Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

The current study sought to investigate whether stress (operational and organizational police stress), work-Life balance, and coping strategies (constructive and destructive coping strategies) predict job satisfaction in police personnel. In this context demographic variables were gender, designation, age, background and experience. The data collected with the help of the measures for different variables were subjected to two types of analysis, namely, analysis of variance and stepwise multiple regression analysis. For the purpose of the former type of analysis, the demographic variables were categorized into groups. As such gender had the categories male and female, designation was categorized into constable, head constable, sub inspector and officer, age had four categories 20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60, background had two categories rural and urban and experience had three categories 1-15,16-30 and above 30. Analysis of variance was performed to determine the main and interaction effects of demographic variables on job satisfaction, stress (operational and organizational stress), work-life balance, and coping strategies (constructive and destructive).

To find out the relative contribution of work-life balance, stress (operational and organizational stress), and coping strategies (constructive and destructive) to the variance in the Job Satisfaction, stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted.
The results obtained after analyses of variance, have been discussed after presenting a summary of the findings regarding each one of the components one by one.

**Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction**

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. The values of $F$ for these variables are 2.521, .340 and .910 respectively. This means that differences in sex, designation and age do not lead to differences in job satisfaction. This fact is evident from the mean job satisfaction scores of different groups given in Table 4.1.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on job satisfaction, all the three interactions has been found insignificant ($F= .707, p .548$),($F=.980, p.376$) and ($F=.593, p.761$). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age also appears to be insignificant ($F=.347, p .556$).

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. These findings are inconsistent with the past studies. The relationship between sex and job satisfaction has been extensively researched. However, the results have been mixed. Historically, it has generally been assumed that females express lower levels of job satisfaction than males (Hulin and Smith, 1976). Spector (2008) offered some reasons for this: (1) females were not likely to have managerial/professional jobs,
(2) females may be happier with lower pay and less responsibility than men, and (3) females have lower expectations about what they will receive or because they compare themselves to other women who are in similar circumstances. However, some studies reported no relationship at all between sex and overall job satisfaction (for example, Ting, 1997; Oshagbemi, 2000; Donohue and Heywood, 2004). In police research, Brough and Frame (2004) found that neither sex nor rank was significantly related to job satisfaction among 400 New Zealand police officers. Moreover, meta-analyses conducted by Witt and Nye (1992) found no differences between males and females.

It appears that job level is positively correlated with job satisfaction; that is, those at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher satisfaction with various aspects of their work (Cranny et al., 1992; Bodur, 2002). Higher level jobs provide more satisfaction compared to lower level jobs. A meta-analysis examining the relationship between job level and job satisfaction using data from 35 independent samples and over 18,000 respondents concluded that as the job level increased so did job satisfaction (Robie et al., 1998). They stated that the positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to have better working conditions, pay, autonomy and prestige. This also can be applied for higher rank position. Oshagbemi (2000), in his study on United Kingdom academics’ job satisfaction, found a statistically significant association between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction. Although job
satisfaction is positively linked to an employee’s position within the company, a study by Mossholder et al. (1981) found that job satisfaction decreases with an increase in the job level. In contrast, Aronson et al. (2005) reported no relationship between job level and job satisfaction.

Studies based on life cycles and work stages suggest that determinants of job satisfaction change depending on the particular stage of the career. Although many studies have examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction, the results are contradictory. For instance, while numerous studies have reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (for example, Al-Otaibi, 1992; Okpara, 2004; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001), others have identified either no relationship (for example, Ting, 1997 and Reiner and Zhao, 1999) or even a significant negative relationship (Ganzach, 1998).

The question is, 'Does job satisfaction change over the career lifespan?' Researchers like Clark et al. (1996) refer to a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. That is, the U-shaped curve results when the relation between job satisfaction and age starts high, declines and then starts to improve again. More specifically, when a worker joins an organisation, he may have some unrealistic assumptions about what he is going to derive from his work. These assumptions make him more satisfied. However, when these assumptions fall short of reality, job satisfaction goes down. It starts rising again as he starts to assess the job in the right perspective and corrects his assumptions.
Two large studies, one conducted in England (Clark et al., 1996) and the other in nine countries including the United States (Birdi et al., 1995), found a curvilinear relation between age and job satisfaction. Although it would seem tenable to suggest that there is consistent empirical evidence to show that there is a positive association between age and job satisfaction, Oshagbemi (2003) stated that the trend of this association, whether it is linear or curvilinear, remains unsettled.

