

Violence towards social workers in Spain and its association with Burnout, Job satisfaction and Anxiety

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Abstract

The phenomenon of attacks on social workers has been documented worldwide, though most of the related research has been conducted in the United States. This study aims to expand the literature, analysing the prevalence of workplace violence and associated factors among Social Work professionals in Spain. A total of 195 social workers in south-western Spain completed a questionnaire which the following variables: workplace violence, burnout, job satisfaction and anxiety. The results suggest that majority of social workers in Spain have suffered episodes of violence perpetrated by their clients, the most frequent types of violence being verbal attacks (94.9%) and threats (81.5%). A binary logistic regression analysis showed how the prevalence of workplace violence was statistically associated with higher levels of burnout and anxiety resulting from it. As a main conclusion, it is important to raise awareness of this occupational risk problem, as well as to develop strategies to prevent it.

Keywords: Social Work, Client Violence, Burnout, Anxiety, Job Satisfaction

Introduction

Aggressive behaviour towards social workers has been documented since the 1980s to the present day across a range of regions in the world. The main countries where this problem has been studied include the United States (Astor et al., 1998; Jayaratne et al., 2004; Macdonald & Sirotich, 2001; Ringstad, 2005; Schultz, 1987), the United Kingdom (Balloch et al., 1998; Littlechild, 2005; Winstanley & Hales, 2008) and Israel (Enosh et al., 2013, 2015; Enosh & Tzafrir, 2015). According to previous studies (Ferguson et al., 2021; Merecz et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2021), the professional groups most at risk of suffering violence are those that provide social assistance, services or care – thus including social workers, who are in direct contact with people.

According to Lee (2017), the reason for the rising violence against social workers is the expansion of welfare and social policies, which are, thus, broadening their domain of professional action. Other authors assert that higher rates of violence result from the growing needs, frustration and despair addressed by social workers (Sousa et al., 2014). And, lastly, a third explanation is the fact that social workers act as managers or administrators of certain social benefits that are not always granted to the population (Shields & Kiser, 2003).

However, if we analyze the continued violence towards this group, other authors (Aguilar, 2021; Joseph, 2021; Maylea, 2021) argue that on some occasions social work has served dominant policies, as a means of appeasing the population and enabling the continuation of oppressive patterns, depending on the time and historical place on one population or another. This type of action has made social workers the visible face of these policies and, therefore, the target of attacks.

This violence towards social work professionals can take many forms, including verbal attacks, threats, intimidation, and physical or sexual assault (Sicora et al., 2022). In a

recent study involving a total of 20,112 social workers in Italy, Sicora et al. (2022) found that almost nine out ten (88.2%) participants had experienced some type of aggression during their professional career. Among them, 15.4% reported having suffered physical aggression and 11.2%, damage to their personal belongings.

These results are in concordance with Song (2005) who found that that 63.5% had suffered verbal violence, 56.7%, threats, 51.7%, physical harm, and 40.2% damage to a personal belonging during their professional career. Furthermore we found an association between burnout, organisational commitment, rotation intention and violence towards social work professionals. On the same line, the study showed Similarly, Enosh et al. (2015), administered the Client Violence Questionnaire (CVQ) scale to a sample of 573 Israeli social workers, finding that a significant proportion suffered verbal violence (79.53%), threats (77.36%), property damage (21.09%) and physical violence (8.53%).

Burnout can be defined as a syndrome characterised by feelings of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, disempowerment, depersonalisation, loss of confidence, and reduced personal achievement (Hanson et al., 2015). Burnout is, notably, a significant predictor of a lack of personal involvement in work-related tasks, absenteeism and psychological distress (Kagan & Itzick, 2019).

