

1 **ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT**

2 **Mental health in the UK police force: A qualitative investigation into the stigma with**
3 **mental illness**

4

5

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10

Abstract

11 Police work is a high-risk profession that can cause mental health conditions. With increasing
12 sickness levels and falling police numbers, it is essential prompt mental health treatment be
13 implemented. The study aims to explore institutional negativity and stigma in the police force
14 toward mental ill health. Semi-structured interviews attended by five police officers with
15 thematic analysis captured i) police culture, ii) the stigma of mental illness, iii) disclosure of
16 mental illness and iv) breaking down barriers. Findings indicate police culture and attitudes to
17 mental health may contribute to the causes of psychological illness, rather than the nature of
18 the job itself. Increased education and awareness surrounding mental health have been shown
19 to be fundamental in how an officer reacts to stress, but change is needed at a managerial
20 level. Future research needs to explore the effects of mental health stigma on ethnicity and
21 gender in the police force.

22

23 *Keywords: police culture, mental illness, mental health stigma, discussing mental health,*
24 *mental health awareness*

25

Introduction

26 A police officer is responsible for the prevention and detection of criminal activity,
27 whilst maintaining public order (Myhill & Quinton, 2011). Sickness absence has become a
28 growing concern in the UK police force, employing approximately 130,000 police officers
29 (Hargreaves, Husband, & Linehan, 2018): with half of officers taking sickness leave for
30 mental health related illnesses in the last five years (Police Firearms Officer Association,
31 2017). This is not limited to the UK police force. For example, an Australian study reported a
32 higher prevalence of mental illness among the police and emergency service than other
33 professions (Harman, 2019). Likewise, in Canada mental illness is widespread among police
34 officers; high proportions of them reported having suicidal ideation (10% during the past
35 year, 28% in lifetime), planned suicide (4% during the past year, 13% in lifetime), and
36 attempted suicide (0.4% during the past year, 5% in lifetime) (Carleton et al., 2018; The
37 Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAMH), 2018). Mental wellbeing of police officers
38 is a cause for concern in many countries, highlighting the need for further study.

39 Generally, mental illness in the workplace results in a significant economic burden
40 (LaMontagne et al., 2014), due to long-term sickness absence (Thomas et al., 2016): 16
41 million days are estimated to be lost annually due to mental health issues such as stress,
42 depression, and anxiety (Office for National Statistics, 2017).

43 Recent research has identified policing as a hazardous and stressful occupation
44 (Deschamps, Paganon-Badinier, Marchand, & Merle, 2003; Liberman et al., 2002; Tuckey,
45 Winwood, & Dollard, 2012). The consequences of organisational stressors and the high-risk
46 nature of frontline duty, mean officers are at greater risk of developing psychological
47 illnesses (Habersaat, Geiger, Abdellaoui, & Wolf, 2015). Cumulative exposure to a number
48 of potentially traumatic situations is an integral part of operational policing (Tuckey et al.,
49 2012), and thought to be a predictor for the development of post-traumatic stress disorders

50 (PTSD) (Marchand, Nadeau, Beaulieu-Prévost, Boyer, & Martin, 2015; Marmar et al., 2006),
51 depression, anxiety, and other stress-related conditions (Husain, 2014). If left untreated,
52 mental ill health has the potential to adversely affect workplace performance and future
53 career prospects (Heffren & Hausdorf, 2016). The cost of stress-related illnesses for officers
54 is viewed in the context of individual mortality and morbidity, culminating in reduced
55 productivity, sick leave and premature retirement (Collins & Gibbs, 2003; Summerfield,
56 2011). As criminality on our streets increases, unpredictable events that the police encounter,
57 remain commonplace (Marchand et al., 2015). As such, there is a higher prevalence of stress-
58 related illnesses in the police force than in the general public (Soomro & Yanos, 2018).

59 It is vital for officers look after their mental health, however research by mental health
60 charity (Mind (2013) suggests that emergency services personnel are less likely to seek help
61 for mental health conditions. Officers may resist disclosing their mental ill health for fear of
62 stigma and negative reactions from colleagues (Bullock & Garland, 2018; Kurtz, 2008).
63 Internal stigma, where the police stigmatise each other because of mental health problems, is
64 pervasive in the police force, and was identified as playing an essential role in influencing
65 individual reactions to stress (Stuart, 2017). It plays a significant role in the way a person
66 responds to psychological distress and has been noted as one of the main reasons why
67 officers avoid seeking help (Stuart, 2017).

68 Much has been reported about workplace stress (Alexopoulos, Palatsidi, Tigani, &
69 Darviri, 2014; Kotera, Adhikari, & Van Gordon, 2018a; Morash, Haarr, & Kwak, 2006;
70 Violanti et al., 2016), and in regard to policing, a variety of research within the last 20 years
71 has focused on law enforcement's *perception of mental health* in the community (Desmarais,
72 Livingston, Greaves, Johnson, & Brink, 2014; Lamb, Weinberger, & DeCuir, 2002; Soomro
73 & Yanos, 2018; Watson, Swartz, Bohrman, Kriegel, & Draine, 2014; Wood, Watson, &
74 Fulambarker, 2017), however the *occupational psychological distress* of police officers has

75 received little attention in the research literature. Frequent exposure to operational stressors
76 has the potential to significantly affect the psychological functioning of police officers
77 (Marchand et al., 2015). Given the critical role of police work, it is crucial to understand the
78 psychological strain this puts on officers. Increasing mental health awareness and education
79 at an organisational level is essential in helping to alleviate the psychological symptoms
80 derived from their occupation (Randall & Buys, 2013). The experiences officers face at an
81 operational and organisational level is decisive in determining their mental wellbeing
82 (Deschamps et al., 2003).

