COVER SHEET

WORK DEMOGRAPHICS AND OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE WORK ENVIRONMENT WHICH ADD TO THE PREDICTION OF AT RISK ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION WITHIN AN AUSTRALIAN POLICE SAMPLE

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Abstract

This study examined aspects of the work environment, which may impact on individual police officers' risk of harm from alcohol consumption. A self report survey containing demographic questions, the AUDIT and questions relating to perceived control over the job, overtime, pressure, boredom and job satisfaction was completed by 67% of officers in an Australian state police service. The results of the current study indicate that gender, age and marital status, are individual risk factors for problem drinking, as has been shown in previous research. Within the policing context, years of service, job satisfaction, perceived control within the job and being an operational officer, also emerged as significant predictors of at risk alcohol consumption patterns. Findings further suggest that there is a strong norm of drinking at work or after a shift, which suggests a culture of acceptance of drinking within the work place. This acceptance is strongly predictive of both risk of alcohol dependency and negative consequences from drinking within the police service. This study suggests directions for future research, which may lead to the introduction of informed interventions within the police service that could reduce officers' risk of harm from alcohol consumption.

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In recent years, research seeking to identify factors contributing to drinking has recognised the influence of the workplace. The characteristics of particular occupations may add some explanatory power to why some individuals drink at harmful levels.

Research conducted into alcohol consumption within the police service, either to provide information on the nature and prevalence of drinking, or to identify aspects of the police work environment that may contribute to drinking by some officers, has been limited. Like most occupations there are many police officers who do not drink alcohol or who drink alcohol rarely and in small amounts. However there are also those who drink at harmful levels. The current study examined the influence of the police workplace on officers' risk of harmful alcohol consumption.

Prevalence of Alcohol Consumption within the Police Service

Research concerning alcohol consumption by police personnel in Australia is somewhat limited. Research that has been conducted has shown that although police do not report drinking frequently, they do report drinking excessively (e.g McNeil and Wilson, 1993; Pilotto, 1990). A study of 400 Northern Territory police officers (Daulby, 1991), found 28% consumed 5 to 8 standard drinks a day, which has been rated as moderate risk by the National Health and Medical Research Council. A further 12% consumed more than 9 standard drinks per day placing them at high risk of alcohol dependence. In New South Wales (NSW) a study of 1066 NSW police officers found that 37% of male police consumed alcohol at levels which placed them at risk of harmful consequences (O'Brien and Reznik,1988). A latter survey of 852 NSW police officers found that 48 per cent of policemen and 40 per cent of policewomen consumed alcohol excessively (Richmond, Wodak, Kehoe, & Heather, 1998).

Such figures are considerably higher than those of the general Australian population. Recent national household survey data shows that around 10% of males and 7% of females report drinking alcohol excessively (National Drug Strategy, 1996). A study by the Victorian Occupational Health and Safety Commission (1992) of workers in police, transport, health, metal fabrication, hospitality and emergency services found that police drank at rates above the survey group average.

Risk Factors for Alcohol Use by Police

Individual Factors

Individual risk factors for alcohol use among employees that have been identified include: being male; relationship or financial problems; low educational level; low self-esteem; high levels of anxiety, depression, risk-taking; the occurrence of a higher than average number of recent stressful events; and youth (Hagen et. al., 1992; Lehman, 1995).

However research into these individual risk factors as they apply to police services has found mixed results. Some research has suggested that harmful and hazardous drinking is linked to older serving police personnel (Fielding et al, 1991; Elliott and Shanahan, 1992). Other research has shown that while the over 50 age group may drink more regularly (i.e. more than 5 times a week), it is the 18-29 year

olds consume more alcohol per session and have a tendency to binge (i.e. to drink more than 6 drinks for women and 10 drinks for men) (e.g. McNeil & Wilson, 1993).

While most studies have found males to be more likely to be at risk of harm from alcohol consumption, studies with police samples have found high percentages of females also at risk (Davey, Obst & Sheehan, 1999). A number of surveys have indicated a strong tendency towards binge drinking by both male and female police officers. O'Brien and Reznik (1998) found that 31% of both male and female officers were classified as binge drinkers. McNeil and Wilson (1993), found 32% of female and 16% of male police officers were binge drinkers. The above findings in regards to binge drinking and the higher than average alcohol consumption found in police suggests that the police service may contain specific work characteristics that impact on individuals alcohol consumption behaviours.

