CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
3.1 Stressors at Work Place:

The stresses related to job is a pervading feature of modern organization extending significant impairing effects on employee’s physical as well as psychological well being. The nature of relationship with boss, colleagues and subordinates are other sources of stress (Marshall & Cooper, 1979, Schuler, 1982).

The stressors with which these symptoms are usually related, include, organizational qualities viz. the role of conflicts, efficacy, ambiguity, overload and working conditions (Boyd & Pasley, 1989; Dyment, 1990; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Fimian & Blanton 1984; Capel 1993; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982). The other stressors have been administrative practices particularly lack of support and encouragement from administrators (Zabel & Zabel, 1982). The unrealistic expectation by community members and job status problems are also identified as stressors (Blasé & Pajak 1986; Payne, 1987). Work load variables were perceived as most stressfull (Pullis 1992, Blasé, 1986).

In the review study of Grazyna & Kluge (1987), the 5 factors proposed by Cooper & J. Marshell namely character of job, the vocational role, the pattern of relations and social climate in a particular organization and course of the professional carrier, have been found to be responsible for stress experience. The most painful experiences were reported in the sphere of the material and organizational conditions of work.

In the study of Linzer, Marks, Martha Douglas, Jeffrey, McMurray & Juña (2002), potential predictors of stress included gender, age, time pressure, work load and work control. Lack of support by colleagues for balancing work and home was worsened by work demand. The other sources of stress have been identified as lack of organizational resources to do the job.
3.2 Stressors in Police Work:

Some degree of occupational stress is common to every organization at various levels of its hierarchy. The police organization is no exception to this rule. Rather policing is widely recognized as more stressful than other occupations (Tupper, 1995). Police work is highly stressful of the few occupations where an employee is asked continuously to face physical dangers and to put his life at stake at any time. The police officer is exposed to violence, cruelty, and aggression and is often required to make extremely critical decisions in high pressure situations. Police acts as the white blood corpuscles of the society. It detects, fights and controls the enemies (both visible as well as invisible) of the public and society at large (Philip, 1996, P. 126). Thus police personnel face dangerous situations as part of their daily routine. These situations impose on them unique stresses.

The police have been found extremely suitable for studying occupational stress because law enforcement combines a high degree of stress and intense involvement in the work (Marshall, 1986), with multiple of stressful situations for police personnel than other professions (Colwell, 1988; Kroes, et al. 1974, Selye, 1978; Somodevilla, et al. 1978 and Violanti 1992). Stress appears to be the inevitable price of a career in the police force (Barry, 1987; Colwell, 1988).

Symonds (1970), found that sources of stress in police work are negative response of the public, demands for good judgement and flexibility in stressful unpredictable situations, quasi-military structure, promotions and hours of duty.

Kroes, et. al (1974), interviewed one hundred Cincinnati patrol officers to identify numerous sources of stressors. For most reports the courts (scheduling, appearances and leniency), the
administration (undesirable assignments and lack of backing in ambiguous situations) faulty equipment and community apathy appeared to be highly stressful. Other sources of stress as reported not with so great a frequency are changing shifts, relations with supervisors and insufficient pay. Similarly, Raiser (1974), found that environmental work factors such as danger, violence and authority, organizational and role pressures, police organizational 'family' dynamics (hierarchical family pecking order, lack of participative management, duty assignment), internal discipline structure (expected to maintain higher personal and moral standard than the general community), peer group influences as sources of stress for police personnel.

Roberts (1975), identified numerous sources of stressors as hostile media, politicians, poor supervision, lack of career development opportunities, the interference and leniency of the courts.

Eisenberg (1975), observed that numerous sources of stressors can be classified into six categories: (i) Intra-Organizational Practices and Characteristics: Poor supervision, absence of career development opportunities, inadequate reward / reinforcement system, excessive paperwork and poor equipment (ii) Inter-Organizational Practices and Characteristics: Lack of career development opportunities and jurisdicational isolationism (iii) Criminal Justice System Practices and Characteristics: Unfavourable court decisions, inefficient court room management and pre-occupation with street crime (iv) Public Practices and Characteristics: Distorted press accounts of police incidents, unfavourable minority attitudes, unfavourable majority attitudes, adverse local government decisions, derogatory remarks by neighbours and others
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

(v) Police work itself; Role conflict, adverse work scheduling fear and danger, absence of closure (vi) Police Officer himself / herself: The incompetent, the fear-ridden, the ethnic minority officer.

In a survey of 20 police chiefs in the United States, Somodevilla, (1978) reported sources of stressors as lack of administrative support, role conflict, public pressure and scrutiny, peer group pressure, courts and imposed role changes. Terry (1981), identified four types of stressors as (a) External Stressors, including frustration with the working of the criminal justice system such as perceived light sentence for offenders, unfavourable public opinion of the public, poor media coverage and dislike of administrative and political decisions which are seen interfering with the job of policing, (b) Internal Stressors, mainly organizational in nature include discontent with training equipment, promotion prospects, career structure, amount of paper work and level of pay (C) Task Related, stressors as fear, danger exposure to distressing events such as accidents and child abuse and work overload, (d) Individual Stressors, including concern about personal competence, success and safety. Terry (1981) also identified 35 physiological effects to stressors e.g. headaches, digestive and circulatory disorders and cardiovascular problems.

Swanson & Territo (1983), identified organizational practices, criminal justice practices, public practices and police work as stressors.

Gudjonsson (1983), reported that promotion, trouble with their own children and trouble with superiors at work as stressful. Subsequently, Gudjonsson & Adlam (1985), observed that being taken hostage by terrorists, confronting a person with a gun,
negotiating over hostages and dangerous or violent confrontation leads to stress for British police. Further, dismissal, taking a life in the line of duty, death of colleague on duty and departmental inquiry have been stressful for American police Sewell (1983).

Brown & Campbell (1994), observed that stress reactions arise from routine police duties, work overload, poor communication and inadequate support.

Brown & Cooper (1996), found main sources of stress as work overload, staff shortages, insufficient resources, lack of consultations, mundane administration, attending meetings, job / task conflicts, long hours and keeping up with innovations.

