and families, write incident reports, and report detailed observations. They also work in crisis situations involving youth, schools, and families. There is a high amount of emotional information going through officers each day. Managers also spoke about fatigue and how officers place emotional attachment to cases they work with, oftentimes for months at a time.

**Table 22. Emotional Demands Interview Results.**

Participant Two	<p>[Officers work with] Youth [who] have just been arrested, so there's a lot of stress with that, and <b>our staff have to deal with that and try to deescalate them</b>, and in negative circumstance that might arise from that.</p> <p>It is incident reports, and observations, and dealing with youth that are <b>highly agitated</b>, and <b>hostile</b> to the point where they have to go hands on and then, you know, unfortunately, going hands on, <b>on occasions can be very stressful for our staff</b>.</p>
Participant Four	<p>They deal with <b>crisis</b> from schools, from families, from home life, from wherever the child may be.</p> <p>It's the case management of how to handle <b>crisis intervention</b>, because the most difficult thing that all of our officers do is the <b>emotional stress</b> and <b>ups and downs of crisis intervention</b>.</p> <p>The field officer who is on the front line engaging with families and kids has the <b>emotional fatigue</b> of getting, generally, professionally attached to a case, but there is no doubt when you are dealing with <b>human emotions</b>, and <b>human crisis</b>, and <b>trauma</b> that you have some personal engagement.</p> <p>We engage with these families for six months, nine months, twelve months of probation, but the reality is <b>we deal with some of these families over and over again</b>.</p>
Participant Five	<p>You know emergencies are never planned. They come up. <b>Sometimes the work is very.... complicated and difficult</b>.</p> <p>So you're always dealing with youth that are in a <b>low level crisis</b> or recovering from a low level crisis, so there's a lot of <b>emotional fatigue</b>.</p>

## **Social Support**

Social support is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of job resources. Bakker (2011) explains that “social support” is an employee having social support from colleagues and supervisors. Top-level managers talked about social support juvenile probation officers and juvenile parole officers receive. Development of emotional support begins in the peace officer academy where they establish friendships. This type of support includes having supervisors, assistant managers, and managers discuss work expectations, rules, and guidelines. Managers spoke about job shadowing and the important information and experience which is passed along through co-workers when job shadowing takes place. In addition, juvenile parole have a field training officer program and juvenile probation managers indicated their organization is working towards implementing such a program in the near future. Employees can participate in committees to help with employee morale, committees that coordinate employee reunions, facilitate surprise employee meals, and sometimes provide environments in which employees can catch up with old friends and take their minds off of their daily routines (see Table 23).



**Table 23. Social Support Interview Results.**

<b>Social Support – Current Climate</b>	
Participant Three	<p>The <b>family reunion</b>, where the employees are invited to come out and spend a day outside of work and kind of let your hair down and kind of get away from work and <b>socialize with each other</b>.</p> <p>The department ...has <b>bake sales</b> where we have the opportunity to come and have a little bake sale, you know, <b>meal with someone you haven't worked with for a while and sit down and have a little lunch with somebody</b>.</p>
Participant Four	<p>I think they learn more of the job when <b>job shadowing</b>. When they come to probation they shadow a fellow officer and see what...how that officer operates a case load and they'll shadow probably multiple officers... I think some of the <b>story telling</b> and how they handled things or how they didn't handle things is how they learned the most, and probably <b>reduces some of the stress when you get to talk with other people</b>.</p> <p>I know certain units do <b>birthdays</b> and their partner is responsible for setting up the birthday event or whatever, but I think <b>a lot of this profession has peer-to-peer counseling, peer-to-peer coaching</b>.</p>
Participant Six	<p>Part of the beauty of the academy is, me and you go to an academy together and then we're <b>lifelong friends</b> whether or not we, are actually friends, but we have some connection to being rookies here and <b>having the same fears and the same challenges and the same experiences</b>.</p>
Participant Seven	<p>Well each new officer is assigned a field training officer, who has the manual, and they <b>continuously teach</b> from that manual and they direct report to the <b>field training officer</b>.</p>
<b>Social Support - Management Ideas</b>	
Participant One	<p>[Discussing the implemenetation of a field training officer program]...so I think we are in the initial stages, but it's moving forward so we're going to <b>take some of our more seasoned probation officers and do a natural FTO program</b>.</p> <p><b>I do encourage peers to talk to their coworkers</b>.</p>
Participant Three	<p>Being able to be more <b>open minded</b> and more willing to <b>share frustrations</b> with each other at the peer level and not be ostracized because you have a different opinion is important.</p>
Participant Five	<p>Hopefully building a group of people with <b>a common focus and common orientation</b> on what's important in a job, then also having <b>mentoring opportunities</b></p>

## Feedback

Feedback is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of job resources. Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) explain that “feedback” is an employee obtaining information about his/her job performance. Top-level managers spoke of different ways in which they provide feedback to their employees (see Table 24). They explain how they have one-to-one counseling meetings with their employees and go over performance reviews/evaluations. Top-level managers also

discussed the importance of meeting with staff to chat about their performance, asking them what they need to perform better, and getting a general feel for what the officer might be going through. They provided many examples of how they provide feedback to their employees, especially when improvement is needed.

**Table 24. Feedback Interview Results.**

<b>Feedback – Current Climate</b>	
Participant One	You know, <b>supervisors meet with them</b> , at least, at the minimum monthly to go over the progress.  They go over their <b>evaluation</b> because they got some preset goals they got to meet for the year that would be part of their evaluation process, and then they have their <b>monthly goals written down by their supervisors</b> , so the supervisors should be going over them.
Participant Two	You know that one to one time is that opportunity for them to engage with their staff <b>to see how things are going and to check in with them</b> and then yes, <b>talk about expectations</b> that you have and all that but I think the real benefit of on- to-ones is to allow the staff to feel like they have a say so and day <b>in and day out on a month-to-month, week-to-week basis</b> .
Participant Seven	With their field training officer and their unit manager meet on a <b>weekly basis</b> and see where they're at. When you're a new <b>officer you get an evaluation</b> in three months, and seven months, and eleven months.
<b>Feedback – Management Ideas</b>	
Participant Two	In addressing those things, there are times when I and the manager had to call in staff and let them know that there's some things that we have some concerns about and we <b>want to make sure that we are providing them everything they need to be successful</b> .
Participant Five	I expect myself to do, as well as supervisors to do, is <b>communicate in person with the officer to try to motivate them or see what's going on</b> .

## Supervisory Coaching

Supervisory coaching is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of job resources. According to Tordera, Gonzalez-Roma, and Peiro (2008) supervisory coaching refers to quality relationships between supervisors and subordinates which include high levels of resources and support. Top level managers spoke about their supervisory style and how they coach their staff

(see Table 25 and Table 26). They discussed how they talk to employees in order to check in with them and talk with peers and/or clients to get a feel for how employees are doing. They make sure that employees feel appreciated, supported, and valued. They discussed how they provide guidance to new officers, the importance of knowing when an employee has a lot on his/her plate, and giving employees the opportunities, resources, and training they need to improve.

**Table 25. Supervisory Coaching Interview Results.**

<b>Supervisory Coaching – Current Climate</b>	
Participant One	<p>So during the training, managers and assistant directors and directors <b>go over there and talk about what our goals are.</b></p> <p>You <b>sit down with them</b>, and <b>talk with them</b> about what my expectations are, and what we expect from them, and then the supervisor sits down with them, talks with them, and <b>goes over the policies and procedures.</b></p> <p>You talk with them, you talk with their peers, you talk with the kids and you talk to the supervisors. You look at the incident reports that are coming through and, like for me, I like <b>to have a little bit of a personal relationship</b>, kind of a <b>little bit of understanding of what’s going on.</b></p> <p>Make <b>sure they’re appreciated and supported</b>... It’s a bigger picture than just an employee not doing their job but obviously you will want to talk to the employee, want their peers to hopefully, you know, <b>to build that teamwork they have those relationships where they talk to each other.</b></p>
Participant Two	<p>[The] last day [of the academy] is with myself and the manager and we <b>go over specific policies and procedures and directives.</b> There’s a lot of them, but we want to make sure we touch upon the ones that are extremely important and crucial for their initial starting to this department.</p> <p><b>Engaging them in getting to know that we care about them.</b> We want them to <b>succeed.</b> We want them to work in a <b>comfortable environment</b>... Letting him know that <b>I am here to help you.</b> I am <b>here to support you.</b></p> <p>Either the employee can come to the supervisor or the supervisor recognizes that this employee has a lot on their plate and their job performance is starting to suffer and then the <b>supervisor goes and talks to that individual</b> and says, ‘Hey. I know what our expectations are but I’m here to <b>support</b> you and <b>help you.</b> So what is it you need from me to help.’</p>
Participant Three	<p>I give them <b>remedial training</b>, when necessary, <b>constant feedback</b>, being <b>available</b>, making sure they have the opportunity to come to you and then giving them opportunities and time to make the improvements, before we start, employment improvement plans or reassignments or even looking at discipline, just <b>making sure that the employee is clear about the expectations.</b></p> <p><b>Giving them the skills and the training they need to be successful</b> and then giving them the time and the patience to do so.</p> <p>I would <b>suggest that he takes a vacation</b> and take some time off work and you know renew or rejuvenate and try to get that back.</p>
Participant Four	<p>I rely a lot on my supervisors who witness the interaction and <b>intense staffing cases one-on-one.</b></p> <p>[Supervisors exist to] <b>teach, train, and support.</b></p>
Participant Five	<p>I kind of think <b>it takes three years to learn any job</b> and to get good at it.</p> <p>Staff knew that <b>I wouldn’t ask them to do something I wouldn’t do.</b></p>
Participant Six	<p>When guys <b>aren’t performing well we’re going to coach them, counsel them, go through progressive discipline.</b></p> <p>[I will] try to put them in a position where they will be <b>successful.</b></p>

**Table 26. Supervisory Coaching Interview Results – Management Ideas.**

<b>Supervisory Coaching – Management Ideas</b>	
Participant One	You know I think sometimes we write our studs and our superstars, and you know, we fail to understand they need that <b>positive reinforcement</b> , that encouragement and that to let them know that <b>they’re appreciated</b> , and you know it could be something as little as <b>taking them out to lunch</b> .
Participant Two	We can’t change the environment of detention because I thought a lot about that and I thought, hey... its <b>barbed wire</b> , it’s <b>razor wired</b> , it’s <b>fenced line</b> and it’s <b>concrete</b> , about the attitudes of the individuals that work for us is something that I hope our supervisors and myself and the manager do as much as we can to <b>let them know that they are appreciated</b> .
Participant Four	[When officers think] ‘Hey. I’m starting to get <b>burned out</b> . I’m <b>tired of dealing with other people’s problems...</b> ’ I think that’s where you’ll engage the parent-to-peer interaction and try to be <b>supportive, coaching and encouraging</b> .
Participant Five	Supervisors are supposed to do one on one counseling with their new employees to <b>ensure that growth is taking place</b> .  Good supervisors need to be <b>attuned to special talents that their new staff might have</b> and help nurture those things.  [It is important to] identify and provide the <b>additional training and guidance</b> .  Sometimes [while working under] bad leadership and bad supervision and management [it] can take a number of years before the staff that worked under that begin to come out, and yet you hope <b>that the good leadership, good management, good supervision has a protective kind of ability to help that staff become a little more resilient</b> .
Participant Six	I’m the <b>least important part of this entire job</b> and I know it.  <b>My job is to help</b> get the obstacles out of your way.

