CHAPTER-7

SUMMARY

The present research aims at investigating whether Stress, Work-Life Balance, and 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.

STRESS

Police work is often considered to be a highly stressful occupation. Not only are police officers frequently exposed to the most violent, antisocial and mistrustful elements of society, they are also expected to exercise discretion under critical circumstances (Crank & Caldero, 1991; Violanti & Aron, 1994). Researchers have long argued that police officers' job performance can be affected deleteriously when officers experience chronic stress (McGreedy, 1974; Goodman 1990).
The sources associated with stress in police work are well documented by scholars and practitioners (Symonds, 1970; Cruce & Rubin, 1973; Kroes et al., 1974; Reiser, 1974; 1976). Major sources of police stress that are frequently highlighted in the literature include:

1. Stress from the work environment
2. Availability of peer support and trust
3. Bureaucratic characteristics of police organization
4. Social and family influence
5. Accessibility of coping mechanism

The first major source of stress identified in police work is associated with the unique work environment of police officers. The danger associated with police work is usually highlighted in surveys of law enforcement officers where police officers are asked to rank-order a list of possible stressors. Not surprisingly, the death of a partner or having to take a life in the line of duty is typically among the top stressors identified by officers (Coman and Evans, 1991; Violanti and Aron, 1993). Other elements of stress often mentioned in the literature include making violent arrests, and gruesome crime scenes (Violanti and Aron, 1993). Overall, violent and unpredictable incidents involved in police work are commonly considered to be the leading sources of both psychological and physical stress among law enforcement officers.
Next, a substantial body of literature addresses the important role of peer support and trust of co-workers and supervisors in buffering the effects of stress related to police work (House and Wells, 1978; LaRocco et al., 1980; House, 1981; Dignam et al., 1986; Ganster et al., 1986; Quick et al., 1992; Morris et al., 1999). Researchers have argued that peer support is especially salient to police officers because the nature of their work requires them to place their lives in the hands of fellow police officers in dangerous situations, and because work-related stress may only be completely comprehensible to fellow police officers (Ellison and Genz, 1983; Graf, 1986). Further, research indicates that police officers who perceive themselves as having a strong work-related peer support system, also perceived their jobs as being less stressful (LaRocco et al., 1980; Graf, 1986). With respect to gender, peer support from fellow officers is regarded as especially important to female and minority officers who are “breaking and entering” into an occupation that has traditionally been dominated by White male officers (Walker, 1985; Martin, 1990).

Bureaucratic characteristics of police organizations are identified as a third major source of stress among police officers (Violanti and Aron, 1993). Studies have identified the unique characteristics of police agencies as a significant factor predicting stress among police officers (Spielberger et al., 1981; Maslach, 1982; Martelli et al., 1989; Brown and Campbell, 1990). Organizational stressors include the events precipitated by police administration that are troublesome to members of the organization. Given the bureaucratic nature of police organizations (such as impersonal rules, and a distinct chain of command) individual input at the
workplace is often reduced to a minimal level (Coman and Evans, 1991). Furthermore, Golembiewski and Kim (1991) make the argument that the quasi-military nature of police organizations tends to breed alienation among police officers. This is especially problematic as police officers are required to exercise considerable discretion while being tightly controlled by a plethora of administrative rules surrounding their work.

The fourth major source of stress in police work involves work/family relationships. Research on work/family interface have long recognized that the personal lives of police officers are affected by the unique nature of police work which, in turn, makes officers perceive their job as more psychologically and physically stressful (Hughes et al., 1992; Galinsky et al., 1993; 1996). Several studies have identified work-family conflict as an important predictor of psychological burnout among police officers (Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Burke, 1989; 1993). This is particularly true for female officers because the demands of their domestic role as wife and mother are greater than those of male police officers (Martin, 1980, p. 200). For example, research findings suggest that marriage is distinctly beneficial for most husbands but much less for most wives (Bernard, 1972), and married women experience more strain than do married men (Gove and Tudor, 1973). However, very few studies have empirically examined this issue within the context of gender and police work.

The final source of police stress concerns the availability and choice of coping mechanisms adopted by male and female
police officers in order to reduce their stress. Although coping literature is replete with varied definitions of the concept of coping, most researchers agree that only the conscious use of a cognitive or behavioral strategy that is intended to reduce perceived stress or improve a person’s resources to deal with stress reflects the coping process (Evans *et al.*, 1993; Anshel, 2000).

**WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

As we move in the 21st century, both work and life are changing along multiple dimensions. Today’s workforce brings expectations that create a demand for a job in which people can succeed in all aspects of their lives. The pressures of work have intensified in recent decades. Factors such as the advance in information technology and information load, the need of speed for response, the importance attached to quality of customer service and its implication for constant availability and pace of change with its resultant upheavals and adjustment, all demand our time and can be sources of pressure. Employees can be adversely affected both physically and emotionally resulting in increased health care cost, higher divorce rates, and employees' burnout.

For both private and public sectors to stay competitive in today’s global market, an effort must be made to address work-life balance. Challenges such as work schedules, children and adult care, time concerns, work gaining administrative support, meeting family needs, and work expectations are becoming increasingly more complex for employees in the private sector throughout the world.
The pressures of work have been intensifying in recent decades. Intensity was measured through subjective responses to questions about the proportion of time spent working at very high speeds and to tight deadlines. As a result, as the argument goes, the demands of work begin to dominate life and a sense of work-life imbalance ensues. In the industrial society we live in an unparalleled era in which a higher proportion of women from all social classes are engaged in paid employment than ever before. In addition, the pressures and demands of work, reflected in longer hours, more exhaustion and the growth of evening and weekend work leave less scope for “quality” family time. It is nevertheless argued that the demands of work contribute to a reduced participation in non-work activities resulting in an imbalance. The third area concerns the attitudes and values of people in work.

The issue of work-life balance has been stimulated by writers advocating the arrival of Generation X (Tulgan, 1996), a cohort of workers who give greater priority to seeking a balance between work and the rest of life. The conflict between the demands of work and the decline of work as a central life interest results in an imbalance between work and the rest of life. Much of the general analysis about the causes and consequences of work-life imbalance is speculative and based on limited convincing evidence.

**Definitions on work-life balance**

The following are working definitions of terms used regarding work/life balance; some definitions overlap and some are continuing to evolve.
Work/family: a term more frequently used in the past than today. The current trend is to use titles that include the phrase work/life, giving a broader work/life connotation or labeling referring to specific areas of support (e.g., quality of life, flexible work options, life balance, etc.)

Work/family conflict: the push and pull between work and family responsibilities.

Work/life balance from the employee viewpoint: the dilemma of managing work obligations and personal/family responsibilities.

Work/life balance from the employer viewpoint: the challenge of creating a supportive company culture where employees can focus on their jobs while at work.

Family-friendly benefits: benefits that offer employees the latitude to address their personal and family commitments, while at the same time not compromising their work responsibilities.

Work/life programs: programs (often financial or time-related) established by an employer that offer employees options to address work and personal responsibilities.

Work/life initiatives: policies and procedures established by an organization with the goal to enable employees to get their jobs done and at the same time provide flexibility to handle personal/family concerns.

Work/family culture: the extent to which an organization’s culture acknowledges and respects the family responsibilities and obligations of its employees and encourages management and
employees to work together to meet their personal and work needs.

Typically, studies have focused on employed men and women who are married or living with a partner or those with children. Omitted from research are single-earner mothers and fathers, single and childless employees with extensive responsibility for eldercare, blended families with children from both partners’ prior marriages, families with shared custody of children, and grandparents raising their grandchildren.

**COPING STRATEGIES**

Coping strategies represent the efforts, both behavioral and cognitive, that people invest in order to deal with stressful encounters (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping has been differentially conceived in several ways (Livneh, Antonak & Gerhardt, 2000):

1) Both as personality trait and situationally determined response;
2) A dynamic process and a static construct;
3) A strategy, that is mature, adaptive and flexible, but also a reaction, that is neurotic, maladaptive and rigid;
4) A global, generally dichotomous concept, but also an intricate, hierarchically structured, multilevel concept.

**Categories of coping strategies**

Coping strategies can be categorized according to the source of the responsibility: The individual officer, or the department (Waters et al., 1982, p. 25).
a) Individual coping strategies
It includes:
- a regular exercise program with a minimal time expenditure of 30 minutes a session;
- a diet that contains elements necessary for optimal functioning and excludes
  - elements that have negative values (e.g. a high fat diet);
- the development of other activities that provide for recreation, change of focus and positive feedback;
- regular vacations;
- muscle relaxation exercises;
- meditation;
- the use of biofeedback; and
- Participation in self-help groups.