An association exists between burnout and social care professions, particularly in Social Work (Brown & O'Brien, 1998; Choi, 2011; Cunningham, 2003; Dagan et al., 2016; Romero-Martín et al., 2022; Salloum et al., 2015; Slattery & Goodman, 2009; Steinheider et al., 2020). In this way, services dedicated to contexts of crisis, such as social service agencies, are at a higher risk of experiencing high levels of work stress, which can lead to exhaustion and burnout. Specifically, workers in care and assistance professions, such as social workers, are at a relatively high risk of experiencing burnout due to their exposure to chronic work-

related stressors (Doherty et al., 2021; Gómez García et al., 2019; Ho et al., 2022; Parlalis & Christodoulou, 2018). In general, the cumulative effects of chronic work-related stress can widely and persistently affect the well-being of social service personnel (Newell, 2020), and social workers, in particular.

The variables of burnout and violence at work are related. For instance, Giménez Lozano et al (2021) found a positive association between burnout and physical violence at work. This relationship is influenced by moderating risk factors such as social support, work environment quality, authoritarian leadership, lack of autonomy, and long hours, combined with personal factors. Another similar study conducted previously by Enosh et al. (2013) centred on a group of 40 professionals that included social workers, reporting that violence towards this professional group had emotional and behavioural repercussions, notably high levels of burnout.

In their study on social workers, Lamothe et al. (2018) showed that fear of client violence could be no less emotionally exhausting than the experience itself, undermining their work interventions, causing social workers to change their professional priorities, lose motivation and objectivity, and avoid contact with violent users. Kagan (2021) observed that, in the case of female social workers not subjected to client violence, job satisfaction was related to salary and fear of physical violence. However, among the female social workers who were subjected to client violence, job satisfaction was associated with self-efficacy, fear of physical violence, and fear of verbal violence. In addition, burnout was the factor that explained social workers' job satisfaction the most (Kagan, 2021; Roh et al., 2016).

Li et al. (2022) conducted a study with a sample of social workers in the health sector and concluded that burnout could reduce their job satisfaction. In this regard, burnout can increase social workers' job burnout, reducing their job satisfaction and ultimately increasing

their intention to change jobs. Parlalis and Christodoulou (2018) also found an association between burnout, life and job satisfaction among the group of social workers.

Most recent studies (see: Caravaca Sánchez et al., 2021; Holmes et al., 2021; Peinado & Anderson, 2020; Prasad et al., 2021) have reported anxiety as the strongest factor associated with burnout. In addition, anxiety has also been related with violence towards social workers (Biçkes et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2008; Mock et al., 1999). Following this idea, Munobwa et al (2021) concluded that the relationship between violence towards social workers and anxiety is based, among other factors, on clashing roles, between social workers as providers of help, and violent clients' perceptions of them as enemies.

This Study

As indicated above, violence against social workers has been widely documented around the world since the 1980s until the present day (Sicora et al., 2022; Spencer & Munch, 2003; Star, 1984). Yet, to the best of our knowledge, no previous studies have analysed this health problem in Spain.

Thus, based on previous literature, we start from the following hypotheses: like previous studies (Sicora et al., 2022), the sample group of social workers in Seville will report rates of violence in the workplace higher than 50%, and the existence of an association between violence towards social workers in the workplace and burnout (Brown & O'Brien, 1998; Choi, 2011; Cunningham, 2003; Dagan et al., 2016; Romero-Martín et al., 2022; Salloum et al., 2015; Slattery & Goodman, 2009; Steinheider et al., 2020), job satisfaction (Li et al. (2022) and anxiety (Biçkes et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2008; Mock et al., 1999). Therefore, our main objectives in relation to social workers in Spain were: to measure the presence of verbal violence, and material and physical damage; and to evaluate the association between

violence in the workplace and burnout syndrome, job satisfaction and anxiety, as well as demographic variables.

In order to test the first hypotheses and the first objective, a descriptive analysis was carried out in relation to the second hypotheses and objective. The Person correlation coefficient was calculated between the different variables, and a binary logistic regression was performed on the data collected among social workers in Seville.