## **Autonomy**

Autonomy is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of job resources. Petrou et al. (2012) define autonomy as “employee control over task execution” (p. 33). Top level managers spoke about the importance of autonomy for probation and parole officers (see Table 27). New officers were discussed and ways they assess how well they are performing. Managers interviewed pay attention at how new officers handle themselves when faced with difficult situations, how they engage youth, and whether or not they require constant supervision. They believe that officers should be able to think on their feet, and be able to explain why they make decisions. The

importance of empowering supervisors to make decisions and the importance of them not being fearful of making a mistake was also discussed.

**Table 27. Autonomy Interview Results.**

Participant Three	If a new officer is observed <b>being active, being a sponge</b> , progressing forward in his role. <b>Doesn't require a lot of supervision</b> , seems to be able to <b>grasp concepts quickly</b> , is <b>motivated</b> and can <b>establish very healthy relationships with kids</b> , where you see the kids are <b>receptive</b> , very <b>conscious</b> of safety and supervision.
Participant Five	I think the officer that is able <b>to think on his feet</b> and <b>make a decision</b> , even sometimes when the decision is wrong, but they <b>can tell you why they made it</b> .  <b>I'm there for them</b> and so I think that <b>teaching</b> them or <b>allowing</b> them to make decisions instead of the fear if they make a decision they're going to be in trouble instead of hey, I'm going to make a decision. Hey, did I make a right one or what do I need to do next time.
Participant Six	You talk to the supervisors of your organization and <b>you support them in their power and you tell them to go make their decisions without fear</b> that they're making a mistake. You can't be fearful to make a mistake.

## Opportunities for Professional Development

Opportunities for Professional Development is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of job resources. According to Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a), opportunities for professional development take place when the organization provides the employee with opportunities to learn new things. Top level managers discussed in detail the importance of providing staff with the option to move from one department to another, noting that having this option provides a way for them to move and have variation in work (see Table 28). They also talked about how they provide both new and seasoned officers with opportunities to develop themselves. Managers discussed talking with staff and asking what training they might want. Juvenile probation is looking at developing a dedicated training unit in order to provide quality training to their employees; other managers discussed the importance of having a good variety of training (not

have employees work on the same training each year). According to managers, training should be realistic, there should be more training required each year (around 40 hours versus 20 hours), and there should be an increased effort in identifying employee strong points.

**Table 28. Opportunities for Professional Development Interview Results.**

<b>Opportunities for Professional Development – Current Climate</b>	
Participant Five	<p>[Staff] have the opportunity to move on to other parts of the department if they choose to <b>transfer</b> to probation or the youth camp.</p> <p>They always grow, but that first year is part of that <b>promotion process</b> but we hope that the formal process of promotion is accompanied with the informal process, which is <b>opportunities for training, and nurturing, and being supportive.</b></p>
Participant Seven	<p>I will give you the <b>opportunity to develop</b> your own goals whether you're a new officer or whether you're an experienced officer</p>
<b>Opportunities for Professional Development – Management Ideas</b>	
Participant One	<p>What training would you need and what education? What we need to do a better job, and involving them in the process as well, talking to them, getting them, <b>education, training.</b></p> <p>You know <b>having a training unit would be a big one.</b> That way you can really get the most out of people if you had a little bit more specific training that really is more job focused.</p>
Participant Three	<p>So I think having another <b>opportunity to work in a different capacity</b> doesn't necessarily mean they have to promote. I think also training, being more realistic with the training. <b>Not having the same thing each year, every year.</b></p> <p>I think sometimes <b>people need a change</b> and they need new peers, they need a new supervisor, they need new challenges, they need new responsibilities. Sometimes that works.</p>
Participant Five	<p>Well, hopefully their managers and administrators and supervisors are <b>helping them identify talents and encouraging them and supporting them and giving them an opportunity to learn new skills</b> and develop personal growth and then if those workers are confident, you know, and feel that they finally have the skill and ability they're encouraged to go through the promotion process.</p>
Participant Six	<p>If I had a budget I'd probably <b>increase the training requirement to 40 hours</b> so 20 hours of mandated and then 20 hours, almost like in high school where you had electives and college where you had electives and you could say, 'you know I'm not interested so much in learning about gangs. That's not my thing but I'd really love to learn about this personality indexing.'</p>

## Self-Efficacy

Self efficacy is used in the JD-R theory as a predictor of personal resources. Chen et al. (2001) defined self-efficacy as an individual's perceptions of his/her ability to meet demands in a broad array of contexts. Top level managers explained how officers should be engaging clients, be comfortable when making decisions, have high confidence in what they are doing, and have a vision of where they are going with the department (see Table 29). They also explained how new officers are sometimes not sure of themselves in the beginning, and how a negative type of officer is the type that lays back, kicks his/her feet on a desk, and doesn't contribute to the team.

**Table 29. Self Efficacy Interview Results.**

Participant Two	Are they [employees] engaging our clients? Or are they just laying back and kicking their feet up on the desk and not doing much of anything.
Participant Five	<p>Most new officers are actually kind of timid and not sure of themselves and as you see them grow and develop you see them become <b>more comfortable and sure in the decisions that they make.</b></p> <p>Again, I think that probation <b>officers that don't do well have higher stress levels</b> and maybe that has to do with their <b>feelings towards their confidence</b> in doing their job so a lot of times just in interacting with the officer you can see if they're comfortable, if they have confidence. You know some <b>officers that don't have confidence, they make more mistakes</b> or they're too <b>timid in making decisions</b> and <b>sometimes they make a decision by not making a decision</b> and just allowing something to move forward instead of getting involved and solving the problem.</p>
Participant Six	<b>Solid people that make good decisions, that care,</b> that have a <b>vision</b> for where they'd like to see their agency go and would like to hopefully someday be sitting here running the ship.

## Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of employee performance. Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than



a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior” (pp. 4-5). According to top level management, engaged employees do well with youth, enjoy their jobs, and have a pleasant attitude while at work. In addition, engaged employees are upbeat, don’t complain much, work with families to provide them resources, and find solutions to problems. Top level managers identified engaged employees as the ones who outperform other employees, are receptive to feedback, acknowledge when they make mistakes, have integrity, demonstrate professionalism, and do their jobs for the right reasons (see Table 30). They also discussed how engaged employees are team players, go outside of the norm, are not afraid to pick up the slack, are go getters, and are generally hard workers. Finally, top level management explained that engaged employees volunteer, are solutions oriented, and see the big picture.

**Table 30. Employee Engagement Interview Results.**

<b>Employee Engagement – Current Climate</b>	
Participant One	A superstar employee to me is one that <b>really engages</b> with the kids, enjoys their job, comes to work with a smile on their face and is <b>consistent</b> .
Participant Two	<p>Someone who has a <b>positive attitude, upbeat, doesn't complain</b>, meets all the expectations and exceeds those expectations.</p> <p>As I mentioned observations that we require, the in-custody program that we require, sight and sound supervision, positioning, their engaging of youth, their engaging of the families. They're doing everything they can to work with our families and provide them with all the resources. They can be successful. They're <b>engaged in the department</b>. They just have a positive go getter attitude. <b>When they see something is amiss or something that needs to be done they find a solution to it and they just do it.</b></p>
Participant Three	[They] Are the ones that are doing the work and <b>taking care of business</b> , are <b>running circles around</b> them, so they're the ones that are consistent and do like to program, like to be <b>receptive to feedback</b> , are the ones that will come and self-report which identifies a superstar right there, and are <b>not afraid</b> to acknowledge the fact that they made a mistake and come in there and be <b>upfront and honest</b> and say, 'I made a mistake and this is what I did but this is how I can fix it and it won't happen again.' I recognize superstars by their <b>integrity</b> , their <b>professionalism</b> , the fact that they are go getters and that they do the job for the right reason and they don't expect any accolades or pat on the back. They do it because they love it. They go outside of their norm. They know what it is to be a <b>team member</b> . They <b>go outside of their norm</b> to try to bring other people in. They're not afraid to <b>take up the slack from their peers</b> who are not doing the work. They just are <b>extremely hard workers</b> .
Participant Four	<b>Positive people who are solution oriented</b> ... They don't come to you with the problem. They come to you referencing a problem and how they've got a solution... They're willing to step and help and if somebody goes out sick or on annual leave and they just <b>unselfishly pick up slack</b> . They continually are willing to <b>volunteer</b> or they just do it... and they don't do it for the glory but do it to help kids and families and to help their peers and are... <b>intrinsically motivated</b> .
Participant Five	<p>[They] are <b>willing to ask questions</b> and learn and they want to do that and... they <b>make decisions and can explain why they made them</b>.</p> <p>[A superstar employee] is a worker that is <b>able to make a mistake</b>, accept the responsibility, <b>identify</b> how come they got in that situation and then learn from that. That is a superstar. I mean there is a barrier to growth and performance when somebody doesn't take responsibility for the work, good or bad.</p>
Participant Seven	A superstar <b>sees the big picture</b> , just not how it affects them. How does it affect the agency?