83 Deschênes, Desjardins, and Dussault (2018) reported that the culture and style of
84 leadership within the police force has more influence in determining an officer's mental
85 wellbeing, rather than the actual nature of the job itself. Access to mental health support is
86 provided through occupational health services by delivering one-to-one counselling. In
87 contrast, despite access to those services, officers continue to face considerable psychological
88 distress as a consequence of the pressures they encounter at an institutional level (Fox et al.,
89 2012).

90 Regrettably, due to the lack of mental health training within police forces (Cummings
91 & Jones, 2010), additional training is required in order to change attitudes towards mental
92 health (Booth et al., 2017; Soomro & Yanos, 2018). Addressing these attitudes starts at a
93 managerial level (Bell & Eski, 2016). Line managers need education on how to identify the
94 triggers and warning signs of mental health conditions among their officers. Preventative
95 measures (Hayday, Broughton, & Tyers, 2007), early intervention (Tuohy, Knussen, &
96 Wrennall, 2005), together with prompt treatment from mental health services will help to
97 ensure that periods of short absence do not turn into long-term sickness absence
98 (Summerfield, 2011).

99 The updated hypothesis extended from the original version (Scheff, 1966) called into
100 question the significance of stigma and stereotyping of individuals and the consequent
101 discrimination, loss of socio-economic status, low self-esteem and increased symptoms
102 (Markowitz, 2014). The modified labelling theory (Link, Cullen, Struening, Shrout &
103 Dohrenwend, 1989) argued that labelling negatively influences mental wellbeing, even when
104 it is not specifically the cause of mental disorders; labelling can make individuals feel
105 isolated and discriminated, damaging their coping skills and social bonding skills (Link et al.,
106 1989). Research in the field of modified labelling theory indicates that stigma plays an
107 important part in labelling (Markowitz, 2014). Accordingly, the present study aims to
108 examine mental wellbeing of UK police officers, focusing on police culture and the attitudes
109 towards the mental health of police officers.

110

111 ***Sickness Absence***

112 Given the increase in sickness absence for stress-related conditions (Police Firearms
113 Officers Association, 2017), the mental wellbeing of police officers has become an
114 increasingly important topic. A study by the Police Federation (2016) involving 17,000
115 officers found that mental wellbeing amongst police officers was considerably poorer than
116 that of the general population, with 39% needing help for mental ill health. Furthermore,
117 socioeconomic factors such as increased budget restrictions, higher levels of crime, and
118 falling police numbers are placing more pressure on officers. If this trend continues, it will
119 likely to create a more significant mental health crisis in the police force (Police Federation,
120 2018).

121

122 ***Police Culture and Mental Illness***

123 Society has a stereotypical view of mental illness, and law enforcement is no
124 exception. The culture of policing makes it difficult for officers to disclose mental illness,
125 many of whom will subsequently suffer in silence. This culture of dominance and masculinity
126 (Evans, Pistrang & Billings, 2013) as well as emotional self-control (Bell & Eski, 2016) and
127 stigma make officers resistant to help-seeking. Displays of emotional responses to work-
128 related stressors are often regarded within police culture as a sign of weakness and not
129 comparable with the masculine perception of policing (Kurtz, 2008).

130

131 ***Stigma of Mental Illness***

132 Stigma is a label given to those who may have a personal or physical characteristic
133 that distinguishes them from others (Wester, Arndt, Sedivy, & Arndt, 2010). This often
134 places individuals into a stereotypical group, consequently leading to discrimination and
135 isolation. Labels commonly associated with mental ill health not only have the potential to
136 stigmatise, but to alienate individuals as well. The social stigma attached to mental ill health,
137 and the discrimination people face, make it difficult for them to seek any psychological
138 intervention (Kotera, Green, & Sheffield, 2018c; Kotera & Ting, 2019). Furthermore, officers
139 who experience increased stigma tend to have negative opinions about seeking psychological
140 support (Soomro & Yanos, 2018). Unsurprisingly, police officers suffering from mental ill
141 health are seen as a marginalised community within the police service (Bell & Eski, 2016).
142 The decision not to disclose mental health conditions can adversely affect the wellbeing of
143 officers (Stuart, 2017). It is important to consider mental health stigma with regard to police
144 work and the probable risks of disclosure.

145 The present study used a qualitative approach, attempting to explore the first-hand
146 experience of police officers. Although police work is regarded as a high-risk occupation for
147 the development of mental health conditions (Burke, 1998), there is still a lack of empirical

148 evidence to support these claims (Van Der Velden et al., 2013). Likewise, understanding of
149 research into the attitudes of the police force toward officers with mental health problems
150 remains limited (Deschênes et al., 2018).