Demographic Variables and Work-Life Balance

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are .198, .930 and 2.040 respectively. This means that differences in sex, designation and age do not lead to differences in work-life balance. This fact is evident from mean Work-Life balance scores of different groups given in Table 4.3.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on work-life balance, all the three interactions has been found insignificant (F= 1.595, p .190),(F=.132, p.877) and (F=1.054, p.393). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age appears to be significant (F=5.359, p .021).

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. These results are inconsistent with past studies. Studies by Gutek et al. (1991), Williams and Alliger
Arifa B. Kazmi PhD thesis  Chapter 6: Discussion

(1994), Higgins et al. (1994), Loscocco (1997), Aryee et al. (1999b), Grzywacz et al. (2007), Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) reported gender differences with respect to work family conflict. Gutek et al. (1991) indicated that women reported more work interference in family than men, despite spending about the same number of hours in paid work as men. Although women spent more hours in family work than men, they reported the same level of family interference in work. Williams and Alliger (1994) found that spillover of unpleasant moods occur both from work to family settings and from family to work though evidence for the spillover of pleasant moods was weak. Both family to work and work to family spillovers were stronger for women than men. Further, it was found that extent to which work interfered with family for a given day was found to be positively related to self reported job involvement for that day. Extent to which family interfered with work on a given day was found to be positively related to distress in family roles during the day, family intrusion into work during the day and self reported family involvement for that day.

Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) also found that women experienced significantly higher family interference with work as compared to men. However there were no significant differences between men and women in the experience of work interference with family.

A number of studies reported relationship between work centrality/ work salience / job involvement and work life balance/work family conflict. Greenhaus et al. (1989) found work salience to be a strong predictor of work family conflict for
the women, but found it to be unrelated in the case of men. Williams and Alliger (1994) also found that extent to which work interfered with family for a given day was found to be positively related to self reported job involvement for that day.

Aryee and Luk (1996) in a study of 207 dual earner couples in Hong Kong found that men significantly identified more with the work role, had more experience in the workforce, and perceived more spouse support. In contrast, women significantly, identified more with the family role, had main responsibility for childcare, spent more time per week with the children and perceived more need for family responsive policies. In addition, the results revealed that women balance their work and family identity by trading off one for the other. In contrast, men are able to simultaneously identify with work and family roles. Hammer et al. (1997) found that higher levels of work involvement were related to higher levels of work family conflict (WFC).

**Demographic Variables and Operational Stress**

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 2.642, 1.567 and .401 respectively. This means that differences in sex, designation and age do not lead to differences in operational stress. This fact is evident from the differences in mean operational stress scores of different groups given in Table 4.6.
With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on operational stress, all the three interactions has been found insignificant (F= .583, p.626),(F=.229, p.796) and (F=1.341, p.230). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age appears to be significant (F=3.927, p .048).

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. These results are inconsistent with past studies. Research has shown that women consistently report higher levels of psychological and physical stress than their male co-workers (see Derogatis and Savitz, 1999). It is certainly plausible that the organizational environment in the law enforcement field may have a similar effect on levels of work-related stress reported by male and female officers. Additionally, research involving women working in other non-traditional occupations, like steel mills and mailrooms, has shown that females working in these environments may experience hostility that may elevate reported levels of stress (Walshok, 1981). Furthermore, research has also shown that males and females have different viewpoints on what is stressful (Stotland, 1991) and how to cope with stress when it becomes problematic (Barnett et al., 1987). These differences may also exist among law enforcement officers.

Workplace problems are the strongest if not the only predictors of occupational stress for police (Crank et al., 1995; Hurrell, 1995; Kirkcaldy et al., 1995; Brown et al., 1996; Morash and Haarr (1995) found that for women, 39 percent, and for
men, 28 percent of the variance in stress could be explained by workplace problems. For women, lack of influence on policing, language harassment, problems with racial and ethnic group bias, being treated like they were “invisible,” and overestimates of physical abilities were the significant predictors. For men, the strongest predictors were lack of influence and being ridiculed and set up for failure by other officers.

