

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**THE RISK AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS FOR THE
DEVELOPMENT OF COMPASSION FATIGUE AND
BURNOUT IN PSYCHOLOGISTS**

Sharon Heather Tomkins

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Master of Arts in Psychology at Massey University, 1999.

ABSTRACT

The present study examined how both individual and organisational factors combine in different ways to produce risk and protective factors for the development of compassion fatigue and burnout. The reason for undertaking research into secondary traumatic stress disorder in psychologists is because there seems to be an increase in psychologists leaving the field of psychology due to increased stress and burnout.

Several variables were examined, including an investigation between risk and protective factors for the development of compassion fatigue and burnout. These included work settings i.e., public institutions and private practices, full time and part time work, life satisfaction, work locus of control, and intention to quit the field, along with several demographic variables, such as gender.

The compassion fatigue and burnout variables correlated with many of the protective and risk factors. Public institutions, external work locus of control, poor life satisfaction, and full time work, all predicted a higher risk of developing either compassion fatigue/burnout or both. The results indicated that compassion fatigue and burnout should be considered as a concern for practitioners, mental health organisations and trainers of future psychologists.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisors Cheryl Woolley and Douglas Paton for their guidance and encouragement. Through their outstanding advice and positive approach they inspired my confidence in my ability to successfully complete this project.

I would like to thank the psychologists and mental health workers who participated, for giving their time and thoughts and making this research possible.

My Parents Owen and Lyn Tomkins, who I would like to dedicate this work to. Their encouragement to persevere and their belief in my ability over the years has been to my advantage. For their unlimited love and support throughout my studies, I am forever grateful.

Lloyd and Denise Reeve for their support and kindness, for which I am indebted.

Special thanks to David for his love and support and for always believing in me.

Finally, I would like to thank all of my friends, especially Amanda Smith, Lisa Balemi, and Andi Nicholson, for their support and much appreciated distraction.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Contents	iv
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
List of Appendices	viii
Introduction and Review of Literature	1
Compassion Fatigue symptoms	5
Organisation and Person Factors	13
Organisation Factors	17
Burnout	17
Public Institutions and Private Practice	20
Person Factors	23
Locus of Control	23
Life Satisfaction	25
Intention to Quit	27
Method	30
Hypotheses	30
Participants	31
Measures	31
Rational for Measures	31
Questionnaire Development	34
Scoring	36
Procedure	36
Design	37

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1.	Demographic Information Showing the Frequencies and Percentages for the Categories of the Main Demographic Variables.	41
Table 2.	The Means and Standard Deviations for the Categories of the Scales and Sub-scales.	43
Table 3.	Summary of what was Found in the Thirty Two Qualitative Data Responses.	46
Table 4.	Pearson Correlation Matrix for the 10 Measurement Scales and Compassion Fatigue.	47
Table 5.	Pearson Correlation Matrix for the 10 Measurement Scales and Burnout.	50
Table 6.	Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Compassion Fatigue.	52
Table 7.	Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Burnout.	53
Table 8.	Analysis of Variance of Gender for Compassion Fatigue and Burnout.	54
Table 9.	Analysis of Variance of Work Settings for Compassion Fatigue and Burnout.	54
Table 10.	Analysis of Variance of Intention to Quit for Compassion Fatigue and Burnout.	55

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. The Differences between Compassion Fatigue, Secondary Traumatic Stress, Vicarious Traumatization, and Countertransference.	4
Figure 2. A Conceptual Model of Compassion Fatigue and Burnout.	14
Figure 3. Model of Employee Turnover as a Function of Job Satisfaction and Unemployment Rate.	28

LIST OF APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix A Information Sheet	83
Appendix B Questionnaire	85

INTRODUCTION

AND OVERVIEW OF LITERATURE

Secondary traumatic stress disorder (STSD) is the presence of Post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms in a caregiver. A 'caregiver' can include emergency workers, nurses, doctors, and psychologists. When caregivers are exposed to their client's trauma, they themselves may display the same symptoms as their client. These symptoms may include flashbacks, nightmares, insomnia, and generalised anxiety. This can be a problem both for the agency that has employed them and the clients that they see. If the psychologist is affected by secondary traumatic stress then they may make poor professional judgements, have low job motivation, and relationships may suffer with colleagues and clients.

Secondary traumatic stress (STS) refers to naturally occurring behaviours and emotions resulting from interacting with, having exposure to, and treating a traumatising event experienced by another - the stress results from helping or wanting to help a traumatised person (Figley, 1993). Secondary traumatic stress disorder is a syndrome with symptoms that are nearly identical to Post traumatic stress disorder (APA, 1994). The exception is that exposure to knowledge about a trauma experienced by a significant other is associated with the set of STSD symptoms, whereas PTSD symptoms are directly connected to the sufferer, the person experiencing the primary traumatic stress.

Secondary traumatic stress is an important issue that has only just begun to be examined and appear in the literature recently. Secondary traumatic stress should be a concern especially for mental health organisations. In many ways, the health of an organisation depends upon the health of its staff. This is especially important for psychologists who are relied upon for accurate perceptions, sound judgement, and decision making.

These capacities are often challenged when psychologists are worn down either by their work environment (burnout) or by the content of their work (STS). An investigation of the prevalence, risk, and mediating factors of secondary traumatic stress has never been completed on a sample of New Zealand psychologists. With changes in the way that institutions are being managed and organised, it is important that secondary traumatic stress is recognised as a relevant and pertinent issue which may impact on the working lives of psychologists.

The quotation below cites DSM-IV and is a description of what constitutes a sufficiently traumatic event. The italicised section emphasises that people can be traumatised without actually being harmed or threatened in any way (i.e., secondarily).