151

152 **Methodology**

153 **Participants**

154 Five participants were recruited through a referral from a charity, personal network,
155 police forum and contact from within the police force. Participants were suitable if they were
156 i) over the age of 18, ii) serving officers with mental ill health, or who had been on sick leave
157 due to mental ill health or have left the police force due to a mental health condition, and iii)
158 proficient in English. Participants who do not speak English, have not been diagnosed with a
159 mental health condition, or have had exposure to a recent violent crime or traumatic event
160 which has impacted on their mental health, were excluded from the study.

161 Appendix 1 summarises the participant demographic information. Participants
162 consisted of four males and one female (three retired and two serving officers). The mean age
163 was 52 (range 43-62) years old. Four participants described their ethnicity as white British,
164 and one retired officer only disclosed his ethnicity as British. Three participants were
165 currently married, one divorced, and one single. The mean length of the time in the police
166 force was 24 years (range 18-30 years). Officer rank included police constable (N = 2) and
167 sergeant (N = 3). All participants had experienced a variety of mental ill health conditions
168 such as stress, anxiety, depression, and PTSD. As all participants have experienced some
169 form of mental ill health, it was important to put measures in place to protect them should the
170 interview cause them any psychological harm. The researcher was responsible for ensuring
171 participant privacy and confidentiality and providing details of who to contact should the
172 interview cause the participant any undue distress.

173

174 ***Semi-Structured Interviews***

175 Semi-structured interviews were conducted to attain an in-depth understanding of the
176 participants' lived experiences (Sofaer, 1999). The interview was guided by open-ended
177 questioning, encouraging meaningful discussion (Weller et al., 2018) about each participant's
178 accounts of mental health awareness in the police force. The question order was determined
179 by the flow of the interview. Interviews began with a brief overview of the participant's
180 career in policing, together with the reasons for the onset of their mental health conditions All
181 aspects of information and information-seeking were explored. Interviews were audio-
182 recorded and lasted for an hour on average. Recordings were transcribed verbatim and
183 analysed.

184

185 ***Materials***

186 Participants were provided with a formal invitation to participate, an information
187 sheet, and consent form outlining the procedure, benefits and risks of participating. This
188 included an explanation of how to acquire the results of the research, details of mental health
189 services, voluntary participation, how to withdraw, and contact information for the
190 researchers.

191

192 ***Procedure***

193 After informed consent was granted, the researcher commenced the interviews using
194 the proposed interview schedule as a basis for open-ended questioning (Appendix 2). On
195 completion of each interview, all participants were thanked for their time, and a formal
196 debrief was sent to each participant by email which reiterated the purpose of the study, details

197 on their right to withdraw and contact information of mental health services, along with
198 contact details of the researchers.

199

200 ***Qualitative Data Analysis***

201 Data were analysed using the thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), an approach
202 used for identifying, analysing and reporting themes found in qualitative data. The purpose of
203 using thematic analysis in the present study is that this method is regarded most appropriate
204 to investigate into under-researched areas, while still providing high research rigour (Braun &
205 Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis identifies patterns in the dataset to extract trustworthy and
206 insightful findings (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). In line with the recent updates
207 on thematic analysis (Clarke, 2018), the researchers of this study actively engaged with the
208 personal accounts of participants, and reported findings in a straightforward manner.

209 The interviews were transcribed, read and re-read until the researchers became fully
210 immersed in the dataset. This method of familiarisation set the foundation for the subsequent
211 data analysis. Having become familiar with the dataset, a list of initial codes was manually
212 generated to identify keywords. The extracted data were again re-read in order to double-
213 check the initial codes. During this process some codes were discarded due to inconsistencies
214 with the dataset (Identifying). A slight overlap was noted in regard to the sub-theme
215 ‘support’, however it was felt that the topic warranted inclusion in the two main themes; ‘the
216 stigma of mental health’ and ‘breaking down barriers.’ Names for each theme were then
217 finalised, providing each theme with names and explicit descriptions that were necessary to
218 capture the essence of every theme (Analysing) (Table 3). Finally, the data were transformed
219 into a written report, supported by empirical evidence (Reporting).

220

221

222

Results

223 The analysis identified four themes: police culture; the stigma of mental health;

224 disclosing mental illness; and breaking down barriers (Appendix 3).

225

226 ***Theme 1: Police Culture***

227 A recurrent theme throughout the interviews was a sense amongst participants that

228 the culture within policing often inhibits any open and honest discussion around mental

229 health issues with senior management and colleagues. Existing research has acknowledged

230 that police culture influences work-related stress (Deschênes et al., 2018). Additionally, it

231 can easily isolate officers from important support mechanisms, in so doing, heightening the

232 likelihood of developing a mental illness (Tuckey et al., 2012).

233

234 *Subtheme 1.1: Macho culture*

235 In all cases, participants reported operational and organisational stressors had affected

236 them to some degree. Policing has long been stereotyped and perceived as masculine. This

237 ‘macho’ culture means many officers do not feel comfortable about disclosing mental illness

238 and will likely avoid seeking support for mental health issues as a result

239 of the widespread belief that their masculinity might be called into question (Bell & Eski,

240 2016; Garbarino, Cuomo, Chiorri, & Magnavita, 2013; Wester et al., 2010).