Alexander (1999), mentioned that primary sources of stressors were organizational stressors, lack of social and administrative support levels, limited participation in decision making, shift work and career development. Organizational issues have been identified as the most common source of police work stress (Brown, Fielding & Grover, 1999, Violanti & Aron, 1993).

Burnett (2001), found that 88 per cent of police subjects considered police stress as administrative / organizational pressure and physical / psychological threats moderately stressful.

O'Toole, Vitello & Palmer (2001), observed that most often cited sources of stress in police work are inadequate support by supervisor, followed in succession by inadequate support by department, poor or inadequate supervision, political pressure from within the department, inadequate salary and difficulty getting along with supervisors and finally excessive paperwork.
Toch (2002), observed that dangers on the street are far less stressful than departmental politics and top-down management practices.

Coman & Evans (1991), observed that Australian police officers like their counterparts in US and UK face a number of job content and job context which make policing a highly stressful occupation. Job content events viz. organizational structure and communication, supervisory practices, career pathing concerns, work environment which stresses detachment from others, suspiciousness towards the community and cynicism regarding the job. In addition, job context factors which police encounter are daily prospect of being exposed to dangerous, uncontrolled and anxiety provoking situations which may result in death or physical injury to officers or innocent bystanders.

In a survey of 130 police officers Brandt (1993), observed that the mean rating for perceived stress was significantly higher for administrative problems than work related.

Violante & Aron (1994), studied 103 police officers and found that two top ranked stressors were, killing someone in the time of duty and experiencing a fellow officer being killed. Other sources of stress were shift work followed by inadequate support of the department.

In a survey of 43 African-American police personnel Rodichok (1995) identified principal sources of job stress as departmental politics, lack of human resource development opportunities, lack of performance rewards, lack of participation in departmental decision making, perception of under utilization and problems with supervision.
Brown, Cooper & Kirkcaldy (1996), by studying a sample of 500 senior UK police officers found the stronger sources of stress as structure and climate of organization, co-worker relationships and their managerial role.

Biggam, Power, Macdonald & Carcary (1997), on the basis of the study conducted of 699 members (mean age 35.9yrs) of Scottish police force, also suggested that organizational factors such as perception of staff shortage and inadequate resources as main sources of stress.

A survey by Gulle, Tredoux & Foster (1998), showed that South African police officers experienced a greater degree of stress than the USA sample (J.M. Violante & F. Aron, 1994). The results indicated that the way in which the police organization operates in South Africa creates further stress in addition to inherent pressure already existing.

Hillgren, Bond & Jones (1976), observed 20 police Chiefs and Sheriffs at a law enforcement. The major source of stressors of line personnel were role conflict, double standards, courts, peer group pressure, home-life, supervisors and chief administrators imposing discipline, communication difficulties, public versus personal (conflicting) demands, decision making process and news media.

Cooper, Davidson & Robinson (1982), investigated 200 British police officers of the ranks of sergeant, inspector, chief inspector, superintendent and chief superintendent and identified the sources of stressors as work overload, lack of personal recognition and frustration of ambition, autocratic management consequences, effect of perceived police/public relations, work function, responsibility for a police unit and complaints against police for all ranks.
Gudjonsson & Adam (1985), compared operational stressors of probationary constables, station sergeants and senior officers. The majority of the probationary constables and sergeants reported significantly higher level of stress. There were differences between the groups. The probationaries reported dangerous or violent confrontations and dealing with messy car accidents more frequently and the seniors cited excess paperwork and job overload as stressful more frequently.

Alcohol consumption among officers (Seidman & Zager 1991, Lester 1983), and high suicide ratio for police personnel have been observed (Caplan 1985 Richard & Fells 1975, Schwartz & Schwartz 1975, Lester, 1983).

Kroes (1976), concluded that due to the highly stressed nature of police work, police as a population are particularly prone to stress induced ailments. Stern (1973) proposed that there was a high rate of ulcers in the US police and this has also been verified empirically by Hurrell, (1977). Davidson's (1979) isolated stress induced health maladies in the Northern Territories police consisted of higher incidences of hypertension, asthma, hay fever, repeated skin trouble, ulcers, trouble with gastro intestinal tract, migraine and headache, mental illness or nervous breakdown and gout compared to the same age and sex in the Australian male population, in addition to heart disease. As in work arena Hurrell's (1977) US police personnel shared some isolated stress manifestation out comes with Davidson's Australian police personnel and reported that incidences of hay fever, stomach ulcers, trouble with gastro-intestinal tract, hyper-tension and migraine or severe headache appeared to be higher in police samples (Davidson, 1979).
Norvell, Hills & Murrian (1993), conducted a study on 52 female and male officers and the results suggested that male officers experienced a greater degree of perceived stress and emotional exhaustion and greater dissatisfaction with their work than woman do. Higher level of perceived stress in women was associated with dissatisfaction with co-workers.

Cimbura, (1999), observed that male police officers identified the presence of more occupational stress than did their female counterparts. Rodichok (1995) reported that male police officers have low levels of overall job stress while female police officers reported more moderate levels of overall job stress, further, both male and female subjects indicated that "hassle-type" stressors as opposed to significant life "event-type" stressors were their principal forms of job-stress.

3.3 Stressors for Indian Police Force:

The stress experienced by policemen have their roots in the imbalances between demands which society places on them and the resources at their disposal.

In India, the policeman’s work environment also does not escape from this reality. The presence of stress among policemen is felt but not recognized as the major enemy (Mathur, 1995). The media reports of police brutality, indiscipline and the mismanagement is harbinger to the job (Times of India 1993 Jan. The Tribune on Saturday, 2003 August).

On the basis of the survey conducted of 390 male police personnel, Bhaskar (1986) worked out the relationship between job stresses and personality variables among police officers and
constables. He reported that a majority of policemen are hard working and conscientious. However, their job frequently leads to mental stagnation, psychological fatigue, growth of personality in one direction, dehumanising working conditions, task pressures, lack of proper training and professional as well as personal obligations which produce anxiety and mild to severe stress.

Further, he noted that personality, as well as family background variables play a significant role in the precipitation of job stress.

Mathur (1989), has succinctly put it “constant stress and strain of hazardous police duties as frequent moves at short notice, inadequate housing and unsatisfactory working conditions, redressal machinery, long hours of work and inadequate educational facilities for children.”