“The essential feature of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder is the development of characteristic symptoms following exposure to an extreme traumatic stressor involving direct personal experience of an event that involves actual or threatened death or serious injury, or other threats to one’s physical integrity or *witnessing an event that involves death, injury, or a threat to the physical integrity of another person or learning about unexpected or violent death, serious harm, or threat of death or injury experienced by a family member or other close associate*”. (APA, 1994, p. 424; italics added)

There is no single routinely used term to describe the result of a psychologist’s exposure to traumatic material. The phenomenon of “helping induced trauma” has been examined in a few dozen publications in the general area of traumatic stress studies. The concepts that define secondary trauma vary greatly and there is no routinely used term to designate exposure to another’s trauma through one’s role as a helper. There are various terms commonly used. These are: “compassion fatigue”; “secondary traumatic stress”; “countertransference”; and “vicarious traumatisation”. STS is the broadest term, with other terms, such as compassion fatigue and vicarious traumatisation serving as specific types of secondary traumatic stress.

McCann & Pearlman (1990) describe vicarious traumatisation in psychologists treating traumatised victims as a phenomenon that reflects their inner experience of “self” and “other” transformed in ways that parallel the experiences of the trauma survivor. These transformations include “changes in one’s identity and world wide view, in self capacities, ego resources, and psychological needs and cognitive schemata” (McCann & Pearlman, 1990, p 79). Stamm (1997) describes vicarious traumatisation as the negative cognitive schema and behavioural changes in therapists which occur as a result of direct contact with traumatised clients.

Countertransference has traditionally been referred to as the activation of the therapist’s unresolved or unconscious conflicts or concerns (McCann & Pearlman, 1990). More recently countertransference has incorporated the painful feelings, images and thoughts that can accompany work with trauma survivors (Stamm, 1997).

Secondary traumatic stress is described as the “disorders and symptoms displayed by supporters and helpers of those experiencing PTSD” (Stamm, 1997, p. 1). STS was operationalised as compassion fatigue by Figley (1995). CF is a natural consequence of working with people who have experienced extremely stressful events. CF develops as a result of the provider's exposure to their clients experiences combined with their empathy for their clients (Figley, 1995).

Compassion fatigue and vicarious traumatisation and even some forms of countertransference are seen as being a part of, or a specific sub-section of STS. Stamm (1997) believes that countertransference is the reaction to clients and their material. It may direct therapeutic choices and is a state tied directly to the client. By contrast CF/STS/VT, results from working with trauma victims, and induces more trait-like changes to values, beliefs, and behaviours in caregivers.

Compassion Fatigue Symptoms

Cerney (1995) claims that through the interaction with traumatised clients the therapists themselves find that the traumatic experiences described to them have such an affront to their sense of self that they begin to exhibit the same characteristics as their clients. They may experience a change in the world, themselves, and their family. The therapists may experience PTSD symptoms such as having intrusive thoughts, nightmares, and generalised anxiety. Ultimately they themselves may need assistance in coping with their trauma.

The symptoms of STS that present themselves, and are under one month in duration, or within one month of the event are considered normal, acute, crisis-related reactions (DSM-IV, 1994). Those not manifesting symptoms until six months or more following the event manifest delayed STSD (DSM-IV, 1994).

The diagnostic criteria for secondary traumatic stress disorder involve experiencing an event outside the range of usual experiences that would be distressing to almost anyone i.e., serious threat to the traumatised person (TP), and sudden destruction of the traumatised person's environments. Psychologists will often be working with clients who have experienced extremely traumatic events. One difference that may be important in the development of secondary traumatic stress is that psychologists enter their line of work knowing that they will have to deal with traumatised persons. Therefore they should have been trained and prepared for the exposure to secondary trauma that will be evident in their day to day working life.

Some symptoms or criteria of this disorder involve re-experiencing the trauma event through: *recollections* of the event and of the traumatised person; *dreams* of the event and of traumatised person; sudden *re-experiencing* of the event and the traumatised person; *reminders* of the distressing event and the traumatised person.

Other criteria are Avoidance/Numbing of reminders of events through: efforts of avoidance of thoughts; efforts of avoidance of activities; psychogenic amnesia; diminished interest in activities; detachment from others; diminished affect; and sense of foreshortened future. Another criteria is persistent arousal. This is demonstrated through: difficulty falling/staying asleep; irritability or anger; difficulty concentrating; hypervigilance for traumatised person; exaggerated startle response; and physiologic reactivation to cues (Figley, 1995).

Secondary traumatic stress impacts on several areas of the practitioners life including their well-being and performance of their job. The personal impact of STS can influence many factors including their cognition i.e., diminished concentration, self-doubt, apathy, and decreased self esteem. Emotional aspects are also affected through anxiety, numbness, and depression; behaviour can also be affected through having sleep disturbances, being moody, and helpless. The practitioners spiritual life can be affected through questioning the meaning of life, loss of purpose, and lack of self-satisfaction. Interpersonal relationships can be affected through withdrawal, mistrust, and isolation of friends. Finally physical aspects of the helper can be affected with shock, aches and pains, and somatic reactions (Yassen, 1995).

Secondary traumatic stress can and often does have an impact on professional functioning. Performance of the job can be affected with a possible decrease in quality of work, low motivation, and an avoidance of job tasks. Morale can also be affected with a decrease in confidence, apathy, and detachment. Interpersonal work relationships can suffer as well with a withdrawal from colleagues, poor communication, and staff conflicts. Finally behaviour in the work place may be impacted on through absenteeism, faulty judgement, and irresponsibility (Yassen, 1995). The costs for therapists, organisations, and clients is an important issue and one that deserves urgent attention

STS theory predicts that professionals affected by STS are at higher risk of making poor professional judgements than those professionals who are not affected. Examples of poor professional judgement could include mis-diagnosis, poor treatment planning, or abuse of a client (Munroe, 1995, cited in Rudolph et al. 1997)

Relational disturbances (including personal relationships) may suffer due to the increase or frequency, and intensity of stressors, increasing difficulty with maintaining intimacy and trust. Relationships with clients may also have disturbances in that the therapist may either overidentify with or detach from the client. Distancing from the client may involve judging, labelling, or pathologising the trauma reaction.

