Safety and Health at Work 12 (2021) 359-364

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Safety and Health at Work

journal homepage: www.e-shaw.net

Original Article

Associations between Sleep and Work-Related Cognitive and Emotional Functioning in Police Employees



SH@W

Torhild Anita Sørengaard ^{1,*}, Alexander Olsen ^{1,2}, Eva Langvik ¹, Ingvild Saksvik-Lehouillier ¹

¹ Department of Psychology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim, Norway

² Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, St. Olav's Hospital, Trondheim University Hospital, Norway

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 22 October 2020 Received in revised form 24 February 2021 Accepted 3 March 2021 Available online 13 March 2021

Keywords: cognition emotional functioning insomnia police sleep

ABSTRACT

Aim: We aimed to examine the cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sleep and work-related impaired cognitive and emotional functioning in police employees.

Methods: This study included 410 participants (52% men) employed in a police district in Norway at baseline, of which 50% also participated in the study at 6 months later follow-up. The questionnaires included items measuring work schedule, sleep length, insomnia, as well as impaired cognitive and emotional functioning at work.

Results: The results showed that insomnia was related to impaired work-related emotional functioning measured at baseline, and to impaired cognitive functioning measured at both baseline and follow-up. Sleep length and rotating shift work were not associated with future decline in cognitive or emotional functioning.

Conclusion: Our study indicates that the relationship between insomnia and emotional functioning at work may be transient, whereas insomnia can be related to both immediate and future impaired cognitive functioning. Replication of the findings in larger samples is advised. The findings call for an emphasis on the prevention and treatment of sleep problems among police employees as a mean of maintaining and improving cognitive and emotional functioning at work, and thereby reducing the risk for impaired performance and negative health and safety outcomes.

© 2021 Occupational Safety and Health Research Institute, Published by Elsevier Korea LLC. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

Sleep is a fundamental need and affects numerous vital functions, including cognitive performance and emotional regulation [1-3]. Various aspects of sleep, for example, duration and quality, are crucial for cognitive functioning and for regulating emotional experiences and responses [4-6]. However, we lack a clear understanding of the effects of sleep on cognitive and emotional functioning in highly robust workers, especially police employees. The majority of police employees in Norway are thoroughly selected into the occupation and have undergone extensive professional training, but they are still at risk for experiencing sleep problems that contribute to poorer cognitive and emotional functioning. Police employees often have irregular working hours and resting time [7]. Shift work, that is, fixed or rotating shifts that include working hours between 6 PM and 7 AM [8], renders employees susceptible to shorter and more disturbed sleep, reduced sleep quality, and a higher prevalence of sleep problems compared to day work [9,10].

According to recommendations, adults aged 26–64 years should sleep 7–9 h/d, as sleep duration under 6 hours and over 10 hours is unfavorable for daily functioning [11]. Short sleep, that is, sleeping less than 6 h/night, can weaken a wide specter of cognitive functions; including information processing, sustained attention, and working memory [12]. Short sleep also has adverse effects on decision making [13] and recognition of emotions [14], as well as reduces impulse control, empathy toward others and positive thinking [15]. Interactions between sleep and emotional regulation have received increased attention [3]. Palmer and Alfano [16] highlight the need for distinction between different emotional



^{*} Corresponding author. Department of Psychology Norwegian University of Science and Technology, 7491, Trondheim, Norway. *E-mail address:* torhild.sorengaard@ntnu.no (T.A. Sørengaard).

^{2093-7911/\$ -} see front matter © 2021 Occupational Safety and Health Research Institute, Published by Elsevier Korea LLC. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2021.03.002

processes when examining the effects of sleep, as well as the need for longitudinal studies in sleep and emotion-focused research. The present study investigates impaired emotional functioning specifically related to work, for example, regulation of emotions during the workday.

Insomnia is a sleep disorder characterized by persistent difficulties with initiating or maintaining sleep that reduce sleep quality and sleep duration, increase sleepiness and impairs daily functioning (5th ed.; DSM-5, [17]). Previous research has shown that insomnia is related to deficits in attention and episodic memory [18], which in turn can affect performance and safety [19]. Employees with symptoms of insomnia are less likely to engage in safety behaviors, which in turn can be a consequence of cognitive failures related to poor sleep [20]. Insomnia is also related to increased feelings of hostility and decreased job satisfaction, attentiveness, and joviality among employees [21], making insomnia potentially harmful for interpersonal skills at work. Lastly, insomnia contributes to excessive daytime sleepiness, which has been shown to negatively affect sustained attention and response speed [22].