241

242 *"I've seen too many people, particularly the police, adopt the macho attitude, go pop and*

243 *some of them are dead, some of them become alcoholics, some had to leave the job*

244 *because they plunge from one crisis to the next."* (Participant 3)

245

246 Emotional responses to psychological illnesses resulting from work-related stressors are
247 considered as a sign of weakness and not encouraged within law enforcement (Garbarino et
248 al., 2013). These opinions undoubtedly add to the feelings of shame experienced by many
249 officers. One individual used the analogy of soldiers who had suffered from shellshock in
250 World War I and were viewed by colleagues as cowards and malingerers (Pols & Oak, 2007).

251

252 *"It's a bit like the shell-shocked veterans in World War I, being branded as cowards
253 and shot, you know, they're cowards."* (Participant 4)

254

255 Participant responses were consistent with research reporting that policing encourages
256 masculinity, self-reliance and emotional control, which in turn has a negative impact on help-
257 seeking behaviour (Johnson, 2016).

258

259 *Subtheme 1.2: Emotional response is a sign of weakness*

260 Because police officers are typically regarded as self-reliant, tough, and aggressive
261 (Soomro & Yanos, 2018), any display of emotional response to work stressors will risk them
262 being stigmatised for appearing weak (Kurtz, 2008). Any vulnerability may cause colleagues
263 to distrust their ability (Heffren & Hausdorf, 2016). This negative mindset from colleagues
264 and line management leads to the individual feeling uncomfortable in sharing any
265 psychological suffering for fear of the repercussions, resulting in many continuing to suffer in
266 silence, thus preventing early psychological intervention (Garbarino et al., 2013).

267

268 *"You've got to be able to go out and unload to somebody, who might not necessarily
269 know anything about the police."* (Participant 3)

270

271 One officer did not realise there was a problem but acknowledged there must have been
272 a gradual decline in her mental health over a significant period time.

273

274 *"I didn't recognise it as what it was; I just thought I was grumpy...you don't see them*
275 *creeping up, and in the end, the thing that tips you over the edge, the thing that makes*
276 *your bottle overflow if you like can be something quite small because you've got used to*
277 *dealing with stuff."* (Participant 5)

278

279 Talking about mental health is crucial in helping to share experiences and normalise
280 feelings.

281

282 *I would just talk about what happened to me, and for me that makes me feel better."*
283 (Participant 4)

284

285 Officers will typically suppress any emotion by adopting a "get on with it" kind of
286 attitude, however, it can adversely affect the psychological wellbeing of even the most
287 resilient of police officers, taking a physical and mental toll upon the individual if it remains
288 unrecognised and undiagnosed (Hayday et al., 2007; Karaffa & Koch, 2015). Regrettably,
289 police culture often inhibits discussion around psychological illnesses (Bell & Eski, 2016).
290 As such, avoidance is common (Stuart, 2017).

291

292 *"You sort of bottled it up for years, you just kept going because I had a young family*
293 *to support. I had to earn the money and the overtime and one thing and another. I*
294 *think I got to a point where I'd just had enough."* (Participant 2)

295

296 *"I've watched the biggest and hardest people bottle it all up, being the big macho man*
297 *and end up in psychiatric wards. I can think of one person who took his own life."*

298 (Participant 3)

299

300 It is clear from the preceding accounts that police culture inhibits emotional
301 expression, often perpetuating the stigma associated with help-seeking for psychological
302 distress (Tuckey et al., 2012), or for fear of stigma and discrimination from colleagues
303 (Waugh, Lethem, Sherring, & Henderson, 2017).

304

305 *Subtheme 1.3: Coping strategies*

306 When subjected to increased levels of stress, some officers will often resort to self-
307 medication with alcohol as a coping mechanism. (Bell & Eski, 2016) A small number of
308 participants indicated that alcohol was something they used to help them cope with the
309 pressures of work and psychological symptoms. One participant explained that he was so
310 stressed and full of adrenalin, the insomnia he suffered prevented him from sleeping, and so
311 he resorted to increased alcohol intake as a coping strategy.

312

313 *"You can't put enough adrenalin into your body to counteract the stress; you develop*
314 *bad habits like drinking because it was the only way I could get to sleep and then you*
315 *physically and mentally push yourself to the edge."* (Participant 1)

316

317 Another interviewee commented she had started drinking to counteract the stress she
318 was under.

319

320 “... I'd started relying on alcohol... I'd started using alcohol as a coping
321 mechanism.” (Participant 5).

322

323 While not all participants used alcohol, another interviewee noted he was aware of the
324 drinking culture in some areas of policing; feeling obliged to drink to get ahead, which he
325 saw as another added stressor.

