Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Employee Engagement, and Burnout: A Comparison of Administrative Officers, Criminal Investigators and Patrol Officers in Law Enforcement

by

Clarence Joseph Collins Stewart, IV

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
May 1, 2021

Keywords: emotional intelligence, engagement, burnout,
criminal investigators, law enforcement

Approved by

James E. Witte, Chair, Department Chair of Aviation and
Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology
Leslie Cordie, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology
William Murrah, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology
Maria Witte, Associate Dean of the Graduate School and
Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology

Abstract

Law enforcement has evolved from ineffective watch groups to police agencies that incorporate advanced technology and problem-solving strategies (Herder, 2013; Johnson, 1981). However, for law enforcement officers to effectively protect and serve the public, they should manage their emotions and understand others' emotions and use this knowledge to guide their thinking, action, and decision-making. This study examined the relationship among administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES) and burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009). A sample population of 335 law enforcement professionals in the United States participated in the study. Analyses of the data were conducted using multiple linear regressions. Results found that age acted as a predictor of EI, burnout, and engagement. This study indicated that age and emotional intelligence influenced employee engagement and burnout. Additionally, the results indicated that class had a moderation effect on emotional intelligence and its relationship to employee engagement and burnout. Burnout is a risk for the law enforcement profession, and there is a need to implement protective factors to decrease the risk of burnout within members of the law enforcement profession.

Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank all the valiant professionals who have dedicated their lives in service to the community through the career of law enforcement. Thank you for your time and willingness to be a change agent and assistance in our profession's evolution to the participants. To my fellow members of the FBINA, especially the class of 278, thank you for your continued support and the positively life-changing experiences. Thank you all for your service; because of you, the world is a better place, and I am a better person.

I would like to thank the committee for guiding me through my doctoral program. The time and effort given to me have been significantly meaningful to my academic, professional, and personal development. Each of you has shaped who I am now, and I aspire to be a professional and lifelong learner. Your combined dedicated efforts towards my growth have been beautifully profound.

To Dr. James Witte, you have been my mentor and advocate. I have presented you with endless questions and requests during this journey. You have continuously met my apprehensions with patience and understanding that I hope to emulate in the days to come. You have been pivotal to my success. Thank you for making time for my concerns.

To Dr. Leslie Cordie, you have been an important figure in balancing my professional efforts and passion. You have helped shape my voice in this chapter of my life and my future endeavors. You and your resiliency have inspired me.

To Dr. William Murrah, thank you for being an essential supporter of my journey. You have provided me the much-needed validation, advice, and insight that has contributed significantly to my motivation during challenging times. Thank you for the time you committed to listening to me discuss my study. You serve as a model for my ambitions.

3

To Dr. James Birdsong, thank you so much for all your assistance. Your professional and academic journey has been an inspiration to me and others. Thank you for stepping in as my University Reader.

To Dr. Maria Witte, thank you for the invaluable advice and for the unwavering support you have provided through this journey.

To my wife, Dr. Sheena Stewart, and our children. Thank you for being a guide during the darkest of times. Thank you for your love and support, but most importantly, for giving me a reason to carry on. J.B., thank you for being my muse and changing my life; for this, I am genuinely grateful. I truly adore you and I shall ∞ .

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

AEA – Adult Education Act

COP – Community-Oriented Policing

EI/EQ – Emotional Intelligence/Quotient

ESI – Emotional/Social Intelligence

FBI – Federal Bureau of Investigations

FTO – Field Training Officer

GED – General Educational Development

IRB – Internal Review Board

IRS – Internal Revenue Service

KKK – Ku Klux Klan

POP – Problem-Oriented Policing

PROQOL – Professional Quality of Life Scale (version 5)

PTSD – Post-traumatic Stress Disorder

SSEIT – Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test

SPSS – Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UWES – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

VUCA – Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, and Ambiguity

WWII – World War Two

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background

For decades, police work has been characterized as stressful and emotionally

laborious (Bano & Talib, 2017; Nisar, Rasheed, & Qiang, 2018; Violanti & Aron, 1995).

Nevertheless, over the past two decades, law enforcement personnel have faced increased

scrutiny in the profession. Thus, law enforcement has experienced a pivotal shift in overall

public perception of roles, job responsibilities, and public expectations. Increased concern

regarding their role and behaviors has brought greater awareness to law enforcement actions,

particularly in situations where discretionary use of force involving law enforcement personnel

and the public has resulted in death or severe injury to an officer or the contacted individual

(Hall, Hall & Perry, 2016).

As a profession, law enforcement has been fraught with objectionable indiscretions,

such as corruption, bias, misrepresentation, questionable use of force, and misconduct (Johnson,

1981). These issues have been acknowledged as contentious among law enforcement officials

and scholars and the constituents served by law enforcement. Subsequently, the criminal justice

system's gatekeepers have prescribed a more proactive approach to changing the profession's

perception. Continuous advocating law enforcement personnel to receive substantially targeted

training could support more positive interactions, reducing the number of negatively perceived

encounters or unfavorable outcomes (Poitras, 2017; Marenin, 2004).