Methodology

Procedure and Participants

This study was based on a cross-sectional research design. Participants were social workers who were members of the “Colegio Profesional de Trabajo Social de Sevilla” [Professional Association of Social Work of Seville (southwestern Spain)], which listed 907 registered professionals at the time of the study’s data collection. The participants in this study were a convenience sample of 195 Social Workers (response rate of 21.6%) currently working in the province of Seville (Spain). The data were collected online at the end of 2022 (from October to December) using a multi-device online survey (de Bruijne & Wijnant, 2013), with computer and mobile Web compatibility. This allowed participants to respond using their preferred device (smartphones, tablets, PCs). The inclusion criteria were: (1) being a member of the Social Work College of Seville; (2) currently being in an active situation as a Social Worker; (3) accepting the informed consent attached to each of the online questionnaires; and (4) fluency in Spanish, the language of the questionnaire and survey materials. The exclusion criteria were: (1) not being a member of the Social Work College of Seville; (2) not currently working as a Social Worker; (3) unwillingness to sign an informed consent form; and (4) insufficient knowledge of Spanish.

All the members were invited to participate in the study by e-mail using Google Forms. The assessment survey was composed after selecting and preparing the evaluation instrument. It also included an explanation of the purpose of the outlined study, a guarantee of the confidentiality of the data and individual results, as well as instructions on how to complete the survey. Prior to the administration, the questionnaire was piloted on approximately 25 social workers, assessing its suitability for use on different electronic devices (e.g., mobile phones or tablets). No one expressed any problems understanding or confusion regarding the questions.

The questionnaire was provided on three occasions (one initial occasion and two reminders), in order to increase the participation rate (approximately 20%). The online survey took approximately 20–25 minutes to complete. The informed consent and research were approved by the Colegio de Trabajo Social de Sevilla and by the Pablo de Olavide University (Spain). To preserve anonymity, no directly identifiable information from respondents was recorded, and only the study's researchers had access to the information. The right of the participants to refuse or discontinue participation was respected, and confidentiality was assured. The first page of the online survey included an informed consent form explaining the study's procedures, aims, risks, and benefits. The participants gave their consent by clicking "Accept" at the end of the consent form, and then proceeded to complete the online survey and access the questionnaire. All the participants agreed to take part in the study. The participants did not receive any financial compensation for participating. The study complied with the Code of Ethics of Social Work (General Council of Social Work of Spain, 2012) and the Data Protection Law 15/1999.

The final sample size consisted of 195 participants, and the sample's average age was 37.6 years ($SD = 9.12$). The average number of years working as social workers was 9.54 years ($SD = 8.53$) and the average time in their current positions was 6.15 years ($SD = 7.38$). The

average number of children per social worker in our sample was 0.77 (SD=0.99). Regarding gender, most of the participants (86.7%) were women.

To explore the representativeness of the participants enlisted, the sample achieved was compared to all the social workers in the Professional Association of Social Work of Seville (N = 907) with respect to demographic and labour variables. Study participants were more likely to be women (86.7% and 84.7%, study sample and Professional Association of Social Work), working in the public sector (43.6% and 40.5%, study sample and Professional Association of Social Work), younger (age 37.6 and age 39.4, study sample and Professional Association of Social Work) and with almost the same experience working as a social workers (9.54 years and 9.40 years, study sample and Professional Association of Social Work).

Measures

Dependent variables

Violence towards social workers was measured using The Client Violence Questionnaire (CVQ; Schwab, 1980). This instrument, previously used with Social Workers (Enoch & Tzafri, 2015), is a 14-item self-report measure that evaluates the frequency of workers' exposure to four types of client violence: 1) verbal aggression, 2) attacks on property, 3) threats, and 4) physical violence over the preceding year. The items were assessed on a scale (from 0: "*never*" to 6: "*six times or more over the previous year*"). The total exposure score was the average of the items. Some examples of items were: "*A client insulted you*" (measuring verbal violence) or "*A client hurt you in a way that required some major medical attention*" (measuring physical violence). The scale presented satisfactory reliability in the current study (Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$) in line with Enosh and Tzafri's study in Israel (2015; $\alpha = .81$).