Chaudhary (1993), examined that the occupational stress of police officers. The inter-role distance and role-erosion have been reported as the major stressors, whereas role-ambiguity caused minimum stress. Further it was found that Rajsthan Police Service (RPS) officers experienced more stress than Indian Police Service (IPS) Officers.

Tripathi, Naidu, Thapa & Biswas (1993), conducted a study for the Bureau of Police Research and Development and identified stressors encountered by police, atmosphere of mistrust at all levels, negative public image, negative self image, increased incidence of stressful life events and daily hassles, indications of suicidal ideation and depressive problems, negative health outcomes due to life style characterized by hostility, maladjustment and unhappiness
arising from frustration of goals and feeling of guilt, inadequate housing / security for the family, irregular work hours, inadequate provisions for children's education, lack of medical services and inconsistent policies regarding evaluation, accountability, promotion and transfer as the major reasons for stress among the police personnel.

Gautam (1993), observed that boredom of monotonous duties, too much work load, exposure to adverse and extreme environmental conditions, unsatisfactory career prospects, poor pay and allowances, have been the major reasons for creating stress in the police force.

Mathur (1993), found working conditions, work overload, lack of recognition, fear of severe injury/ being killed on duty, short term high intensity stressful events, inadequate equipments, shooting someone in line of duty, anti-terrorist operations, complaints against police by police, confrontation with public, as stressors for police force. Further, five most stressful events as staying away from family and children, dismissal / removal / suspension from service, severe injury / loss of limb, death of colleague on duty and departmental inquiry were added by her in this study.

Mathur, (1994), observed the sources of stress to the Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF) and Boarder Security Force (BSF) personnel as traumatic events like witnessing dead bodies of their colleagues or innocent people, separation from their families and children, irregular grant of leave and refusal of grant of leave, inadequate resources and inequities in pay and job status, job overload, non-recognition, constant threat to life and subsequent tension.
Mathur (1995), reported the major stressors for gazetted police officers as supervision, suspension, facing departmental inquiry, death/severe injury to colleague in line of duty, arresting a criminal, use of weapon, facing an ambush, close to retirement time and performing unofficial work as directed by boss and for the other ranks (as carrying out anti-terrorist/naxalite operations, personal injury/illness, staying away from the family, financial crisis) conducting elections, neglecting family due to work overload, participating in police bandobast during festival period, handling communal riots and non-grant of leave.

Channabasavanna, Chandra, Gururaj, Chaturvedi & Subbakrishna (1996), highlighted the stressors of police personnel as too much responsibility, lack of time, less time for family, behaviour of senior officers, less salary and perks, less leave facilities and lack of facilities for family the police personnel himself as well as to his family members.

Dhaliwal (2003), pointed out that most of the policemen remained overburdened worked and have to stay away from their families and kids for long periods which often leads to family problems and disputes. Inability to handle domestic tension and job related stress may translate into rude behaviour on duty. It has also been observed that officers treat their subordinates in a shabby and insulting manner. There are officers who habitually abuse their subordinates. Rarely the subordinates are offered chairs by senior in their offices. Need for holding extensive programmes have been demanded by senior police officers in order to put police personnel in the normal mode of functioning.
3.4 Rank Differences and Stress:

As regards the rank differences in stress, somatic symptoms, perception of stressors and coping strategies, subordinate officers experienced greater symptoms than the other ranks (Bhaskar, 1986; Dangwal & Gangopadhyaya, 1982, Suresh 1992, Yadav, 1994).

Dangwal & Gangopadhyaya (1982), conducted a survey with inspectors and sub-inspectors of State Police Organization. They reported that police inspectors in the age group of 31-40 showed highest stress levels. It was also found that higher the qualification higher the stress.

Caplan (1985), found that closer contact with the gazetted and senior officers, the subordinate officers may be treated like punching bags by their bosses. The tension and stress displaced by the seniors may percolate or be thrust down upon the unsuspecting subordinate officers. The social comparison (with other ranks) may promote perceptions of stressfulness at work. Rutter & Fielding (1988) stated that the subordinate officers being directly responsible to the community and the senior officers for his actions and the conduct and efficiency of his subordinates, must directly bear the wrath of both the public and the higher authorities when complaints are made. If they make a wrong decision under the pressure of expediency, they will be held accountable for its consequences. In this study it is further noted that officers who reported highest levels of job stress had the lowest job satisfaction. The subordinate officers in this study had the highest mean on somatic symptoms also. Cooper, Davidson & Robinson (1982) suggested that supervisory police officers may be at a greater risk of coronary heart disease than the general public. This study reinforces the view that senior officers too are a stressed lot though the sources and level of stress differs from the subordinate ranks (Gudjonsson, 1983).
Gudjonsson & Adlam (1985), found that officers of different ranks differ both quantitatively and qualitatively in their experience of stress. The less senior officers appear to experience greater level of stress. Further they reported that the subordinate officers had the highest scores on stressors such as job boredom, quantitative work overload and lack of praise and relatively high scores on noxious physical environment, communication quality, decision latitude and role ambiguity. These factors perpetuate, the difficulties encountered by the subordinate officer. The subordinate officer is a victim of the sandwich syndrome-being squeezed on both sides by often conflicting expectations of seniors and subordinate officers, facing pressure from above and below. The lack of personal control, the lack of participation in decision making, lack of opportunity to communicate, lack of recognition and promotion prospects and ambitious position in relation to the upper as well as lower ranks of the ladder contribute to subordinate officer stress (Mathur, 1999)

On the basis of the study of 2015 subjects comprising 1208 police constables, 332 head constables, 83 police sub-inspectors and 382 wives of police personnel, Pillai (1987) highlighted the stressors of police personnel viz. court cases (including frequent appearance and leniency by courts) lack of administrative backup (including lack of support in different situations) lack of support from public, lack of career development opportunities, inadequate rewards, excessive paperwork, ineffective measures against criminals, distorted press reports, poor pay and working in isolation. It was further noted that higher stress was found in the case of head constables, followed by wives of police personnel, constables and police sub-inspectors.