Other forms of detachment include taking up a personal and emotional distance from the client. This behaviour may include being chronically late for appointments, cancelling appointments or allowing frequent interruptions during appointments. This detachment may allow the trauma worker to deal with their feelings of vulnerability by blocking out such emotional reactions. Distancing may also take the form of withdrawal from friends and family, believing that they will not be understood (Dutton & Rubinstein, 1995; Dutton, 1992) .

Overidentification, alternatively, may mean that the trauma worker is paralysed by his or her reactions to the clients' traumatic experience, or alternatively takes excessive responsibility for the client's life.

It may be that some psychologists are more at risk of developing compassion fatigue than others. This could be because some work in more traumatic areas or because of personal factors.

"Those who have enormous capacity for feeling and expressing empathy tend to be more at risk of compassion fatigue" (Figley, 1995, p. 1).

Literature dealing with compassion fatigue and secondary traumatic stress has been extremely limited and these concepts are only just beginning to appear in the literature. However, there is still almost no reported empirical evidence stating its prevalence. Most of the literature on compassion fatigue and its treatment has been theoretical and anecdotal (Thoreson, Miller, & Kraukoph, 1989).

The most recent research on the prevalence of compassion fatigue was completed by Rudolph, Stamm & Stamm (1997). In this study individual and organisational factors were examined to find potential risks and mediating factors in the development of secondary traumatic stress. An empirical study was done to find the level of compassion fatigue, overall quality of life, and quality of professional practice environments. In this study 37% of general health workers reported a high risk of developing compassion fatigue and 54% a high risk of developing burnout. It was found that those who had a Masters level of education and were providers were at a significantly higher risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout than the group as a whole. Conversely, bachelor level providers were at a significantly lower risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout than the group as a whole. In both analysis doctoral level (i.e., PhD) providers were at moderate risk.

The life satisfaction subscale developed by Kopina (1996) showed an interaction of sex by training level. Post hoc analysis showed that male doctoral level participants had a significantly higher quality of life than the group as a whole. Conversely, female doctoral and male masters level reported significantly lower life satisfaction than the group as a whole. Female masters and all bachelor level reported a moderate level of life satisfaction.

Although this study shows that over a third of the participants had a high risk of developing compassion fatigue and over half had a high risk of developing burnout the participants of the study were not psychologists. The participants were recruited from 5 locations: an ISTSS conference; a public health nurse convention; from the American Red Cross; InterPsyh; and the University of Alaska Anchorage. This sample of participants does not give an indication of the degree of risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout for psychologists, but instead a range of mental health workers.

The Rudolph et al. (1997) study did not give any explanations as to why Master's level education providers were at the highest risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout. It was also not explained as to why male doctoral level providers had a significantly higher quality of life than female doctoral and male masters level participants. There were equivalent numbers of participants who had a training level at the Bachelor, Masters, or Doctoral level, but 40% had only graduated from high school. Also, 37% of the participants were still in training. Both of these factors indicate that the sample chosen for the study were not professional psychologists and so results could not be generalised to this field.

Figley (1995) completed a study using the Compassion Satisfaction/Fatigue Self-Test for Helpers scale. Three hundred and seventy people were used in the study with a mean age of 35, with 33% being male and 56 % female, 11% unknown. Once again the sample used in the study were not strictly psychologists. Sixteen percent were trauma professionals, 35% were business volunteers, 8% were from the Red Cross, and 27% were caregivers in training.

In this study, the mean score for compassion satisfaction was 'good potential' at 92.10. This meant as a group they had good potential of having satisfaction with their ability to caregive (e.g. pleasure to help, like colleagues, feel good about ability to help, make contributions, etc.).

The participants' burnout score was 24.18 which meant that their risk of burnout was extremely low. That is they had a low risk of burnout (feel hopeless and unwilling to deal with work, onset gradual as a result of feeling one's efforts make no difference or very high workload). Finally the compassion fatigue score for the 370 participants was 28.78 which meant that there was a low risk of developing compassion fatigue (symptoms of work-related PTSD, onset rapid as a result of exposure to highly stressful caregiving). These results can not be generalised to psychologists in New Zealand as the participants in the study were not from the psychological field and the study was completed overseas. No information was given as to whether males were more at risk than females or vice versa, and no information was given as to the participants education level.

A much smaller study using the Compassion Fatigue Self-Test for Helpers without the compassion satisfaction subscale was completed by Figley (1995a) with only 16 participants. The participants were lay mental health caregivers in rural Africa. The compassion fatigue score was 44 which is in the extremely high risk group with a burnout score of 28.86 in the extremely low risk group. Once again the results can not be generalised to psychologists in New Zealand. This is because the participants were not trained as psychologists, and they came from rural Africa a very different environment and client base than New Zealand.

Studies investigating burnout are more prevalent in the literature involving psychologists and psychotherapists etc. They are relevant to compassion fatigue as burnout is a possible subset of compassion fatigue. Conversely compassion fatigue may be a subset of burnout. If information from the burnout studies can give information on the risk and mediating factors in developing burnout this could help in finding the risk and mediating factors of compassion fatigue.

Raquepaw & Miller (1989) completed a study on psychotherapist burnout involving 68 psychotherapists from Texas. The Maslach Burnout Inventory was used as well as demographic questions and questions designed to assess their intent to leave the profession, their treatment orientation, and their perceived ideal caseload. The results indicated that demographic variables and treatment orientation were not accurate predictors of therapist's burnout. However, psychotherapists who worked for agencies, whether part time or full time, had more symptoms of burnout than did colleagues who worked solely in private practice. Private practitioners essentially reported greater numbers of praiseworthy accomplishments and successes and fewer numbers of debilitating frustrations than did their agency counterparts. Raquepaw & Miller (1989) came to the conclusion that the source of burnout lies in social or situational factors, rather than in the people who experience burnout, and that the differences in practitioner burnout observed in the study deserved further investigation.