Work Environment Factors

A large number of work environment-related risk factors for high risk and problem drinking have been identified in the literature. These include work overload or underload, boredom, poor job security and/or satisfaction, shiftwork, unskilled jobs, work which requires time away from home, too much or too little supervision, long working hours, high levels of heat, light, or noise, male dominated industries, availability of alcohol at the worksite, and lack of rules relating to alcohol consumption (e.g., Cox, 1988; Lehman, Farabee, Holcom, & Simpson, 1995; Seaman, 1981; Williams, Bush, & Harmoni, 1996).

Williams, et al. (1996) classified such work related factors into four major categories: physical environment, style of management, job characteristics and availability and acceptability of alcohol in the workplace. The police literature has focused on the last two factors as playing a particular role in fostering harmful alcohol use (i.e. job characteristics leading to occupational stress, and the culture of drinking within police services).

Occupational Stress. Typically policing has been classified as a high stress occupation, with up to 47% of officers in self-report studies citing stress as a significant consequence of the job (Crank et al., 1993; Davis 1993, Savery et al, 1993). Epidemiological evidence in the form of high rates of heart disease, mental health problems, divorce and suicide, as well as alcoholism and drug abuse, seems to support this (Blackmore, 1978; Davidson & Veno 1980; Mitchell, 1990).

Stressors related to job content that have emerged in the literature as impacting on police officers include work overload through long hours of work and shift work and the resulting tiredness and severe disruptions to family life (Gudjonsson et al., 1985; Elliot and Shanahan, 1994). Elliott and Shanahan (1994) found in a survey of 555 sergeants and senior sergeants in the Victorian police service, that 41% reported drinking on working days. A greater proportion of these who worked overtime (49%) as compared with those who did not work overtime (34%). Dealing with sudden death and trauma such as victims of crime, violence and accidents and having a dangerous, unpredictable and uncontrollable daily load have also been shown to be stressful parts of police work (Coman & Evans, 1991; Dietrich & Smith, 1986; Duckworth, 1987). Finally, the pressure of court appearances and the justice system as a whole, including failure of courts to prosecute and the community image of police, including perceived lack of status and criticism place additional stress on police (Coman & Evans, 1988; Lester, 1982; Mitchell, 1990; Shanahan, 1992).

A review of this literature suggests that police officers are exposed to numerous stress factors which Hagen et al. (1992) and Shanahan (1992) suggest may be linked to alcohol and drug use. However not all officers are likely to be affected in the same way. Research has found that different stressors are associated with different ranks, with sergeants being exposed to the greatest number of stressors (Campbell, 1990; Gudjonsson et al., 1985; Robinson, 1981). A curvilinear relationship has been found between years of experience and perceived stress, with officers with the least and most job experience perceiving lower levels of stress than officers with intermediate levels of experience (Kimmel, 1990; Patterson, 1992; Violanti, 1983).

Violanti, Marshall, and Howe (1985) conducted a survey of 500 police officers in New York State, looking at the relationships between stress, coping, alcohol use and occupational demands. They found stress and occupational demands to be related to increased alcohol use. Shanahan (1992), Elliott and Shanahan (1994), and Violanti (1993) found alcohol misuse, smoking and taking other drugs are negative coping mechanisms used by police to cope with the strains and pressures of their work. Such negative coping mechanisms tend to increase the negative impact of stressors on health. Through its working structures (e.g. shiftwork and overtime), the police service appears to prevent officers from adopting more appropriate coping mechanisms such as social support, counselling, stress management strategies and exercise.

Police Culture. Culture has been defined as learned and shared norms of behaviour (Austin & Jackson, 1977). Occupational cultures emerge at different workplaces for different reasons and take distinct forms. Both researchers and police themselves have suggested the workplace culture within police is conducive to a high level of alcohol consumption (Dietrich & Smith, 1986; OHSC, 1992). However, what may be more accurate is that among police there are many subcultures each with their own drinking patterns (Fenlon, Davey & Mann, 1997). Culture helps to explain why drinking is encouraged and expected in some groups and at some stations and not at others. It has been found that drinking subcultures are more likely under certain circumstances. For example when there is a high level of teamwork, resulting in peer pressure (Fillmore, 1990); where alcohol is more available and there is a more permissive attitude to drinking at lunch or on the job (Whitehead & Simpkins, 1983); and where the work traditions lead to drinking afterwork with colleagues as a means of relaxing, and debriefing (Elliot & Shanahan, 1992). Within the police, an organisational drinking subculture is thus quite likely.