Yadav (1994), on the basis of the sample of police personnel studied found that sub inspectors and inspectors group was the most stressed one.
Sengupta (1995), also found significant differences in the experiences of stress and strain by gazetted and non-gazetted police officers as a matter of their different working set-up.

The other ranks had significantly higher means than the Deputy Superintendent of Police or gazetted officers who were reported least stressed group in the study. The communication quality, procedural justice, decision latitude, role ambiguity and role conflict were among the major stressors for other ranks where this group scored highest means. Distributive justice, lack of support from superiors, unfriendly leave and promotion polices and little or no participation in decision making seem to cause stress to this group (Pragya 1999).

Siwach (2001), reported that the higher ranked officials are under more stress followed by the non-gazetted officers, it may be due to the increasing responsibility, with a rise in the organizational hierarchy, multidimensional role and complex work environment.

When the pressure becomes too much then the individuals may begin to show adverse physical or psychological symptoms, that can not only impede their work capability but also may result in physical and / or mental illness. Police officers typically suffer a variety of physiological, psychological and behavioural stress effects. Ramachandran (1989) assumed that stress related diseases are higher among police personnel as compared to the rest of the society.

Stress can lead to the chronic activation or dysregulation of the body's stress response systems and the eventual exhaustion of the autonomic nervous system. In the long run this physiological
strain may have a significant harmful impact on health, leading to high rates of stress, related illness (Sewell, 1981). Some physiological changes in the form of fatigue, exhaustion, loss of appetite, in digestion, sleeplessness and dizziness have been observed by Shah, (1980). Police officers have been also shown to have high blood pressure and stress hormone level, (Ely & Mostardi, 1986), development of ailments (blood pressure, ulcer, heart problem, asthma, arthritis, diabetes etc.) Police officers fall the victims of cardiovascular disease more than twice as compared to the people in other occupations (Franke Collins & Hinz 1998), and have also been found to die at a higher rate from cancer (Vena, Violanti, Marshall & Fiedler, 1986).

Further constant and prolonged stress of police work may lead to dysthemia adjustment disorders and other psychiatric, disorders among police personnel (Channabasanna, et al 1996). Bhasker (1986), on the basis of a sample of policemen studied found that they suffered from mental stagnation and psycho-social fatigue.

The behaviour dysfunction such as alcoholism, drug addition, increased smoking, sleeplessness and under / over eating etc. have also been observed due to job related stress. Most particularly for police officers, high rate of smoking among constables caused number of diseases (Pillai, 1987).

While reviewing the literature on the police personnel. It has been observed that most studies in India have focused either on police administration or on secondary aspects of the police system and in the process, issues pertaining to job stress and burnout among police personnel have been largely neglected. More particularly no much effort have been made to deal with these issues.
The society has been changing fast but the set up of the police remained more or less the same. The heightened and emotionally charged behaviour is not desirable in police services. The adequate means are required to be introduced and proper training programmes for police personnel are to be arranged. The selection process is also faulty. The police is required to recruit emotionally balanced persons. In order to achieve this objective psychologists should be made part of selection process as is done by the Army. Police is the guardian and custodian of the community. So policemen should be good at public relations. After reviewing the literature it has been found that emotionally balanced persons can perform their duties in disciplined manner. The need of the hour is to alter the total police culture viz. working conditions, duty hours and investigation methods (Dhaliwal, the Tribune on Saturday August 16, 2003).

3.5 Burnout among Police Personnel:

Burnout is characterized by physical depletion, by feeling of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain and by the development of negative self concept and negative attitudes towards work, life and other people (in Siwach 2001). Maslach (1981) has reported that burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personnel accomplishment that can occur among individual who do “people work” of some kind. Cherniss (1980) has stated that burnout reduces motivation and effectiveness and includes as a symptom, a sense of failure. Haung (2001) has defined burnout as a unique type of stress syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative job attitudes, reduced personal accomplishment, and loss of concern and feelings for others. It can thus have a strong impact on employee’s absenteeism, turnover, reduced productivity and human considerations.
Burnout is viewed as chronic negative psychological process that occur among workers in the occupations requiring substantial interpersonal contact (Shirom, 1989). Associated difficulties include cognitive characteristics (e.g. emotional exhaustion, irritability) behaviour characteristics (absenteeism and declining work performance) (Maher, 1983; McElroy, 1982; Seuntjens, 1982) and Somatic complaints (Belcastro, 1982; Belcastro and Hays 1984). Maslach (1976) pointed out that people experiencing burnout would be dissatisfied with opportunities for personal growth and development on the job.

Burnout among police officers has expensive consequences, both financially, to cities and police departments, as well as emotionally, to the officers who are affected by burnout.

Goodman (1983), developed a clear model of police officer burnout that is based on factors occurring to the police office both before he joined the police force and after he was on the force. Predictor variables included situational factors such as transfers in the department, shooting, and moonlighting. It also included demographic variables such as age and marital status. The subjects were 199 male police officers who were employed by the Carlsbad, Chula Vista, Coronado, National City, and Ocean side police departments in San Diego county, California. The study was divided into two stages, the first stage was designed to identify those predictor variables based on pre-career events that could predict police officer burnout. The Second stage was designed to identify those predictor variables based on events occurring during a police officer’s career that would be related to an officer who would most likely experience burnout. In the first stage, the results of a multiple regression analysis with stepwise inclusion generated an equation
with two predictor variables that accounted for 43 per cent of the variance in predicting burnout. In the second stage, the results of a multiple regression analysis with stepwise inclusion generated an equation that identified six predictor variables that accounted for 28 per cent of the variance in predicting burnout. The results of this study suggest that a model for police officer burnout can be developed based on pre-career events and events occurring to an officer while he is on the police force.

Stevenson (1988), in his study based on a survey consisting of 597 full time police officers (major metropolitan police department) in the southwest United States tested six hypothesis by using bivariate and multivariate analysis. The significant relationships were found between burnout and ethnicity, educational level, tenure and social support. The results revealed that white officers were found to experience significantly higher levels of burnout than their black counterparts. College educated officers found to experience higher levels of burnout than officers without college backgrounds. The sergeants and lieutenants experienced significantly higher levels of burnout than recruits. The weak work relationships and few personal contracts were found to be significant predictors of high burnout. No significant relationships were found between gender and burnout levels.