Complex tasks, emotional work, fast decision making, and interaction with the public are daily occurrences in the police profession, and high cognitive and emotional functioning are crucial for their work. Police employees are dependent on optimal cognitive functioning to detect details and make rational and informed decisions in a limited time [23]. This is important for many occupations, and it is of particular relevance in the police profession where many of the work tasks come with a higher health and safety risk compared to other occupations, for example, responding to crime, violence, and accidents. Reduced cognitive functioning at work due to poor sleep may thus be a serious hazard in this occupation. Well-functioning emotion regulation is important for several critical aspects at the workplace, including collaboration skills, coping, creativity, and work engagement [24,25]. Police employees are expected to remain calm and in control of their emotions, even when their work can be emotionally challenging [26,27]. Sleep-deprived individuals may have a lower threshold for stressful events and experience an increase in negative emotions, for example, anger and anxiety, compared to those who are not deprived of sleep [28].

The potentially harmful effects of poor sleep represent a risk factor for safety, reduced performance, as well as mental and physical health at work [29]. However, we lack knowledge about the longitudinal effects of sleep problems on cognitive and emotional performance in real-life police settings. This study aims to examine the effects of sleep on work-related cognitive and emotional functioning among police employees. We also evaluate how these factors vary across time, that is, if sleep is merely associated with transient state-like changes in cognitive and emotional functioning, or if inadequate sleep also predicts a future decline in cognitive and emotional functioning at work.

1. Methods

1.1. Design and procedure

The study used data from the longitudinal study "Sleep, activity, psychosocial work environment and police health" (SAPPH). The project was approved by the Regional Committee for Medical Research Ethics (REK) of Central Norway in 2018 (2018/299/REK-Central), and performed according to the Declaration of Helsinki [30] and European general data protection regulations. Data were collected through an online survey distributed by e-mail to all employees in a police district in Norway at two separate time points 6 months apart. The baseline data collection (Time 1) was

conducted in October 2018 and the follow-up data collection (Time 2) took place in May 2019.

1.2. Sample

A total of 410 police employees participated in the study at baseline (response rate = 40%). The dropout rate was 50% between the first and second round of data collection, resulting in 206 police employees who answered the full or parts of the questionnaire at both baseline and follow-up. An overview of the sample characteristics is presented in Table 1. Owing to missing values on individual variables (affecting 8% of the cases at baseline and 11% at follow-up), the final sample in the regression analyses consisted of 377 participants at baseline and 184 at follow-up.

1.3. Measures

The questionnaires included items measuring, among others, demographic variables, work schedule, impaired cognitive, and emotional functioning at work, sleep length on workdays, and insomnia.

Background variables. We included three selected background variables in the analyses: age, gender, and rotating shift work. Age and gender were selected as control variables because of their relation to cognitive and emotional functioning in previous research [31–34]. The work schedule was in the questionnaire measured with the following categories: daytime shifts only, equal amounts of evening and daytime shifts, and rotating shifts including night shifts. The variable was for the present study dichotomized into (0) not enrolled in work schedules that include night work and (1) enrolled in rotating shifts that include night work. The final variable was labeled "rotating shift work" and resulted in 50% of the employees being categorized as not enrolled in work schedules that included nighttime work (i.e. 43% daytime only workers and 7% workers with equal amounts of daytime and evening work) and 50% being categorized enrolled rotating shifts including nights (i.e. workers who had a rotating schedule with both daytime, evening, and night work).