## Exhaustion

Exhaustion is used in the JD-R Theory as a predictor of employee performance.

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), exhaustion refers to employees no longer being able to give themselves at a psychological level because their emotional resources have been depleted (p. 99). Table 31 and Table 32 demonstrate how top level managers perceive exhaustion in their

work-setting. According to top level managers, exhausted employees are withdrawn, quiet, do not engage youth or their families, and are not motivated to develop their careers. In addition, top-level managers recognize there might be other factors outside of work that might contribute to employee exhaustion. They talk about identifying some of the signs that an employee is exhausted, such as the use of sick leave, attitude, work product, and possible medical problems. Managers usually try to persuade employees to take time off, seek help, refer them to employee assistance programs, and counsel them.

**Table 31. Exhaustion Interview Results.**

<b>Exhaustion – Current Climate</b>	
Participant Two	<p>They're very <b>withdrawn</b>, very <b>quiet</b>. You can't even get them to say hello and so picking up on those cues. The other thing I noticed too was their peers. Their peers would come and inform me, 'Hey, I don't know what's going on with so and so but the last few days he's been very <b>short with the kids</b>.' He stays in the areas all day long and doesn't do any programming, <b>not paying attention</b> and <b>disappears</b> and leaves me alone for an extended period of time.</p> <p>When you're getting with a kid who knows that their parents rejected them then it's difficult for a kid to be in a positive place in terms of psychologically, and our staff are engaged in it, and they're getting resistance and that <b>cycle of negativity</b>, and it just starts to <b>drain our staff</b>, and then when it happens on a day-to-day basis, then you start to see the <b>burnout</b>. Run to <b>exhaustion</b>. You run into staff being <b>disengaged</b>.</p>
Participant Three	<p>Staff with fifteen to twenty years in, and they are <b>not motivated</b> to develop their careers. <b>Not interested</b> in supervision, not interested in being part of a committee. I mean not even interested in going to a department holiday.</p>
Participant Seven	<p>A lot of factors and they could have a lot of conflicting challenges outside the office... So if you have <b>problems at home</b>, you have problems outside this office you're going to bring them here but I guess when you look in here you're going to <b>decline in performance</b> and just not on paper but just physically you can recognize the change in somebody's appearance.</p>

**Table 32. Exhaustion Interview Results – Management Ideas.**

<b>Exhaustion – Management Ideas</b>	
Participant Two	<p>Trying to have our staff remain positive and focused and motivated and engaging is I think the biggest challenge we face and that's where I think some of them, you know, can <b>get run down and run into that mode of exhaustion or burnout</b> I would say.</p> <p>I had a child...you know having a kid, you know, the first 6 months they don't sleep so <b>I was exhausted</b> and coming to work exhausted, and <b>it wasn't exhausted because of work. I was exhausted for something else.</b></p> <p>Seeing how our work is being divided, by <b>having more officers</b>, would alleviate some of that <b>workload to where there wasn't so much staff working so much overtime. They're burning out. They're staying away from their families.</b></p>
Participant Three	<p>Whether they still have that desire to come to work every day.</p> <p>Someone working in that kind of state can be a <b>hazard not only to himself or herself but also to the peers and to the youth...</b> I think one of the things that's a <b>red flag</b> for me is excess of their sick leave use.</p>
Participant Four	<p>You're going to sense through their work product, their attitude, and a significant change in their demeanor, mannerisms, even if they don't tell you verbally that's how you know if they're <b>exhausted... We all get burned out.</b></p> <p>[They] need to take a week, take two weeks off. We get plenty of annual leave in this position. They need to use it to <b>decompress and tune out.</b></p>
Participant Five	<p>They will begin to <b>not make deadlines</b> or miss appointments or sometimes they don't appear to be here.</p> <p>One thing you see when that <b>exhaustion</b> has become severe is the <b>medical aspects of it.</b></p> <p>Once they are moving toward that exhausted state they <b>can't make that decision anymore.</b> Sometimes they <b>become fearful.</b></p> <p>[For exhausted employees] sometimes <b>relationships suffer</b>, work relationships and outside relationships suffer, and sometimes... <b>performance issues</b> begin to suffer.</p> <p>[When discussing a study that was conducted] she had done interviews with EMT's and policemen and firemen... What came out of the interviews was that <b>the most stressful kind of case</b> that they could roll on or be involved in was something with a <b>hurt child</b> and when you think about it, <b>all juvenile probation and parole officers do is deal with hurt children.</b></p> <p>So it actually is kind of a <b>slow motion, lifeguard job</b> if you think, you know pulling the kid out of a delinquent lifestyle is like pulling a kid out of water that is drowning. But again you know he doesn't drown. <b>He didn't know you saved him and you know it takes a while to figure out ten years down the line that, you know, that it's a good thing that you did.</b></p>
Participant Six	<p>The <b>institutions where I think our burnout is the highest.</b></p> <p>So I think there's a lot of <b>pain associated</b> with this classification of job that <b>a lot of us refuse to recognize.</b> It manifests itself through minor things. If we make bad decisions at work, we get frustrated.</p> <p>Because how many people that we know that are negative or angry or exhausted and then do the same thing every day and they're not going to change because <b>their misery is like the motivation that they need to breathe.</b></p>

## Other Interview Results

Top level managers discussed other subjects during the interview process. They discussed performance, pay, training, and some programs they would like to see implemented (see Table 33). In addition, they discussed employee mental health, community resources, and the promotion process.

**Table 33. Other Interview Results.**

Participant One	<p>It's <b>not about performance</b> which I kind of disagree with, so how do we do it? We do what we've agreed with, with the unions, is that they would turn in an application and at that point they would take a test... So I wish we could add performance because some people don't interview as well.</p> <p>You know, maybe <b>looking at more psychological and psychiatric care for these kids</b> because there is really nothing here for that.</p>
Participant Two	<p>Getting the community to allowing to have more resources in terms of <b>cognitive behavior therapy</b>, you know, of <b>family empowerment, educational therapy, tutors, unlimited tutors, a tutor for every kid in the detention, a tutor for every kid at the youth camp, family help.</b></p> <p><b>We have a mental health team for our kids but having it for our staff would be great as well.</b></p>
Participant Three	<p>I'd like to have <b>team building</b> be unit based... Employee assigned to one unit would have the opportunity to leave the detention environment and go on a two or three-day retreat and be involved in team building activities to truly build a team and then those <b>guys will come back and be able to work together.</b></p> <p>When I first started here we did have a <b>pay for performance evaluation system</b>. If I had the power, I would bring it back. I absolutely agree... I think that you should be <b>getting compensated for the work that you contribute to the department</b> and I don't think everybody should get paid the same thing.</p> <p><b>It's worth the money and the resources and in trying to identify why we lose officers</b>, why they lose motivation and, try to create some opportunities for them to be involved in.</p>
Participant Four	<p>Have a better system here in the state as well as probably have more, <b>more fiscal resources for the services</b> that we want... at the juvenile justice level I mean those would be huge as well as having true <b>vocational programming.</b></p>
Participant Six	<p>I wish there were more <b>objective criteria</b> on which we could base it on an <b>officer's performance</b>... I wish it was <b>solely based on performance plus interview plus some testing.</b></p> <p>I'd open an <b>assessment center</b> [ for youth] <b>tomorrow.</b></p> <p>You know I believe in my heart that we have the <b>best team here, period</b>, that I've ever worked with in my career, period, bar none and we have some of the most <b>committed, excellent, smart, bright people here that will, I mean I'd love to put them toe to toe against any division, any place that I've ever worked.</b></p>
Participant Seven	<p>I would just love to have more of a community outreach program, <b>get the community more involved.</b></p>

## **Summary**

This chapter presented the findings in which the researcher explored job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. The online survey consisted of a JD-R questionnaire in which 106 juvenile probation/parole officers participated, in addition to including in-person semi-structured interviews which consisted of 14 questions in which seven top level managers from both juvenile justice agencies participated. This chapter presented (a) a description of study participants; (b) a discussion of the findings for each research question; (c) additional analyses; and (d) a summary of semi-structured interview findings. The next chapter provides a summary, discussion, implications, recommendations for future research, and conclusions.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In the preceding chapter, the results of the study were reported. This chapter consists of (a) summary of the study; (b) discussion of quantitative findings; (c) discussion of interview findings; (d) implications for practice, (e) recommendations for future study; and (f) conclusions. The purpose of this study was to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers. Following Bakker's (2014) Job Demands Resources Questionnaire this study looked at job resources, personal resources, job demands, and their relationship with employee engagement and exhaustion.

#### **Summary of the Study**

This study presented three research questions:

1. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with work engagement of juvenile probation/parole officers?
2. To what extent are job demands, job resources, and personal resources associated with exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers?
3. Is there a difference in overall employee engagement and exhaustion scores between the probation/parole departments?

The three research questions were answered quantitatively from data obtained from participant questionnaire scores. Question one was answered with the results of a linear multiple regression which used job resources, personal resources, and job demands as independent variables; it used employee engagement as a dependent variable. In order to answer research question two, a linear multiple regression was completed, where job resources, personal

resources, and job demands were used as independent variables and employee exhaustion was used as a dependent variable. Question three was answered by conducting an independent samples *t*-test comparing employee engagement scores of juvenile probation officers with those of juvenile parole officers. Semi-structured interviews helped triangulate and substantiated the quantitative findings.

### **Discussion of the Quantitative Findings**

Similar to Bakker and Demerouti (2012) JD-R Theory, linear multiple regression analysis showed job resources as positively influencing employee engagement. Linear multiple regression analysis also showed job resources negatively influencing employee exhaustion, and job demands positively influencing employee exhaustion. Furthermore, they show that opportunities for professional development and feedback are significant predictors of employee engagement, and work pressure is a significant predictor of exhaustion. The findings of this study are in line with previous research and literature on the JD-R Theory.

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare dependent and independent variables with demographic variables. These *t*-tests found that female and other gendered officers have significantly higher levels of exhaustion (small effect) than males, male officers have significantly higher levels of feedback (small effect), and significantly higher levels of opportunities for professional development (moderate effect) than females and other genders.