326

327 “...generally, if you want promotion you need to go in CID [Criminal Investigation
328 Department], a big drinking culture which I'm very averse to.” (Participant 4)

329

330 Drinking alcohol is consistent with the need for police officers to maintain a certain
331 image (Karaffa & Koch, 2015; Shane & Andreychak, 2008) and has been historically used to
332 numb depressive feelings. Research has identified a link between problematic alcohol intake
333 and higher levels of depression and anxiety in police officers. (Karaffa & Koch, 2015).

334

335 ***Theme 2: Stigma of Mental Health***

336 Participants reported the adverse outcomes of developing mental illness whilst
337 working within law enforcement. Responses included stigmatising attitudes and
338 discrimination, self-stigma, and lack of empathy.

339

340 ***Subtheme 2.1: Stigmatising attitudes and discrimination***

341 Mental illness stigma in the police force is embedded at an individual and institutional
342 level (Bullock & Garland, 2018). A culture where the perception of mental illness plays a
343 pivotal role in an individual's reaction to stress. Almost all participants experienced some
344 form of stigma and conceded that mental illness is often viewed negatively by colleagues.

345

346 “*Some people that I spoke to when it happened were very negative because obviously*

347 *there’s a stigma with it.*” (Participant 1)

348

349 The success of one's career may well be negatively affected by mental
350 health misconceptions. Many will experience challenges establishing a stigma-free
351 relationship with their employers, whose opinion of the individual's ability to undertake their
352 role may change (Gabriel & Liimatainen, 2000). One officer argued, however, that his
353 understanding was that attitudes in the police force were less stigmatising than in the private
354 sector.

355

356 “*If anything, I would argue there’s probably less stigma in organisations like the police*
357 *than there is in most of the private sector.*” (Participant 3)

358

359 In contrast, a mental health charity, Mind (2016) states a higher prevalence of mental
360 health problems has been found in the public sector, with a lack of support available
361 following disclosure. This contrast may imply underestimation of mental health issues,
362 linking with repressive coping (i.e., unconsciously deny negative emotions and information to
363 secure positive image (Garssen, 2007) that is often seen in a masculine culture (Kotera, Green
364 & Sheffield, 2019).

365

366 *Subtheme 2.2: Self-stigma*

367 Self-stigma occurs when individuals become aware of the societal stereotypes of
368 people with mental illness, and internalise those attitudes (Stuart, 2004). Individuals who are
369 self-critical will often experience adverse emotional reactions such as feelings of low self-

370 esteem and self-efficacy (Johnson, 2016). The female participant began to display feelings of
371 paranoia, thinking those around her disliked her.

372

373 *"I was paranoid, part of my anxiety was paranoia, so I thought that everybody hated*
374 *me, I still get that sometimes now. You can get really worked up about what other*
375 *people think about you."* (Participant 5)

376

377 Yet, she did feel the negativity she was experiencing was "*perceived and might not*
378 *have been what was happening.*" This internalised prejudice makes the individual affirm
379 negative stereotypes of themselves because of their condition. The result of internalising
380 public preconceptions of mental illness brought on by feelings of self-stigma creates negative
381 feelings of frustration, anger and shame (Johnson, 2016), as described by another participant
382 when speaking about his visit to a counsellor.

383

384 *"Every time I spoke to her I burst into tears, it was a mixture of frustration, anger and*
385 *shame. Shame that I'd gone pop, shame that I thought I'd let myself down."* (Participant
386 3)

387

388 In summary, self-stigmatisation among police officers is considered a barrier to help-
389 seeking behaviour, treatment adherence and recovery (Büchter & Messer, 2017; Soomro &
390 Yanos, 2018).

391

392 *Subtheme 2.3: Lack of support from line management*

393 Previous research has established that exposure to stressors such as increased
394 workload and lack of organisational support can account for more significant amounts of

395 stress in the police force than operational stressors (Shane & Andreychak, 2008; Van Der
396 Velden et al, 2013). Speaking with others, acts as an emotion-focused coping strategy which
397 aids in reducing occupational stress but also alters the way you react to stressful situations
398 (Patterson, 2003). In response to the question of what the police must deal with on a day-to-
399 day basis, a retired officer expressed the need for support from others through talking.

400

401 *"I think it's the inability to say; actually, I've been affected by this, and someone to
402 say, you know what, I'm affected by it as well, it's really bad isn't it".* (Participant 4)

403

404 Lack of support and increased workload from senior managers are seen as significant
405 predictors of mental health problems (Van Der Velden et al., 2013), thereby causing long-
406 term absence and exacerbating already apparent psychological problems (Hayday et al.,
407 2007).

408

409 *"In the end what tipped me over the edge and I think it was building for a long time
410 was a lack of support from senior managers."* (Participant 5)

411

412 Although there were no outward signs the female participant was suffering from mental
413 ill health, she felt her senior managers could have done more for her. She was on the brink of
414 a '*meltdown*', but she had no support; either senior managers did not recognise the signs or
415 were unsure of how to deal with the situation.

416

417 *"I was very clearly on the brink, that somebody should have realised that. And I think
418 they probably did; they just didn't do anything about it.* (Participant 5)

419

420 It is essential to recognise signs of mental illness in an employee, but also to provide
421 them with the opportunity to talk about how they feel without the risk of encountering
422 negativity.