Table 1
Sample characteristics

	Baseline ($n = 410$)	Follow-up ($n = 206$)
Gender (%) Female Male	199 (48%) 211 (52%)	100 (48%) 106 (52%)
Age (y) Mean (SD) Min–max Median	40.93 (11.18) 20–68 41.00	42.48 (10.71) 22–65 43.00
Work schedule (%) Nonrotating shift (day/evening) Rotating shift (day/evening/nights)	204 (50%) 206 (50%)	110 (53%) 96 (47%)
Time in police profession Mean (SD) Min—max Median	14.20 (11.15) 0–47 10.00	16.32 (11.47) 0–41 15.00
Time in current position Mean (SD) Min—max Median	5.10 (5.96) 0–40 3.00	4.78 (5.77) 0–34 2.00
Assignments (%) Operational Investigation Administrative Civil justice Prosecution	198 (48%) 149 (34%) 87 (21%) 42 (10%) 18 (4%)	82 (40%) 71 (35%) 56 (27%) 18 (9%) 6 (3%)

SD, standard deviation

Table 2	Tal	ble	2
---------	-----	-----	---

Descriptive statistics and correlations for variables measured at baseline and 6-months follow-up ($N = 184$	-410)
---	-------

					-		-				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Gender ^a	_										
2. Age	03	-									
3. Rotating shift work ^b	20**	44**	-								
4. Sleep length ^b	13**	03	.03	-							
5. Sleep length ^c	17*	.01	08	.60**	-						
6. Insomnia ^b	.13**	02	03	38**	28**	_					
7. Insomnia ^c	.17*	04	.01	42**	37**	.73**	_				
8. Impaired cognitive functioning ^b	.12*	.07	22**	12*	12	.28**	.19**	-			
9. Impaired cognitive functioning ^c	.13	10	18*	13	13	.39**	.41**	.57**	-		
10. Impaired emotional functioning ^b	.15**	01	09	09	17*	.28**	.19*	.57**	.35**	-	
11. Impaired emotional functioning ^c	.20**	02	12	15*	22**	.24**	.21**	.45**	.48**	.62**	-
Mean (SD)	.49 (.50)	40.93 (11.17)	.50 (.50)	6.58 (.82)	6.53 (.83)	11.60 (8.67)	10.63 (8.51)	1.75 (.62)	2.07 (.59)	1.46 (.49)	1.59 (.50)

*p < .05; **p < .01; ^a0 = male, 1 = female; ^b=baseline; ^c=follow-up.

SD, standard deviation.

Insomnia. The Bergen Insomnia Scale [35] assesses symptoms of insomnia through six items based on the American Psychiatric Association's Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV (4th ed.; DSM-4). The instrument is considered a solid measure of insomnia, and has in previous studies shown good convergent and discriminative validity as well as satisfying psychometric properties [35]. The participants were asked to indicate how many days a week (ranging from 0 to 7) during the last month they have struggled with six specific symptoms of insomnia: sleep initiation, sleep maintenance, early awakenings, excessive sleepiness, sleep satisfaction, and adequate rest. The present study used the continuous form of the scale with sum scores ranging from 0 to 42. The internal consistency for insomnia was high at both Time 1 and Time 2 ($\alpha = .85$).

Work-related impaired cognitive and emotional functioning. Impaired cognitive and emotional functioning at work was measured with two subscales from the Burnout Assessment Tool, which measures self-reported cognitive and emotional regulation and functioning specific to work [36]. Impaired cognitive functioning was measured with the following items: "At work, I have trouble staying focused," "At work I struggle to think clearly," "I'm forgetful and distracted at work," "When I'm working, I have trouble concentrating," and "I make mistakes in my work because I have my mind on other things." Impaired emotional functioning was measured with the following items: "At work, I feel unable to control my emotions," " I do not recognize myself in the way I react emotionally at work," "During my work I become irritable when things don't go my way," "I get upset or sad at work without knowing why," and "At work, I may overreact unintentionally." The participants were instructed to indicate how often each statement applied to them in their current work situation on a five-point Likert frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), which were then used to calculate mean scores for each scale. Higher scores indicates greater cognitive and emotional impairment at work. In the present study, the internal consistency was satisfying for both impaired cognitive functioning ($\alpha = .90$, $\alpha = .88$) and impaired emotional functioning ($\alpha = .81$, $\alpha = .79$), measured at baseline and follow-up, respectively.