Dishkin (1989), studied the police burnout syndrome wherein he mentioned number of factors viz. job pressures including the responsibility of protecting the public, the inactivity/crisis see-saw, internal departmental conflicts, the maintenance of macro-defences, bipolar thinking (good-bad), emotional distancing from others, poor diet and lack of a regular exercise programme to help discharge internal pressures as well as the negative public image of the police
officer contributing to the problem. It was emphasized that such cumulative pressure can be more emotionally, psychologically and physically debilitating than the risk that an officer may be injured or perhaps even be killed in the line of duty.

Becker (1991), designed a study to advance conceptual clarity regarding occupational burnout and to develop a more precise definition of police burnout by formulating a profile of behaviours that affect psycho-physiological functioning associated with the continuum of burnout experience among policemen. Forty nine, randomly selected policemen from a major metropolitan police department voluntarily provided data for this study. Pairwise correlations and stepwise multiple regression analysis revealed that eight out of twelve of the behavioural indices examined were better predicted by STAI or SRS scores than by Maslach burnout inventory scores. Although MBI, STAI and SRS scores were highly correlated with one another and were strong predictors of one another, the MBI failed to emerge as an effective predictor of most of the types of behaviours generally believed to be correlates and moderates of burnout.

Pita (1993), conducted a study in which he stated that the three components of the Maslach burnout Inventory appear to be separate and independent constructs that are differentially related to job stress as well as demographic information. The results suggested that job stress does not affect officers from different areas in the same manner, and burnout is also dependent on a combination of different variables, including stress and demographic factors.

Burke (1993), examined a research model developed to understand psychological burnout among 838 (men & women) Canadian police officers. The results show that five group of predictor
variables identified viz. individual, demographic and situational variables, work stressors, stressful events, work family conflict, and coping responses. The sources of stress (Chronic stressors, stressful events, work, family conflict) significantly related to levels of psychological burnout when individual demographic and situational variables were controlled. Further the author reported that psychological burnout was a strong predictor of work attitudes and emotional well being but inconsistently related to measures of physical health and lifestyle.

Loo (1994), used the Maslach Burnout Inventory to measure burnout among 135 Canadian police managers. The results show that few of these police managers could be classified as burnout in comparisons of these results to the MBI norms and other police sample also show that this sample was relatively healthy with respect to burnout.

David & Simon (1998), conducted a survey on 735 state police officers in the Brisbane North region. The results of this study indicate that police had similar amounts of emotional exhaustion to other human service groups. However, police reported high personal achievement but had more depersonalization burnout than other human service groups. The women police did not differ in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization burnout from men, but had higher levels of personal achievement.

Kop & Euwema (1999), examined the relationship among reciprocity (with civilians, colleagues and the police organization), burnout and interpersonal conflict management among 358 Dutch police officers. In terms of the components of the burnout (C. Maslach & S.E. Jackson, 1986), police affairs had average scores on
the depersonalization and personal accomplishment components. The results show that lack of reciprocity is related to higher level of burnout. Police officers who experience burnout have a more negative attitude towards conflict management and act differently in confrontations with civilians. Depersonalized officers use more conventional strategies, which require less investment in their relationship with civilians. The emotional exhaustion reduce the use of these strategies indicating avoidance behaviour.

Alexander (1999), reported that job burnout and stress can heighten vulnerability for traumatic stress reactions among police officers.

Kop & Euwema (2001), examined 358 Dutch police officers falling in the average age group of 37.2 years. This study addressed three issues. First, characteristics of Dutch police work and the stressful aspects of this work. Second, the levels of burnout assessed in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Finally, burnout is related to the use of force by police officers. The results show that police officers scores relatively low on emotional exhaustion, relatively high on depersonalization, and average on personal accomplishment. In this study significant relationships were found between burnout of police officers and a positive attitude toward the use of force, the self reported use of force, and the independently observed use of force.

The literature suggests that depersonalization burnout does occur more frequently amongst police officers than in other population (Esposito, 1990) or emergency service workers such as fire fighters or ambulance officers (Anson & Bloom, 1988). However, it has been suggested that depersonalized emotion may develop in
police officers during police socialization and training and act to protect officers from ambiguous relationships outside the organization or assist in danger preparation (Violanti, 1981).

Research pertaining to burnout among police personnel is very rare in India. However, in a systematic study of police stress and burnout in India, Suresh (1992), using self report stress inventory (specially designed for the study), affective states index (French 1982) and type-A self report inventory (Blumenthal, Herman, O’Toole, Heney, Williams & Barefoot 1985), on a sample of women subordinate officers of the Madras city police, observed a positive relationship between stress and burnout. Young officers (25-35 years) perceived less stress in job events pertaining to routine stress than the middle age (36-42 years) more experienced officers. The superiors perceived more stress than their subordinates in measures of physical, and psychological threat and cumulative stress. Further it has been reported that an increase in age was accompanied by an increase in burnout.

Siwach (2001), conducted a survey of 300 police personnel from northern Indian States. The objective of this study was to explore the extent of police specific stress, burnout stress syndrome and well being among police personnel at different levels of police organizational hierarchy. The finding of this study revealed that only a small number of police officials have reported high level of burnout. Though it is reported at a low level by majority. It was observed that top officials scored significantly greater than the non-gazetted and subordinate officials only on emotional exhaustion (EE) dimension of Maslach Burnout Inventory, indicating that the top officials are more emotionally exhausted than non-gazetted and subordinate officials. She further reported that non-gazetted officials scored significantly higher than the subordinate officers.
3.6 Anger, Aggression and Hostility among Human Service Professionals:

The anger, aggression and hostility have adverse impact on families, work settings, employee's and society and veterans often consider anger their most salient problem (Blum, Kelley, Meyer, Carlson & Hodson, 1984).