Several initiatives have been designed and implemented as proactive measures to

counter variables such as negative rapport, increased crime, unsolved criminal offenses, and

discriminatory practices in the communities where law enforcement entities serve (Marenin,

2004). While these initiatives have provided relief in acknowledging the concerns, they have

been cited as only short-term solutions that do not adequately address this highly complex profession's nature and requirements. To this effect, there is no one model, which could serve as a panacea for the multitude of issues that plague the profession in this new millennium.

However, law enforcement officials and scholars are still focused on identifying a multi-faceted approach to remedy the challenges faced by today's law enforcement organizations and personnel. At the forefront of these efforts is the inclusion of andragogical concepts, which begin during initial, recruit training in the academy and must continue to be reinforced in all subsequent in-service training (Birzer, 2003; Chan, 2010).

In the 1980s and 1990s, law enforcement agencies adopted what was called the community-oriented policing (COP) and problem-oriented policing (POP) practices to serve better their constituents (Gill, Weisburd, Bennet, Telep & Vitter, 2014). The concept of COP derived from the foundational tenets that the most efficient and effective way for police to manage disorder and crime was by building relationships with those that reside in the community (White & Escobar, 2008). Therefore, due to the rapport built through these relationships, the officers would be given more access to information from the community generating a greater likelihood to solve or detour crime successfully.

POP's concept is based on the premise that an officer should recognize an issue is prevalent, discover the underlying circumstances, which is the actual cause of an issue, and then employ critical thinking skills to address the underlying issue. One caveat is that these programs' successful implementation depends on several variables, with one of the most substantive being training. According to White and Escobar (2008), training is vital to familiarize officers with the program's basic constructs and obtain their support. They further concluded that community and problem-oriented policing would most likely be a base for law enforcement's future success.

Therefore, proper preparation of law enforcement training facilitators incongruent methods with self-directed learning and critical thinking is essential.

Basic police training has adopted a rigorous learning approach, which is plausibly due to an ongoing emphasis on accountability and the need to have legal verification of certifications and training. Many of the classes are designed by pedagogical principles to include traditional lecture-based classes; however, some classes such as firearms training, defensive tactics, and first aid are typically hands-on type training, a much more andragogical approach (Hundersmarck, 2009). The new officers and recruits are often assigned to their agencies Field Training Officer (FTO) upon completion of a basic police academy.

There is a significant environmental difference from the recruits learning experience at the academy versus in the field. The FTO program is similar to an apprenticeship program in that the recruit is allowed to gradually adjust to the duties and responsibilities under a mentor's, the FTO, guidance. Unfortunately, the recruits' experiences and knowledge gained at the academy may be overlooked by the FTO's. An FTO may even dismiss the recruits' academy learning experience as being irrelevant to actual field experience policing (Hundersmarck, 2009).

At times law enforcement officers are required to make crucial decisions at a moment's notice. Arguably, an increasing number of these decisions are held to ridicule, unattainable standards, and excessive scrutiny levels and then reviewed in a public forum (such as the media or online social mediums). The men and women in the law enforcement profession must be provided with the proper training that will enhance their critical thinking skills and improve their chances of making sound decisions in the field.

Statement of the Problem

Law enforcement agencies across the United States have operated under scrutiny and ridicule for decades. The recent decline in positive public perception regarding law enforcement as a viable entity has urged law enforcement to reexamine general oversight of the profession and its practices. With changing perceptions and the evolution of the traditional policing model, there is an established need for highly trained personnel.

Despite focused efforts to amend the criminal justice doctrine provided during academy training, it is deficient in connecting content, field experiences, and other training. These practices are ill-equipped to answer the profession's needs that demand skills translatable to various non-textbook scenarios (Skinner & Hass, 2016). Identifying the critical skills and attitudes for a successful police organization is essential in the profession's growth and ensures that the personnel is equipped to meet the organization's standards.

In traditional policing, employee engagement is crucial and is even more so critical in community-oriented policing (Sudibjo & Sutarji, 2020). Recent studies have suggested a correlation between emotional intelligence and employee engagement in highly emotionally laborious occupations (Sudibjo & Sutarji, 2020). It has been determined that individuals consistently subjected to chronic workplace stressors that require extreme amounts of emotional labor often experience emotional exhaustion, a component of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). As other exhaustion dimensions occur surrounding work stressors, a psychological effect characterized by burnout is documented (Cherniss, 1980).