1.4. Statistical analyses

All analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 27.0. Pearson correlation analysis was applied to examine the correlations between variables measured at baseline and follow-up. Drop-out analysis (*t* tests) was performed to explore potential differences between employees who participated in the study only at baseline and employees who participated at both

Table 3

Hierarchical regression analysis on the relationships between variables measures at baseline and impaired cognitive functioning at work

		Impaired cognitive functioning									
			Baseline ((n = 377)		Follow-up ($n = 184$)					
		β	SE B	Р	R^2	β	SE B	р	R^2		
Model 1	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work	.08 03 22	.07 .03 .07	.138 .646 .000	.06	.11 21 26	.09 .04 .10	.151 .009 .001	.09		
Model 2	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work Insomnia Sleep length	.03 02 22 .27 .00	.06 .03 .07 .04 .04	.498 .740 .000 .000 .978	.13	.02 20 24 .41 .07	.08 .04 .09 .05 .05	.789 .007 .001 .000 .376	.23		
Model 3	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work Insomnia Sleep length Impaired cognitive functioning ^b					01 14 11 .31 .10 .47	.07 .04 .08 .04 .05 .06	.835 .026 .100 .000 .119 .000	.41		

 $a_0 = male, 1 = female; b = baseline.$

SE, standard error.

baseline and follow-up. Multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in two and three steps for impaired cognitive and emotional functioning measured at baseline and follow-up as separate outcomes. Step 1 in the regression analyses included age, gender, and rotating shift work. Step 2 included age, gender, rotating shift work, sleep length on workdays, and insomnia. In the longitudinal analyses, the final Step 3 adjusted for previous symptoms of either impaired cognitive or emotional functioning measured at baseline. Lastly, we performed cross-lagged analyses to test for directional influence and reciprocal relationships [37,38], that is, if impaired cognitive and emotional functioning measured at baseline could predict changes in symptoms of insomnia or sleep length at follow-up. Gender, age, and rotating shift work were included as control variables and the analyses were adjusted for insomnia and sleep length measured at baseline.

2. Results

The demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations between all included variables measured at baseline and 6-months follow-up are shown in Table 2. The level of impaired cognitive and emotional functioning was low, indicating overall high cognitive and emotional functioning. There were no significant differences in impaired emotional and cognitive functioning between employees who only participated at baseline compared to those who participated in the study at both baseline and follow-up. Regarding age differences, employees who participated in the study at both times were slightly older (M = 42.48, SD = 10.71) than those who only participated at baseline (M = 39.37, SD = 11.45), t (408) = 2.84,p < .01, d = .28). Insomnia measured at baseline was positively correlated to both current and future impaired cognitive and emotional functioning measured at baseline and follow-up. Baseline sleep length had negative associations to impaired emotional functioning at baseline and follow-up, and with impaired cognitive functioning at baseline. Rotating shift work was negatively associated with impaired cognitive functioning measured at baseline and follow-up.

Tables 3 and 4 show cross-sectional and longitudinal relationships between variables measured at Time 1 on work-related impaired cognitive and emotional functioning measured at baseline and 6-months follow-up.

Work-related impaired cognitive functioning. The model including age, gender, rotating shift work, sleep length, and insomnia explained 13% of the variance in baseline impaired cognitive functioning (F(5, 371) = 10.87, p < .001) and 23% of the variance in impaired cognitive functioning measured at follow-up (F(5, 178) = 10.50, p < .001). After adjusting the final model for baseline impaired cognitive functioning, the explained variance rose to 41% (*F* (6, 177) = 20.71, *p* < .001). Insomnia measured at Time 1 had positive relations to both current and future impaired cognitive functioning, also when adjusting for previous symptoms of impaired cognitive functioning. Baseline sleep length on workdays had no significant relation to impaired cognitive functioning at either time. Rotating shift work was negatively related to impaired cognitive functioning measured at baseline and followup. Age was negatively associated with impaired cognitive functioning at follow-up, but not when measured simultaneously at baseline. There was no significant relation between gender and impaired cognitive functioning at neither baseline nor follow-up.