Ellison and Genz (1983) identified women’s unique stressors as lack of acceptance by the male subculture and the related denial of needed information, alliances, protection, and sponsorship from supervisors and colleagues. Wexler and Logan (1983) identified the woman-specific stressors of sexist, negative attitudes of male officers, group blame, responses by male officers, and lack of role models. Finally, Goolkasian et al. (1985) identified women’s special stressors as disapproval from fellow officers in the academy and in first jobs, coworkers’ demands that the women prove themselves, and lack of informal tutoring and mentoring. The literature specific to police women suggested the hypothesis that predictors of stress would be unique to gender groups of police officers. Support networks Work-related stress occurs not only because of workplace problems, but also because these stressors are not counteracted by family and coworker support for work activities (Bannerman, 1996; Cullen et al., 1985; Ganster et al., 1986; Graf, 1986; Anne Morris et al., 1999; LaRocco et al., 1980). For police, important support networks include family, friends and colleagues.
Demographic Variables and Organizational Stress

Result shows that the main effect of sex is significant. While the main effects of designation and age are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 6.464, .546 and .055 respectively. This means that differences in sex lead to differences in organizational stress while the differences in designation and age do not lead to differences in organizational stress. This fact is evident from the mean organizational stress scores of different groups given in Table 4.7.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on organizational Stress, all the three interactions has been found insignificant (F= .333, p .802), (F=.011, p.989) and (F=.332, p.939). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age also appears to be insignificant (F=.278, p .598).

Result shows that the main effect of sex is significant. While the main effects of designation and age are insignificant. Female police personnel are experiencing more organizational stress than males. These findings are consistent with past studies. Research in other organizational contexts has shown that women consistently report higher levels of psychological and physical stress than their male co-workers (Derogatis and Savitz, 1999). It is certainly plausible that the organizational environment in the law enforcement field may have a similar effect on levels of work-related stress reported by male and female officers. Additionally, research involving women working in other non-traditional occupations, like steel mills and
mailrooms, has shown that females working in these environments may experience hostility that may elevate reported levels of stress (Walshok, 1981). Furthermore, research has also shown that males and females have different viewpoints on what is stressful (Stotland, 1991) and how to cope with stress when it becomes problematic (Barnett et al., 1987). These differences may also exist among law enforcement officers.

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workplace problems. For women, lack of influence on policing, language harassment, problems with racial and ethnic group bias, being treated like they were “invisible,” and overestimates of physical abilities were the significant predictors. For men, the strongest predictors were lack of influence and being ridiculed and set up for failure by other officers.

Ellison and Genz (1983) identified women's unique stressors as lack of acceptance by the male subculture and the related denial of needed information, alliances, protection, and sponsorship from supervisors and colleagues. Wexler and Logan (1983) identified the woman-specific stressors of sexist, negative attitudes of male officers, group blame, responses by male officers, and lack of role models. Finally, Goolkasian et al. (1985) identified women's special stressors as disapproval from fellow officers in the academy and in first jobs, coworkers' demands that the women prove themselves, and lack of informal tutoring and mentoring. The literature specific to police women suggested the hypothesis that predictors of stress would be unique to gender groups of police officers. Support networks Work-related stress occurs not only because of workplace problems, but also because these stressors are not counteracted by family and coworker support for work activities (Bannerman, 1996; Cullen et al., 1985; Ganster et al., 1986; Graf, 1986; Anne Morris et al., 1999; LaRocco et al., 1980). For police, important support networks include family, friends and colleagues.
Demographic Variables and Constructive Coping

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 1.609, .594 and .430 respectively. This means that differences in sex, designation and age do not lead to differences in constructive coping. This fact is evident from the mean constructive coping scores of different groups given in Table 4.9.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on constructive coping, all the three interactions has been found insignificant (F= .140, p .936),(F=.176, p.839) and (F=1.211, p.296). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age also appears to be insignificant (F=1.442, p .231).