With studies linking emotional intelligence and employee engagement and associations between employee engagement and burnout established, a gap in the literature still exists to connect all three constructs, EI, engagement, and burnout, with law enforcement professionals.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among administrative officers', criminal investigators' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

Numerous studies support the concepts of emotional intelligence, engagement, and burnout as the sole or correlating variable; however, there are limited studies wherein these three concepts are considered and are compared to these three distinct classifications in law enforcement (Aguilar, 2016; Burnette, 2006; Hawkins, 2001; Kurtz, 2008; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Brough & Frame, 2004). The concepts of emotional intelligence, engagement, and burnout and their relationship to law enforcement officers have been researched; however, there is limited research as to the correlation regarding these concepts between administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers. This study's findings may imply vetting during hiring processes and promotions, targeted in-service training, specialized assignments, disciplinary procedures, leadership methodology, descriptive analysis in performance evaluations, and retention.

One of the most significant challenges for law enforcement is recruiting, hiring, training, and retention. Law enforcement consistently encounters intrinsic and extrinsic stressors,

which can harm the organization's overall culture. Research and studies indicate that ineffective leadership practices of supervisors and lack of acknowledgment of the needs of individuals within an organization (Holton, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008; Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffith, 2012; Park & Shaw, 2013; Vance, 2006).

Research Questions

1. What demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

2. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

3. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement, and b) burnout among police officers?

Significance of the Study

This study addresses the limited amount of research relating to law enforcement professionals' emotional intelligence levels and its comparison to employee engagement and burnout. This study contributes to the limited amount of literature addressing the relationship between law enforcement professionals' emotional intelligence, level of engagement, and burnout. This study's desired outcome was to determine the predictive demographic characteristics of police officers' emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout? Another result anticipated was determining whether emotional intelligence was a predictor of engagement and burnout among law enforcement professionals. Also, this study sought to

17

determine if job classification was a moderator for the relationship between police officer's emotional intelligence and employee engagement and burnout. Law enforcement leaders could make more informed organizational decisions regarding supervisor training focused on mental wellness, peer support, and other self-care initiatives. The latter is threatened by the apparent scarcity of literature on those constructs related to police in the United States). Therefore, a research need is imperative further to investigate these constructs for knowledge and advancement of scholarship.

Limitations of the Study

The current study has several limitations. One of these limitations is due to the use of self-reports. The limitation of self-reports is respondents are subject to reporting bias, specifically in the contexts of reporting false positive attributes. (Stewart, 2018). The internet and social media were used to recruit participants and administer the survey. Therefore, the researcher could not control environmental or physical factors, such as disturbances or technical issues.

Another possible limitation to this study was officer's perceptions of the research and limits to the design used for this study. The respondents may have questioned the use of the information collected and thus affected their participation rates or responses. It has been noted through many studies of policing that some officers are resistant to outsiders or non-police looking into their organization and policing in general (Belur, 2013). However, Belur (2013) stated the researcher's status also affects responses and rapport between them and the respondents. Therefore, in this study, the researcher needed to identify himself as a law enforcement officer, a non-outsider.

Definition of Terms

1. Administrative Officers- Law enforcement officers in staff positions or administrative positions.

2. Adult Education – In the broadest sense, Adult Education is any form of learning adults engage in beyond traditional K-12 schooling. Over the past decades, adult education's focus has changed considerably; the scope has grown from a constricted vocational skill focus to broader encompassing fields such as information technology (Imel, 2005). The primary sources of adult education are schools, colleges and universities, proprietary schools, and the government.

3. Andragogy- Learning is a continuous progression wherein we process and assimilate information. Teaching is a method wherein learning is the outcome of those lessons. Opposite from pedagogy, the term andragogy defines learners as the primary contributors in the teaching-learning transaction (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982).

4. Burnout – Chronic psychological syndrome is characterized by negative attitudes and behavior that evolve and relate to work.

5. Criminal Investigator – officers that gather criminal intelligence and evidence, investigates crimes, conducts interviews.

6. Emotional Intelligence – Set of skills or abilities involved in the effective use of emotions in the reasoning process (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

7. Jobs Satisfaction – The feelings a worker has about the job concerning previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives.

8. Patrol Officer–uniformed officers, assigned to duties specific to routine traffic details, patrolling of assigned beats, and answers calls based on the assigned area.

9. The philosophy-The idea of this study of philosophy resides in the foundation that it can occur within and among any subject matter. The study of adult education and its principle elements grants the highest degree in academia of Doctor of Philosophy in a specific discipline. The latter is due to the investigation and in-depth examination of a particular topic in one's discipline (Stewart, 2018).

10. Self-Directed Learning- Self-directed learning is the transfer of learning from the instructor to the learner. Self-directed learning is how individuals take the initiative, diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify human and material resources for learning, choose and implement appropriate learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes (Knowles, 1975).