The study also found that the therapists' actual caseload was not associated with burnout, but their satisfaction with their caseload was. Therapists who indicated that their ideal caseload would be smaller than their current caseload were more burned out than those who were satisfied with their caseload. In addition, burnout was predictive of the therapists' reported intentions to leave psychotherapy for other professions. Further investigation is needed to determine the relation between such intention and actual rates of resignation.

Spector (1988) completed a study looking at work locus of control, the measure of generalised control beliefs in work settings. Subjects for this study comprised six independent samples including business administrators, industrial psychology undergraduates, sales and support employees, mental health agency employees, convenience store clerks, and managers. From these six samples 1165 participants were drawn to answer a number of scales and questionnaires.

The measures included the work locus of control scale, general locus of control scale, social desirability scale, job satisfaction scale, organisational commitment questionnaire, autonomy subscale, perceived influence measure, leadership questionnaire, role stress scales, and measures of job tenure, and intention of leaving their current jobs. The Work Locus of Control Scale was found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress, and perceptions of supervisory style.

Farber & Heifetz (1982) completed a study on therapist burnout. Sixty psychotherapists were given a two-hour semistructured interview in order to investigate their experiences of therapeutic practice. What was found was that according to therapists, professional satisfaction derives from the ability to promote a helpful therapeutic relationship; dissatisfaction stems primarily from lack of therapeutic success, that is the inability to promote change in patients; and burnout is primarily a consequence of the nonreciprocated attentiveness, giving, and responsibility demanded by the therapists relationship. Again the sample cannot be generalised to New Zealand psychologists as the participants were all psychotherapists from the United States.

Hellman, Morrison, & Abramowitz (1986) investigated the stresses of psychotherapeutic work. A sample of 227 psychologists from Northern California were administered two likert rating scales, The Therapeutic Stresses Rating Scale and The Stressful Patient Behaviour Rating Scale. A factor analysis was completed on the results and the data revealed that the stressful aspects of therapeutic work included maintaining the therapeutic relationship, scheduling difficulties, professional doubt, work overinvolvement, and feeling personally depleted. In addition, stressful patient behaviours were found to cluster into five distinct categories: expressions of negative affect, resistance, psychopathological symptoms, suicidal threats, and passive-aggressive behaviours.

ORGANISATION AND PERSON FACTORS

Organisational or work factors and person factors interact in a multitude of ways to either reduce or increase the risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout. Figure 2. Shows a process model of compassion fatigue and burnout. This model has been adapted from Cherniss' (1980, cited in Lefcourt, 1982) model of burnout.

The model proposes that individuals with particular career orientations, a particular internal or external WLOC, adequate or inadequate life satisfaction, an intention to quit or not, interact with particular work-setting characteristics, such as private - public settings and job title. The coming together of these factors results in the experience of particular sources of stress, such as burnout and secondary traumatic stress. Individuals cope with these stresses in different ways. Some individuals employ techniques and strategies that might be termed active problem solving while others cope by exhibiting the negative attitude changes.

If either their work environment or content of their work is causing the individual particular amounts of stress and anxiety, combined with personal factors, such as life satisfaction, then burnout and/or compassion fatigue may develop.

Many of the variables mentioned in the model are difficult to measure and determine especially in a cross-sectional study. A longitudinal study would be more effective in determining some of the variables. For example autonomy and control are difficult to determine because of differing interpretations of what control and autonomy are, for example those who have an external locus of control believe that they have no or little control over their environment and the outcomes of their work.