Independent samples *t*-tests also found that married officers have significantly higher levels of job demands than officers who are single, divorced, or in domestic partnerships (small effect). Independent samples *t*-tests found that white officers have significantly higher levels of job resources (small effect), feedback (small effect), and supervisory coaching (moderate effect), when compared to officers of other ethnicities/races. Officers who are thinking of leaving



(maybe, probably yes, definitely yes) the organization have significantly lower levels of employee engagement (large effect), significantly higher levels of exhaustion (moderate effect), and significantly lower levels of job resources (moderate effect), when compared to officers who are not thinking of leaving the organization.

Independent samples *t*-tests also found that officers who only work weekdays have significantly lower levels of personal resources (small effect) and have significantly more work pressure (moderate effect) when compared to officers who work other days of the week. Officers who work day shift have significantly higher levels of exhaustion (small effect), have significantly higher levels of job demands (small effect), and have significantly higher levels of work pressure (large effect) than officers who work other shifts. Finally, officers who work in the field setting (field probation and youth parole) have significantly higher levels of work pressure (moderate effect) than do officers who work in institutional settings (detention, youth camp).

### **Discussion of Interview Findings**

Top-level managers discussed at length their thoughts on job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, and employee exhaustion. The variable that was most mentioned was supervisory coaching followed by employee exhaustion. The variables that were least mentioned were employee autonomy followed by employee engagement. Top level managers from both of these juvenile justice agencies are interested in the well-being of their employees, are thinking of ways in which to improve their work environment, and present a strong passion for their work.

Interviews provided context into what could lead to employee exhaustion and what management thinks of engaged employees. Top level managers seem to be aware that there are

exhausted and engaged employees, and overall, they are cognizant of job/personal resources and job demands that could lead to either exhaustion or engagement. They did not mention differences officers might experience by ethnicity/race, gender, work-shift, work-day, work setting (field versus institution), or marital status. Semi-structured interviews provided a different view of juvenile probation and parole officers; they added detail into what the job resources (personal and job) and job demands are for these fields, not only for probation/parole officers and their supervisors, but for top level managers as well.

### **Implications for Practice**

The findings of this study have some implications for juvenile justice practitioners. Juvenile probation/parole officers constantly work in emotional strained and difficult situations. This study shows that for these two juvenile justice agencies, employee engagement is mostly affected by feedback and opportunities for professional development. It is important for employees to know how their work is contributing to the organization, understand the results of their work, and have clear direction of their work objectives. Opportunities for professional development are essential to employee engagement; employees need to be constantly challenged, have opportunity to develop themselves and their strong points, and their work needs to provide an avenue to learn new things.

Opportunities for professional development can be established by changing/streamlining work settings, revamping job roles/expectations, and creating/modifying promotional/lateral opportunities. In addition, managers should work on providing focused, challenging, up to date, innovative, and competent training. Vance (2006) explains that through training, “you help new and current employees acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their jobs,” as, “employees who enhance their skills through training are more likely to engage fully in their

work” (p. 13). Management should focus on developing purposeful work, training, employee competence, self-determination, meaningful work, and help develop a supportive work environment (Geetha, & Mampilly, 2015). When discussing supervisory roles, Geetha and Mampilly (2015) explain that, “supervisors have to be sensitive to the needs of subordinates, be willing, and empathetic listeners, be approachable and understanding, and consequently the subordinates will respond in positive behaviors manifested through loyalty and gratitude” (p. 245). Managers need to know their employees and what drives them, for example, when talking about millennials, Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) argue:

Millennials are likely to be acutely affected by globalization, communication and information technologies, economics, and socialization by very involved parents. They are likely to have different, often broader, perspectives about the world marketplace, supervisor–subordinate relationships, cultural diversity, performance of tasks, and ways that communication and information technologies can be used to enhance organizational performance and to maximize productivity. (p. 235)

This study showed that work pressure had a positive significant relationship with exhaustion. It is important for practitioners to know that feelings of needing to work at speed, having high workloads, feeling the need to meet deadlines, and working under time pressure significantly creates employee exhaustion, more so than emotional demands. Managers mentioned at great length the pressures of their employees dealing with emotion work, but multiple regression analysis showed that emotional demands were not a statistically significant predictor of employee exhaustion, however, work pressure was a significant predictor. Managers discuss the pressure that officers who work in institutions face, independent samples *t*-tests show that officers who work in field settings present significantly higher levels of work pressure. It is

crucial for practitioners to know that job resources are significantly negatively related to exhaustion, meaning that improving job resources significantly decreases exhaustion. Creating a fine balance in the way in which probation cases are assigned to officers might help with levels of high work pressure for officers who work weekdays, dayshift, and in the field setting. In addition, it would be beneficial to determine the minimum, maximum, and optimal number of cases an officer should have, while making sure that officers equally share casework, not only quantitatively but qualitatively as well (as there are cases that require more time and energy than others).

Vance (2006) noted that incentive pay (performance pay) and certain pay-styles might be appropriate for some organizations but not others. Some juvenile justice managers advocate for a different incentive/pay system than the one currently being used. Vance (2006) argued for “competency-based pay,” or the rewarding of “employees not only for mastering job-relevant knowledge and skills, but also for using those abilities to produce results that the organization values” (p. 15).

This study shows that juvenile parole (when compared to juvenile probation) is a system in which its officers have higher work pressure, higher job demands, higher levels of feedback, and higher levels of engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2012) explain that “in all jobs, some challenging demands are needed, because otherwise work engagement may be thwarted and job performance undermined” (p. 8). Practitioners should pay attention to gender differences, in this study, females and “other” genders are more exhausted, receive lower levels of feedback, and have lower levels of opportunities for professional development than males.

It is important for practitioners to know that married officers might experience higher levels of job demands, thus resulting in exhaustion. Fletcher, Pagedar, and Smith (2012) found

that the length of time being married and the presence of children in the home were significant predictors of burnout. White officers, when compared with officers from other ethnicities/races experience higher levels of job resources, feedback, and supervisory coaching. Practitioners should keep in mind that officers who are thinking about leaving the workplace (32 out of 106, 30.18 percent) have lower employee engagement, higher levels of exhaustion, and lower levels of job resources. The results of this study show that officers who work only weekdays have less personal resources and have higher work pressure. These officers might face increased pressure from the multiple contacts they have with various agencies throughout the day, in addition to the potential of increased information to process. Finally, officers who work the day shift experience higher levels of exhaustion, job demands, and work pressure.

Practitioners should work to dissolve these differences, as they affect employee performance. Performing poorly in a juvenile probation or juvenile parole setting might mean the difference between rehabilitating juvenile delinquents, and making sound decisions to keep our community safe. It is a good idea that managers understand and identify these variables (job demands, job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, exhaustion) and implement opportunities for employees to increase their personal resources, increase job resources, and balance job demands. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2012) Job Demands Resources Theory, doing this will increase employee engagement, decrease exhaustion, and improve performance.

### **Recommendations for Future Study**

This study might be useful for scholars who are interested in job burnout, exhaustion, employee engagement, or employee well-being. According to this study, women and officers who identified themselves as “other” gender are significantly more exhausted than their male

counterparts. McCarty and Skogan (2012) found that female police officers reported significantly higher levels of burnout than males. Elliot, Garg, Kuehl, DeFrancesco, and Sleight (2015) found that women police officers were significantly more burned-out, had higher stress, greater fatigue, and more sleep deficit than men. It is important to further study women in law enforcement (non-traditional work) settings and why they show to be more exhausted than men.

Juvenile parole officers presented statistically significant higher employee engagement scores than juvenile probation officers. Parole and probation are similar in nature but have slightly different job demands and job resources. Scholars might further study if this is a trend and try to determine if this difference holds with other parole/probation departments in the United States. Understanding what works to improve employee well-being can better equip managers/leaders with tools necessary to make informed decisions.

While these findings show to be significant, there are many limitations to this study. The study was conducted with just two juvenile justice agencies, the study is a cross sectional sample, the results of multiple linear regressions did not account for a large amount of variance, some of the results of independent samples t-tests had small effects, and the researcher chose what to include in semi-structured interview results. It would be useful to uncover what other factors influence engagement and exhaustion, as there are many other factors that affect employee engagement and exhaustion that are not accounted for in this study.

JD-R research has most often been conducted in Europe's private sector. It is recommended that there be increased research using the JD-R in the public sector, more specifically, in the area of criminal justice. Striving to improve the levels of employee engagement in juvenile justice employees could lead to them providing improved service to

delinquent youth and their families, which might lead to less recidivism and lower rates of youth going on to the adult justice system.

It is recommended that future JD-R research utilize more predictors when looking at personal resources, predictors such as previous education, work/home conflict, optimism, and outside work activity involvement. Different statistical methods should also be used to analyze the JD-R Theory, methods such as structured equation modeling and factor analysis. These methods might provide more clarity of JD-R variables and their relationships with one another. Areas that should be investigated further are job crafting and employee performance, as they are important components of the JD-R theory. In addition to conducting semi-structured interviews with top level management, interviews with employees might provide greater detail of both independent and dependent variables.

Obtaining data from multiple work sectors would be beneficial for this line of research as it would continue to build on research. Comparing adult parole and probation officers with juvenile parole and probation officers might provide a better glimpse of the different levels of stress these careers present. Employee engagement and employee burnout have had much popularity among researchers these past few decades. Conducting longitudinal studies would be of importance as it would provide practitioners with data from multiple points in time, not just a cross sectional sample as this study did. Finally, it would be of importance to take into account not only job resources and personal resources, but environmental resources as well; how political, geographical, cultural, and economic settings might contribute to an employee performing well in an organization.

## **Conclusions**

Criminal Justice organizations work on maintaining and improving community safety in addition to helping (re)habilitate offenders/delinquents. There are human interactions each day, interactions that call for engaged employees. An agency might have the latest technology or methods to reduce crime/delinquency, but if employees are not engaged and are exhausted, there might not be optimal performance. Literature shows that engaged employees are more absorbed, dedicated, innovative, productive, energetic, and provide improved customer service (Bakker, 2011; Harter et al., 2002; Petrou et al., 2012; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Employees come from different walks of life, understanding how to best create an environment which fosters well-being is key. According to Gray and Herr (1998), “the workforce of virtually any industry or work setting is composed of persons who vary widely in their work responsibilities and in the level of skills that they bring to their work” (p. 288). The findings of this study supported and expanded previous work of researchers in the area of employee well-being. Utilizing the JD-R Theory as a theoretical framework provided a way in which job resources, personal resources, and job demands could be used to analyze employee engagement and employee exhaustion. These findings are important, they provide a baseline for future studies in the area, and bring about more questions.