Work-related impaired emotional functioning. The model including age, gender, rotating shift work, sleep length, and insomnia explained 10% of the variance in baseline impaired emotional functioning (F(5, 371) = 7.93, p < .001) and 9% of the variance in impaired emotional functioning measured at follow-up (F(5, 178) = 3.70, p < .01). After adjusting the final model for baseline emotional functioning, the explained variance rose to 40% (F(6, 177) = 19.45, p < .001). Insomnia measured at Time 1 was positively related to impaired emotional functioning at both baseline and follow-up, but the relation to future impaired emotional functioning was no longer significant in the fully adjusted model including baseline emotional functioning. Gender had a positive relation to impaired emotional functioning at baseline and followup before the model was adjusted for insomnia, sleep length, and earlier symptoms of impaired emotional functioning. Age, rotating shift work, and sleep length had no association to impaired emotional functioning measured at baseline or follow-up.

Results from the cross-lagged analysis. The cross-lagged regression analyses showed that the baseline impaired cognitive functioning ($\beta = -.02$, p = .727) and impaired emotional functioning T1 ($\beta = -.03$, p = .534) did not predict changes in symptoms of insomnia 6 months later. Impaired cognitive functioning ($\beta = -.02$, p = .761) and impaired emotional functioning ($\beta = -.04$, p = .499) measured at baseline did not predict sleep length 6 months later.

Table 4

Hierarchical regression analysis on the relationships between variables measured at baseline and impaired emotional functioning at work

			Impaired emotional functioning							
			Baseline (n = 377)		Follow-up ($n = 184$)				
		В	SE B	р	R^2	β	SE B	р	R ²	
Model 1	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work	.13 05 08	.05 .03 .06	.012 .423 .165	.03	.18 07 13	.08 .04 .08	.014 .413 .124	.06	
Model 2	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work Insomnia Sleep length	.10 04 08 .28 .04	.05 .02 .06 .03 .03	.065 .499 .180 .000 .431	.10	.13 06 12 .19 03	.08 .04 .08 .05 .05	.090 .468 .139 .018 .729	.09	
Model 3	Gender ^a Age Rotating shift work Insomnia Sleep length Impaired emotional functioning ^b					.02 05 06 .08 .03 .60	.06 .03 .07 .04 .04 .06	.810 .467 .378 .269 .699 .000	.40	

 $a_0 = male, 1 = female; b=baseline.$

SE, standard error.

3. Discussion

The present study examined cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between sleep and work-related impaired cognitive and emotional functioning among Norwegian police employees. The level of impaired cognitive and emotional functioning was low, indicating overall high cognitive and emotional functioning at work. Insomnia had a positive relationship to both impaired emotional functioning and impaired cognitive functioning at work, but only the latter association remained significant after 6 months when adjusting for baseline levels of the constructs. Subjective sleep length and rotating shift work were not associated with a decline in future emotional and cognitive functioning. Lastly, impaired cognitive and emotional functioning did not predict insomnia or sleep length 6 months later, providing support for the directional effect between sleep and cognitive and emotional functioning in the present study. The results demonstrate that the association between insomnia and emotional functioning can be more transient than the effect of insomnia on cognitive functioning. The study underlines the negative effects of insomnia on police employees' cognitive and emotional functioning at work. A stronger focus on the prevention and treatment of insomnia among police employees is warranted, and the possible accumulating effect insufficient and poor-quality sleep has on cognitive functioning should receive more attention in future research.

Insomnia had both cross-sectional and longitudinal relations to impaired cognitive and emotional functioning at work. However, the longitudinal association between insomnia and reduced emotional functioning at work was no longer significant after adjusting for baseline symptoms of impaired emotional functioning, whereas the relationship between insomnia and impaired cognitive functioning was slightly strengthened after 6 months. This finding is in line with previous studies that have shown an accumulating effect of chronic short and shallow sleep that may hinder performance in acute situations and execution of essential tasks like driving and operating equipment [39]. Previous research has shown that sleep disorders are common among police officers and increases the risk of poor performance and negative safety outcomes [40]. Insomnia can impair cognitive performance and functioning, especially attention, problem-solving, as well as episodic and working memory [2,18]. Persistent problems with concentration and decision-making due to sleep problems among police employees may lead to fatal outcomes for the individual employee, their colleagues, and the public.