11. Workforce Development-The premise that skills and training in the workplace should be identified and evaluated to cultivate a more diverse and thriving organization. The development could occur in various forms such as workshops, training plans, and skills training. Besides, growth must occur in workforce development. This growth may occur through educational methods, training, one-on-one interaction, peer evaluation, evaluations, and feedback summaries (Stewart, 2018).

Organization of the Study

This study is composed of five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study by offering the following material: general background information, statement of the problem, the study's purpose, research questions, the study's significance, limitations of the study, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature related to the history of law enforcement, andragogy, adult education, emotional intelligence, engagement, burnout, and the relevancy of the latter mentions concepts to law enforcement. Chapter 3 discloses the methods employed to

conduct the quantitative study, including the sample, instrumentation, and data analysis plan.

Chapter 4 details the study results, while Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings reported

in chapter four and the limitations of the study. Additionally, Chapter 5 concludes with

implications for practitioners and future research, and recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Chapter 1 presented the study by providing the over-all background information of the topic, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and a definition of terms. Chapter 2 delivers a literature review systematized into five key sections: police organizations, emotional intelligence (EI), engagement, burnout, and Andragogy's role in law enforcement training. This chapter offers an amalgamation of scholarly research to design and facilitate the current study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among administrative officers', criminal investigators,' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

Numerous studies support the concepts of emotional intelligence, engagement, and burnout as the sole or correlating variable; however, there are limited studies wherein these three concepts are considered compared to these two distinct law enforcement occupations. The concepts of emotional intelligence, engagement, and burnout and their relationship to law enforcement officers have been researched; however, there is limited research on the correlation between these concepts among the administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers. This study's findings may imply vetting during hiring processes and promotions,

targeted in-service training, specialized assignments, disciplinary procedures, and descriptive analysis in performance evaluations.

Research Questions

1. What demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

2. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

3. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement, and b) burnout among police officers?

Police Organizations

Examining the history of policing in the United States is necessary and serves as a critical consideration when addressing how the profession has altered its purpose, duties, and structure over time. Law enforcement agencies have enabled the profession to evolve from ineffective watch groups to police agencies that incorporate advanced technology and problem-solving strategies (Herder, 2013; Johnson, 1981). The administration and training of police agencies can offer various complexities to include managing officers, different roles and their capacities held within an organization, and addressing a diverse number of specialized units (e.g., investigations, polygraphy, community service, crime scene processing, etc.). Since its inception, the law enforcement profession has evolved from a reactive organization to a proactive theory-based profession (Herder, 2013; Maguire, 2000). This evolution has occurred out of the necessity to

fulfill the needs of multiple constituents that depend upon and sometimes overwatch the agencies on a local, state, federal and international level. This oversight has become increasingly evident within the last several decades, wherein law enforcement has faced ridicule from the public regarding what they refer to as an omission of inappropriate training methods, recruitment, and official law enforcement representatives (Prenzler & Heyer, 2015).

The following subsections, which include a history of law enforcement, law enforcement agencies, law enforcement structure, police culture, and the police subculture, are offered as an overview beginning with Sir Robert Peel and London's English influence Metropolitan Police. Subsequently, the section will also cover early law enforcement efforts in Colonial America concerning the social and political issues relevant to the police during that era. In conclusion, this section examines early police reform efforts and the tension between the police and their constituents.

History of Law Enforcement

The English system heavily influenced American policing, and in the early stages, citizens were responsible for law enforcement in their communities; this was referred to in England as *kin police* as citizens were responsible for the overwatch of their relatives (Paley, 2017; Spitzer, 1979; Uchida, 1990). In America, citizens formed watch groups that performed such duties as lighting streetlamps, running soup kitchens, locating lost children, and other various services. Policing in the United States began in the early colonies and mirrored the progress of policing in England, which consisted of two forms that were informal and communal, and the watch or private-for-profit policing (Uchida, 1990).

Between the mid-1600s and early 1700s, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia had operative night watches comprised of citizen volunteers whose primary objectives were to alert

of imminent threats of danger (Johnson, 1981). This practice proved to be an ineffective means

for crime control for several reasons; however, one reason of particular interest identified the

watchmen were rendered unfit for duty where they often slept and drank while on their shift.

Also, some accounts suggest watchmen volunteered to elude military service, and others were

selected as a form of punishment. Consequently, the patrol method was characteristically

unsystematic and irregular (Walker, 1996). This practice of utilizing informal policing modalities

continued until after 1783, as the end of the American Revolution was documented (Johnson,

1981).

In England, law enforcement's responsibility changed from citizen volunteers to groups

of men who lived in the community, referred to as the frankpledge system (Ascoli, 1979; Morris,

1910). The frankpledge system was structured such that *tythings* (groups of 10) were grouped

into hundreds, and the groups of hundreds were assembled into shires (Wang, 2015). The *shire*

reeve or sheriff was chosen to oversee each *shire* and was responsible for the supervision of

activities conducted by the *tythings* in each *shire* (Ascoli, 1979; Johnson, 1981; Paley, 2017;

Wang, 2015*)*. In America's early formative years, a similar system existed where constables,

sheriffs, and citizen watch groups were responsible for policing the colonies (Walker, 1996).