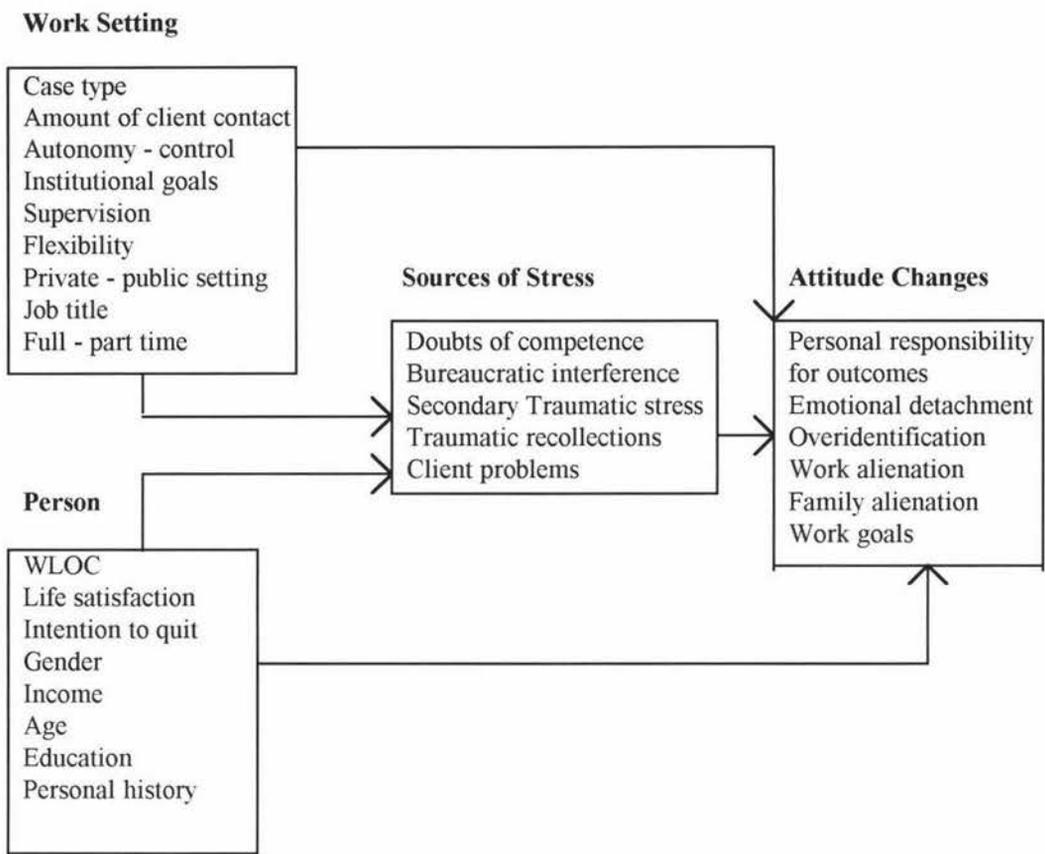


Figure 2: A conceptual model of Compassion fatigue and Burnout (Cherniss, 1980, cited in Lefcourt, 1982)

The variables that have been chosen for the present study for examination have been chosen because they can be investigated in a cross sectional study, and can be measured using scales and subscales. They have also been chosen because they are possible risk and mediating factors for the development of compassion fatigue. Burnout has been chosen because it is a risk factor for compassion fatigue and is a factor that like compassion fatigue can challenge the provider's ability to give effective services.

The public - private setting has been chosen as a factor that is important in the development of compassion fatigue and burnout. It has been chosen because literature has shown that people who work for public institutions are more likely to be burnt out than those who work for private practices (Raquepaw & Miller, 1989). Even those individuals who worked part time in public institutions were more burnt out than those who worked full time in private practice. This is why the full and part time factor was chosen as another variable. Those who work full time may have more risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout because they have more exposure to traumatised clients.

Person factors that were chosen were chosen again because of their ability to be measured through cross sectional methods and because they are demographic variables that can be used to compare genders, ages and educational levels etc. Work locus of control was chosen as it is a factor that may be either a risk or mediating factor in the development of burnout and compassion fatigue. Those who have an internal locus of control feel that they have more control over the outcomes in their working environment, and this is possibly a mediating factor. Those who are external are more inclined to feel that outcomes in their working environment are out of their control and so is a risk factor. This needs to be examined to find which are risk and mediating factors in the development of compassion fatigue and burnout.

Life satisfaction has also been chosen as a variable as it is an important factor as either a risk or mediator. Those who are satisfied with their life feel they have more control and are less anxious. They also usually have a more balanced life style and therefore are more likely to have less risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout. Alternatively those who are not satisfied with their lives possibly have a higher risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout because they may have lower job satisfaction or have a less balanced life style. It would be useful to know if those who are satisfied with their lives are at a lower risk of developing compassion fatigue than those who are not satisfied with their lives.

Intention to quit has been chosen as a variable to be studied as it would be important to find if psychologists who have a high risk of compassion fatigue and burnout are more likely to have any intention to quit than those with a low risk of compassion fatigue.

Other factors that are to be measured are case type, amount of client contact, flexibility and job title for the organisational factors and for the personal factors gender, income, age, and education level are being measured.

Trauma history is certainly an important component of STS. STS theory suggests that providers with a personal trauma history would be at higher risk due to increased exposure. On the other hand, personal trauma history could be a protective factor because the provider may be less naive and may have had a chance to learn positive coping strategies (Rudolph et al. 1997). This factor is not being examined in the present study as it is difficult to determine previous trauma and compare one type of trauma to another. This is because it is a personal issue with one persons traumatic experience being extreme and another's being less so.

ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

Burnout

There are many aspects in the psychologist's life that can impact on the development of STS. One of the more important variables is the concept of burnout. Burnout like compassion fatigue can challenge a psychologist's ability to give effective services and maintain professional and personal relationships. Burnout is a gradual wearing down of the psychologist by the feelings of being overwhelmed by one's work and feeling incapable of making any positive changes.

While certainly different from compassion fatigue and secondary traumatic stress burnout is certainly an important risk factor for compassion fatigue (Rudolph et al., 1997). Burnout and traumatising are highly related, but there are major differences between them. Compassion fatigue, like burnout, can challenge a provider's ability to give effective services and maintain personal and professional relationships. Secondary traumatising is more specific than burnout and often more pervasive. Burnout is a gradual wearing down of the provider by feelings of being overwhelmed by one's work and incapable of effecting positive change. Conversely, compassion fatigue is sudden and acute, and involves more traumatic responses such as nightmares, flashbacks, and disturbing recollections. Traumatic stress is also especially manifested in feelings of helplessness, shock, and confusion, and there seems to be a faster rate of recovery from the symptoms (Figley & Kleber, 1995).

Burnout refers to the psychological strain of working with difficult populations. The symptoms of burnout have been described as depression, cynicism, boredom, loss of compassion, and discouragement. Contributing factors have been described as being professional isolation; the emotional drain of being empathetic; ambiguous successes; lack of therapeutic success; non-reciprocated giving and attentiveness; and failure to live up to one's own expectation (McCann & Pearlman, 1990)

According to McCann & Pearlman (1990) working with victims may produce symptoms of burnout in mental health professionals for a number of reasons, and although the burnout literature is relevant to working with trauma victims, McCann & Pearlman (1990) agree that the potential effects of working with victims of trauma are distinct from working with other difficult populations. This is because the therapist is exposed to the emotionally shocking images of horror and suffering that are characteristic of serious traumas.

Common causes of burnout in the human services according to Pines & Aronson (1988) are: (1) they perform emotionally taxing work; (2) they share certain personal characteristics that made them choose human services as a career; and (3) they share a "client centred" orientation. These three characteristics are the classic antecedents of burnout.

A job in which a person helps others involves a certain degree of stress. The degree of stress depends on the particular demands of that job and on the resources available to the professional. In many social service occupations the danger of burnout and emotional exhaustion results from the constant demand to give emotionally on the job. The supply of emotion goes only one way - from the workers to the client - and may lead to the emotional exhaustion of the workers.