Independent variables

Burnout was assessed using the 22-item MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This instrument is composed of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalisation (DP) and personal accomplishment (PA) relating to the professional's interactions and feelings regarding their work using a Likert scale (from 0: "*never*" to 6: "*every day*"), with higher scores indicating greater levels of burnout. The MBI-HSS instrument has been successfully used in recent studies on the social worker collective internationally (Doherty et al., 2021) and in Spain (Gómez García et al., 2019). The study's internal consistency levels (EE $\alpha = .82$; DP $\alpha = .76$; and PA $\alpha = .78$) were high and in accordance with the recent validation of the questionnaire for Social Workers in Spain (Gómez-García et al., 2019; EE $\alpha = .89$; DP $\alpha = .75$; and PA $\alpha = .76$).

Job satisfaction levels were evaluated using Warr's Job Satisfaction Scale (Warr et al., 1979), which determines the worker's overall level of satisfaction through 15 items. The answers range from 1 ("*extremely dissatisfied*") to 7 ("*extremely satisfied*"), and a score between 15 and 105 points is obtained. A higher score indicates higher job satisfaction. This instrument has been satisfactorily used for Social Workers in Spain (Caravaca Sánchez et al., 2021). The level of internal consistency found in the current study was high ($\alpha = .81$), in line with the Spanish validation of the instrument (Boluarte, 2014; $\alpha = .87$).

Anxiety levels were measured using the Spanish version of the 7-item version of the Generalised Anxiety Disorder Assessment instrument (GAD-7; Spitzer et al., 2006), which determines the presence of anxiety symptoms. This self-report questionnaire is composed of seven items and assesses anxiety disorder symptoms over the previous two weeks. The answer options range from 0 ("*not at all*") to 3 ("*nearly every day*") and a score between 0 and 21 points can be obtained, with a higher score indicating a higher level of perceived anxiety

(Spitzer et al., 2006). This instrument was recently used in Spain on a sample of Social Workers (Caravaca Sánchez et al., 2021). The level of internal consistency found in the present study was acceptable ($\alpha = .78$), and also in line with the Spanish validation of the instrument (Garcia-Campayo et al., 2010; $\alpha = .72$).

Finally, the questionnaire included items as *Control Variables* used in analyses, including the following demographic and working characteristics: age (continuous variable ranging from 23 to 61), gender (coded as 0 = female and 1 = male), marital status (coded as 0 = single, 1 = married, 2 = divorced and 3 = other), and current academic level (0 = Social Work degree and 1 = higher education level as Master studies). The working characteristics were: years worked as social worker and years in current position (both coded as continuous variable), labour sector (0 = full and 1 = part time), type of workday (0 = early, 1 = late/night and 2 = rotating shift) and type of working contract (0 = temporary and 1 = indefinite contract).

Data Analysis

Analyses were conducted in three stages using Version 22.0 of the SPSS program (IBM Corp, New York, NY, USA). First, descriptive statistics (i.e., means, Standard Deviations [SD] and range) for continuous variables and percentages, and a 95% Confidence Interval [CI] for categorical variables, were calculated for demographic and working variables. Second, Pearson correlation coefficients between all the variables were estimated (burnout, anxiety, job satisfaction and violence at work) and were calculated to detect possible multicollinearities and significant relationships. Finally, to achieve our principal objective, binary logistic regressions were used for verbal violence, threats, property and physical violence, as the dependent variables; and burnout, anxiety, and job satisfaction as the independent variables. All were entered into the logistic regression in one step and controlled

for sociodemographic (age, gender, marital status and academic level) and labour (labour sector, type of work labour, type of workday and type of working contract) variables.

Association strength estimates were verified using an Odds Ratio (OR) with a 95% CI. We considered *P*-values below 0.05 as statistically significant. No missing data were found for any of the variables.