The emotions of anger, hostility and aggression has been investigated by several researchers among human service professionals (Vander Ploeg, Van Bumen & Van Brummelen 1985; Campbell and Muncer, 1994; Fitness, 2000; Means and Mauch 1998). Anger leads to communication problem, disturbed interpersonal relationship and psychosomatic disorders, and is critical factor in motivating violent behaviour (Rothenberg, 1971). More recently, Fitness (2000) examined similarities and differences amongst superiors, co-workers and subordinates anger experience and also the causes, features and consequences of work place anger episodes. They found that features of anger episodes were different according to the status of the respondent. The superiors found to be angered by morally reprehensible behaviours and public humiliation and the subordinates angered by unjust treatment. Subordinates were found to be less likely than superiors to confront the anger target and more likely than superiors to confront the anger target and more likely to consider the incident unresolved. Further they found that humiliating offences elicited more intense hate than non-humiliating offences. Hate was also negatively associated with situational power and with perceived successful resolution of anger eliciting event. Earlier, Vander Ploeg et al (1985) indicated that organizational climate, role stress and lack of social support also contribute to the level of environmental frustration and this frustration is associated with anger reaction and later on with
hostility. The research pertaining to role of anger among police personnel is negligible. A very few attempts have been made in this directions by using the variable of anger, with other professional groups and as a component of type A behaviour pattern (TABT). There is no evidence relating anger to job stress and burnout. In view of above somewhat mixed research has been reported on anger in the present review.

Rawat (1996), examined 200 school teachers and reported a positive and significant relationship between organisational role stress and anger (for example, ax/ex, ax/out, ax/in, and ax/con).

Maisto & Lester (1997), studied 47 elementary school teachers in New-Zealand and found that job satisfaction was associated with scores on expression rather than suppression of anger, anxiety and depression.

Other group of investigators have also studied anger and hostility as a component of type-A behaviour pattern (TABP) among human service professionals (Burke & Deszca, 1982; Greenglass, 1987; Hagihara, Tarumi, Miller & Marimoto, 1997; Sharma, Ghosh & Spielberger, 1996; Sood, 1988).

Krasner (1986), found that Type-A’s were higher on trait anger than Type-B’s suggesting that Type-A’s experienced more anger and were less effective in controlling it.

Sood (1988), examined 160 nurses working in different state hospitals of Himachal Pradesh and observed that those with Type-A orientation reported greater anger (AX/EX, AX/Out/ and AX/in) as compared to their counterparts with Type-B orientation.
Kaplas (1996), studied 200 bank officers and observed that those with type-A behaviour, reported greater anger expression as compared to their counterparts with type-B behaviour.

Kumari (1988), found that medicos higher on organizational role stress experienced both higher anger-in and anger-out than their low role stress counterparts.

Sharma & Acharya (1989), studied engineers and found that those with suppressed anger or greater anger-control utilized approach coping as a dominant mode to deal with role stresses.

Mearns & Mauch (1998), examined the relationship between occupational stress, negative mood regulation expectancies, coping anger and distress among 50 police officers. They found that a high levels of negatives mood regulation expectancies were associated with lower levels of anger among police officers. The strong mood regulation expectancies buffer the effects of even higher level of occupational stress.

Anger has been found to have negative impact on emotional as well as physical well being of the people (Carmody, et al. 1989; Engebretson, et al. 1989; Ghosh & Sharma 1998; Mood, Vander Ploeg & Kleijn, 1990; Sharma, et al. 1996). Friedman (1992); Mearns & Mauch (1998). Miller, et al. (1996) observed that anger and hostility predisposes people to serious health problems. Mearns & Mauch (1998) also observed that those police officer who reported more anger also reported more distress. Smith (1992) wrote that majority of research supports the conclusion that individuals with higher hostility score tend to suffer more serious illness and to have shorter lives than their less hostile peers, a conclusion reaffirmed by

Diamond (1982), presented a clinical review of literature pertaining to the role of anger and hostility in essential hypertension. Besides other conclusions he showed that anger and hostility appeared to play an important role in the development of hypertension. Dembroski, McDugall, Williams, Haney & Blumenthal (1985) found that high ratings of anger in were significantly and positively associated with severity of coronary arteriosclerosis.

Haynes, Feinleib & Kannel (1980), investigated three modes of anger management in relation to coronary heart disease (CHD). The results of this study indicate that low anger-out was associated with greater CHD in men, especially in the 55-64 age group. Low anger out, low scores on discussing anger and high anger-in were associated with greater CHD among employed women under 62 years of age. Taken together, these data suggest the inhibition of angry feelings may increase the risk for CHD.

Research shows a strong association between CHD and anger, hostility as a component of the Type-A behaviour pattern (TABP) (Mathews, Glass, Rosenman & Bortner, 1977). Dembroski, McDougall, Williams, Haney & Blumenthal et al (1985) found that anger in was significantly associated with the extent of coronary heart disease.

Houston (1994), found anger, hostility and related behaviour associated with cardiovascular diseases. Similarly, Smith (1992) found anger, hostility and health to be related.
Martin & Seneviratne (1997), reported anger as a significant factor which elevates migraine and tension type headaches. Because chronic anger, in itself and as a component of hostility predisposes people to serious health problems, successful regulation of anger should be associated with improved health for people who find themselves in situations (and jobs) that are stressful (Mearns & Mauch 1998).

3.7 Coping Skill:

High occupational stress does not in itself predict strain; only by including the degree to which coping resources exist is an adequate prediction of strain possible (Osipow & Davis, 1988). The existing literature presents a confusing picture of the role of coping in work settings; in particular it is not clear which forms of coping are effective in alleviating work-related distress (Parkes, 1990).

Mathur (1999), reported while reviewing studies on police stress that personality assessment over a length of officer's service wherein over the course of their career, police officers show increasing suspiciousness aloofness and cynicism. These traits, it is argued, develop as a coping response to the stresses of police work (Davidson & Veno, 1980). The suspiciousness develops as a part of training and experience. The officers are trained to be alert to the possibility of potential violence and danger (Kroes, 1976). Findings of these studies additionally reveal that aloofness develops as a coping mechanism to emotionally detach from dangers of the job and to cope with stressful occupational activities. The police officers may experience conflicting feelings as, on the one hand, they experience emotional reactions to their work but are required to suppress these feelings and engage in objective problem-focused behaviours, usually showing cynicism towards job, the community and the police.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

organization (Mathur, 1999). These coping behaviours appear to become added stressors in their own right and contribute to officer's general stress levels (Coman & Evans, 1991). The use of avoidance methods in coping with life stressors is an important risk factor that predicts distress among adults and their children (Holahan & Moos, 1987).