Police employees are often faced with emotionally challenging events during their workday and need to be able to control their emotions and act rationally to perform their work safely and effectively [41]. Although the present study only found a temporary association between insomnia and impaired emotional functioning. healthy regulation of emotions is fundamentally important for mental health, social relations, and general well-being [42,43]. Overall, our findings are in line with previous studies that have identified impaired cognition and emotional distress as consequences of sleep deprivation and low quality sleep [18,44], and provides new insight into how sleep affects cognitive and emotional function in a work setting. In their line of work, police employees are dependent on optimal cognitive and emotional functioning. This highlights the necessity of ensuring that employees in the police occupation focus on getting enough highquality sleep, as well as providing support and treatment to those who suffer from mild to serious symptoms of insomnia.

Sleep length had no association to impaired cognitive and emotional functioning at work at neither baseline nor 6 months later. Our study demonstrates that the individual experience of having trouble sleeping, lower sleep quality, and reduced daily functioning (i.e. insomnia) have a stronger relationship to cognitive and emotional functioning than average sleep length alone. Previous research has shown that the necessary amount of sleep is highly individual [11], and that good quality sleep can be more important for daily functioning than overall sleep length [45,46]. In addition to providing employees with sufficient rest time between shifts [47], the organization should also focus on their workers' sleep quality. Sleep leadership refers to the supervisors' concern, care and actions directed at improving employees' quality and quantity of sleep, and the presence of high sleep leadership may lead to less sleep disturbances and improved sleep hygiene among employees [48].

This study follows a longitudinal design and provides new knowledge about the relationship between sleep and work-related cognitive and emotional functioning across time. A minimum of 3 months between measurements can be regarded as sufficient to study longitudinal changes in this context [49]. Furthermore, the use of cross-lagged analyses in the present study provides more information about directional influence between insomnia and impaired cognitive functioning than ordinary regression analysis alone [37,38,50]. Although the dropout rate was 50% between the first and second time of measurement, there were no significant mean differences in the included variables, except a small age difference. Furthermore, participants in sleep studies tend to overestimate how long they sleep compared to objectively measured sleep length [51], and the use of self-reported sleep length in the present study may have contributed to an imprecise estimate of sleep duration. The results in the present study might also have been influenced by common method and self-report bias related to the use of questionnaires [52,53]. However, questionnaires have the advantage of being able to capture information that is only available to the individual [54]. The scales used to measure cognitive and emotional impairment were work-specific, making it possible to generalize the finding to other working populations dependent on high cognitive and emotional functioning to perform their work effectively and safely. Owing to the small to moderate sample size at follow-up, we recommend that the findings are replicated in larger samples. Lastly, the present study did not account for past accidents or trauma, psychosocial work factors, or mental or physical illnesses that could have influenced the results. For example, head trauma or anxiety can contribute to sleep disturbances as well as cognitive and emotional impairment [55,56]. However, a serious degree of any illness or trauma would have made the police employees ineligible to perform most tasks in this occupation. Furthermore, employees with extended periods of sickness absence did not participate in the study. This is also reflected in the samples' level of general health, of which 93% of the participants reported as good or very good and merely 7% classified as poor.

Our study demonstrates that poor sleep can influence cognitive and emotional functioning in work settings. This finding highlight why organizations should care about their employees' sleep, especially in high-risk occupations such as the police, fire and rescue services, as well as the military. Enough sleep, in terms of both quantity and quality, is important for the individual's wellbeing as well as for the safety of the public they serve. Organizations should accentuate the importance of sleep and have a low threshold for offering personalized measures aimed at preventing, reducing, and treating sleep problems among their employees. Investing time and resources in ensuring better sleep among employees is an investment in their performance and productivity. Future research is encouraged to replicate the findings in larger samples, other high-risk occupations, and over longer periods with multiple measurement points.

4. Conclusion

Our results demonstrate that insomnia can be more harmful to cognitive and emotional functioning at work than the individuals' work schedule and sleep length are. However, the association between insomnia and impaired emotional functioning was transient and limited to cross-sectional findings. Lastly, the longitudinal relationship between insomnia and impaired cognitive functioning was slightly stronger than the cross-sectional association, indicating that the negative impact of sleep problems on cognition may accumulate over time. Replication of the findings in larger samples is advised.