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. These findings are inconsistent with past studies. Individuals who are affluent, healthy, capable, and optimistic are seen as resourceful and, thus, are less vulnerable toward the stress of life and are able to cope up with stressful situation. It is of most importance to be competent to handle a stressful situation. But actual competence is not a sufficient prerequisite. If the individual underestimates his potential for action, no adaptive strategies will be developed. Therefore, perceived competence is crucial. This has been labeled 'perceived self-efficacy' or 'optimistic self-beliefs' by Bandura (1992, 1995).
Behavioural change is facilitated by a personal sense of control. If people believe that they can take action to solve a problem instrumentally, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to this decision. While outcome expectancies refer to the perception of the possible consequences of one's action, perceived self-efficacy pertains to personal action control or agency (Bandura, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Wallston, 1994). A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do"-cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to master challenging demands by means of adaptive action. It can also be regarded as an optimistic view of one's capacity to deal with stress.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and academic performance. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede the motivation to act. Individuals with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher goals and stick to them (Locke & Latham, 1990). Actions are reshaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons
invest more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, the former recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new situations. A sense of competence can be acquired by mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or physiological feedback (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy, however, is not the same as positive illusions or unrealistic optimism, since it is based on experience and does not lead to unreasonable risk taking. Instead, it leads to venturesome behaviour that is within reach of one’s capabilities.

**Demographic Variables and Destructive Coping:**

Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are .671, .111 and .189 respectively. This means that differences in sex, designation and age do not lead to differences in destructive coping. This fact is evident from the mean destructive coping scores of different groups given in Table 4.11.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on destructive coping, all the three interactions has been found insignificant (F= .044, p .988),(F=.040, p.961) and (F=.718, p.657). The three way interaction among sex, designation and age also appears to be insignificant (F=.047, p .829).
Result shows that the main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age are insignificant. These findings are not on same line with past studies. Positive coping mechanisms are viewed to be the most appropriate way to decrease stress and avoid feelings of burnout. Additionally, it has been suggested that destructive coping strategies may further exacerbate levels of stress (Lazarus, 1990). Officers that use negative coping strategies face an increased likelihood of experiencing chronic stress that may ultimately result in loss of motivation, burnout, and an eventual withdrawal from police work (Hurrel, 1986; Maslach, 1976; Zhao et al., 2003). It has also been found that male and female officers may use different types of coping mechanisms (Haarr and Morash, 1999).

Individuals who are affluent, healthy, capable, and optimistic are seen as resourceful and, thus, are less vulnerable toward the stress of life. It is of most importance to be competent to handle a stressful situation. But actual competence is not a sufficient prerequisite. If the individual underestimates his potential for action, no adaptive strategies will be developed. Therefore, perceived competence is crucial. This has been labeled 'perceived self-efficacy' or 'optimistic self-beliefs' by Bandura (1992, 1995).

Behavioural change is facilitated by a personal sense of control. If people believe that they can take action to solve a problem instrumentally, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to this decision. While outcome
**Chapter 6: Discussion**

**expectancies** refer to the perception of the possible consequences of one's action, **perceived self-efficacy** pertains to personal action control or agency (Bandura, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Wallston, 1994). A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do"-cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to master challenging demands by means of adaptive action. It can also be regarded as an optimistic view of one's capacity to deal with stress.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and academic performance. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede the motivation to act. Individuals with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher goals and stick to them (Locke & Latham, 1990). Actions are preshaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons invest more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, the former recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their
environments, or create new situations. A sense of competence can be acquired by mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or physiological feedback (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy, however, is not the same as positive illusions or unrealistic optimism, since it is based on experience and does not lead to unreasonable risk taking. Instead, it leads to venturesome behaviour that is within reach of one's capabilities.

Demographic variables and job satisfaction

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are .605 and 1.826 respectively. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in job satisfaction. This fact is evident from the differences in mean job satisfaction scores of different groups given in Table 4.13.

With reference to effects of interactions among demographic variables on job satisfaction, interaction has been found insignificant (F= .140, p .869).

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in job satisfaction. These findings are inconsistent with past studies. Researchers suggest that employees' years of experience are related to their job satisfaction and organizational commitment (for example, Dawal et al., 2008; Fosam et al., 1998). Employees' levels of job
satisfaction would then increase after a number of years of service. According to some researchers, such as Clark *et al.* (1996) and Oshagbemi (2000), individuals with longer service may experience greater satisfaction since they have found a job that matches their needs. Similarly, a study by Al-Ajmi (2001) among 153 managers in the Kuwaiti oil industry from three different oil companies reported that the number of years of experience has a positive effect on job satisfaction. He found that managers with more than ten years’ experience were more satisfied than managers with less experience.