Kaslof (1989), reported that compared with studies of ordinary people in stressful situations, police officers felt less threatened, appraised the situation as more solvable and used considerably more problem focused forms of coping. Further found that age factor had a significant effect on coping. The emotional, psychological or physical stress experienced by police officers may vary by career stage and by ability to handle stress.

A study of coping strategies among police recruits in a High Stress Training Environment (1992), found that recruits who scored high on personal distress tended to use more coping strategies than those who had lower distress scores. The findings suggest that the magnitude of personal distress may be an important factor in determining which array of coping techniques is used. In terms of effectiveness, the coping strategy of distancing and painful problem solving significantly reduced distress.

The coping is viewed as a stabilizing factor that may help individuals to maintain psychological adaptation during stress period (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Moos & Billings, 1982). In general “any effort at stress management” (Cohan & Lazarus, 1973) “things that people do to avoid being harmed by life strains” (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978) and “attempts to reduce or eliminate psychological distress or stressful conditions (Fleishman, 1984) are regarded as coping.
Recently Freedy & Hobfall, (1994) pointed out that persistence of stress and burnout across the time suggest the need for effective intervention programmes (Wade, Cooley & Sivicki, 1986). Our aim should be not to eradicate stress but to manage it (Cooper & Marshall, 1976). Kobasa (1979) noted that person’s frame of reference, motives, competencies or stress tolerance, play the dominant role in determining person’s coping strategies. When a person feels competent enough to handle a situation, a task oriented response is typical, i.e. the behaviour is directed primarily at dealing with requirement of the stressor. Typically this response means that individual objectively appraises the situation, works out a solution on an appropriate strategy, takes an action and evaluates feedback.

The active and cognitive coping have been found to be positively associated with negative life events. Individuals who had more personal and environmental resources were more likely to rely on active coping and less likely to use avoidance coping (Holahan & Moos, 1987), and also they pointed out that individuals who are adapted to stress with little physical or psychological strain were less inclined to rely on avoidance coping than were people who showed psychological dysfunction under stress.

Pestonjee (1992), pointed out that stress leads to psychosomatic disorders. Since emotional states are often expressed in terms of bodily reactions, one method of counteracting the harmful effects of stress is the effect of possibility of regular exercise. According to Bhole, (1977) breathing practices are intended to develop certain types of awareness within oneself. According to Nagendra & Nagarathna, (1988) the ancient scientific yoga hold the key to combat this modern menace of stress. Pragya (1999) concluded that physical exercise can play an important part both in
reducing stress and in increasing one’s ability to cope with stressful situations. Swanson & Territo (1983) reported that more physically fit officer feels more self assured and happy.

Kiely & Hodgson (1990), highlighted physical exercise and general fitness as stress preventors and overcoming the harmful effects of stress. Physical exercise play an important part both in reducing stress and increasing one’s ability to cope with stressful situations. In Dallas study, the participants in the experimental group who engaged in a consistent programme of physical exercise demonstrated a 42 percent decrease in sick days. Some of the areas showing improvement in the experimental group were job-enthusiasm, self control, job attitude, human relations skills, police image and total performance. It was concluded that the more physically fit an officer is feels more self-assured and happy he is with himself (Swanson & Territo, 1983).

Haan (1977), reported that individuals of high socio-economic status are more likely to use more adaptive methods of coping viz. flexibility, logical choice and an adherence to consensual reality. They are less likely to rely on defensive strategies viz. rigidity and irrationality. Billings and Moos (1981) found that better educated respondents were more likely to rely on problem focused coping strategies and less likely to use avoidance coping.

Holahan and Moos (1987), found that individuals who adapted to stress with little physical or psychological strain were less inclined to rely on avoidance coping than were people who showed psychological dysfunction under stress.

Aldwin and Revenson (1987), found interactive effects for instrumental coping but non-significant results for emotional-focused coping.
Parkes (1990), reported that suppression and direct coping are both potentially adaptive strategies for managing work stress.

In a study which sought to determine whether there is a correlation between coping behaviour and levels of stress and strain, Sullivan (1991), reported a strong correlation between reported levels of coping behaviour and levels of stress and strain. This correlation has important implications for employees which indicates that as coping levels improve for the employees stress and strain levels decrease among these employees. Police officers may experience conflicting feelings as, on the one hand, they experience emotional reactions to their work but are required to suppress these feelings and engage in objective problem focused behaviours, usually showing cynicism towards their job, the community and the police organization (Mathur, 1999).

The enhancement of awareness and self esteem can decrease the impact of stress among police personnel (Swanson & Territo, 1983). In many studies cognitive proceedings have been used to help the individual to learn and achieve better understanding of the personal, social and institutional variables that either promote or reduce the occurrence of stress and burnout. A cognitive behavioural approach for stress management of police officers was carried out by Sarason, Johnson, Berberich & Siegal (1979). They concluded that stress management with law enforcement officers may be most effective when the programme is focused on the specific situations which are likely to be encountered by trainees and on developing skill for coping with anxiety and anger.

Evans, Coman, Stanley & Burrows (1993), examined the stress-coping strategies used by 271 Australian police officers. This study reveals that most of the officers used problem-focused, direct
action coping strategies with limited use of social support, self blame and wishful thinking. The strategies of action plan and following them and fighting for what they want were used most frequently by the majority of subjects. These behaviours results show typical type of behaviour pattern and consequently their coping behaviour may help to moderate problem focused stress concerns. The data suggests that most officers may not deal efficiently with emotion-focused concerns.

Alexander & Walker (1994), investigated the success of 758 police officers in combated work related stress, both off and on duty. The results show that subjects methods were not successful and other healthy methods such as exercise were used, but there was a tendency towards the increased use of alcohol, smoking and eating to relieve the stress. The number of subjects who used professional method of help including prescribed medications and sick leave was low. In general subjects did not report much satisfaction with their methods of coping with work induced stress.