Jobs that are closely allied to life may make the separation of work from other areas of life exceptionally difficult. Exposure to others' intense feelings is a stress peculiar to the task of extending psychological help. In a sense it is an occupational hazard. When the emotional stresses inherent in providing social and psychological help are not acknowledged and dealt with, they often lead to burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Another source of stress stems from the special characteristics of the professionals themselves. Those who decide to enter into the human services area are essentially humanitarian and empathetic. They also have other traits that make them vulnerable to the emotional stresses inherent to their professions. Some professionals who work with child abuse have had personal experiences that motivated their choice of career. This personal history serves to intensify both their empathy and pain (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

The third cause of burnout according to Pines & Aronson (1988) is the "client centred" orientation that characterises human service professions almost exclusively. The focus is on the people receiving service. The professional's role of helping, understanding, and support is defined by the clients' needs. The role is not complementary: the professional gives and the client receives (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

The symptoms of burnout are extensive. Physical withdrawal from the job can show up during and after work hours. Many psychologists who are burnt out often close their doors to avoid imposition, avoid clients by arriving late for appointments, use their desks as barriers between them and their clients, and develop a need to get away from everyone, to be alone and work. They also cut to a minimum the time they spend in direct client contact.

Workers experiencing physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion tended to be consistently late for work, to take extended work breaks, and to have a high frequency of unexplained absences from work (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Emotional withdrawal could include "turning off" compassion, empathy, and warmth, and "spacing out" during interviews with clients. Emotional withdrawal may escalate and result in total detachment and the loss of concern for the recipients of their service. Detachment may spread into relationships outside of work as well (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Mental withdrawal consists of a set of attitudes that protects service providers from over-involvement and justifies detachment from the recipients of their services. These attitudes help the professional to see the other person as less human, to view the relationship in objective and analytic terms, and to reduce the intensity and scope of emotional arousal (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Three aspects are important in burnout: emotional exhaustion (emotionally drained); depersonalisation (worrying the job is hardening them emotionally); and reduced personal accomplishment (not able to help someone positively). Burnout is typically the result of the extended accumulation of intensive contact with clients. It begins gradually and worsens as time goes on.

The issue of burnout is important in the development of compassion fatigue and has a large influence on how compassion fatigue can be both exaggerated and caused or alternatively prevented. If an individual is burned out and feels overwhelmed by work then he or she is more vulnerable to compassion fatigue. On the other hand if an individual employs a range of preventative measures to reduce their burnout he or she may be less vulnerable to compassion fatigue. There has not been much literature on the topic of compassion fatigue that has included the burnout factor. The reason that burnout has been included in the present study was to investigate whether burnout is a factor that influences the development of compassion fatigue.

Public Institutions and Private Practice

There are a variety of reasons as to why a psychologist may develop secondary traumatic stress disorder. One of the most obvious reasons is the confrontation on an almost daily basis of clients who have had traumatic experiences. Another less obvious reason is the management and politics that occur in health care settings, especially in the public sector of health care. The differences between public institutions and private practice in the development of compassion fatigue are going to be investigated in the present study to find whether public institutions or public practices increase the risk of developing compassion fatigue.

The current movement in healthcare at the present time, and more so now than ever, is to cut administrative overhead. This has led to things such as increased paperwork, increased workloads, and the elimination of support systems. These cuts may show a short term advantage, but the long term savings associated with these changes are difficult to determine. Many of the cost cutting measures unfortunately may reduce support systems and positive mediators of STS. These support systems are relatively cheap to maintain and may increase the quality and decrease the cost of care (Rudolph et al., 1997).

For example better management of case loads (Chrestman, 1995; Kassam-Adams, 1995; Munroe, 1995), using Internet and e-mail resources to enhance access to consultation and information (Stamm & Pearce, 1995), increased staff time (Pearlman, 1995; Munroe, 1995), adequate leave time (Pearlman, 1995); adequate insurance that includes mental healthcare (Catherall, 1995); and adequate clinical and administrative supervision (Stamm & Pearce, 1995).

Secondary traumatic stress disorder is a major problem with institutions such as police departments, hospitals, and mental health clinics. Some issues dealing with STS are unique to certain aspects of institutional settings, including their hierarchical structure, their often impersonal nature, and their institutional mission, as well as the general nature of group dynamics.

Issues related to the hierarchical structure of institutions are that decision making powers are distributed unequally; individuals who are higher in the hierarchy have greater power. The hierarchical structure can contribute to the appearance that: (1) some people are more important than others; (2) some people cannot be expected to spend much time responding to others; and, (3) some people are more replaceable than others (Catherall, 1995). This gives a feeling that one is not in control of their work environment and that one has no power to make decisions that affect them.

For those who have an internal locus of control and believe that outcomes are caused by their own actions, they may feel disempowered and feel that they have no control over their work. Whereas those who have an external locus of control do not feel the effects of hierarchy and are less concerned with it.

Issues related to the impersonal nature of many bureaucracies are that some institutions are overly routine and rule driven. Over time, dealings can become too narrowly focused, giving less decision making authority to make exceptions or exercise discretionary power. This leads to the disempowerment of both clients and staff. An institution that cannot be flexible and make allowances for the personal needs of individual workers is a poor environment for people working with trauma (Catherall, 1995).

Private practice work is quite different from public institutions in many aspects. Private practices are much more flexible than public institutions in the way that they can choose which clients they will consult with and also the number of clients they will see at any one time.

There is usually more revenue in private practice so administrative responsibilities, and paperwork are less of an issue. Support systems such as regular supervision and group supervision are a more regular event for private practices.