b) Departmental strategies
It includes:
- realistic job-related training in police functions;
- open communication channels between officers and supervisors;
- opportunities for meaningful input into departmental decisions whenever possible;
- reassessment of shift hours;
- constructive feedback on job performance;
- workshops on dealing with marital conflicts, good parenting procedures, and preparation for retirement, etc.;
- training for supervisors in good management techniques;
- opportunities for “debriefing” sessions at the end of the shift; and
- stress management training.
JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job. The happier people are within their job, the more satisfied they are said to be. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, although it is clearly linked. Job design aims to enhance job satisfaction and performance methods include job rotation, job enlargement and job enrichment. Other influences on satisfaction include the management style and culture, employee involvement, empowerment and autonomous work groups. Job satisfaction is a very important attribute which is frequently measured by organizations. The most common way of measurement is the use of rating scales where employees report their reactions to their jobs. Questions relate to rate of pay, work responsibilities, variety of tasks, promotional opportunities the work itself and co-workers.

Job satisfaction refers to the extent that the working environment meets the needs and values of employees and the individual’s response to that environment (Camp, 1994; Lambert, 2004; Tewksbury & Higgins, 2006). Lambert (2004, p. 210) defines job satisfaction as “the degree to which a person likes his/ her job,” while Lambert, Barton, and Hogan (1999, p. 97) define the term as “the fulfillment of gratification of certain needs that are associated with one’s work.

LINK BETWEEN JOB STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION

Several studies have tried to determine the link between stress and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and job stress are the two hot focuses in human resource management researches. According to
Stamps & Piedmonte (1986) job satisfaction has been found significant relationship with job stress. One study of general practitioners in England identified four job stressors that were predictive of job dissatisfaction (Cooper, et al., 1989). In other study, Vinokur-Kaplan (1991) stated that organization factors such as workload and working condition were negatively related with job satisfaction. Fletcher & Payne (1980) identified that a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, while high satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. This study reveals that, both of job stress and job satisfaction were found to be interrelated. The study of Landsbergis (1988) and Terry et al. (1993) showed that high levels of work stress are associated with low levels of job satisfaction. Moreover, Cummins (1990) have emphasized that job stressors are predictive of job dissatisfaction and greater propensity to leave the organization.

Sheena et al. (2005) studied in UK found that there are some occupations that are reporting worse than average scores on each of the factors such as physical health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction. The relationship between variables can be very important to academician. If a definite link exists between two variables, it could be possible for a academician to provide intervention in order to increase the level of one of the variables in hope that the intervention will also improve the other variable as well (Koslowsky, et al., 1995). Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (as cited in Zhao et al., 1999) has also provided a theoretical framework for scientifically assessing police officers' job satisfaction.
Herzberg’s theory claims that the work environment determines police officers’ job satisfaction and identifies three main sources of job satisfaction in the work environment: the work itself, the responsibility one has in the work, and recognition received from performing the work (Brody, DeMarco, & Lovrich, 2002; Zhao et al., 1999). Various studies have examined the predictors of job satisfaction among police officers and correctional personnel (Blau, Light, & Chamlin, 1986; Brough & Frame, 2004; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Cullen, Latessa, Kopache, Lombardo, & Burton, 1993; Lambert, 2004; Lambert et al., 1999; Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2002; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999). As Zhao et al. (1999) indicate, two distinct models of job satisfaction are apparent in these studies. The first model focuses on demographic characteristics such as gender, ethnicity/race, educational level, rank, and years of service within the organization. The second model places emphasis on the individual’s work environment. The work environment model consists of various dimensions of the work performed: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Zhao et al., 1999). In studies Camp (1994) and Lambert (2004) conducted, correctional worker job satisfaction was measured as fulfillment from work, pay, coworkers, supervision, and promotion. Another common measure maintains that job satisfaction is associated with five dimensions, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Glisson & Durick, 1988). Glisson and Durick note that of these five dimensions, only three—task significance, role ambiguity, and skill variety—strongly predict levels of job satisfaction. Models that empirically measure job characteristics
and their relationship to job motivation and satisfaction have been applied to various work environments in different occupations. Some researchers rely on the response of individuals in assessing overall job satisfaction, whereas others calculate the complex measures of job satisfaction from different dimensions of the job. Each approach has its strengths and weaknesses. Measuring the different dimensions helps to identify problem areas within the organization. For example, employees may point out that they are pleased with the salary but may be unhappy with other aspects of the organization such as how they are supervised (Camp, 1994). This study suggests that similar predictors of positive or negative job satisfaction found among police or corrections officers will be found among probation/parole officers due to the commonalities all criminal justice personnel share, e.g., they are in contact with individuals who have broken society’s laws. Further, criminal justice personnel are continually asked to perform their jobs in under-resourced conditions and sometimes within unsafe environments. It also is likely that many of the issues related to low levels of job satisfaction among non-criminal justice personnel apply equally to probation and parole officers. For example, the more general literature suggests that employees are better satisfied with their jobs when they are adequately recognized for a job well done and when they have an opportunity to contribute to policies and procedures of the organization (Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003). The current study examines the predictors of job satisfaction among probation and parole officers, drawing on the methodologies and findings of previous studies that examined both criminal justice and non-criminal justice related organizations.
PROBLEM

1. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on job satisfaction.

2. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on work-life balance.

3. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on operational stress.

4. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on organizational stress.

5. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on constructive coping.

6. To study the influence of demographic variables—gender, designation and age on destructive coping.

7. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on job satisfaction.

8. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on work-life balance.

9. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on operational stress.

10. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on organizational stress.

11. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on constructive coping.

12. To study the influence of demographic variables—background and experience on destructive coping.
13. To study the predictive power of work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping) on job satisfaction among police personnel.

14. To study the predictive power of work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping) on job satisfaction among male police personnel.

15. To study the predictive power of work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping) on job satisfaction among female police personnel.

HYPOTHESES

Based on the review of research literature the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There will be significant difference between males and females on job satisfaction.

2. There will be significant difference between males and females on work-life balance.

3. There will be significant difference between males and females on operational stress.

4. There will be significant difference between males and females on organizational stress.

5. There will be significant difference between males and females on constructive coping strategies.
6. There will be significant difference between males and females on destructive coping strategies.

7. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on job satisfaction.

8. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on work-life balance.

9. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on operational stress.

10. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on organizational stress.

11. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on constructive coping strategies.

12. There will be significant difference in the scores of constable, head constable, sub Inspector and officer on destructive coping strategies.

13. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on job satisfaction.

14. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on work-life balance.
15. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on operational stress.

16. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on organizational stress.

17. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on constructive coping strategies.

18. There will be significant difference in the scores of four age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60) on destructive coping strategies.

19. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of job satisfaction.

20. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of work-life balance.

21. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of operational stress.

22. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of organizational stress.

23. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of constructive coping strategies.

24. Rural and urban respondents will differ significantly on the scores of destructive coping strategies.
25. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on job satisfaction.

26. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on work-life balance.

27. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on operational stress.

28. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on organizational stress.

29. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on constructive coping strategies.

30. There will be significant difference in the scores of three experience categories (1-15, 16-30 and above 30) on destructive coping strategies.

31. Work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping strategies) will significantly contribute to predict the job satisfaction among police personnel.

32. Work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping strategies) will significantly
contribute to predict the job satisfaction among male police personnel.

33. Work-life balance, stress (operational stress and organizational stress) and coping strategies (constructive coping and destructive coping strategies) will significantly contribute to predict the job satisfaction among female police personnel.

TOOLS

Keeping in mind the objectives of the study the following tools were employed for the collection of data. Hindi versions of the tools were prepared by the researcher.

I: Personal information sheet
II: Police Stress Questionnaire
III: Work-Life Balance Scale
IV: Coping Strategies
V: Abridge Job Descriptive Index

The details are as under:

I: Personal Information Sheet

It provides the demographic details of the respondents and information pertaining to - gender, age, designation, work experience, and background.

II: Police Stress Questionnaire (McCready & Thompson, 2006)

The Operational Police Stress Questionnaire (PSQ-Op) and the Organizational Police Stress Questionnaire (PSQ-Org) have been used by researchers to explore police stress. The short
length of each PSQ helps to reduce to burden placed on officers completing them and allows researchers greater flexibility (in terms of focusing on either operational or organizational stress, if they so desire). Each PSQ is scored by summing or averaging the 20 items from each to create separate PSQ-OP and PSQ-Org scale scores.

**III: Work-life balance Scale**

The present questionnaire has been designed to understand the importance of balance between an individual's professional and personal life. The important sources of inspiration are the work life questionnaire designed by Bohen, Viveros Long (1981); Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connelly (1983) along with a website: www.od_online.com. The questions have been adapted from the aforesaid sources. The questions have been clubbed under two main categories. 1. life (10 items) a. person (5 items) b. environment (5 items) 2. work (10 items)

**IV: Coping Strategies (McCarty, Zhao & Garland, 2007)**

This study uses two measures of coping mechanisms including constructive and destructive coping mechanisms. Constructive coping is a measure of direct, positive, and active responses to work related stress (e.g. talk of spouse, relative and friends about the problem, make a plan of action and follow it, pray for guidance and strength, etc). Destructive coping measures the negative and avoidance technique used to deal with work related stress (e.g. stay away from everyone, yell or shout at spouses/ significant others or family members, smash or break things, increased
smoking, drinking, and/or gambling, or pretend that nothing is wrong).