Juvenile probation/parole officers have conflicting roles, keeping the community safe and rehabilitating juvenile delinquents, it is of vital importance that they are engaged in their work. They work with families and youth that are physically and psychologically hurt. Providing them with balanced job demands, enough job resources, and helping them improve their personal resources can make the difference. Engaged employees go beyond the status quo, they are innovators, advocates of change, and oftentimes solve problems that organizations face (Macey



& Schneider, 2008, p. 18). Recently, there has been increased media attention to the criminal justice system and its employees. Burke and Mikkelsen (2005) found that police officers who were burned out had more positive attitudes for using force and a negative attitude towards civilians. Investing money into initiatives which improve engagement makes a difference not only for employees and the organization, but in the case of the public sector, it improves the well-being of the community as well.

## APPENDIX I

### DATA COLLECTION TIMELINE

- November 23, 2015: University of Nevada, Las Vegas Institutional Review Board approval received.
- December 2, 2015 – December 22, 2015: Recruitment e-mails sent by researcher, survey open for participation.
- December 2, 2015 – December 31, 2015: Interviews with juvenile probation and parole leaders.

## APPENDIX II

### SURVEY INFORMED CONSENT



### **SURVEY INFORMED CONSENT** **School of Environmental and Public Affairs**

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**TITLE OF STUDY:** *ANALYZING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB DEMANDS, JOB RESOURCES, AND PERSONAL RESOURCES ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EXHAUSTION OF JUVENILE PROBATION/PAROLE OFFICERS*

**INVESTIGATOR(S):** Dr. Cecilia Maldonado

For questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Dr. Maldonado at (xxx) xxx-xxxx.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at [IRB@unlv.edu](mailto:IRB@unlv.edu)

#### **Purpose of the Study**

You are invited to participate in this research study. The purpose of this study is to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers.

#### **Participants**

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a juvenile probation officer or juvenile parole officer in the state of Nevada.

#### **Procedures**

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

1. Consent to participating in this study.
2. Respond to one qualifying question.
3. Complete the online survey.

The survey will be open for three weeks (end date will be inserted here). The survey will take 15-20 minutes to complete.

### **Benefits of Participation**

There may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study, except for the satisfaction of having contributed. However, we hope to learn how job demands, jobs resources, and personal resources might improve the employee's employee engagement and exhaustion.

### **Risks of Participation**

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks, such as uncertainty or becoming uncomfortable when answering questions. It is unlikely that the participant will experience physical, psychological, or social harm as a result of participating in this study.

### **Cost/Compensation**

There are no financial costs to you to participate in this study. The study will take 15-20 minutes of your time. You will not be compensated for your time.

### **Confidentiality**

All information gathered in this study will be kept as confidential as possible. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for five years after completion of the study. After the storage time, the information gathered will be shredded with university approved shredding machines. Digital data will be stored on a flash drive and destroyed at the conclusion of the five-year period. All emails will be deleted and all data will be de-identified.

### **Voluntary Participation**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

### **Participant Consent**

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have been able to ask questions about the research study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

**By selecting "I agree," I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study.**

- ☐ I agree (*NOTE: participant will be granted access to the online survey at the following link:*  
[https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp](https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp))
- ☐ I disagree and would like to exit the survey. If I exit, I will be unable to take the survey later.

## APPENDIX III

### INTERVIEW INFORMED CONSENT



#### **School of Environmental and Public Affairs**

**TITLE OF STUDY:** ANALYZING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB DEMANDS, JOB RESOURCES, AND PERSONAL RESOURCES ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EXHAUSTION OF JUVENILE PROBATION/PAROLE OFFICERS

**INVESTIGATOR(S):** Dr. Cecilia Maldonado

For questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Dr. Maldonado at (xxx) xxx-xxxx.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu

#### **Purpose of the Study**

You are invited to participate in this research study. The purpose of this study is to explore job demands, job resources, personal resources, and their relationship with the employee engagement and exhaustion of juvenile probation/parole officers.

#### **Participants**

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a juvenile probation officer or juvenile parole officer in the state of Nevada.

#### **Procedures**

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

Consent to participating in one interview.

Agree to be recorded for transcribing purposes.

The interview will take place in person, by telephone, or computer mediated. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes of your time.

#### **Benefits of Participation**

There may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study, except for the satisfaction of having contributed. However, we hope to learn how job demands, jobs resources, and personal resources might improve the employee's employee engagement and exhaustion.

**Risks of Participation**

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks, such as uncertainty or becoming uncomfortable when answering questions. It is unlikely that the participant will experience physical, psychological, or social harm as a result of participating in this study.

**Cost/Compensation**

There are no financial costs to you to participate in this study. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes of your time. You will not be compensated for your time.

**Confidentiality**

All information gathered in this study will be kept as confidential as possible. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for five years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be shredded with university approved shredding machines. Digital data will be stored on a flash drive and destroyed at the conclusion of the five-year period. All emails will be deleted and all data will be de-identified.

**Voluntary Participation**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

**Participant Consent**

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have been able to ask questions about the research study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

---

Signature of Participant

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Date

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Participant Name (Please Print)

**Audio/Video Taping**

I agree to be audio taped for the purpose of this research study.

---

Signature of Participant

---

Date

---

Participant Name (Please Print)

## APPENDIX IV

### ONLINE REQUEST FOR PARTICIPANT LETTER

Dear Participant,

My name is Cecilia Maldonado, I am an Associate Professor in the Workforce Development and Organizational Leadership program at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. This dissertation study entitled, *Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, And Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers* explores how job demands, job resources, and personal resources influence employee engagement and employee exhaustion.

We invite you to participate in this study by completing an online survey that will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete. To participate, you need to be a Juvenile Parole Officer or a Juvenile Probation Officer in the state of Nevada. All information obtained will be kept confidential. Our hope is to produce useful data that leads to a better understanding of job resources, job demands, personal resources, and how they are related to employee exhaustion and employee engagement in the juvenile justice field.

To participate, please access the survey through the link below:  
[https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp](https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp)

The survey will require approximately 15-20 minutes of your time.

Thank you in advance for your participation. Should you have any additional questions regarding this study, please feel free to contact me using the contact information below. We hope that you will consider my request.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Dr. Cecilia Maldonado  
Associate Professor, Workforce Development  
Faculty Advisor  
ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu  
(xxx) xxx-xxxx

## APPENDIX V

### ONLINE REQUEST FOR PARTICIPANT REMINDER LETTER

Dear Participant,

One/Two week/s ago you received an e-mail message requesting your participation in the dissertation study entitled, *Analyzing the Relationship between Job Demands, Job Resources, And Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers*. If you have already completed the survey, thank you!

If you have not had a chance to take the survey yet, I would appreciate your reading the message below and completing the survey. This survey should 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

---

My name is Cecilia Maldonado, I am an Associate Professor in the Workforce Development and Organizational Leadership program at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. This dissertation study entitled, *Analyzing The Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, And Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers* explores how job demands, job resources, and personal resources influence employee engagement and employee exhaustion.

We invite you to participate in this study by completing an online survey that will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete. To participate, you need to be a Juvenile Parole Officer or a Juvenile Probation Officer in the state of Nevada. All information obtained will be kept confidential. Our hope is to produce useful data that leads to a better understanding of job resources, job demands, personal resources, and how they are related to employee exhaustion and employee engagement in the juvenile justice field.

To participate, please access the survey through the link below:  
[https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV\\_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp](https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6ohiopHA5Gd1RMp)

The survey will require approximately 15-20 minutes of your time.

Thank you in advance for your participation. Should you have any additional questions regarding this study, please feel free to contact me using the contact information below. We hope that you will consider my request.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Dr. Cecilia Maldonado  
Associate Professor, Workforce Development  
Faculty Advisor  
ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu  
(xxx) xxx-xxxx



## APPENDIX VI

### INTERVIEW PARTICIPATION REQUEST

Dear Participant,

My name is Danilo Chavarria and I am a doctoral candidate in the Workforce Development and Organizational Leadership program at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. My dissertation study entitled, *Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, and Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers* explores how job demands, job resources, and personal resources influence employee engagement and employee exhaustion.

I invite you to participate in this study by participating in an in person, telephone or computer mediated interview that will take approximately 30 minutes of your time. In order to participate, you need to be one of the following in the juvenile probation or parole agency in the state of Nevada:

- an assistant manager;
- a manager;
- an assistant director or director; or
- chief of parole.

All information obtained will be kept confidential. Our hope is to produce useful data that leads to a better understanding of job resources, job demands, personal resources, and how they are related to employee exhaustion and employee engagement in the juvenile justice field.

If you are interested in participating, please call or email me with your availability at the email address or phone number listed below.

Should you have any additional questions regarding this study, please feel free to contact me at (xxx) xxx-xxxx or my faculty advisor, Dr. Cecilia Maldonado at (xxx) xxx-xxx or [ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu](mailto:ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu). We hope that you will consider our request.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Danilo Chavarria  
(xxx) xxx-xxxx  
[chavarrde@unlv.nevada.edu](mailto:chavarrde@unlv.nevada.edu)

Dr. Cecilia Maldonado  
Faculty Advisor  
[ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu](mailto:ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu)  
(xxx) xxx-xxxx

## APPENDIX VII

### ANNOTATED SUMMARY OF JD-R RESEARCH

Study	Findings
Maslow (1943)	Study of human motivation; presents the physiological, safety, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs of humans. Maslow (1943) argued that there is an order of motivation for humans. In order for people to have self-esteem or self-actualization, their physiological, safety, and love needs need to be met.
Bandura (1977)	People process, weigh, and integrate diverse sources of information concerning their capability, and they regulate their choice behavior and effort expenditure accordingly. Perceived self-efficacy is a predictor of performance, an improved predictor of behavior toward unfamiliar threats than past performance.
Maslach and Jackson (1981)	Official introduction of “job burnout.” Authors argued that job burnout mainly affects people who conduct “people work.” Attribute job burnout to exhaustion, cynicism, and evaluating one-self negatively. Introduced the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), a survey questionnaire that has been used to measure job burnout amongst employees who do “people work.”
Karasek, Gordon, Pietrokovsky, Frese, Pieper, Schwartz, and Schrier (1985)	Introduction of the Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ), a 27-question (core of the survey) questionnaire intended to predict job stress, job demand, employee motivation, employee satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover. Focuses on the psychological, social structure, and physical dimensions of employees.
Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989)	Discussed global self-esteem, role-specific self-esteem, and task specific self-esteem. Introduced “organization based self-esteem,” as the degree “to which organizational members believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of the organization” (p. 625).
Kahn (1990)	First article to introduce the concept of “personal engagement” in the workplace. Argued that, with engagement employees harness their “selves” to their work roles physically, cognitively, and emotionally. Kahn (1990) found that there are three psychological conditions that influence people to engage or disengage – meaningfulness, safety, and availability.