Nevertheless, Clark *et al.* (1996) indicated that, in some cases, a longer tenure does not necessarily lead to increased levels of job satisfaction. For example, studies by Bedeian *et al.* (1992), and Nestor and Leary (2000), found no relationship between job satisfaction and years of experience. However, research conducted by Savery (1996) found a negative relationship between longer tenure in a job and levels of job satisfaction. Researchers like Hom and Kinicki (2001) and Trevor (2001) highlighted possible factors, such as low job mobility and external labour market conditions, contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction.

As discussed with regards to the age factor, the years of experience factor was found to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction in some studies. For example, Ronen (1978) highlighted that employees’ expectations are high at the time of appointment, but when these expectations are not met, the resultant effect leads to a drop in job satisfaction. As employees become more mature and experienced, their
expectations will be more attainable, which results in increased job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (2000) attributed the increase in job satisfaction over the length of time to factors such as job stability and responsibility, autonomy and opportunities for promotion.

Background as a demographic variable has been found to have no significant effect on job satisfaction. It may be conjectured that being rural or urban has nothing to do with the experience of job satisfaction. The research in the relationship of area of residence is scanty. However, there are some studies that have found moderate correlation between the quality of housing and life satisfaction, Andrews and Wibhey (1976); Campbel et al (1976). This may be at least one factor leading to the difference in life satisfaction in urban and rural subjects. It may be noted that in India there is a noticeable difference between the quality of housing in urban and rural areas.

**Demographic Variables and Work-Life Balance**

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 2.213 and 2.746 respectively. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in work-life balance. This fact is evident from the differences in mean work-life balance scores of different groups given in Table 4.15.
With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on work-life balance, interaction has been found insignificant (F= .517, p .597).

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in work-life balance. Background as a demographic variable has been found to have no significant effect on work-life balance. It may be conjectured that being rural or urban has nothing to do with the experience of work-life balance. The research in the relationship of area of residence is scanty. However, there are some studies that have found moderate correlation between the quality of housing and life satisfaction, Andrews and Wibhey (1976); Campbel et al (1976). This may be at least one factor leading to the difference in life satisfaction in urban and rural subjects. It may be noted that in India there is a noticeable difference between the quality of housing in urban and rural areas.

**Demographic Variables and Operational Stress:**

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 1.662 and .198 respectively. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in operational stress. This fact is evident from the differences in mean operational stress scores of different groups given in Table 4.17.
With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on operational stress, interaction has been found insignificant ($F = .712, p = .491$).

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in operational stress. Background as a demographic variable has been found to have no significant effect on operational stress. It may be conjectured that being rural or urban has nothing to do with the experience of stress. The research in the relationship of area of residence is scanty. However, there are some studies that have found moderate correlation between the quality of housing and life satisfaction, Andrews and Wibhey (1976); Campbell et al (1976). This may be at least one factor leading to the difference in the experience stress in urban and rural subjects. It may be noted that in India there is a noticeable difference between the quality of housing in urban and rural areas.

**Demographic Variables and Organizational Stress:**

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. The values of $F$ for these variables are $.423$ and $.286$ respectively. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in organizational stress. This fact is evident from the differences in mean organizational stress scores of different groups given in Table 4.19.
With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on organizational stress, interaction has been found insignificant \((F = .103, p = .902)\).

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in organizational stress. Background as a demographic variable has been found to have no significant effect on organizational stress. It may be conjectured that being rural or urban has nothing to do with the experience of stress. The research in the relationship of area of residence is scanty. However, there are some studies that have found moderate correlation between the quality of housing and life satisfaction, Andrews and Wibhey (1976); Campbel et al (1976). This may be at least one factor leading to the difference in the experience stress in urban and rural subjects. It may be noted that in India there is a noticeable difference between the quality of housing in urban and rural areas.

**Demographic Variables and Constructive Coping:**

Result shows that the main effect of background is insignificant and experience are significant. The values of \(F\) for these variables are .009 and 4.666 respectively. This means that differences in background do not lead to differences in constructive coping while the differences in experience lead to differences in Constructive Coping. This fact is evident from the
differences in mean Constructive Coping scores of different groups given in Table 4.21.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on Constructive Coping, interaction has been found insignificant (F= .672, p .511).

Post hoc analyses using the Tukey HSD indicated that the constructive coping was significantly higher in police personnel with 16-30 year experience (M = 17.81, SD = 2.12) than in police personnel with 1-15 year experience (M=17.00, SD= 2.53).