In response to the rapid urbanization and industrial growth in London, Sir Robert Peel,

Home Secretary of England, introduced the bill for Improving the Police and Near the

Metropolis (Metropolis Police Act) in 1829. His efforts resulted in creating the London

Metropolitan Police (Ascoli, 1979; Emsley, 2009; Paley, 2017). He believed that the primary

function of the London Metropolitan Police was crime prevention, and in order to affect this

function, police would have to work in a coordinated and centralized fashion to work in specific

areas (beats) and be available to their constituents both night and day (Ascoli, 1979; Emsley,

2009). Peel is often referred to as the father of modern policing by scholars. Both past and current police officers assigned to the London Metropolitan Police Department are referred to as bobbies or peelers in honor of his efforts (Ascoli, 1979; Emsley, 2009).

It was essential to Sir Robert Peel that the London Metropolitan Police Department was viewed as a legitimate organization. To accomplish this task, he identified several principles he understood would lead to credibility with constituents (Ascoli, 1979; Emsley, 2009). The principles included that police must be under government control, have a para-military organizational structure, have a central headquarter accessible to the public, and the quality of recruits would further contribute to the organization's legitimacy (Emsley, 2009). Additionally, Peel thought it was important that officers received the proper training to be effective in their occupation and wear uniforms with badge numbers so that they could be readily identified by citizens (Emsley, 2009).

Colonial America also experienced an increase in population in the 1700s, with some of its cities receiving an influx of immigrant groups from various countries such as Germany, Ireland, and Italy (Uchida, 1997). Arguably, this increase in population contributed to the social disorder and the rise of social tensions. Albeit, racial and ethnic conflict was already a prominent issue in the northern and southern regions of the country before the arrival of the European immigrants (Gaines, Kappeler, and Vaughn, 1999; Turner, Giacopassi, & Vandiver, 2006).

Much of the literature that describes the early formation of policing focuses on the northern region of the country and fails to emphasize the southern region's events. More specifically, the slave patrols of the South, which first emerged in South Carolina during the early 1700s (Gaines, Kappeler, and Vaughn, 1999; Turner, Giacopassi, & Vandiver, 2006; Wrobleski & Hess, 2005). Slave patrols have been identified as the first publicly funded police

agencies in the southern region of Colonial America and were created to maintain control over the slave populations and white indentured servants. The three principle duties of the slave patrol model were to search slave lodges, keep slaves from the roadway, and dissemble meetings organized by slaves. The slave patrols were mostly white males (a few women) and various socioeconomic statuses, ranging from the very poor to plantation owners (Turner, Giacopassi, & Vandiver, 2006). These patrols remained during the Civil War and were not entirely dispersed after slavery was abolished; however, during the early Reconstruction era, other groups merged with the former slave patrols to maintain control over the African American citizenry, these groups included the federal military, the state militia and the Ku Klux Klan (Wrobleski, & Hess, 2005).

Although some regard slave patrol as America's first formal attempt at policing, others recognize police departments' merger in numerous cities in the early to mid-1800s (Lundman 1980). In 1833, Philadelphia implemented the first-day watch; in 1844, New York created its first-day watch to complement its municipal police force and unified in 1945; the Saint Louis Police Metropolitan Department in 1846; the Chicago Police Department in 1854; and the Los Angeles Police Department in 1869 (Gaines, Kappeler, and Vaughn, 1999; Lundman 1980).

The newly formed American agencies had three distinct differences from their earlier English counterparts, which can be described as limited police authority (police powers are defined by law), local control (local governments accept the obligation for the provisional police services). Fragmented law enforcement authority (several agencies share authority within a defined area) can lead to miscommunication, control, and cooperation among the agencies and personnel (Gaines, Kappeler, & Vaughn, 1999). Other debate issues for American police departments included whether officers should wear uniforms, carry weapons, and what amount

of physical force should be used during interactions. Notwithstanding some American officers' objection, they were eventually required to wear uniforms and shortly afterward encouraged to carry nightsticks (clubs) and revolvers. The use of force is still an issue that incites debate in police agencies and their constituents today (Gaines, Kappeler & Vaughn, 1999; Skinner & Haas, 2016).

Law Enforcement Agencies

In general, there are three types of law enforcement agencies in the United States: local, state, and federal (Simmons, 2007). Local Agencies include City Police Departments, County Sheriff's Offices, Transit Authority Police, School District Police, Housing Authority Police, District Attorneys' Office Investigators, Airport Police, Harbor Police, University Hospital Police.