Results

Table 1 shows the demographic, labour and violence characteristics of the participants. The civil status of approximately half the social workers was married (54.4%). In terms of education, the vast majority had degrees in Social Work (60.5%). Four out ten (43.6%) worked in the public sector, and 56.4% in the private sector. Most did not work full time (82.1%), and in most cases their activity took place in the morning (77.9%). A total of 57.9% had a temporary contract, compared to 42.1% who had an indefinite one. Regarding the prevalence of violence, the percentage of verbal violence was 94.9%, threats accounted for 81.5%, damage to property, 87.2%; and physical violence, 26.6%.

[Table 1 near here]

Table 2 analyses the association between the different variables by means of Pearson correlation analysis. Emotional exhaustion presented the following relations: positive with depersonalisation ($r = 0.59$); anxiety ($r = 0.68$); job satisfaction ($r = -0.27$) and threats ($r = 0.20$). Conversely, it was negatively associated with personal accomplishment ($r = -0.24$). Depersonalization, presented a positive association with anxiety ($r = 0.46$) and with threats ($r = 0.32$). Personal accomplishment presented a positive association with job satisfaction ($r = 0.50$). Anxiety showed a negative association with job satisfaction ($r = -0.27$). Verbal aggression presented a positive association with threats ($r = 0.57$) and damage to personal property ($r = 0.68$). Threats presented a positive association with physical violence ($r = 0.48$).

Furthermore, damage to personal property had a positive association with physical violence ($r = 0.25$). All analyses were statistically significant at level $p < .001$.

[Table 2 near here]

Table 3 shows the results of the binary regression analysis, which measured the association between the violence variables analysed (verbal violence, threats, damage to property and physical violence) and the variables of emotional fatigue, depersonalisation, personal accomplishment, anxiety and job satisfaction, controlling for sociodemographic and labour variables. The results showed an association between verbal violence and anxiety (OR = 1.416, 95%CI = 1.022-1.962, $p = 0.037$), between threats and depersonalisation (OR = 1.103, 95%CI = 1.032-1.179, $p = 0.004$) and property damage and depersonalisation (OR = 1.137, 95%CI = 1.046-1.235, $p = 0.00$).

[Table 3 near here]

Discussion

This study explored, for the first time in Spain, the prevalence of workplace violence among a sample of social workers, reporting overall significant rates of violence. Its results are similar to those obtained by Sicora et al. (2022) from a sample of social workers in Italy. In the current sample in Spain, over nine out ten (94.9%) of participants reported verbal aggression, with this being similar to the prevalence found in Italy (88.2%, Sicora et al., 2022). Regarding physical victimization, its prevalence was higher in Spain compared with Italy (26.2% and 15.4%, respectively). Compared with other countries, using also a twelve-month reference period for measuring violence, rates of verbal and physical aggression were approximately 30% and 15% lower in Australia (Koritsas et al., 2010), respectively, compared with our sample. These results are also similar to those, using the same scale as in the present study, conducted in the United States (2005) and Israel (Enoch & Tzafri, 2015).

However, the frequencies found are higher in our sample. For instance, compared to Israel, rates of verbal aggression, threats, attacks on property and physical assault are approximately 8%, 5%, 30% and 20% higher in Spain (Enoch & Tzafri, 2015), respectively.

Overall, if we compare the results of American (Song, 2005), Israeli (Enoch & Tzafri, 2015) and Spanish (this one) studies, we can observe how the levels of verbal violence and threats increase significantly across the three samples, peaking in the most recent study (Sicora et al., 2022). Particularly, the American sample (Song, 2005) presented higher rates of physical and property violence compared to the other studies. A significant increase could also be appreciated between the studies conducted in 2005 (Song), 2015 (Enoch & Tzafri) and Sicora (2022), which accords with the findings of Lee (2017) concerning the rising violence suffered by this professional group in the last decade.

Another possible explanation for these similarities and differences can be found in the historical, political and economic contexts of each of the countries analysed. While Spain and Italy share a more similar legislative context (Pelegrí, 2007; Soleares & La Espina, 2015) these may differ from those of Australia, the United States and Israel.