Kahn (1992)	Focuses on what it means to be “fully present as a person occupying a particular organizational role such that one’s thoughts, feelings, and beliefs are accessible within the context of role performances” while at work (p. 1). Kahn (1992) defined four dimensions of being psychologically present: “people feel and are attentive, connected, integrated, and focused in their role performances” (pp. 1-2).
Scheier et al. (1994)	Found that the Life Orientation Test (LOT) is a viable instrument for assessing people’s generalized sense of optimism.
Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995)	Presented taxonomy of leadership based on a multi-level multi-domain perspective to include “non-traditional” leadership theories; described the development of the Leader Member Exchange (LMX) based on “in-groups” and “out-groups.” Argued that the Leader Member Exchange 7 (LMX-7) survey is more practical and provides high levels of Cronbach’s Alpha between 80% and 90%.
Schaufeli et al. (1996)	Established an alternative for the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS). This survey is intended for all occupations, not just occupations that deal with people work of some kind.
Zapf et al. (1999)	Discussed emotion work and explained that emotional dissonance “occurs when an employee is required to express emotions that are not genuinely felt in the particular situation” (p. 375).
Demerouti et al. (2001)	First research to introduce the Job Demands-Resources model. Looked at job resources, job demands, and determined if it produced job burnout amongst employees. The model accounts for 82% of the variance in exhaustion and 52% of the variance in disengagement. The path from job demands to exhaustion is highly positive and significant and the path from job resources to disengagement is highly negative and significant. In jobs with high job demands and low resources, the authors predicted exhaustion and disengagement.
Maslach et al. (2001)	Argued that employee engagement can be measured with the MBI, as engagement is the exact opposite of job burnout.
Schaufeli et al. (2002)	Article that goes against Maslach et al. (2001); it argued that employee engagement is the opposite of job burnout, but that it can’t be measured using the same instrument. The new instrument (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale) measures an employee’s vigor, dedication, and absorption. Established that job burnout and employee engagement are antipodes and are significantly and negatively related.

Harter et al. (2002)	Study of the Gallup Workplace Audit 1992-1999 of 42 studies in 36 independent companies. The level of analysis was the business unit, not employees. Business units in the top quartile on the employee engagement scale had one to four percentage points of higher profitability, had an average of \$80,000 to \$120,000 in revenue and sales, an average of \$960,000 per year more than business units with low levels of engagement.
Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, and Schreurs (2003)	Analyzed quantitative and qualitative data for home care organizations and focused on job resources and job demands. They then established a questionnaire that was sent out to 7,024 employees in four home care organizations, $n=3,092$ . They found that job demands are primarily and positively related to exhaustion and that job resources are primarily and negatively related to cynicism and positively related to professional efficacy.
Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2003)	Applied the JD-R model to 477 employees in a Dutch Telecom call center company. Found that job demands are the most important predictors of employee health problems and self-reported absenteeism. Found that job resources are the most important predictor of employee involvement (commitment and dedication) which in turn predicts reduced turnover intentions. Also found that job resources had a significant negative relationship with health problems.
Bakker, Boer, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2003)	Researchers used the JD-R model to examine how job demands and job resources are related to employee absence duration and frequency of 330 employees of a nutrition production company. They found that job demands were predictors of production worker's levels of exhaustion and cynicism, and indirectly of absence duration. They also found that job resources are negatively related to absence frequency.
Schaufeli and Bakker (2004b)	The authors released the manual for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, a scale that is used to measure the levels of employee engagement. They provided all of the information a researcher needs to implement the scale in an organization.
May et al. (2004)	The authors built on Kahn (1990) and his definition of employee engagement. Studied a large mid-western insurance firm in the United States and found that "meaningfulness" and "psychological safety" play the biggest role on employee engagement.

- Bakker et al. (2004) The authors utilized the JD-R model to study burnout and performance of 146 employees from eleven different companies. They found that when job demands are high, it becomes difficult for employees to allocate their attention and energy efficiently, and it affects their performance.
- Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) Authors provided a questionnaire to four organizations ( $n=381$ ,  $n=202$ ,  $n=507$ ,  $n=608$ ) to measure the JD-R model. They used the MBI-GS, UWES, and measure: job demands (workload, emotional demands), job resources (performance feedback, social support from colleagues, and supervisory coaching), health problems, and turnover intentions. They found that burnout fully mediates the “relationship between job demands and health problems, while employee engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions, burnout and engagement are negatively related, job resources are negatively related to burnout, burnout is positively related to turnover intentions, and that health problems and turnover intentions are positively related. They concluded that job demands lead to burnout and then to health problems, and that job resources lead to employee engagement and then to low turnover intention.
- Salanova et al. (2005) The authors conducted a study of 58 hotel front desks and 56 restaurants. They administered questionnaires to both the employees of these units and the customers as well. They used a scale to measure organizational resources, UWES, a service climate scale, an empathy scale, job performance, and customer loyalty. They found that when employees perceive the availability of organizational resources they remove obstacles from work and are more engaged at work, which is in turn related to better service climates and increased customer loyalty.
- Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dikkers, Van Hooff, and Kinnunen (2005) Authors conducted a study composed of five Dutch samples (manufacturing company, postal office, financial firm, 17 schools, and the government). They established the Survey Work-home Interaction – NijmeGen (SWING), a 22 item questionnaire to measure how work and home affect one another.
- Burke and Mikkelsen (2005) Conducted a study of 766 police officers in Norway using survey questionnaires. They measured personal and work situation characteristics, job demands, burnout, use of force, and use of social skills. They found that police officers who are burned out have positive attitudes towards using force, that burnout contributed to having a negative attitude towards civilians, less experienced police officers had more favorable attitudes towards using force than veteran police officers, and that the higher the job demands the higher the attitude leaning toward the use of force.

- Richardsen et al. (2006) Study of 150 Norwegian police officers, questionnaires, measuring: type A behavior, job demands, job resources, cynicism, employee engagement, health and work outcomes. Found that job demands and lack of resources were related to cynicism, resources were positively related to engagement, work conflict and work family conflict were positively related to cynicism, none of the job demands were related to work engagement, cynicism was associated with increased health complaints and reduced commitment and efficacy.
- Schaufeli et al. (2006) Utilized a database of 27 studies that were completed between 1999 and 2003 in 10 different countries. Work engagement and burnout questionnaires were distributed as part of an employee well-being survey (UWES, MBI-GS). Sample of  $n = 11,152$ ; they found that burnout and engagement were negatively correlated, especially vigor and exhaustion, and dedication and cynicism. They observed that in regards to employee engagement there were no gender differences and there was a weak correlation with age. Police officers, educators, and managers had the highest “vigor” scores. The highest level of dedication was that of police officers and the lowest level of dedication was that of social workers and counselors. Additionally, police officers and educators had the highest levels of absorption. They found that blue collar workers are less engaged than police officers, educators, and managers.
- Saks (2006) Author studied  $n = 102$  employees working in a variety of jobs and organizations; 24 Canadian students were asked to distribute the questionnaire to 24 working individuals as part of a class project. Saks (2006) measured: job engagement, organizational engagement, antecedents of engagement (job characteristics, organizational support, supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, distributive justice), and consequences of engagement (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, organizational citizenship, and behavior). He found a moderate correlation between job and organizational engagement, that the antecedents are related to job and organizational engagement, and that job and organizational engagement are significantly positively related to measured consequences (negatively related with intentions to quit).
- Vance (2006) First article that focused on employee engagement from the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM).

- Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) They used the JD-R model as a guide and provide questionnaires to  $n=714$  employees of six divisions of an electronic engineering and electronics company in the Netherlands. They measured job demands (workload, emotional demands, emotional dissonance, organizational changes), job resources (autonomy, social support, supervisory coaching, opportunities for professional development), and personal resources (self-efficacy, organizational based self-esteem, optimism), exhaustion, and work engagement. Found that job resources activate self-efficacy, self-esteem, and optimism. They also found that people who hold personal resources are confident, optimistic, and shape their environment. Argued that personal resources play a significant role in the JD-R model.
- Demerouti et al. (2007) Questionnaire in the Netherlands from eight companies (bank, ministry, train engineering/consulting company, training office, donation service office, production company, transport company)  $n=123$ . They measured the need for recovery, home-work interference, concentration, and in-role performance. Found that home-work interference mutually affect each other, home-work interference is associated with the need for recovery, high need for recovery predicted low levels of concentration, home-work interference has a negative impact on performance and is an indicator of strain.
- Martinussen et al. (2007) Study  $n=223$  police officers in Norway. Measured demographic and work characteristics, job demands (work family pressures, work conflict, work-family pressures), job resources (social support, autonomy), burnout (MBI-GS), health outcomes (psychosomatic complaints, life satisfaction), and work outcomes (job satisfaction, intention to quit, organizational commitment). Found police officers scored lower on exhaustion and cynicism than did air traffic controllers, journalists, and building constructors. They found older police officers experienced slightly higher levels of emotional exhaustion, work demands and lack of resources were related to burnout.
- Czarnowsky (2008) First article found on employee engagement by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD).
- Macey and Schneider (2008) Argued that there isn't a true definition of employee engagement, thus there is conflict when researchers attempt to measure it. Introduce their own framework for understanding employee engagement, it includes: trait engagement, state engagement, and behavioral engagement. Explain how employee engagement is above and beyond: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, or feelings of empowerment.