Some entities considered state agencies include State Highway Patrol, State Bureaus of Investigation, State Attorney General's Office, State Department of Conservation, State Department of Corrections, State Fish and Game Enforcement, State Parks Ranger Service, and State Port Authority.

Concordantly, there are multiple federal agencies in the United States, including the following; U.S. Air Force Office of Special Investigations, U.S. Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms, U.S. Capitol Police, U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, U.S. Customs and Border Protection, U.S. Defense Criminal Investigative Service, U.S. Defense Intelligence Agency, U.S. Department of Homeland Security, U.S. Department of State's Diplomatic Security Service, U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration, U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Federal Protective Service, U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, U.S. IRS Criminal Investigations Division, U.S. Marshal Service, U.S. Naval Criminal Investigative Service, U.S. Office of

Special Investigations, U.S. Postal Inspection Service, and the U.S. Secret Service (Reaves & Hickman, 1998; Rektor, 1975).

Law Enforcement Structure

A national police force is nonexistent in the United States; however, there are about 500,000 police officers. These officers comprise about 40,000 separate police forces, including one or two-person agencies in small towns across the United States. These law enforcement agencies' size and scope vary, yet many of them share a similar structure. Public agencies conventionally follow a vertical organizational structure, wherein issues that cannot be resolved at one level are forwarded to each hierarchical level until a resolution is reached (Matusiak, King & Maguire, 2017).

Police agencies' organizational design was a seldom-discussed topic amongst administrators until recently. Conversely, some law enforcement administrators experimented with various efficiency models, such as directed patrol, split-force patrol, and saturation patrol, to increase output, reduce fiscal expenditures, and nurture relations with the citizenry. However, those involved often shared a parochial view of law enforcement work. Instead, concentration was placed on community relations rather than improving agency efficiency by incorporating ways to empower their officers and other employees.

Police Culture

In its simplest form, organizational culture embraces an organization's expectations, capabilities, and values and the ideals that guide its members' behavior and is conveyed in member self-image and interactions with that outside of the organization (Needle, 2004). Culture is centered on shared attitudes, beliefs, customs, and written and unwritten rules that have been

established over time and are considered valid. Culture considers the organization's vision, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, assumptions, beliefs, and habits (Needle, 2004).

Undisputedly, policing is a dangerous occupation. Law enforcement officers are aware of their profession's potential hazards; however, according to a study conducted by Morin, Parker, Stepler, and Mercer in 2017, 84% of officers reported they worry about their safety at least some of the time. Also, in the study, 86% reported that they do not believe the public understands the risks and challenges they face on the job. A third of all officers reported physical force when effecting an arrest during the past month, and 27% reported to have discharged their service firearm while on duty during their shift as a law enforcement officer, which does not include training exercises (Morin et al., 2017).

Of the respondents, 58 % reported their work as a law enforcement officer almost always makes them feel proud; however, 51% say their work often makes them feel frustrated (Morin et al., 2017). Additionally, 70% reported they had received some form of accommodation by someone for their police service, and over 60% reported they had been verbally abused by a member of their community while on duty during that same period. Finally, respondents were asked whether they view themselves more as protectors or enforcers, and approximately 60% reported they fill both roles equally (Morin et al., 2017).

Regardless of the duty as protectors or enforcers, many law enforcement officers express dangers while on duty. Officers with a longer tenure in law enforcement are more likely than newer officers to have used their firearms while on duty (Morin et al, 2017).
The disconnection between officers and the public is greater in officers from larger agencies than those smaller agencies. Among those in agencies comprised of 1,000 or more officers, 45%

reported the public does not understand the police's challenges. Among those in agencies

comprised of fewer than 1,000 officers, only 35% share this view.

Police Subculture

There exists a subculture that permeates through most law enforcement agencies.

Although this police culture is harmful and is the root of corruption is often a shared theme in

academic discourse, it has positive facets that are frequently disregarded. Members share values

that allow officers to endure what at times is a trying and emotionally challenging occupation

(Reiner, 2010). Values such as teamwork, determination, compassion, and empathy permit

officers to cope with post-traumatic stress. Law enforcement officers who are confronted with

perilous situations can depend on colleagues because of other values they trust these members

possess. Ideals such as bravery, solidarity, and sacrifice will inspire officers to place themselves

in harm's way.

Regardless of the attributes of police subculture, societal views of ethical conduct may

not be viewed within the subculture as pertinent to the task, which includes the vital mission of

safe-guarding social order (Reiner, 2010). Relevant police culture strategies can include

deception and falsehoods to bring about confessions and receiving minor gratuities to nurture

relations within the community (Reiner, 2010). Therefore, it is essential to examine the

relationship between ethics and the police subculture to define the grey area of ethics and the

grey area within which the police sometimes function.

Acknowledging the influence of positive and negative attributes within police subcultures

is essential in understanding critical variables examined in this study (See Table 1).