There is usually still a hierarchy system in private practice with senior psychologists and training psychologists, but decision making is often done by all of the psychologists and is not left up to management and policy makers. Because the private practice situation is so much smaller it can be more personal. This means that decisions can be made on a one by one client basis and exceptions can be made.

The differences between the two work settings can often be what makes the difference between developing compassion fatigue and burnout or not. The current trend towards reducing overheads in public institutions has meant that psychologists are more likely to be either worn down by their work environment (burnout) or by the content of their work (STS).

PERSON FACTORS

Locus of Control

Stamm & Pearce (1995) argued that the professional's susceptibility to STS stems from two basic areas: (a) lack of control, and (b) questions of competency. Both of these are related issues. Questions of competency, in part, arise from the professional's feelings of lack of control of traumatic material. Controlling the trauma is therefore a necessary component of competency. When people feel as if they are prepared, or at least have the ability to act positively during the event there is a better eventual outcome. When people feel as if they have no control, the prognosis is quite poor.

Direct control, however, is not always possible when dealing with traumatic stress. In these situations, monitoring or limiting the professional's exposure and/or validating their distress over lack of control may be the keys to regaining authority over the traumatic material, and thus a renewed sense of competency. Positive peer social support and supervision are crucial elements in preventing or at least blunting STS (Stamm & Pearce, 1995).

Control is different from locus of control in that control is the freedom that employees are given to make decisions about their work. Often, individuals are allowed to have input into broad policy issues that afford them an expanded sense of control in the organisation. Such a sense of control can increase an individual's job satisfaction. Control is difficult to disentangle and determine as some individuals are satisfied with being controlled by organisations and others prefer little control over their decisions about work. Control is also situational and can change from decision to decision. Locus of control is an enduring trait where people attribute the cause or control of events either to themselves or to the external environment.

The individuals work locus of control also indicated that the more internal the professional was the more satisfied they were with their lives, and consequently had a lower risk of developing compassion fatigue and burnout than those who were external.

Below is a list of life spheres which can influence your psychological state. Please rate how satisfied you are with these spheres. Use the 5-score scale below.

1 completely satisfied	2 unsatisfied	3 somewhat satisfied	4 mainly satisfied	5 completely satisfied
--------------------------------------	-------------------------	------------------------------------	----------------------------------	--------------------------------------

Life Spheres

1. ___ Your job (work content, work role, interpersonal relations, possibilities etc.)
2. ___ Relations in your family
3. ___ Your children: their health and well-being
4. ___ Nutrition
5. ___ Rest and relaxation
6. ___ Your material well-being
7. ___ Communication/interaction with friends
8. ___ Your social status
9. ___ Life prospect, future expectations
10. ___ Intimate relations/sexual satisfaction
11. ___ Hobbies, creativity, self-expression
12. ___ Your health

Consider each of the following characteristics about your *current* situation. Write in the number for the best response. Use one of the following answers

1 Rarely/Never	2 At Times	3 Not Sure	4 Often	5 Very Often
--------------------------	----------------------	----------------------	-------------------	------------------------

Answer all items, even if not applicable.

Items about you:

1. ___ I force myself to avoid certain thoughts or feelings that remind me of a frightening experience.
2. ___ I find myself avoiding certain activities or situations because they remind me of a frightening experience
3. ___ I have gaps in my memory about frightening events.
4. ___ I feel estranged from others.
5. ___ I have difficulty falling or staying asleep.
6. ___ I have outbursts of anger or irritability with little provocation.
7. ___ I startle easily.
8. ___ While working with a victim I thought about violence against the perpetrator.
9. ___ I am a sensitive person.
10. ___ I have had flashbacks connected to my patients and their families
11. ___ I have had firsthand experience with traumatic events in my adult life.
12. ___ I have had firsthand experience with traumatic events in my childhood.
13. ___ I have thought that I need to "work through" a traumatic experience in my life.
14. ___ I have thought that I need more close friends.
15. ___ I have thought that there is no one to talk with about highly stressful experiences.
16. ___ I have concluded that I work too hard for my own good.

Items about Your Patients and Their Families:

17. ___ I am frightened of things a patient and their family has said or done to me.
18. ___ I experience troubling dreams similar to a patient of mine and their family
19. ___ I have experienced intrusive thoughts of sessions with especially difficult patients and their families.
20. ___ I have suddenly and involuntarily recalled a frightening experience while working with a patient and their family.
21. ___ I am preoccupied with more than one patient and their family.
22. ___ I am losing sleep over a patient and their family's traumatic experiences.
23. ___ I have thought that I might have been "infected" by the traumatic stress of my patients and their families.
24. ___ I remind myself to be less concerned about the well-being of my patients and their families.
25. ___ I have felt trapped by my work as a practitioner.
26. ___ I have a sense of hopelessness associated with working with patients with certain families.
27. ___ I have felt "on edge" about various things and I attribute this to working with certain patients and their families.
28. ___ I have wished that I could avoid working with some patients and their families.
29. ___ I have been in danger working with some patients and their families.
30. ___ I have felt that some of my patients and their families dislike me personally.

Items about Being a Practitioner and Your Work Environment:

31. ___ I have felt weak, tired, run-down as a result of my work as a practitioner.
32. ___ I have felt depressed as a result of my work as a practitioner.
33. ___ I am unsuccessful at separating work from personal life.
34. ___ I felt little compassion toward most of my co-workers.
35. ___ I feel I am working more for the money than for personal fulfilment.
36. ___ I find it difficult separating my personal life from my work life.
37. ___ I have a sense of worthlessness/disillusionment/resentment associated with my work.
38. ___ I have thoughts that I am a "failure" as a practitioner.
39. ___ I have thoughts that I am not succeeding at achieving my life goals.
40. ___ I have to deal with bureaucratic, unimportant tasks in my work life.

If you have any additional comments related to anything about the questionnaire please write them here...

Thank you for taking the time to complete these questionnaires. Please return them in the Freepost envelope provided.