Furthermore subcultures can lead workers to protect colleagues and cover for their alcohol misuse. Interviews conducted by Hagen et al. (1992, p. 68) suggest that this is the case, stating "...in many parts of the service a cover up mentality exists. Officers will hide co-workers with a drinking problem from senior officers to prevent colleagues being disciplined…." Hence police culture may play a part in the initiation and maintenance of harmful alcohol use.

The Current Study

The present study extends research on police and alcohol consumption by examining work demographics and characteristics that operate within a police service. The study is based on data collected through a self report survey of a large statewide sample of police personnel. Along with questions related to alcohol consumption, the survey accessed demographic information and perceptions of the work environment such as workload, perceived pressure, perceived control, job satisfaction, and the acceptability of alcohol in the workplace. The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification

Test – AUDIT (Saunders, Aasland, Amundsen & Grant, 1993) which asked detailed questions on drinking behaviour and the consequences of that behaviour, formed the basis of the survey.

Methodology

Participants

Participants were 4193 police personnel recruited from an Australian state police service. Males constituted 87.9% of sample and females 12.1%. The gender ratio within the police service at the time of sampling was 87.4% male and 12.6 % female. Table 1 shows the representativeness of the sample of the police organisation in terms of gender and rank. This was the only comparison information available regarding the whole state police service.

Take in Table 1

Instrument

Section 1 of the questionnaire contained questions relating to demographic details. This section asked respondent's sex, age, marital status, rank in service, years in service and whether at the time of survey they held an operational or non-operational position within the police service. Operational positions indicate that the officer reported taking an active on the streets policing role.

Section 2 asked five questions related to officers' perceptions of the work environment: "I am very underworked" (1) to "very overworked" (5); "I am under pressure" never (1) to constantly (5); "I am in control of my work" never (1) to always (5); "My job is interesting" never (1) to always (5); and "My job is very dissatisfying" (1) to "very satisfying" (5).

Section 3 asked questions about drinking behaviour. Personal drinking behaviour was measured by the AUDIT (Saunders, et al., 1993), an established tool designed to elicit those at risk of harmful drinking behaviours. It has the advantage over many other indicators by examining respondents' risk over a range of harms including negative impact on work and daily life, rather than just frequency and quantity indicators alone. There are 10 items in the AUDIT, each question is scored from 0 to 4 with a total cumulative range of 0 to 40 with higher scores indicating greater risk of harmful alcohol consumption. Total AUDIT scores can be categorised into three levels of risk. Scores less than 8 indicate low risk of harm from alcohol consumption, scores from 8 to 13 indicate risk of harmful consumption, and scores above 13 indicate possible alcohol dependency.

The 10 items of the AUDIT can also be classified into three domains. The first domain (Q 1 to 3) measures alcohol consumption levels. The second domain (Q 4 to 6) examines behaviour indicating alcohol dependence and the third domain (Q7 to 10) evaluates alcohol consumption related consequences. Domain totals can be calculated. A score of four or more for females or five or more for males on Domain 1 indicates risk of a hazardous level of drinking; a score of four or more on Domain 2 indicates risk of psychological or physical dependence; and a score of four or more on Domain 3 indicates risk of significant life problems due to alcohol. These cut offs were based on the AUDIT development study (Saunders, et al., 1993), and the Centre for Drug and Alcohol Studies (1993). The AUDIT has been shown to be an appropriate tool for screening in large organisations (e.g. Davey, Obst & Sheehan, 1999; Lennings, Feeney, et al., 1997)

Section 4 asked questions related to the norms of alcohol consumption within the organisation, by asking respondents how often they drink at work, and straight after work with colleagues. These questions were scored from never (1) to always (10).

Procedure

The development of the draft questionnaire was based on discussions with reference groups, literature reviews and on the AUDIT. The draft questionnaire was then piloted on 50 officers in various divisions and revised based on their comments. The final questionnaire was mailed directly to all officers (n=6298) through the internal police mailing system. No police personnel were involved in the administration of the survey. It was clearly stated on the cover sheet that participation was voluntary and that all responses were anonymous and completely confidential. A letter was also attached to the questionnaire from the Police Commissioner guaranteeing complete confidentiality of all material.

A reminder message was put on their payslips and was also sent to all police computer terminals following the mail out. Questionnaires were returned to the university based research team by regular mail via reply paid envelopes. Of the 6298 questionnaires sent out 4193 were returned. This constitutes an overall response rate of 67%.