**V: Abridge Job descriptive index (Stanton et.al. 2001)**

The Abridge Job Descriptive Index (AJDI) is a specific questionnaire of job satisfaction that has been widely used. It measures one’s satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. The scale is simple, participants answer either yes, no, or can’t decide (indicated by ‘?’) in response to whether given statements accurately describe one’s job. Scores for each job aspect were obtained by summing the assigned weight for each item across all items covering the particular aspect. The weights for the responses were:

"True" = 3, "Not True" = 0, "Unsure" = 1

For the traditional method, the scores for each job aspect were obtained by summing the assigned weights for each item across all items covering the particular job aspect. The overall job satisfaction score was obtained by adding up all the 5 dimensions of job satisfaction.

**PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION**

Primary data was collected through a structured questionnaire personally administered to the police personnel among the 2 states. Data collection could begin only after seeking the permission to conduct the study from the respective department heads. The respondents were pre-informed by their departments about the study and were requested to extend their cooperation. The respondents were contacted during the office hours and were
personally requested to answer all the statements of the questionnaire honestly and completely as far as possible. At the very outset the respondents were assured of the confidentiality of their responses as their names was not required on the questionnaire. They were also assured that the study has not been commissioned by their management and their participation is entirely on voluntary basis.

**ANALYSIS OF DATA**

A Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 was used to analyze the questionnaire data. This included processing, scoring, coding, tabulation and analysis of the collected data. The analysis was done in the following steps

1. **Demographic Analysis**
2. **Descriptive Analysis**
3. **Inferential Analysis**
4. **Regression Analysis**

**1. Demographic Analysis**

It involved studying the composition of the sample on the various identified dimensions and also to draw a comparative analysis of these dimensions for the police personnel of all 3 states.

**2. Descriptive Analysis**
Descriptive statistics describes the characteristics and the attitudes towards the variables. For this purpose mean scores and standard deviation scores of the two respondents was computed.

3. Inferential Analysis

Inferential statistics concerns with drawing inferences and to identify significant differences among the groups. Three-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique was used to compare the differences among the demographic variables and job characteristics. Further post-hoc test was also applied to identify which groups were more significant.

4. Regression Analysis

Regression is a statistical technique for determining the predictor variables. Step-wise multiple regression analysis was conducted among the variables.

RESULTS

1. Main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age on job satisfaction are insignificant.

2. Main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age on work-life balance are insignificant.

3. Main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age on operational stress are insignificant.

4. Main effect of sex is significant, while the effects of designation and age on organizational stress are insignificant.
5. Main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age on constructive coping are insignificant.

6. Main effects of all the three demographic variables sex, designation and age on destructive coping are insignificant.

7. Main effects of demographic variables background and experience on job satisfaction are insignificant.

8. Main effects of demographic variables background and experience on work-life balance are insignificant.

9. Main effects of demographic variables background and experience on operational stress are insignificant.

10. Main effects of demographic variables background and experience on organizational stress are insignificant.

11. Main effect of background is insignificant and while effect of experience on constructive coping are significant.

12. Main effects of demographic variables background and experience on destructive coping are insignificant.

13. Work-Life balance, Operational Stress, and Destructive Coping significantly predicted Job Satisfaction among police personnel.

14. Work-Life balance, Operational Stress, and Constructive coping significantly predicted Job Satisfaction among male police personnel.
15. Organizational Stress significantly predicted Job Satisfaction among female police personnel.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY & SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH:

In the light of above limitations and a few spurious results, the following suggestions for further study may be made:

1. As the study has limited to 2 states only, such researches may be conducted by taking samples from other states and in different geographical locations, in order to increase the generalizability.

2. Perhaps this has been the only study exploring the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction in police personnel in Indian context.

3. In the present study, the number of police officers and female police personnel were small. In further studies there is need of using a large sample of above categories.

4. This study was a questionnaire based study. It has its own limitations. In future some unstructured techniques (open ended questions and projective techniques) can be used for the indepth study of these variables.