Regarding our second objective – i.e., understanding the association between workplace violence variables and other work variables – at least two of the three burnout variables (specifically, emotional fatigue and depersonalisation) were associated with some forms of workplace violence. The association between workplace violence variables and burnout found in our study contrasts with previous findings, such as that of Giménez Lozano et al. (2021), who carried out a descriptive review of these two variables among doctors and nurses in Spain, and reported a strong association between them. Along the same lines, the Enosh et al. (2013) study on social workers supports the association between violence and other work variables, such as burnout.

In addition, binary logistic regression showed an association between anxiety with workplace violence (specifically, threats). Our results regarding workplace violence and anxiety concur with those of previous studies, (Biçkes et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2008; Mock et al., 1999; Munobwa et al., 2021), but the lack of association between anxiety and workplace violence in our sample differed from previous research, which found a positive association (Kagan, 2021; Parlalis & Christodoulou, 2018). Job satisfaction, meanwhile, was associated with the different burnout variables, but not with any of the violence variables analysed.

Limitations

This study presented some limitations to be considered. First, the participants were volunteers, and this implies a self-selection bias. Indeed, those who chose to respond were also those who were most aware of the study's focus, such that they were more likely to have suffered workplace violence. Second, the questionnaire was self-administered and online, so there may have been a slight margin of error due to participants' potential misinterpretation of the questions and answers. Such errors can be due to either to personal factors (familiarity with the vocabulary used in the instrument, structure or type of answers) or environmental ones (the subjects' degree of concentration and elements of distraction, among others) (Ho et al., 2022). Third, the sample was taken only from a group of social workers in Seville. Given the limited sample size, generalizations to the whole country should be made with caution. Fourthly, a topic as complex as workplace violence and the different variables analysed in this study requires a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques (Newhill, 2003) to bolster the relevance of the results. Moreover, we must add that, due to the complexity of the issue, it has only been addressed from the perspective of social workers, making it necessary to also consider the perspective of clients for a more comprehensive view of the events. Finally, this work was a pioneering study on the subject in Spain. Thus, certain cultural

variables may have been overlooked in the development of the instrument. The latter should be analysed in future research.

Conclusions

Our findings point in two directions. Firstly, a high percentage of Social Workers in Spain have suffered some type of violence at work. The phenomenon of violence against social workers in Spain, as in another countries, is a ‘wake-up call’ that should draw attention to the weakening of welfare services and, thus, of professional social work (Sicora et al., 2022). Secondly, violence is associated with burnout and anxiety (threats and attacks on property by clients with depersonalization among workers), and it does not present an association with job satisfaction.

Overall, we believe that this study can contribute to raising awareness in the public and private sectors, which are demanding Social Worker professional profiles, as well as guide regulatory bodies (e.g., Social Work Schools) in the creation of guidelines, intervention plans and policies that protect social workers and other care-providing professionals. These guidelines and policies should include prevention strategies and practice procedures (how to react when one is being harassed, or a colleague is), the development of computer and mobile applications to protect professionals (e.g., mobile localization applications for gender violence victims), intervention strategies with professionals in order to cope with the negative effects of client violence (psychological follow-up sessions for professionals, self-help groups) and future research in this field, which would improve our understanding of the most common reasons for client violence and its consequences among the professionals who deal with them.

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Table 1. Sociodemographic, labour and violence characteristics of the sample ($N = 195$).

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	37.6	9.12
Years worked as social worker	9.54	8.53
Years in current position	6.15	7.38
Number of children	0.77	0.99
	%	95%CI
Gender		
Female	86.7	81.5-91.3
Male	13.3	8.5-18.5
Marital Status		
Single	40.0	33.3-46.2
Married	54.4	48.2-61.0
Divorced	2.6	0.5-5.1
Other	3.1	1-5.6
Academic level		
Social Work Degree	60.5	53.3-67.2
Master Studies	39.5	30.2-49.7
Labour sector		
Public	43.6	36.4-50.8
Private	56.4	47.7-56.1
Type of work labour		
Full time	82.1	75.9-87.2
Part time	17.9	12.8-24.1
Type of workday		
Early shift	77.9	71.8-83.6
Late shift – Night shift	6.2	2-10.8
Rotating shift	15.9	10.8-21.5
Type of working contract		
Temporary contract	57.9	51.3-64.6
Indefinite contract	42.1	35.4-48.7
Type of client aggression		
Verbal aggression	94.9	91.3-97.9
Threats	81.5	75.4-86.7
Attacks on property	87.2	82.6-91.8
Physical violence	26.2	20.5-32.3