Results

Hierarchical regression was utilised to investigate the potential of demographic and work characteristics to predict risk of hazardous alcohol consumption. The demographic variables of gender, age and marital status were entered at step one. The work demographics of rank, operational status and years in the service (entered as a categorised dummy variable due to curvilinear relationship with AUDIT scores) were entered at step 2. The items measuring perceptions of the work environment: overworked, under pressure, control, job interest and job satisfaction were entered at step three. The dependant variable was participants' total AUDIT score. The overall model was significant (F (11, 3873) = 30.99, $p < .001$) and accounted for 8.1% of the variance.

The contribution of the demographic variables (step1) of gender, age and marital status, to the variance of scores on the AUDIT was statistically significant (F (3, 3881) = 73.20, $p < .001$). Males scored higher (M = 6.76) on the AUDIT than females (M = 5.87). Age and total AUDIT scores were negatively correlated (r = -.20, $p < .001$), indicating younger officers scored higher than older officers. Participants married or living with a partner (M = 6.71) scored lower than single or separated participants (M = 8.16).

The work demographics (step 2) of rank, operational status, and the number of years in the service also contributed significantly to the variance on AUDIT scores (F_{cha} (3, 3878) = 12.47, $p < .001$). Rank did not contribute significantly to the equation independently. However, operational personnel scored higher on the AUDIT (M = 7.07) than non-operational personnel (M = 5.48). Examination of years in service revealed a curvilinear relationship with AUDIT scores. Those in the service for 4 to 10 years scored highest on the AUDIT (M = 7.33), followed by those serving for 11 to 15 years (M = 6.72) and 3 years or less (M = 6.64). Those officers in the service for 16 years or longer scored the lowest on the AUDIT (M = 5.80). When years of service was age adjusted, those serving for 3 years or less remained significantly lower scoring on the AUDIT than those with 4 to 10 years service. However longer serving officers no longer scored significantly lower on the AUDIT than those who had served 4 to 10 years.

When the variables relating to perceptions of the work environment were entered into the equation (step 3), control over work and job satisfaction emerged as significant predictors of AUDIT scores (F_{cha} (5, 3873) = 16.02, $p < .001$). The less

control officers felt over their work the higher their AUDIT scores (r = -.14), and the lower their job satisfaction the higher participants' AUDIT scores (r = -.11). Table 2 shows the results of this analysis.

Take in Table 2

To assess the influence of workplace norms and acceptance of alcohol consumption on risk of alcohol related problems, a further two hierarchical regressions were run. Due to the overlap in alcohol consumption questions in both the items relating to norms and Domain 1 of the AUDIT, these regressions were run on the Domain 2 and Domain 3 of the AUDIT only. The regression onto Domain 2 scores was used to examine predictors of alcohol dependency and the regression onto Domain 3 scores was used to examine predictors of negative life consequences. The first three steps of these regressions remained the same as for the first regression. The items measuring norms of alcohol consumption (i.e. frequency of drinking at work and frequency of drinking with colleagues after work), were entered at step four.

The overall model predicting risk of dependency (Domain 2) was significant (F (13, 3805) = 42.612, p < .001). The contribution of the demographic variables of gender, age, and marital status, to the variance of scores on the AUDIT Domain 2 was statistically significant (F (3, 3815) = 15.40, p < .001). However the only significant independent predictor of the demographic variables was marital status with those with partners showing lower scores on this domain than those without partners. Work demographics added no significant improvement to the model.

When perception of the work environment were entered into the equation, control over work and job satisfaction contributed significantly to the variance in AUDIT Domain 2 scores (F_{cha} (5, 3807) = 16.60, p < .001). Again the pattern remained the same as in the regression against the total AUDIT.

When the variables assessing norms of alcohol consumption (i.e. drinking at work and drinking with colleagues after work) were entered into the regression, they contributed significantly to the predictive power of the model (F (2, 3805) = 201.34, p < .001). The greater the frequency of drinking at work (r = .32) and drinking after work with colleagues (r = .25), the greater the risk of dependence. Twenty-six percent of the sample reported drinking at work at least sometimes, while 48% reported drinking with colleagues after work.

The overall model predicting risk of significant life problems due to alcohol (Domain 3) was significant (F (13, 3804) = 42.21, p < .001). The contribution of the demographic variables of gender, age and marital status, to the variance of scores on the AUDIT Domain 3 was statistically significant (F (3, 3814) = 33.04, p < .001). The relationship between these variables and scores on Domain 3 showed the same pattern as in the regression against the total AUDIT. Work demographics added no significant improvement to the model.