Kirkcaldy & Furnham (1995), examined coping behaviour (seeking social support) of 90 German Police Managers (female) who completed scales measuring job stress, coping skill and job satisfaction. There was evidence of direct impact of social support on both mental and physical health. The job satisfaction had a direct impact on mental ill-health (showing high satisfaction was associated with superior psychological health). There was no direct-relationship between overall job stress and job satisfaction.

Beehr, Johnson & Nieva (1995), examined 177 police officers (of 2 metropolitan areas) and their spouses stress-related responses including both strain responses and coping responses by separate questionnaires. The study shows that four coping activities reported
by some officers and their spouse who experience stress were problem focused coping, emotion focused coping, rugged individualism and religiosity. The special issues in police strain (drinking, divorce and suicide) were significantly related to the officers reported coping activities. The results indicate that both officers and their spouses reported using problem-focused coping more frequently than other 3 types. However, emotion focused coping behaviour were more consistently associated with strain reduction.

Patterson (1999), hypothesized that officers would use different coping strategies depending on social factors and socialization. Subjects were 233 male and female police officers with an average age of 37 years. The data shows that both emotion-focused and social support coping strategies resulted in high level of distress, while the use of problem-focused strategies did result in lower levels of distress. The data also shows that levels of distress and use of coping strategies among police varies according to social characteristics.

Chaudhary (1993), observed that police officers made more use of control and less use of escape and symptom management. There is evidence that many stress-related factors are linked directly to organizational policies and practices. The police agencies endeavour to reduce, eliminate or modify those factors under their control and thereby, reduce stress among police personnel.

3.8 Stress Management for Police:

The stress management programme in Dallas police department described by Somodevilla, et al. (1978), used three methods of counselling programme. These were Internal Affairs Referral, Supervisory Referral and Self Inject. Counselling was geared to deal with the problem at hand, with individualized attention and
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

total confidentiality. In order to maintain the supervisors information and awareness of human behaviour nuances, specifically recognition of unusual and abnormal behaviour, periodic seminars were offered to supervisory personnel by the staff of the psychological services unit so they could sharpen their skills in evaluating their subordinates. They noted positive impact of the biofeedback training, on the ability to recognize and reduce stress. They also concluded that today's officer requires constant inoculation against stress. In those cases where stress is already injuring the officer or those close to him, the means of crushing such stress and helping the individual cope with its destructive effect should be readily available.

Axelberd and Valle (1978), devised the stress control programme for Miami police officers with the general goal being to train police personnel to identify and alleviate personal stress so as to significantly improve their health, work productivity and interpersonal relationships. The objective was to teach officers to become aware of their stress and its symptoms to help them to identify the significant stress inducing factors in their environment.

The foundation of the programme has been a three-pronged approach to the control of stress viz. physiological, nutritional and psychological components. The programmes contains plans of exercise and physical fitness, recommended nutritional guidelines and techniques to reduce psychological correlates of stress. They also included lectures, experimental exercise and practical self help to control and reduce officers particular stress level.

Anshel (2000), in his article explained that acute stress is inherent in police work. The inability to cope with stressful events can result in undesirable psychological and somatic outcomes which leads to chronic stress, burnout and quitting the profession. He further explained that understanding the coping and identifying
effective coping strategies in response to stressful events has received only scanty attention in the research literature. The model consists of the officers' detection of stressful events or stimuli, their cognitive appraisal of the events and their application of approach or avoidance coping dimensions and cognitive and behavioural coping subdimensions.

Stress management programme for French police force units was described by Le Scanff & Taugis (2002). The program was organized around 3 levels (i.e. organizational, group, and individual) and around 3 periods of time (an initial 4 day meeting, a 2 day follow up meeting, 1 month later and a final 1 day meeting held after 6 month). About 150 male police officers were involved in the program. The results revealed that the psychological training was very well received and led the police management to consider factors and manifestations of stress in a more extensive way.

Till now only one research effort with regard to stress management of Indian police is being carried out by Pandya since (1982) on Mumbai police by using a holistic approach. Monitoring one's stress level by periodically making a list of stressors in one's life, being aware of their impact on one's body and behaviour; development of positive and healthy self image; regular physical exercise; relaxation technique (i.e. Yoga, self-hypnosis, biofeedback training, transcendental meditation, antogenic training, positive self talk and regular food habits and nutritious diet) form part of the stress management strategy proposed by Pandya (1982).

Self-evaluation and counselling, recreational facilities and relaxation at work, exercise sessions with special emphasis on team games, meditation, workshops and wellness programmes are some of the measures being introduced by the Mumbai city police department (Hindustan Times 26 November, 1996).
3.9 Hypothesis:

1. **Job related stress:**
   - **A1** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of stress.
   - **B1** Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the reduction of the job related stress regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.
   - **C1** Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the reduction of job related stress from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

2. **Burnout:**
   - **A2** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of emotional exhaustion.
   - **B2** Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the reduction of emotional exhaustion in burnout regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.
   - **C2** Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the reduction of emotional exhaustion from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

3. **Depersonalization:**
   - **A3** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of depersonalization.
Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the reduction of depersonalization regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.

Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the reduction of depersonalization from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

4. Personal Accomplishment:

Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of personal accomplishment.

Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the enhancement of the personal accomplishment regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.

Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the enhancement of personal accomplishment from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

5. Negative Mood Regulation:

Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of negative mood regulation.

Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the enhancement of negative mood regulation regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.

Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the enhancement of negative mood regulation from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.
6. **Anger Control:**

**A₆** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of anger control.

**B₆** Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the enhancement of anger control regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post-treatment assessment trials.

**C₆** Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the enhancement of anger control from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

7. **Anger Out:**

**A₇** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of anger out.

**B₇** Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the reduction of anger out regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.

**C₇** Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the reduction of anger out from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

8. **Anger In:**

**A₈** Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of anger in.

**B₈** Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the reduction of anger in regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.
C8 Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the reduction of anger in from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.

9. **Coping Behaviour:**

A9 Prior to intervention, police personnel of different ranks will experience different levels of coping behaviour.

B9 Multidimensional intervention will be effective in the enhancement of coping skill regardless of ranks of police personnel. This efficacy will be evident from pre treatment to post treatment assessment trials.

C9 Relaxation intervention will not be effective in the enhancement of coping skill from pre to post assessment trials regardless of ranks of police personnel.