Table 1

Attributes Found within Police Subculture

Positive Attributes	Negative Attributes
Safety	Cynicism
Camaraderie	Close-Mindedness
Empathy	Biases
Support	Prejudice
Caring	Non-Scientific Tactics
Teamwork	Overly Conservative
Loyalty	Loyalty
Sacrifice	Alienated
	Suspicion
	Authoritarianism

After police recruits are selected and offered positions by the law enforcement agencies, they are exposed to police subculture during their training partially due to the instruction they receive from police officers who are recently retired seconded to the police academy. They formed the belief that they would become police officers (Reiner, 2010).

As potential officers enter the selection process, they become involved in an extensive application process, their first introduction into the police subculture. Rokeach, Miller, and Snyder (1971) concluded that a police personality distinct from others exists and proposed that individuals come into an occupation with predetermined attributes identified with their new occupation. However, Rokeach et al. (1971) also found that these distinct police personalities are attributed to predispositions of personality present before the recruits' induction into the police subculture.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence is a person's ability to manage his feelings to express those feelings appropriately and effectively. According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence is the largest single predictor of success in the workplace. There are five categories of emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills.

Self-awareness

A person has a healthy sense of emotional intelligence self-awareness if they understand their strengths and weaknesses and how their actions affect others. A person with emotional self-awareness is usually receptive to, and able to learn from, constructive criticism more than one who does not have emotional self-awareness (Akers & Porter, 2007). Self-awareness has two main elements:

- Emotional awareness. Your ability to recognize your own emotions and their effects.
- Self-confidence. Sureness about your self-worth and capabilities.

Self-regulation

A person with high emotional intelligence can exercise restraint and control when expressing emotions. Some of the elements of self-regulation include:

- Self-control. Managing disruptive impulses.
- Trustworthiness. Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.
- Conscientiousness. Taking responsibility for your performance.
- Adaptability. Handling change with flexibility.
- Innovation. Being open to new ideas.

Motivation

People with high emotional intelligence are self-motivated, resilient, and driven by an inner ambition rather than being influenced by outside forces, such as money or prestige. Motivations consist of:

- Achievement drive. Your constant striving to improve or to meet a standard of excellence.

- Commitment. Aligning with the goals of the group or organization.

- Initiative. Readying yourself to act on opportunities.

- Optimism. Pursuing goals persistently despite obstacles and setbacks.

Empathy

An empathetic person has compassion and can connect with other people on an emotional level, helping them respond genuinely to other people's concerns. Those that possess a high level of empathy are:

- Service orientation. Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting clients' needs.

- Developing others. Sensing what others need to progress and bolstering their abilities.

- Leveraging diversity. Cultivating opportunities through diverse people.

- Political awareness. Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.

- Understanding others. Discerning the feelings behind the needs and wants of others.

Social Skills

Emotionally intelligent people can build trust with other people and gain respect from the people they meet quickly.

- Influence. Wielding effective persuasion tactics.

- Communication. Sending clear messages.

- Leadership. Inspiring and guiding groups and people.

- Change catalyst. Initiating or managing change.

- Conflict management. Understanding, negotiating, and resolving disagreements.

- Building bonds. Nurturing instrumental relationships.

- Collaboration and cooperation. Working with others toward shared goals.

- Team capabilities. Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

Emotional Intelligence Historical Background

In 1985, Wayne Leon Payne, a graduate student at an alternative liberal arts college in the United States, authored a doctoral dissertation, which included the term emotional intelligence in the title. This occurrence of the term appears to the first academic use of the term "emotional intelligence." In 1990, John Mayer, University of New Hampshire, and Peter Salovey, Yale, were published two academic journal articles. Mayer and Salovey were attempting to develop a way of scientifically measuring the difference between people's ability in emotions. According to their research, some people were better than others at things like identifying their feelings, identifying others' feelings, and investigating issues involving emotional issues. The title of one of these papers was "Emotional Intelligence." Since 1990, Mayer and Salovey have developed two instruments to measure emotional intelligence.

Despite their contributions, the person most commonly associated with emotional intelligence is Daniel Goleman, a consultant. In 1992, Goleman researched a book about emotions and emotional literacy when he discovered the 1990 article by Salovey and Mayer. In 1955, after obtaining permission from Salovey and Mayer to use the term, he published "Emotional Intelligence." Mainstream media widely publicized the book; however, Goleman has been criticized for misrepresenting Salovey and Mayer's term emotional intelligence. According to Kauts and Hans (2011), Goleman expanded the definition of emotional intelligence to the

degree that it does not have scientific value or a precise predictor of outcome. In 1998, Goleman published Working with Emotional Intelligence, wherein; he widened the definition of emotional intelligence even further, saying that it consists of 25 skills, abilities, and competencies. Since then, there have been many definitions of emotional intelligence. The most current Mayer-Salovey definition for emotional intelligence will be used for this study.