When perception of the work environment were entered into the equation, only control over work contributed significantly to the variance in AUDIT Domain 3 scores (F_{cha} (5, 3806) = 10.89, p < .001). Those reporting less control over their work environment scored higher on this domain (r = .12, p < .001). When the variables assessing norms of alcohol consumption - drinking at work and drinking with colleagues after work - were entered into the regression, they contributed significantly to the predictive power of the model (F (2, 3804) = 185.67, p < .001). The greater the frequency of drinking at work (r = .25) and drinking after work with colleagues (r = .30), the greater the risk of significant life problems due to alcohol. Table 3 displays the results of these regressions.

Take in Table 3

Regressions were also run separately for males and females, operational and non operational officers and officers of different ranks to see if any differences in predictor variables emerged for these different groups. Overall prediction patterns remained similar for all groups.

Discussion

These results indicate that gender and age are individual risk factors for harm from alcohol consumption. Males displayed higher overall risk than females. However males and females showed equal risk of alcohol dependency. The under 25's age group were the age group with the highest risk of harm from alcohol consumption. The impact of marital status was also seen in this study. Being married appears to give some protection from harmful drinking behaviour, risk of dependency and negative consequences from alcohol consumption. These findings are consistent with previous research on demographic predictors of alcohol consumption (e.g. Hagen et. al., 1992; Lehman, 1995)

Job status, in terms of officers being operational versus non-operational, also significantly predicted risk of harm from alcohol consumption. Operational officers scored higher on the AUDIT than did their non-operational colleagues. This is most likely due to the increased stress factors to which operational staff are exposed. Violanti, Marshall, and Howe (1983) identified several occupational demands of policing which relate directly to police stress, and indirectly to alcohol consumption and possibly drug use. Two of these relate particularly to operational officers: the need to learn to react without emotion to the unpleasant tasks faced at work by suppressing such emotions; and danger preparation, the awareness of being constantly at risk. Violanti, et al, (1985) found stress due to these occupational demands to be related to increased alcohol use. Operational officers are also more likely to be required to work shiftwork and have less stable work hours. Previous research has also shown that shiftwork can lead to problem drinking (e.g. Cox, 1988, Seaman, 1981).

The number of years in the police service also predicted risk of harm from alcohol consumption. Years of service displayed a curvilinear relationship with scores on the AUDIT. Those in the service for 16 years or more and those in service for 3 years or less scored lower than those in the service from 4 to 10 years. This finding is consistent with the curvilinear relationship found between years of experience and perceived stress. Officers with the least and most job experience perceiving lower levels of stress than officers with intermediate levels of experience (Kimmel, 1990; Patterson, 1992; Violanti, 1983).

However what was not accounted for in such studies was the strong correlation between age and years of service. After adjusting for age, years in service did remain a significant predictor of harm from alcohol use, but the nature of the relationship between years in service and risk of harm changed. Those in service for 3 or less years remained lower on the AUDIT than those serving for longer, while longer serving officers scored similarly on the AUDIT regardless of length of service. This indicates that much of the lower risk of harm from alcohol consumption for longer serving officers was in fact due to the lower risk associated with older age groups rather than years in service it self.

The finding that new officers reported lower risk of harm from alcohol consumption than longer serving officers suggests that new officers may not have been inducted as strongly into the drinking culture. This has implications for

interventions aimed at preventing officers drinking at harmful levels. If officers start to drink more after three years of service, then these first three years may be the crucial time for intervention strategies aimed at preventing the pressure to drink produced by the culture of acceptability of drinking.

Perceived control over work also emerged as significantly related to risk of harm due to alcohol consumption. The less control officers felt they had over their daily tasks the greater their risk of harm from alcohol consumption. This finding is consistent with the work of Coman & Evans, (1991) and Duckworth, (1987) who found that lack of control and unpredictable daily work load and tasks were found to be major stressors for police officers. While control emerged as a strong predictor in all regressions, it is interesting to note that being overworked, under pressure and bored with the job did not significantly impact on officers' alcohol consumption. However it must be noted that a one item measure such as was used in the current study cannot be interpreted in depth. Further research is needed to shed some light on the issue of control. Research is also needed to ensure that, as is suggested by this study a perceived lack of control over work leads to risk of harmful drinking and does not result from it. Further research into the issue of control could inform intervention strategies for reducing the use of alcohol within the police workplace.