If you would like me to advise you of the findings of the survey when the data analysis is complete, please fill out the form below and post to me separately.

Sharon Tomkins
C/- School of Psychology
Massey University
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North

.....
Please send me the findings of the survey on Secondary Traumatic Stress of Psychologists.

Name:

Address:

.....

.....

REFERENCES

- American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.; DSM-IV). Washington, DC; author.
- Catherall, D.R. (1995). Preventing institutional secondary traumatic stress disorder. In C.R. Figley (Ed.) *Compassion Fatigue: Coping with Secondary Traumatic Stress Disorder*. New York: Burnner/Mazel.
- Cerney, M.S. (1995) Treating the heroic treaters. In C.R. Figley (Ed.) *Compassion Fatigue: Coping with Secondary Traumatic Stress Disorder*. New York: Burnner/Mazel.
- Crestman, K.R. (1995). Secondary exposure to trauma and self-reported distress among therapist. In B. H. Stamm (Ed.), *Secondary traumatic stress: Self care issues for clinicians, researchers, and educators*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Cobb, S. (1976). Social support as a moderator of life stress. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 38, 300-314.
- Dutton, M.A. (1992). Issues for the professional working with abuse. *Empowering and healing battered women: A model of assessment and intervention*. New York: Springer.
- Dutton, M.A., & Rubinstein, F.L. (1995). Working with people with PTSD: Research implications. In C.R. Figley (Ed.) *Compassion fatigue: Coping with secondary traumatic stress disorder*. New York: Burnner/Mazel.
- Farber, B.A., & Heifetz, L.J. (1982). Therapist burnout. *Professional Psychology*, 13(2), 293-300.
- Figley, C.R. (1993) Compassion stress and the family therapist. *Family Therapy News*, 1-8.
- Figley, C.R. (1995). Compassion Fatigue as a secondary traumatic stress disorder: An overview. In C.R. Figley (Ed.) *Compassion fatigue: Coping with secondary traumatic stress disorder*. New York: Burnner/Mazel.

- Figley, C.R. (1995). *Compassion Fatigue*. New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Figley, C.R., & Stamm, B.H. (1996). Psychometric review of Compassion Fatigue Self Test. In B.H. Stamm (Ed.). *Measurement of stress, trauma, and adaptation*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press
- Figley, C.R., & Kleber, R.J. (1995). Beyond the victim: Secondary traumatic stress. In Kleber, R.J., Figley, C.R., & Gersons, B.P.R. (Eds.) *Beyond Trauma: Cultural and societal dynamics* (pp. 75-98). New York: Plenum Press.
- Flannery, R.B. (1990). Social support and psychological trauma: A methodological review. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 3(4), 593-611.
- Gabbard, G.O. (1989). Splitting in hospital treatment. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 146, 444-451.
- Hellman, I.D., Morrison, T.L., & Abramowitz, S.I. (1986). The stresses of psychotherapeutic work: a replication and extension. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 42(1), 197-205.
- Kassam-Adams, N. (1995). The risks of treating sexual trauma: Stress and secondary trauma in psychotherapists. In B. H. Stamm (Ed.), *Secondary traumatic stress: Self care issues for clinicians, researchers, and educators*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Kopina, O.S. (1996). Psychometric review of life satisfaction scale. In B. H. Stamm (Ed.). *Measurement of stress, trauma and adaptation*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Lefcourt, H.M. (1982). *Locus of Control: Current trends in theory and research*. Hillsdale, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S.E. (1984). Patterns of burnout among a national sample of public contact workers. *Journal of Health and Human Resources Administration*, 7(2), 189-212.

- McCann, I.L., & Pearlman, L.A. (1990). Vicarious traumatization: A framework for understanding the psychological effects of working with victims. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 3, 131-149.
- Munroe, J. F. (1995). Ethical issues associated with secondary trauma in therapists. In B. H. Stamm (Ed.). *Measurement of stress, trauma and adaptation*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Pearlman, L. A. (1995). Self care for trauma therapists: Ameliorating vicarious traumatization. In B. H. Stamm (Ed.). *Measurement of stress, trauma and adaptation*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Pines, A., & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career burnout: Causes and cures*. New York: Free Press.
- Raquepaw, J.M., & Miller, R.S. (1989). Psychotherapist burnout: A componential analysis. *Profession Psychology: Research and Practice*, 20(1), 32-36.
- Rotter, J.B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(1), Whole no. 609.
- Rudolph, J.M., Stamm, B.H., & Stamm, H.E. (1997). Compassion Fatigue: A concern for mental health policy, providers, and administration. *Poster at the 13th Annual Meeting of the International Society of Traumatic Stress Studies*. Montreal, PQ, CA.
- Spector, P.E. (1982). Behavior in organizations as a function of employees locus of control. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91(3), 482-497.
- Spector, P.E. (1988). Development of the work locus of control scale. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 61, 335-340.
- Spector, P.E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: application, assessment, cause and consequence*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage publications.
- Stamm, B.H. (1997). Work-related secondary traumatic stress. *PTSD Research Quarterly*, 8(2), 1-8.

- Stamm, B.H., & Pearce, F.W. (1995). Creating virtual community: Telemedicine and self care. In B.H. Stamm (Ed.). *Secondary Traumatic Stress: Self-care issues for clinicians, researchers and educators*. Lutherville, MD: Sidran Press.
- Thoreson, R.W., Miller, M., & Kraukoph, C.J. (1989). The distressed psychologist: Prevalence and treatment considerations. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 20(3), 153-158.
- Welch, D.I., Medeiros, D.C., & Tate, G.A. (1982). Beyond burnout: How to enjoy your job again when you've just about had enough. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, INC.
- Yassen, J. (1995). Preventing secondary traumatic stress disorder. In C.R. Figley (Ed.) *Compassion fatigue: Coping with secondary traumatic stress disorder*. New York: Burnner/Mazel.