423

424 ***Theme 3: Disclosing Mental Illness***

425 One way of challenging the stigma of mental health is by revealing you are struggling
426 (Corrigan & Rao, 2012). However, disclosing to your employer that you have a mental health
427 condition requires careful consideration after weighing up the pros and cons. Table 1 lists
428 some of the advantages and disadvantages of disclosing a mental health condition (Wheat,
429 Brohan, Henderson, & Thornicroft, 2010).

430

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of disclosing a mental illness

Advantages	Disadvantages
Enables the individual to receive support	Fear of stigma
May lead others to disclose their conditions	May feel discriminated
Provides education of mental health conditions to others in the workplace	May affect career prospects
Employers may provide reasonable adjustments	Individual may feel undervalued
Changes people's attitudes towards mental illness	Places more focus on the condition than the ability to perform in the job role
Helps employees to identify changes in mood and behaviour	Job application may be rejected

435 *Subtheme 3.1: Effect of mental illness on career advancement*

436 Officers who have mental ill health are frequently marginalised in the profession due
437 to their reluctance to disclosure mental illness, thereby impacting their psychological
438 wellbeing and career opportunities (Bell & Eski, 2016). One participant stated that any form
439 of mental illness would hinder career progression.

440

441 *"If you've a form of mental health illness you will not get on; you will not be promoted,
442 ...people will not want you on their section." (Participant 4)*

443

444 He went onto describe the perception of colleagues toward mental ill health.

445

446 *"My experience is the attitude of officers universally that I worked with. Depressed,
447 depressed are timewasters." (Participant 4)*

448

449 *Subtheme 3.2: Relationship with fellow officers*

450 Another participant who received a much more positive response from his division,
451 explained his fellow colleagues knew he could still be relied upon to perform his role as an
452 officer. It was the less experienced, younger members of his team who were shocked to see
453 someone with so many years' experience in the police fall foul to mental ill health.

454

455 *"He's been here for donkey's years, he should be able to handle this sort of thing...and
456 then suddenly to watch me go pop." (Participant 3)*

457 *Subtheme 3.3: Attitudes toward sickness absence*

458 Work stress, including shift work (Shane & Andreychak, 2008), is the leading cause
459 of sickness absence, ill health and early retirement of police officers (Garbarino et al., 2013;
460 Hargreaves et al., 2018; Summerfield, 2011). One participant recounted, even though there
461 was support from occupational health, upon returning to work any reference to stress or
462 depression was negatively viewed by fellow officers.

463

464 *"As an institution, they were very very good, in getting me better, at making me
465 understand, but back at work that was a different ball game. You've got your
466 colleagues who are still at work, still running around like idiots and they're like, oh
467 fucking hell, you've had three months off, you know, I should have gone off with
468 stress. "* (Participant 1)

469

470 It was obvious sickness absence had on the whole, been viewed negatively. In
471 contrast, one participant, said he had been fairly treated by his line management because of
472 his openness about his situation.

473

474 *"It's down to individuals. I've been in the job a long time, and I did know most people,
475 most people did know my history, and those that didn't could read it. I got looked
476 after really, I was just open and honest with them, I didn't try and big anything up, a
477 lot of people gild the lily I suppose. Sort of just play straight baton, they looked after
478 me. "* (Participant 2).

479

480 Senior managers acknowledged that the nature of his work affected his psychological
481 wellbeing.

482

483 *"...we're gonna keep paying, realise it's job-related PTSD that you've got, so they made*
484 *special dispensation that I'd be paid, I'd get a full wage."* (Participant 2)

485

486 Despite the contrasting views on how sickness absence was viewed, it is important for
487 line management to work with their staff to help reduce periods of sickness absence.

488

489 ***Subtheme 4: Breaking Down Barriers***

490 Death by suicide occurs more in police officers than it does in the line of duty (Miller,
491 2005). This is often due to the compounded stress experienced by police correlated with high
492 rates of suicide (Collins & Gibbs, 2003; Fox et al., 2012; Gutshall, Hampton, Sebetan, Stein,
493 & Broxtermann, 2017).

494

495 ***Subtheme 4.1: Support from within the force***

496 While most participants experienced difficulties with support from their line
497 managers, all participants were provided with support through occupational health services;
498 in the form of counselling, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), Eye Movement
499 Desensitization and Reprocessing (EMDR) therapy. Participants explained the benefits of
500 referral to occupational health.

501

502 *"The welfare side was very very good, very quick."* (Participant 1)

503

504 Although the time to referral was swift, one retired officer talked about the
505 unsatisfactory initial meeting he had with an occupational health professional, as he was in

506 such a vulnerable position at the time, he was experiencing negative thought patterns about
507 health professions, who, in his words “*not having a clue what’s going on*”.

508

509 *“If you’re in a very vulnerable position which I was, the slightest thing is too much,*
510 *your thought pattern is already distorted.”* (Participant 4)

511

512 Occupational health is seen as an avenue where individuals can disclose their mental
513 health without fear of stigma. Despite the initial negative experience with counselling
514 services, this officer did continue with his counselling sessions.