In the current study lower job satisfaction was related to greater risk of harm from drinking. This relationship has consistently been seen in much previous research (e.g. Seaman, 1981; Zinkiewicz, Davey, Obst & Sheehan, 1998). Unfortunately the majority of research including the current study can not establish the pathway underlying this relationship. Low job satisfaction may well lead officers to drink more alcohol as a means of dealing with being unhappy in the job. However high levels of drinking can also lead officers to incompetent work performance, which could then result in low job satisfaction. This relationship warrants further study, as it consistently emerges as having an important association with alcohol consumption.

Finally the acceptability of alcohol in the work environment emerged as the single most significant predictor of both risk of alcohol dependency and negative life consequences resulting from alcohol consumption. Twenty six percent of officers reported drinking at work. This large percentage indicates that there is an acceptability and availability of alcohol in the police environment. Drinking alcohol at work was strongly related to both risk of dependency and negative consequences resulting from alcohol consumption. Forty eight percent of the sample drank with colleagues after work, which suggests a strong norm of drinking with fellow officers at the end of a shift. These results indicate a strong norm of drinking suggesting a culture exists within the sample supportive of alcohol consumption. The outcome of such a culture is shown by the increased risk of alcohol dependency and negative consequences from alcohol consumption. These findings suggest that for any intervention strategy to seriously influence officers' alcohol consumption, due consideration must be given to the impact of workplace culture.

In conclusion, the current study supports previous research which indicates that gender, age and marital status are individual risk factors for problem drinking. Within the policing context factors such as being an operational officer, the years in service of an individual officer, job satisfaction and perceived control in the job, begin to illustrate the work characteristics that may be involved in at risk alcohol consumption patterns within the police service. The results of the current study indicate that there is a strong norm of drinking at work or after a shift, which suggests a culture of acceptance of drinking within the work place. This acceptance is strongly

predictive of risk of alcohol dependency and negative consequences from drinking among police officers. It is hoped that the findings of this study can help to direct future research, which may lead to the introduction of informed interventions within the police aimed at reducing officers' risk of harm from alcohol consumption.

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Table 1
Breakdown Of Sample By Gender And Rank In Comparison To Organisation.

Rank	Gender	Police N	Sample N	Sample % of Organisation
Executive and Commissioned	Male	258	256	99
Officers And Others	Female	9	7	77
Sergeants and	Male	1851	1382	74
Senior Sergeants	Female	99	80	80
Constables and	Male	3383	2029	60
Senior Constables	Female	688	417	61
Total	Male	5502	3671	67
	Female	796	504	63
Total		6298	4193	67

Table 2
Variables Entered into Regression Predicting Total Score on AUDIT

	Variables Entered	Beta	Std. Error	R^2 Change
Step 1	Gender	-.11***	.27	.05
Individual	Age	-.20***	.08	
Demographics	Marital Status	.15***	.08	
Step 2	Rank	.03	.20	
Work	Operational Status	-.08***	.21	.01
Demographics	Years in Service	-.09***	.14	
Step 3	Overworked	.02	.14	.02
Perceptions of	Pressure	.02	.13	
Work Environment	Control	-.08**	.14	
	Job Interest	-.02	.14	
	Job Satisfaction	-.07*	.16	

Note: 1.* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001
2. Beta weights and standard errors taken from the final model including all variables

Table 3
Variables Entered into Regression Predicting Scores on Dependency and Life Problems Domains of the AUDIT

		Dependency Domain			Life Problems Domains		
	Variables Entered	Beta	Std Error	R^2 Change	Beta	Std. Error	R^2 Change
Step 1	Gender	-.02	.009	.01***	-.04**	.02	.03***
Individual	Age	-.03	.003	.	-.06*	.01	
Demographics	Marital Status	.05***	.003		.09***	.01	
Step 2	Rank	-.01	.007	.002	-.02	.01	
Work	Operational Status	-.01	.007		-.01	.02	.002
Demographics	Years in Service	-.01	.005		.02	.01	
Step 3	Overworked	.04	.005	.02***	.02	.01	.02***
Perceptions of	Pressure	.01	.004		.03	.01	
Work Environment	Control	-.07***	.005		-.06***	.01	
	Job Interest	.01	.005		-.02	.01	
	Job Satisfaction	-.04*	.006		-.01	.01	
Step 4	Drink at Work	.23***	.001	.09***	.15***	.002	.09***
Norms of Alcohol	Drink after work	.13***	.001		.21***	.001	
Consumption	with colleagues						

Note: 1.* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001
2. Beta weights and standard errors taken from the final model including all variables