Result shows that the main effect of background is insignificant and experience are significant. This means that differences in background do not lead to differences in constructive coping while the differences in experience lead to differences in Constructive Coping. Constructive coping was significantly higher in police personnel with 16-30 year experience. These findings are somehow consistent with past studies. Individuals who are affluent, healthy, capable, and optimistic are seen as resourceful and, thus, are less vulnerable toward the stress of life. It is of most importance to be competent to handle a stressful situation. But actual competence is not a sufficient prerequisite. If the individual underestimates his potential for action, no adaptive strategies will be developed. Therefore, perceived competence is crucial. This has been labeled 'perceived self-efficacy' or 'optimistic self-beliefs' by Bandura (1992, 1995).
Behavioural change is facilitated by a personal sense of control. If people believe that they can take action to solve a problem instrumentally, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to this decision. While outcome expectancies refer to the perception of the possible consequences of one's action, perceived self-efficacy pertains to personal action control or agency (Bandura, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Wallston, 1994). A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do"-cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to master challenging demands by means of adaptive action. It can also be regarded as an optimistic view of one's capacity to deal with stress.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and academic performance. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede the motivation to act. Individuals with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher goals and stick to them (Locke & Latham, 1990). Actions are preshaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons
invest more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, the former recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new situations. A sense of competence can be acquired by mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or physiological feedback (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy, however, is not the same as positive illusions or unrealistic optimism, since it is based on experience and does not lead to unreasonable risk taking. Instead, it leads to venturesome behaviour that is within reach of one's capabilities.

**Demographic Variables and Destructive Coping:**

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. The values of F for these variables are 1.172 and 2.310 respectively. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in Destructive Coping. This fact is evident from the differences in mean Destructive Coping scores of different groups given in Table 4.24.

With reference to the effects of interactions among demographic variables on Destructive Coping, interaction has been found insignificant (F= 2.592, p .076).

Result shows that the main effects of demographic variables background and experience are insignificant. This means that differences in background and experience do not lead to differences in Destructive Coping. These findings are
not on the same line with other researches. Individuals who are affluent, healthy, capable, and optimistic are seen as resourceful and, thus, are less vulnerable toward the stress of life. It is of most importance to be competent to handle a stressful situation. But actual competence is not a sufficient prerequisite. If the individual underestimates his potential for action, no adaptive strategies will be developed. Therefore, perceived competence is crucial. This has been labeled 'perceived self-efficacy' or 'optimistic self-beliefs' by Bandura (1992, 1995). Behavioural change is facilitated by a personal sense of control. If people believe that they can take action to solve a problem instrumentally, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to this decision. While outcome expectancies refer to the perception of the possible consequences of one's action, perceived self-efficacy pertains to personal action control or agency (Bandura, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Wallston, 1994). A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do"-cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to master challenging demands by means of adaptive action. It can also be regarded as an optimistic view of one's capacity to deal with stress.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal
development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and academic performance. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede the motivation to act. Individuals with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher goals and stick to them (Locke & Latham, 1990). Actions are preshaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons invest more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, the former recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new situations. A sense of competence can be acquired by mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or physiological feedback (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy, however, is not the same as positive illusions or unrealistic optimism, since it is based on experience and does not lead to unreasonable risk taking. Instead, it leads to venturesome behaviour that is within reach of one's capabilities.

**PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION IN POLICE PERSONNEL**

A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to evaluate whether work-Life balance, operational stress, organizational stress, constructive coping and destructive coping scores were necessary to predict job satisfaction among police personnel. At step 1 of the analysis work-life balance entered into the
regression equation and was significantly related to job satisfaction $F(1,348) = 29.97$, $p < .001$. The multiple correlation coefficient was .289, indicating approximately 7.9% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by work-life balance. At step 2 of the analysis operational stress enter into the equation and significantly related to job satisfaction ($F(2,347) = 19.02$, $p < .001$). The multiple correlation coefficient was .314, indicating approximately 2.0% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by operational stress. At step 3 of the analysis destructive coping enter into the equation and significantly related to job satisfaction ($F(3,346) = 14.28$, $p < .001$). The multiple correlation coefficient was .332, indicating approximately 1.1% of the variance of the Job Satisfaction could be accounted for by Constructive Coping. While organizational stress and destructive Coping did not enter the equation.