Conflicts of interest

All authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

References

- Pilcher JJ, Huffcutt AI. Effects of sleep deprivation on performance: a metaanalysis. Sleep 1996;19(4):318–26.
- [2] Fortier-Brochu É, et al. Insomnia and daytime cognitive performance: a metaanalysis. Sleep Medicine Reviews 2012;16(1):83-94.
- [3] Gruber R, Cassoff J. The interplay between sleep and emotion regulation: conceptual framework empirical evidence and future directions. Current Psychiatry Reports 2014;16(11):500.
- [4] Walker MP. The role of sleep in cognition and emotion. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 2009;1156(1):168–97.
- [5] Deliens G, Gilson M, Peigneux P. Sleep and the processing of emotions. Experimental Brain Research 2014;232(5):1403–14.
- [6] Tempesta D, et al. Sleep and emotional processing. Sleep Medicine Reviews 2018;40:183–95.
- [7] Peterson SA, et al. Associations between shift work characteristics, shift work schedules, sleep and burnout in North American police officers: a crosssectional study. BMJ Open 2019;9(11).
- [8] Monk TH, Folkard S. Making shiftwork tolerable. CRC Press; 1992.
- [9] Flo E, et al. Shift-related sleep problems vary according to work schedule. Occupational and Environmental Medicine 2013;70(4):238–45.
- [10] Åkerstedt T, Wright KP. Sleep loss and fatigue in shift work and shift work disorder. Sleep Medicine Clinics 2009;4(2):257–71.
- [11] Hirshkowitz M, et al. National Sleep Foundation's sleep time duration recommendations: methodology and results summary. Sleep Health 2015;1(1): 40-3.
- [12] Lim J, Dinges DF. A meta-analysis of the impact of short-term sleep deprivation on cognitive variables. American Psychological Association; 2010.
- [13] Killgore TJ Balkin, Wesensten NJ. Impaired decision making following 49 h of sleep deprivation. Journal of Sleep Research 2006;15(1):7–13.
- [14] Killgore, et al. Sleep deprivation impairs recognition of specific emotions. Neurobiology of Sleep and Circadian Rhythms 2017;3:10–6.
- [15] Killgore, et al. Sleep deprivation reduces perceived emotional intelligence and constructive thinking skills. Sleep Medicine 2008;9(5):517–26.
- [16] Palmer CA, Alfano CA. Sleep and emotion regulation: an organizing, integrative review. Sleep Medicine Reviews 2017;31:6–16.
- [17] American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, (DSM-5®). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association Publishing; 2013.
- [18] Fortier-Brochu É, Morin CM. Cognitive impairment in individuals with insomnia: clinical significance and correlates. Sleep 2014;37(11):1787–98.
- [19] Park Y-M, Kim SY. Impacts of job stress and cognitive failure on patient safety incidents among hospital nurses. Safety and Health at Work 2013;4(4):210–5.
 [20] Brossoit RM, et al. The effects of sleep on workplace cognitive failure and
- safety. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology 2018;24(4). [21] Scott BA, Judge TA. Insomnia, emotions, and job satisfaction: a multilevel
- study. Journal of Management 2006;32(5):622–45. [22] Yun C-H, et al. Daytime sleepiness associated with poor sustained attention in
- middle and late adulthood. Sleep Medicine 2015;16(1):143–51. [23] Stelfox P, Pease K. Cognition and detection: reluctant bedfellows? Crime sci-
- ence: new approaches to preventing and detecting crime; 2013. p. 191–207. [24] Diener E, Thapa S, Tay L. Positive emotions at work. Annual Review of Orga-
- nizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior 2019;7:451–77.
- [25] Gloria CT, Steinhardt MA. The direct and mediating roles of positive emotions on work engagement among postdoctoral fellows. Studies in Higher Education 2017;42(12):2216–28.