- Xanthapoulou et al. (2009a) The authors looked at an electric engineering company in the Netherlands. Employees were approached twice over a period of two years (T1  $n=1,221$ , T2  $n=1016$ ). They studied job resources, personal resources, and work engagement, and found that: job and personal resources related positively to work engagement over time, work engagement has positive effects on job and personal resources over time, and that there is a reciprocal relationship between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement.
- Xanthapoulou et al. (2009b) The authors used the JD-R Theory as a theoretical model. They looked at  $n=45$  employees in a Greek fast food company and measured their day level job resources, personal resources, work engagement, and financial returns over a period of one month throughout two shifts (day and evening). The employees filled out daily questionnaires and diaries. The researchers found that day level personal resources fully mediate the relationship between day-level autonomy and day level work engagement, coaching was a predictor of daily financial returns. On days with “job resources, employees are self-confident, more engaged, and perform better than on days without resources” (p. 96).
- Schaufeli et al. (2009) Authors used the JD-R model as a theoretical framework; they conducted a two wave longitudinal study with a one year interval of managers and executives of a Dutch telecom company (T1  $n= 364$ , T2  $n=210$ ). They measured job demands, job resources, burnout, work engagement, and sickness absence. They found that the more the increase in job demands and decrease in job resources the greater managers feel burned out. “The greater the increase in job resources (but not of job demands)... the more engaged managers feel” (p. 906). Compared to managers with low levels of burn out, managers with high levels of burnout are more likely to be on sick leave. Managers with high levels of engagement are likely to be less often on sick leave.
- Singh et al. (2010) The authors conducted two case studies where they followed  $N=56$  and  $n=207$  employees who moved from conventional buildings to green buildings. Found substantial reductions in self-reported absenteeism, improvements in health and well-being, and increased productivity when employees worked in green buildings.
- Hall et al. (2010) The authors provided questionnaires during two time-points, 12 months apart, with a final sample of  $n=257$ , in the Australian state of Victoria. They measured work family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and job demands. They found that job demands correlate with work family conflict and emotional exhaustion.



Gallup Consulting (2010)	Provided a 12 question employee engagement questionnaire to 47,000 workers worldwide. Found that 11% of the employees are engaged, 62% are not engaged, and 27% are disengaged. Employees who were engaged were more productive, caused higher profits, had lower turnover, were absent less, and were safer in the workplace.
Cole et al. (2011)	The authors conducted a meta-analysis of primary studies that included both job burnout and employee engagement. Their study was composed of 37 studies representing 50 unique samples, ten nationalities, and 13 industries. They looked at job demands, job resources, and outcomes of both job burnout and employee engagement, based on the JD-R model. They argued that employee engagement and job burnout are redundant and that having a distinction between employee engagement and job burnout is “of little practical importance” (p. 1571).
McCarty and Skogan (2012)	The authors studied 486 civilian law enforcement employees and 2,078 sworn personnel, representing 12 law enforcement agencies across the United States. They presented the 55 item burnout, health, and job satisfaction survey conducted as part of the National Research Platform. They found that civilians had lower perceptions of danger than sworn personnel, lower work-life conflict, lower perceptions of unfairness, and lower perceptions of social support. Female sworn personnel reported higher levels of burnout, minorities (African Americans and Hispanics) experienced lower burnout than Whites.
Warshawsky et al. (2012)	Looked at $n=290$ nurse managers from 44 states and measure interpersonal relationships (job resources), work engagement, and proactive work behavior (job performance). They found that interpersonal relationships influenced the work engagement of nurse managers. They stated that the quality of the relationship with their supervisors was an important source of motivation for nurse managers
Bakker and Demerouti (2012)	This study presented the Job Demands-Resources model as the Job Demands-Resources Theory. The authors argued that the model has been tested enough throughout the years for it to be a theory.
Petrou et al. (2012)	The authors collected data by using a questionnaire and a diary booklet from seven organizations in the Netherlands for five consecutive days, $n=95$ . They measured job crafting, work engagement, day-level job autonomy, day-level work pressure, day-level job crafting, and day-level work engagement. They found that general-level and day-level job crafting consisted of seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands. On days where “employees sought challenges more, or reduced their demands less, they were more engaged” (p. 1135).

Miao and Evans (2012)	Authors used the JD-R and sent questionnaires to $n=1,371$ salespeople from the U.S. manufacturing sector. They measured role conflict, role ambiguity, sales experience, education, performance, selling behavior, outcome control, capability control, and activity control. They found that the extent to which a salesperson will engage depends on whether there are relevant job resources “available to reinforce the salesperson’s cognitive capabilities and to facilitate adaptation” (p. 86).
De Beer et al. (2013)	The authors used the JD-R and study $n=593$ participants from a South African mining company over a twelve month period. They used the South African Employee Health and Wellness Survey to survey job burnout, work engagement, job resources, and job demands. They found that burnout had significant negative relationships to colleague and supervisor support, and/or a deterioration of relationships at work.
Inoue et al. (2012)	Authors used the JD-R Theory to study five branches of a manufacturing company in Japan, $n=1,095$ . They measured job demands, job resources, and employee engagement. They found that employee decision latitude was positively and significantly associated with work engagement, even after the one year follow up.
Bakker and Sanz-Vergel (2013)	The authors studied nurses from a home healthcare organization in the Netherlands, $n=120$ . They measured work pressure and emotional demands. They found that nurse’s work pressure is more hindering than challenging, and emotional demands are more challenging than hindering. In study two, the authors studied nurses from a home healthcare organization in the Netherlands, $n=63$ . They provided a weekly questionnaire for three consecutive weeks which measured personal resources, work engagement, trait flourishing, and job demands. They found that “nurses felt more engaged when they had high personal resources, but only if their emotional demands were high” (p. 406). They flourished when personal resources were high and work pressure was low.
Tims et al. (2013)	Authors conducted a study of chemical plant employees in the Netherlands, $n=288$ . They measured structural job resources, social job resources, challenging job demands, hindering job demands, job crafting, work engagement, burnout, and job satisfaction. They found that crafting structural job resources resulted in an increase of structural job resources, which in turn was associated with increased job satisfaction, increased employee engagement, increased well-being, and decreased burnout. The authors found the same results for increased social job resources.

Gillet et al. (2013)      They studied  $n=170$  French police-officers and measured global motivation, perceived organizational support, contextual motivation, and work engagement. They found that work motivation predicted work engagement, and that police officers who feel supported by their organizations show higher levels of motivation and work engagement. They also suggested that it is important for police organizations to recruit people with strong self-determined motivation at the global level, as this predicts self-determined work motivation and work engagement.

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## APPENDIX VIII

### SURVEY QUESTIONS

#### Job Demands Resources Survey

Thank you for participating in this study entitled, Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, and Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers. This study is being conducted by members of Workforce Development and Organizational Leadership program at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas and will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The survey will require that you respond to questions/statements relating to your job demands, job resources, personal resources, employee engagement, and exhaustion. You should answer the questions based on your role as a juvenile probation/parole officer in your current work environment. Your responses will remain anonymous and confidential. The data collected will only be seen by UNLV researchers. You may choose to answer all, some, or none of the questions. Thank you again!

1. Are you a Juvenile Parole / Probation Officer (at any level)?

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No

1.5. What type of officer are you?

- ☐ Juvenile Probation Officer  
☐ Juvenile Parole Officer

The following questions refer to your personal work situation and your experience of it. For each question, please choose the answer that is most applicable to you.

2.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
Do you have control over how your work is carried out?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you have flexibility in the execution of your job?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Can you participate in decision-making regarding your work?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

3.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
Do you have to work at speed?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you have too much work to do?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often do you have to work extra hard in order to reach a deadline?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you work under time pressure?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. The following questions concern collaboration with your colleagues. For each question choose the answer that is the most applicable to you.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Can you count on your colleagues to support you, if difficulties arise in your work?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your work, do you feel valued by your colleagues?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

5. The following questions are about your emotions during your work. The items that refer to clients can also be read as if they are referring to internal clients (colleagues). Choose the answer that best represents you.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
Is your work emotionally demanding?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your work, are you confronted with things that personally touch you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you face emotionally charged situations in your work?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your work, do you deal with clients who constantly complain?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your work, do you have to deal with demanding clients?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you have to deal with clients who do not treat you with the appropriate respect and politeness?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. The following questions concern the feedback that you receive about your work. For each question, choose the answer that best describes your situation.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
I receive sufficient information about my work objectives.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job offers me opportunities to find out how well I do my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I receive sufficient information about the results of my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. The following statements are about your supervisor. Choose the answer that best describes your situation.

	Never	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often
My supervisor informs me whether he/she is satisfied with my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor shows consideration for my problems and desires regarding my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel valued by my supervisor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor uses his/her influence to help me solve problems at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is friendly and open to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. The next three questions concern your opportunities for personal development.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Do not agree, do not disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In my work, I have the opportunity to develop my strong points.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In my work, I can develop myself sufficiently.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My work offers me the possibility to learn new things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following statements concern the way you experience your work and how you feel about it.  
Please choose the answer that is most representative for you.

9.

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
At work, I feel bursting with energy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensively.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am completely immersed in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away when I am working.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You are halfway done, just a few more minutes left. Thank you for seeing this through.

11. The following questions inquire about your thoughts and feelings in a variety of situations. For each item, indicate how well it describes you by choosing the appropriate answer.

	Absolutely Wrong	Barely Right	Somewhat Right	Absolutely Right
I am confident that I could deal effectively with unexpected events.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a good solution.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can handle whatever comes my way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following are questions about your work environment, please choose the answer that is most representative of you.

12.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Do not agree, do not disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
You have enough resources to complete your job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Do not agree, do not disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
You are adequately trained for your job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The next few questions will ask some basic information about your time and role in the workplace.