Result reveals that the correlation (Beta) between work-life balance and job satisfaction (Beta= .236) is significant at the .01 level. The correlation between operational stress and job satisfaction -.154 is significant at the .01 level and the correlation (Beta) between destructive coping and job satisfaction is -.109 which is significant at .05 level.

In the present study, work-life balance has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. On the same line a number of researchers like Adams et al. (1996), Duxbury and Higgins (2001), Martins et al. (2002), Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003), Schieman et al. (2003), Ezzedeen and Swiercz (2002), Grzywacz and Bass (2003), Sandhu and Mehta (2006), Pal and
Saksvik (2007), and Haar and Bardoel (2008) found that work life balance/work family conflict affects job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, career satisfaction and job stress. Adams et al. (1996) found that relationships between work and family can have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) examined the effects of three types of work family conflict – role overload (having too much to do), work to family interference and family to work interference on the organizational performance and quality of life of employees. It was found that work-life conflict had a negative impact on organizational performance and on employees. Employees who are overloaded or whose work interfered with family (vice-versa) were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/physical health.

Martins et al. (2002) examined the moderating effects of individual differences (gender, age, marital status, parental status) and sources of support (coworkers, community, financial resources) on the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. The results indicated that career satisfaction of women and that of elder individuals of both genders was most adversely affected by work-family conflict. Whereas women’s career satisfaction was negatively affected by work-family conflict throughout their lives, men showed such adverse effects only later in career. It was also found that relationship was stronger for individuals who were in the
minority gender in their work groups, but it was weaker for those who had strong community ties.

Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) examined the relation between employees’ beliefs about having a balance between work and personal life, and the feeling of job stress, job satisfaction, and reasons why one might quit his/her job. The findings indicated that having a lack of work/life balance was an occupational stressor that leads to strains, including feeling of overall work strain, job dissatisfaction, non work related reasons for leaving and turnover intentions. Thomas & Ganster (1995) found that there is an association between family-friendly work environments and others factors of interest including turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Such employees felt less work/family conflict and at the same time reported less turnover, burnout, absenteeism and increased organizational commitment.

Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to both job and family dissatisfaction, which were positively related to general psychological distress (i.e., combined symptoms of depression and anxiety), that was in turn positively related to heavy drinking. Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to alcohol problems only among people with strong tension-reduction expectancies (e.g., people who believe that drinking leads to relaxation and alleviates negative emotions).

In the present study, operational stress has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. On the same line literature supports the view that work stress is associated with
low levels of job satisfaction (Deborah et al., 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Fletcher and Payne (1980) indicate that since a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, high levels of satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. Based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 2002). Stress can differ between occupations. Miner (1992) pointed out that job satisfaction is relatively low in stressful professions, such as the police and health-care workers.

In the present study, destructive coping has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. On the same line several studies indicate that improper or maladaptive coping contributes to the intensity of perceived stress instead of reducing stress levels (Lazarus, 1990; Aldwin, 1994). In addition, failure to cope effectively with stress can lead to long-term and chronic stress (Loo, 1984). Police officers who use maladaptive coping skills (e.g. excessive alcohol intake, smoking, overeating, or drug use) are more likely to experience chronic, long-term stress (Hurrel, 1986). Consequently, ongoing and long-term police stress can result in burnout, reduced motivation and, ultimately, withdrawal from police work (Maslach, 1976; Violanti and Aron, 1993).

**Predictors of job satisfaction in male police personnel**

A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to evaluate whether work-life balance, operational stress, organizational
stress, constructive coping and destructive coping scores were necessary to predict job satisfaction among male Police personnel. At step 1 of the analysis work-life balance entered into the regression equation and was significantly related to job satisfaction $F (1,333) = 26.30$, $p < .001$. The multiple correlation coefficient was .271, indicating approximately 7.3% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by work-life balance. At step 2 of the analysis operational stress enter into the equation and significantly related to job satisfaction ($F (2,332) = 16.66$, $p < .001$). The multiple correlation coefficient was .302, indicating approximately 1.8% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by operational stress. At step 3 of the analysis constructive coping enter into the equation and significantly related to job satisfaction ($F (3,331) = 12.80$, $p < .001$). The multiple correlation coefficient was .322, indicating approximately 1.3% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by constructive coping. While organizational stress and destructive coping did not enter the equation.