- [26] Pogrebin MR, Poole ED. Emotion management: a study of police response to tragic events; 1995.
- [27] Pogrebin MR, Poole ED. Police and tragic events: the management of emotions. Journal of Criminal Justice 1991;19(4):395-403.
- [28] Minkel JD, et al. Sleep deprivation and stressors: evidence for elevated negative affect in response to mild stressors when sleep deprived. Emotion 2012;12(5):1015-20.
- [29] Litwiller B, et al. The relationship between sleep and work: a meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology 2017;102(4):682.
- [30] World Medical Association. World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki: ethical principles for medical research involving human subjects. World Medical Association; 2014.
- [31] Carstensen LL, et al. Emotional experience improves with age: evidence based on over 10 years of experience sampling. Psychology and Aging 2011;26(1): 21.
- [32] Craik FI, Salthouse TA. The handbook of aging and cognition. Psychology press; 2011.[33] Miller DI, Halpern DF. The new science of cognitive sex differences. Trends in
- [33] Miller DI, Halpern DF. The new science of cognitive sex differences. Trends in Cognitive Sciences 2014;18(1):37–45.
- [34] Domes G, et al. The neural correlates of sex differences in emotional reactivity and emotion regulation. Human Brain Mapping 2010;31(5):758–69.
- [35] Pallesen S, et al. A new scale for measuring insomnia: the Bergen Insomnia Scale. Perceptual and Motor Skills 2008;107(3):691–706.
- [36] Schaufeli W, De Witte H, Desart S. Manual Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT). Leuven, Belgium: KU; 2020.
- [37] Menard S. Handbook of longitudinal research: design, measurement, and analysis. Elsevier; 2007.
- [38] Kearney MW. Cross lagged panel analysis. The SAGE encyclopedia of communication research methods; 2017. p. 312–4.
 [39] Orzeł-Gryglewska J. Consequences of sleep deprivation. International
- [39] Orzeł-Gryglewska J. Consequences of sleep deprivation. International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health 2010;23(1):95– 114.
- [40] Rajaratnam SM, et al. Sleep disorders, health, and safety in police officers. Jama 2011;306(23):2567–78.
- [41] Daus CS, Brown S. Chapter 11: the emotion work of police. In: Ashkanasy N, Härtel C, Zerbe W, editors. Experiencing and managing emotions in the workplace. Emerald Group Publishing Limited; 2012. p. 305–28.
- [42] Kring AM, Sloan DM, editors. Emotion regulation and psychopathology: a transdiagnostic approach to etiology and treatment. Guilford Press; 2009.
- [43] Werner K, Gross JJ. Emotion regulation and psychopathology: a conceptual framework. In: Kring AM, Sloan DM, editors. Emotion regulation and psychopathology: a transdiagnostic approach to etiology and treatment. Guildford Press; 2010. p. 13–37.
- [44] Medic G, Wille M, Hemels ME. Short-and long-term health consequences of sleep disruption. Nature and Science of Sleep 2017;9:151–61.
- [45] Pilcher JJ, Ginter DR, Sadowsky B. Sleep quality versus sleep quantity: relationships between sleep and measures of health, well-being and sleepiness in college students. Journal of Psychosomatic Research 1997;42(6): 583–96.
- [46] Lallukka T, et al. Association of sleep duration and sleep quality with the physical, social, and emotional functioning among Australian adults. Sleep Health 2018;4(2):194–200.
- [47] Vedaa Ø, et al. Sleep detriments associated with quick returns in rotating shift work: a diary study. Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine 2017;59(6):522–7.
- [48] Sianoja M, et al. The relationship between leadership support and employee sleep. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology 2019;25(3):187–202.
- [49] Saksvik IB, et al. Individual differences in tolerance to shift work–a systematic review. Sleep Medicine Reviews 2011;15(4):221–35.
- [50] Selig JP, Little TD. Autoregressive and cross-lagged panel analysis for longitudinal data; 2012.
- [51] Lauderdale DS, et al. Sleep duration: how well do self-reports reflect objective measures? The CARDIA Sleep Study. Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.) 2008;19(6):838.
- [52] Podsakoff PM, et al. Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology 2003;88(5):879–903.
- [53] Donaldson SI, Grant-Vallone EJ. Understanding self-report bias in organizational behavior research. Journal of Business and Psychology 2002;17(2):245– 60.
- [54] Patten ML. Questionnaire research: a practical guide. Routledge; 2016.
- [55] Saksvik SB, et al. The prevalence and stability of sleep-wake disturbance and fatigue throughout the first year after mild traumatic brain injury. Journal of Neurotrauma 2020;37(23):2528–41.
- [56] Etkin A, Wager TD. Functional neuroimaging of anxiety: a meta-analysis of emotional processing in PTSD, social anxiety disorder, and specific phobia. American Journal of Psychiatry 2007;164(10):1476–88.