515

516 *“I went through extensive counselling, and for somebody to say what you’re thinking,*
517 *it requires a certain confidence, faith in the individual you’re talking to, and a release*
518 *of unburdening yourself from your own private thoughts. I don’t think a lot of people*
519 *can do that.”* (Participant 4)

520

521 One interviewee explained she had asked to be referred to occupational health
522 because she felt she needed support but had not received any from her superiors. Her line
523 manager admitted he recognised he was part of the problem and acknowledged that her
524 mental health symptoms were exacerbated following a staffing incident which had occurred
525 12 months previously.

526

527 *“I was referred to occi health by my then line manager, well I asked him to refer me to*
528 *occi health.”* (Participant 5)

529

530 There is a need for officers to seek help from psychological services. However, there
531 still remains a gap between acknowledging this need and a call to action (Johnson, 2016). A
532 willingness to speak with others in a supportive environment is critical in help-seeking
533 behaviour (Heffren & Hausdorf, 2016).

534

535 “*You would find increasingly as my career progressed was that people would be more*
536 *open in talking about these things. There was no sort of hiding it.*” (Participant 3)

537

538 *Subtheme 4.2: Increasing education and awareness*

539 Mental health awareness is determined mainly by perceptions of mental illness in
540 society. It is affected by a range of social and cultural factors which also impact self-
541 confidence and self-identity. Stigmatisation and lack of knowledge of mental illnesses are
542 critical considerations for improving awareness.

543

544 “*Oh, I think there was a lack of awareness because I remember a civilian member of*
545 *staff, really nice guy and he used to go on about sickness levels, and he'd go, ah these*
546 *malingers, ‘Stress? So and so's off with stress, it's malingering, it's malingering!’ He*
547 *used to go on about it.*” (Participant 4)

548

549 Using the analogy of having a broken leg was the participant’s way of describing the
550 lack of awareness and understanding which he experienced. Because you can see the physical
551 injury to a person’s leg, it proves the injury exists. However, with the mind, there are no
552 visible signs of psychological injury.

553

554 “*The best way to describe it is if you’ve broken your leg and you’ve got a caste on, you*
555 *can see that.*” (Participant 1)

556

557

558 *Subtheme 4.3: Changing attitudes*

559 One interviewee described how his attitude changed as a result of going through mental
560 ill health. He saw it as positive experience, helping to increase his mental health awareness
561 and understanding.

562

563 *“It has made me much much stronger and much more resilient, and the other thing is, I*
564 *can see stress in other people. To be fair, I’m really glad I went through it because I’ve*
565 *totally changed my outlook, I’ve totally changed the way I work, the way I look at*
566 *everything in life. A very positive experience to go through, even though at the time it*
567 *didn’t feel like it.”* (Participant 1)

568

569 Likewise, another officer commented he had seen a noticeable difference in the way
570 line management’s attitudes were also changing.

571

572 *“...the police are trying to do more, I think they are trying to recognise signs of stress*
573 *in people, and what have you, that’s what they’re training line managers to do anyway,*
574 *they are putting us on courses about stress management and things like that.”*
575 (Participant 5)

576

577 It is important that line managers are trained on how to identify the symptoms of mental
578 ill health and help to reduce the psychological distress for officers (Bell & Eski, 2016) if we

579 want these attitudes to continue changing. Increasing awareness is important in order to spot
580 the signs of mental illness. It is also important for fellow colleagues to recognise the signs.
581 Lived experience of mental ill health gives one the ability to identify the signs in others.

582

583 *"It's only because I've been through the process myself that you're able to recognise
584 and assist with certain stuff."* (Participant 1)

585

586 The psychosocial context of frontline police work has played a crucial role in the
587 development and progression of mental illness, whether inflicted by traumatic experiences or
588 by the more common pathway to psychological injury (Tuckey et al., 2012).

589

590 **Discussion**

591 The present study elucidated the first-hand experience of police officers' attitudes
592 towards mental health problems, relating to the police culture. Five participants reported that
593 the police culture was indeed affecting negative attitudes towards mental health problems
594 (Theme 1), entailing mental health stigma (Theme 2), which hindered police workers to
595 disclose their mental distress (Theme 3). Lastly, they suggested the ways to counter these
596 challenges including a supportive workplace atmosphere and education (Theme 4).

597 One notable finding was that, as reported recently (Stuart, 2017), police culture has a
598 significant effect on attitudes to help-seeking behaviour and emotional responses to
599 psychological distress. Any display of emotional response to work stress in police officers
600 can be considered as a sign of weakness or inability to perform their role, and goes against
601 being tough, aggressive, and in control (Kurtz, 2008). Officers are therefore expected to
602 maintain emotional self-control. Police culture is often thought of as a problematic feature of
603 policing, which is averse to change and progress (Cordner, 2017). This 'cult of masculinity'

604 and ‘machoism’ is not only viewed as negative and persistent features of policing (Silvestri,
605 2017) but also in other occupational groups such as the construction industry (Fielden,
606 Davidson, Gale, & Davey, 2000), and the military (Karaffa & Koch, 2015), which is typically
607 male-dominant. It is interesting to note male dominance and gender featured greatly in a
608 review of the literature (Fielden et al., 2000; Silvestri, 2017; Veldman, Meeussen, Van Laar,
609 & Phalet, 2017). Further research into this area could address these barriers.