Result reveals that the correlation (Beta) between work-life balance and job satisfaction (Beta= .229) is significant at the .01 level. The correlation between operational stress and job satisfaction -.141 is significant at the .01 level and the correlation (Beta) between constructive coping and job satisfaction is .114 which is significant at .05 level.

In the present study, work-life balance has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction in male police personnel. Findings of the present studies are consistent with
past studies. A number of researchers like Adams et al. (1996), Duxbury and Higgins (2001), Martins et al. (2002), Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003), Schieman et al. (2003), Ezzedeen and Swiercz (2002), Grzywacz and Bass (2003), Sandhu and Mehta (2006), Pal and Saksvik (2007), and Haar and Bardoel (2008) found that work life balance/work family conflict affects job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, career satisfaction and job stress. Adams et al. (1996) found that relationships between work and family can have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) examined the effects of three types of work family conflict – role overload (having too much to do), work to family interference and family to work interference on the organizational performance and quality of life of employees. It was found that work-life conflict had a negative impact on organizational performance and on employees. Employees who are overloaded or whose work interfered with family (vice-versa) were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/physical health. Thomas & Ganster (1995) found that there is an association between family-friendly work environments and others factors of interest including turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Such employees felt less work/family conflict and at the same time reported less turnover, burnout, absenteeism and increased organizational commitment.
Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to both job and family dissatisfaction, which were positively related to general psychological distress (i.e., combined symptoms of depression and anxiety), that was in turn positively related to heavy drinking. Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to alcohol problems only among people with strong tension-reduction expectancies (e.g., people who believe that drinking leads to relaxation and alleviates negative emotions).

Martins et al. (2002) examined the moderating effects of individual differences (gender, age, marital status, parental status) and sources of support (coworkers, community, financial resources) on the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. The results indicated that career satisfaction of women and that of elder individuals of both genders was most adversely affected by work-family conflict. Whereas women’s career satisfaction was negatively affected by work-family conflict throughout their lives, men showed such adverse effects only later in career. It was also found that relationship was stronger for individuals who were in the minority gender in their work groups, but it was weaker for those who had strong community ties.

Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) examined the relation between employees’ beliefs about having a balance between work and personal life, and the feeling of job stress, job satisfaction, and reasons why one might quit his/her job. The findings indicated that having a lack of work/life balance was an occupational stressor that leads to strains, including feeling of
overall work strain, job dissatisfaction, non work related reasons for leaving and turnover intentions.

In the present study, work-life balance has been found to be a significant predictor of operational stress in male police personnel. on the same line the literature supports the view that work stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Deborah et al., 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Fletcher and Payne (1980) indicate that since a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, high levels of satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. Based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 2002). Stress can differ between occupations. Miner (1992) pointed out that job satisfaction is relatively low in stressful professions, such as the police and health-care workers.

In the present study, constructive coping has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction in male police personnel. Positive coping mechanisms are considered to be the more appropriate approach to reduce psychological and physical stress. Several studies indicate that improper or maladaptive coping contributes to the intensity of perceived stress instead of reducing stress levels (Lazarus, 1990; Aldwin, 1994). In addition, failure to cope effectively with stress can lead to long-term and chronic stress (Loo, 1984). Police officers who use maladaptive coping skills (e.g. excessive alcohol intake, smoking, overeating, or drug use) are more likely to experience chronic, long-term stress (Hurrel, 1986). Consequently, ongoing
and long-term police stress can result in burnout, reduced motivation and, ultimately, withdrawal from police work (Maslach, 1976; Violanti and Aron, 1993).

**Predictors of job satisfaction in female police personnel**

A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to evaluate whether work-life balance, operational stress, organizational stress, constructive coping and destructive coping scores were necessary to predict job satisfaction among female police personnel. At step 1 of the analysis organizational stress entered into the regression equation and was significantly related to job satisfaction $F (1,13) = 5.86, p < .05$. The multiple correlation coefficient was .558, indicating approximately 31.1% of the variance of the job satisfaction could be accounted for by organizational stress. While work-life balance, operational stress, constructive coping and destructive coping did not enter the equation.

In the present study, organizational stress has been found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction in female police personnel. The literature supports the view that work stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Deborah et al., 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Fletcher and Payne (1980) indicate that since a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, high levels of satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. Based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 2002).
Stress can differ between occupations. Miner (1992) pointed out that job satisfaction is relatively low in stressful professions, such as the police and health-care workers.