14. How long have you been working for this organization?

\_\_\_\_\_ Years  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Months



15. Do you have a supervisory role?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

15.5. Which of the following best applies to you?

- ☐ Juvenile Probation Supervisor, Parole Unit Manager
- ☐ Probation Assistant Manager, Probation Manager, Probation Assistant Director, Probation Director, Chief of Parole

16. Where do you currently work?

\_\_\_\_\_ Department

\_\_\_\_\_ Work unit

17. How long have you been working in your current unit?

\_\_\_\_\_ Years

\_\_\_\_\_ Months

18. What type of shift do you work?

- ☐ Graveyard
- ☐ Day
- ☐ Swing
- ☐ Combination

19. What days of the week do you work?

- ☐ Weekdays and a Saturday
- ☐ Weekdays and a Sunday
- ☐ Weekdays and both Saturday and Sunday
- ☐ Only weekdays
- ☐ Varies from week to week
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

20. The following is a question about your future plans; please choose the answer that is most representative of you.

	Definitely not	Probably not	Maybe	Probably yes	Definitely yes
Are you thinking about changing jobs within the next two years?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You have just five questions left, about basic demographic information, and then the survey is finished!

21. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

22. In what year were you born?

\_\_\_\_\_ Year

23. Which is the category that best describes your race/ethnicity? (Check all that apply.)

- ☐ White/Caucasian
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Pacific Islander
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

24. What is your marital status?

- ☐ Married
- ☐ Never Married
- ☐ Divorced / Widowed
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

25. Is there anything else that you would like to share with us?

Thank you for your participation in the Job Demands-Resources survey. Your information will remain anonymous. If you have any questions please contact:

Dr. Cecilia Maldonado  
Associate Professor, Workforce Development  
Faculty Advisor  
ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu  
(xxx) xxx-xxxx

## APPENDIX IX

### PEER REVIEW RESPONSE

#### **Peer Review Response**

Below in the first paragraph is a summary of the steps and processes that I used. Next, the second paragraph contains my perceptions about the categorization of the data.

#### **Steps and Processes**

As a first step, I read through the raw responses without having first reviewed the data results. To accomplish this, I selected all text in the original transcript provided, and unbolded all text. I did so as a way to make discoveries in the transcripts without becoming prejudiced and/or biased from the results. My second step involved reviewing the description of the variables (*work pressure, emotional demands, social support, feedback, supervisory coaching, autonomy, opportunities for professional development, self-efficacy, employee engagement, and exhaustion*). After becoming acquainted with the variables, I read the transcript responses a second time. During my second read, I highlighted the words and phrases within the interview responses, and moved them into the corresponding variable categories. Once variables were identified, they were further split into two categories (where applicable): *current climate* – where managers talk about what is currently happening in their organization; and *management ideas* – what managers think might be useful to be implemented, ideas that they might have.

#### **Perceptions of Categorizations**

I agree largely with your interpretations of the responses of your participants. The text within the interview transcripts was coded similarly to how I coded them. Since I am not as familiar with the literature, some of the variables seemed to overlap quite a bit, for example “work pressure” and “emotional demands.” These two variables seem to be closely related, and I times placed some of the major terms within those categories almost interchangeably. I would defer to your judgment in those cases, as you are more familiar with the literature in this area than I am. In the end, your coding of the interview transcripts closely matches my findings, and therefore I believe this helps you substantiate that through triangulation of your content analysis, you had a valid and reliable process.

## APPENDIX X

### INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Tell me a bit about yourself and your role in this agency.
2. Tell me about the work of a juvenile probation/parole officer on a daily basis.
3. How are officers selected?
4. How are new officers socialized/inducted/on-boarded?
5. How do you know new officers are performing well? What about more experienced officers?
  - a. What goals do new (experienced) officers receive with regard to their performance?
  - b. Describe your super star. How do you identify your super stars?
6. What are some of the more common challenges that officers face on a regular basis?
7. What do you do when an officer is not performing well?
8. How are officers promoted?

One of the constructs I'm studying is employee exhaustion, which is defined as....

*...the employee no longer able to give themselves at a psychological level because their emotional resources have been depleted.*

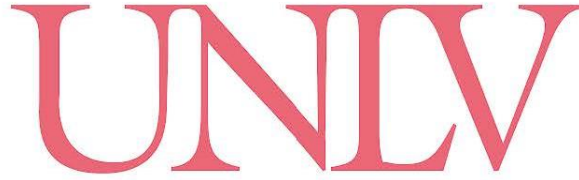
9. How do you know when an officer is exhausted?
10. What approach, if any, is used to improve the officer's well-being? (support, coaching, encouragement, adjustments in job demands, etc.).
11. Have you encountered an employee who was exhausted? How did you know? What did you do?
12. What are your beliefs about the balance between job expectations and organizational support for probation/parole officers?

13. If you had unlimited resources and power, what improvements (if any) would you make in the agency/system/community?

14. What else would you like to add to this discussion?

## APPENDIX XI

### INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



#### UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB - Expedited Review Approval Notice

**DATE:** November 24, 2015

**TO:** Cecilia Maldonado, Ph.D.  
**FROM:** UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB

**PROTOCOL TITLE:** [806420-2] Analyzing the Relationship Between Job Demands, Job Resources, and Personal Resources on Employee Engagement and Exhaustion of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers

**SUBMISSION TYPE:** Revision

**ACTION:** APPROVED

**APPROVAL DATE:** November 23, 2015  
**EXPIRATION DATE:** November 22, 2016  
**REVIEW TYPE:** Expedited Review

Thank you for submission of Revision materials for this protocol. The UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a protocol design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

**PLEASE NOTE:**

Upon approval, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the protocol most recently reviewed and approved by the IRB, which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent forms and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains approval and expiration dates.

Should there be *any* change to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit a **Modification Form** through ORI - Human Subjects. No changes may be made to the existing protocol until modifications have been approved.

ALL UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risk to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NONCOMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this protocol must be reported promptly to this office.

This protocol has been determined to be a Minimal Risk protocol. Based on the risks, this protocol requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Submission of the **Continuing Review Request Form** must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date of November 22, 2016.

If you have questions, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at [IRB@unlv.edu](mailto:IRB@unlv.edu) or call 702-895-2794. Please include your protocol title and IRBNet ID in all correspondence.

Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects  
4505 Maryland Parkway . Box 451047 . Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1047  
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## APPENDIX XII

### DUMMY CODING CODEBOOK

Variable Label	Variable Name	Original Code	Re-Code
<i>Years Worked in Organization</i>	YearsOrg	Missing	0
<i>Months Worked in Organization</i>	MonthsOrg	Missing	0
<i>Years Worked in Unit</i>	YearsUnit	Missing	0
<i>Months Worked in Unit</i>	MonthsUnit	Missing	0
<i>Gender</i>	Gender	Missing	Declined
<i>Birth Year</i>	YearBorn	Missing	Declined
<i>Ethnicity</i>	Race	Missing	Declined
<i>Marital Status</i>	MaritalStatus	Missing	Declined
<i>Current Department</i>	Department	Missing	Declined
<i>Current Work Unit</i>	Unit	Missing	Declined
<i>Current Shift</i>	Shift	Missing	Declined
<i>Days of the Week You Currently Work?</i>	WorkDays	Missing	Declined
<i>Thinking about Changing Jobs</i>	FuturePlans	Missing	Declined
<i>Supervisory Role</i>	SupervisoryRole	Missing	Declined
<i>Do you Have Enough Resources?</i>	Enough Resources	Missing	Declined
<i>Do you Have Enough Training?</i>	EnoughTraining	Missing	Declined
	AutoControl	Missing	-99
<i>Autonomy</i>	AutoFlexibility	Missing	-99
	AutoDecisions	Missing	-99



# DUMMY CODING CODEBOOK: (CONTINUED)

Variable Label	Variable Name	Original Code	Re-Code
<i>Work Pressure</i>	WpSpeed	Missing	-99
	WpQuantity	Missing	-99
	WpHard	Missing	-99
	WpTime	Missing	-99
<i>Social Support</i>	SocHelp	Missing	-99
	SocCount	Missing	-99
	SocValued	Missing	-99
<i>Emotional Demands</i>	EmoDemands	Missing	-99
	EmoPersonallyFelt	Missing	-99
	EmoCharged	Missing	-99
	EmoComplaints	Missing	-99
	EmoDemandClients	Missing	-99
	EmoRespect	Missing	-99
<i>Feedback</i>	FeedbObjectives	Missing	-99
	FeedbFeedback	Missing	-99
	FeedbResults	Missing	-99
<i>Supervisory Coaching</i>	CoachSatisfaction	Missing	-99
	CoachConsideration	Missing	-99
	CoachValued	Missing	-99
	CoachInfluence	Missing	-99
	CoachFriendly	Missing	-99

# DUMMY CODING CODEBOOK: (CONTINUED)

Variable Label	Variable Name	Original Code	Re-Code
<i>Work Engagement</i>	WeEnergy	Missing	-99
	WeVigorous	Missing	-99
	WeEnthusiastic	Missing	-99
	WeInspires	Missing	-99
	WeMorning	Missing	-99
	WeIntensively	Missing	-99
	WeProud	Missing	-99
	WeImmersed	Missing	-99
	WeCarriedAway	Missing	-99
<i>Exhaustion</i>	ExTired	Missing	-99
	ExMoreTime	Missing	-99
	ExDrained	Missing	-99
	ExWornOut	Missing	-99
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	SeConfident	Missing	-99
	SeResourcefulness	Missing	-99
	SeSolutions	Missing	-99
	SeMyWay	Missing	-99

# APPENDIX XIII

## ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS - DUMMY CODING CODEBOOK

Variable Label	Variable Name	Original Code	Re-Code
<i>Gender</i>	Gender	Male	1
		Female	2
		Other	2
<i>Ethnicity</i>	Race	White	1
		African American	2
		Hispanic	2
		Asian	2
		Native American	2
		Pacific Islander	2
		Other	2
<i>Marital Status</i>	MaritalStatus	Married	1
		Never Married	2
		Divorced /	2
		Widowed	2
		Other	2
<i>Current Department</i>	Department	Field Probation	1
		Youth Parole	2
		Detention	2
		Youth Camp	2
		Other	2
<i>Current Shift</i>	Shift	Day	1
		Swing	2
		Graveyard	2
		Combination	2
<i>Days of the Week You Currently Work?</i>	WorkDays	Weekdays	1
		Weekdays and a Saturday	2
		Weekdays and a Sunday	2
		Weekdays and both a Saturday and a Sunday	2
		Varies from Week to Week	2
		Other	2
<i>Thinking about Changing Jobs</i>	FuturePlans	Definitely Not	1
		Probably Not	1
		Maybe	2
		Probably Yes	2
		Definitely Yes	2

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