Notes: SD: standard deviation; 95%CI: 95% Confidence Interval,

Table 2. Analysis of Pearson correlations between the variables: burnout, anxiety, satisfaction and workplace violence.

Variable					Variable							
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Emotional Fatigue	22.28	13.45	54.0	-							
2.	Depersonalization	10.58	6.29	27.0	0.59**							
3.	Personal Accomplishment	33.97	9.94	9.94	-0.24**	-0.80						
4.	Anxiety	8.43	5.58	21.0	0.68**	0.46**	-0.11					
5.	Job satisfaction	65.00	21.21	42.0	-0.27**	-0.13	0.50**	-0.27**				
6.	Verbal aggression	9.99	7.25	7.24	0.15*	-0.17*	0.02	0.17	-0.01			
7.	Threats	7.07	8.29	8.28	0.20**	0.32**	0.01	0.21*	0.6	0.57**		
8.	Attack on property	7.49	7.60	7.60	0.15*	0.18*	-0.02	0.11	-0.39	0.68**	0.50*	
9.	Physical violence	1.68	4.78	4.77	0.14	0.07	0.02	0.19	0.64	0.17*	0.48**	0.25**

Notes: SD: standard deviation,
Statically significant level at * $p < 0.5$, ** $p < 0.1$

Table 3. Binary regression analysis variables of burnout, anxiety, satisfaction and workplace violence.

	Verbal				Threats				Property				Physical			
	OR (95% CI)	B	SE	Sig.	OR (95% CI)	B	SE	Sig.	OR (95% CI)	B	SE	Sig.	OR (95% CI)	B	SE	Sig.
Emotional Fatigue	1.058 (0.996-1.125)	0.057	0.312	0.069	0.999 (0.973-1.027)	-0.001	0.014	0.960	1.016 (0.983-1.049)	0.015	0.017	0.355	1.010 (0.961-1.034)	0.010	0.012	0.421
Depersonalization	1.102 (0.979-1.240)	0.097	0.060	0.107	1.103 (1.032-1.179)	0.098	0.034	0.004	1.137 (1.046-1.235)	0.128	0.042	0.002	1.033 (0.982-1.086)	0.032	0.026	0.213
Personal Accomplishment	0.973 (0.907-1.044)	-0.027	0.036	0.449	0.987 (0.950-1.025)	-0.013	0.019	0.493	0.995 (0.953-1.038)	-0.006	0.022	0.802	1.002 (0.970-1.035)	0.002	0.016	0.891
Anxiety	1.416 (1.022-1.962)	0.348	0.167	0.037	1.066 (0.972-1.168)	0.063	0.047	0.174	1.045 (0.950-1.151)	0.044	0.049	0.366	1.029 (0.957-1.108)	0.029	0.037	0.439
Job satisfaction	0.984 (.952-1.017)	-0.016	0.017	0.331	0.995 (0.937-1.012)	-0.005	0.009	0.537	0.984 (0.963-1.006)	-0.016	0.011	0.146	1.001 (0.986-1.017)	0.001	0.008	0.873
Constant	3.170				1.534				1.773				1.187			
Goodness of fit (Omnibus χ^2)	31.124				99.133				87.873				133.162			
Cox and Snells R ²	0.083				0.127				0.113				0.014			
Nagelkerke's R ²	0.290				0.209				0.201				0.021			

Notes: OR: Odds Ratio; 95%CI: 95% Confidence Interval; SE: Standard Error

Statically significant differences are indicated in bold.

Coefficients were estimated controlling for demographic and labour variables.