610 The theme ‘the stigma of mental health’ represents feelings of discrimination toward mental
611 illness experienced by some of the participants. The negative perception held by others
612 towards them tended to be discriminatory in nature. Attitudinal barriers such as self-stigma
613 were expressed and associated with feelings of shame, anger, frustration, and paranoia
614 (Gabriel & Liimatainen, 2000). Some participants identified the negativity they faced from
615 fellow officers and senior management. The effects of police-to-police mental illness related
616 stigma (Stuart, 2017), self-stigma and perceived stigma were also apparent throughout the
617 dataset. All participants conceded that colleagues negatively viewed mental illness.

618 Moreover, consistent with previous literature (Maguen et al., 2009; Van Der Velden, Kleber,
619 Grievink, & Yzermans, 2010), depression, anxiety, PTSD and stress were among the main
620 reasons for sickness absence among the interviewees (Harnois & Gabriel, 2000; Husain,
621 2014). Participants additionally reported that alcohol was frequently used as a coping
622 mechanism. Further, police culture expects officers to remain calm and controlled, therefore
623 any emotional expression is severely limited (Pogrebin & Poole, 1991), making difficult for
624 officers to disclose their mental distress. As suggested, mental health awareness and
625 understanding in the workplace and education about mental health could break down the
626 barriers for officers to receive support. Moreover, training and development can help
627 ameliorate the mental health status of police workforce. For example, induction training that
628 informs the daily challenges and demands of the police profession would be useful for new

629 officers to better prepare for various challenges that they may encounter during their duties
630 (Gershon et al. 2009). Even though mental health is an essential factor of day-to-day policing,
631 particularly in the community, it is an area which has been somewhat neglected (Cummings
632 & Jones, 2010). Future research should evaluate the effects of such training and development
633 on the mental health attitudes of police workers, and their mental health status. Considering
634 that poor mental health of police force is a cause for concern in many other countries, more
635 comprehensive studies (e.g., cross-cultural comparison) can offer useful insights to this
636 international problem.

637

638 ***Limitations***

639 There were several limitations in this study. Although a thematic analysis did not aim
640 for generalisability, the sample size was modest: more data would strengthen our findings.
641 Relatedly, only one participant was female. Other demographic variables that are associated
642 with mental health and stigma (e.g., age, position, cultural background; Kotera, Adhikari &
643 Van Gordon, 2018b) needed to be adjusted. Notwithstanding the relatively limited sample,
644 this work offers valuable insights into the culture of policing and the mental health of its
645 officers.

646

647 **Conclusion**

648 The present study sought to elicit experiences from a sample of five police officers.
649 The findings from this study indicate that sources of psychological illness have more to do
650 with the organisational culture and attitudes to mental health than the nature of the job itself.
651 The findings presented above highlight the need to increase mental health awareness in the
652 British police force and to target institutional stigma, which is fundamental to breaking down
653 attitudinal barriers. As sickness absence continues to rise due additional pressures put on

654 officers, like budget cuts, fewer officers and increased crime, it is vital for police forces to
655 recognise the signs of mental illness in their officers. Officers of all ranks must undergo
656 education and implement changes in working practices to help reduce symptoms of
657 psychological distress among its officers.

658

Conflict of Interest

659 Ann-Marie Edwards and Yasuhiro Kotera confirm that no funding, conflict

660 of interests, data associated with a data set to be reported for this research paper.

661

Informed consent

663 All procedures followed were in accordance with the ethical standards of

664 the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional and national)

665 and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2000 (5). Informed

666 consent was obtained from all patients for being included in the study.

667

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Appendix 1

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Participant Demographic Information

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Participant No	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Marital status	Number of years in Policing	Rank	Current employment status
Participant 1	Male	43	White British	Married	18	Police Sergeant	Serving officer
Participant 2	Male	52	British	Married	27	Patrol, Crime, Training,	Retired (2 years)
						Multi-	Agency
Participant 3	Male	56	White British	Married	30	Police Constable	Serving officer
Participant 4	Male	62	White British	Single	24	Police Sergeant	Retired
Participant 5	Female	48	White British	Divorced	22.5	Police Sergeant	Serving officer

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Appendix 2

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The Proposed Semi-structured Interview Schedule

Proposed interview questions

1. Could you give me a little bit of background on your time in the police force?
 2. Could you describe some positive/negative aspects of being in the police, and what effect it has had on your personal life?
 3. Can you explain when you first noticed you were developing mental ill health?
 4. Explain how you think the police force could have handled your situation better?
 5. Do you think mental health awareness education should be introduced in the police force?
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Appendix 3

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List of key themes and subthemes

Police culture	The stigma of mental health	Disclosing mental illness	Breaking down barriers
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Macho culture• Emotional response is a sign of weakness• Coping strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stigmatising attitudes and discrimination• Self-stigma• Lack of support from line management	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Effect of mental illness on career advancement• Relationship with fellow officers• Sickness absence procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Support from within the force• Breaking the silence• Increasing education and awareness

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