Emotional Intelligence and Law Enforcement

Law enforcement professionals are plagued with many problems, including rapid decision-making, threats of imminent danger, and media and community misperceptions. Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, and Farr-Wharton (2012) examined associations between EI, engagement, well-being, and engagement variables in a sample of 193 (68% male, 32% female) police officers from Australia. The average tenure in their current station was less than five years. Thirty-two percent were ranking officers. To assess EI, Wong and Law's (2002) EI scale was used. Cronbach alpha for these measures was 0.84, and construct, content, and criterion validity have been established (Wong & Law, 2002).

Results indicated that generally, EI predicted police officers' perceptions of well-being and, which influenced engagement and commitment and, consequently, negatively affected intent to leave. Gender differences were found in that EI scores were highest in females, which supports Ponterotto, Ruckdeschel, Joseph, Tenenbaum, and Bruno (2011).

Emotional Intelligence measures used in Law Enforcement

There is growing evidence suggesting that emotional intelligence is a factor in predicting work performance, especially in those involving regular interpersonal contact with people, such as the law enforcement profession. Emotions can improve our relationships when managed proactively and efficiently. Emotions can persuade and direct our thinking to include realistic

and appropriate actions or even save our lives. Conversely, unmanaged emotions can hijack

reasoning and logic and contribute to responses that may cause regret (Goleman, 2011).

For law enforcement officers to effectively protect and serve the public, they should

manage their emotions and understand others' emotions and use this knowledge to guide their

thinking, action, and decision-making. When progressive law enforcement leaders explore all

available tools at their disposal to combat the current social disdain toward the police profession,

a better understanding of emotional intelligence becomes essential (Conroy, 2017).

Law enforcement has tools at its disposal for mitigating what appears to be explosive

growth in the social condemnation that is impacting public safety agencies of all sizes throughout

the country. Selker (2014) believes the long-overdue conversation about these challenges is

about policing and emotional/social intelligence (ESI). His compelling case for change behind

this discussion includes:

1) Opportunities to improve both officer and citizen safety

2) Improved and increased solution options for resolution of high-conflict encounters,

3) Mitigation of judgment and behavior issues aggravated by poor physical or

psychological health.

An improved understanding of emotional intelligence also can act as a countermeasure

to the present volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) demand of the 21st

Century police officer (Bar-On, Brown, Kirkcaldy, & Thome, 2000).

Among the salient research work on emotional intelligence in law enforcement was FBI

SSA research (ret.) Timothy Turner at the FBI National Academy. Although Turner's work

focused primarily on identifying the EQ competencies differentiating FBI National Academy

graduates from other law enforcement leaders, his work opened the door to discussing emotional

and social intelligence in law enforcement. Turner's work reinforced the research findings of those in other professions. Essentially, exemplary performers in specific job roles in an organization can be determined by identifying specific emotional intelligence clusters in employees.

In his research, the statistically significant EQ competency clusters in law enforcement officers included: social responsibility, problem-solving, self-actualization, and interpersonal relationships. Clear understandings of both interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects of emotional intelligence can serve as a proactive strategy to manage both officer and citizen well-being.

Employee Engagement

Kahn (1990) introduced personal engagement and personal disengagement in the workplace. Personal engagement in the workplace, also known as employee engagement, is defined as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694).

The concept of employee engagement is an essential element of an effective organization. According to Trahant (2009), there is a direct correlation between an organization's desire outcome and elevated employee engagement levels within the organization. However, this concept is often overlooked by many workplaces, therefore, creating a deficit in these organizations' planning and development strategies to promote extremely engaged employees (Trahant, 2009).

Employee Engagement Overview

According to Burke, Koyuncu, and Wolpin (2012), the sum of workplace experiences, such as rewards, recognition, training, workplace support, and encouragement, are indicators of

work engagement. Also, the potential for professional growth and fair, impartial organizational

support correlated to enhanced levels of employee engagement (Koyuncu, Burke, and

Fiksenbaum, 2006). Moreover, an employee's confidence in management impacted employee

engagement levels (Vosloban ,2013). Organizations attempting to promote employee

engagement should explore strategies to improve workplace environments and workplace

relationships.

Employee Engagement and Burnout

Engaged employees display less burnout and more organizational commitment than

disengaged employees (Sprietzer & Porath, 2012). Although they are opposite, engagement and

burnout have very similar characteristics. One of which is that both can be transmittable among

members of the same team, both consciously and subconsciously, through interaction (Bakker,

Emmerik & Euwema, 2006). When team members experience burnout or engagement, the

workplace environment's effect can increase or decrease the dedication and responsibility.

Occupations with high job demands can generate low engagement, while occupations

with high demands and plentiful work-related resources can produce high engagement (Ventura,

Salanova, & Llorens, 2015). If an employee views a demand as a hindrance, it is also viewed as

a stressor that can impede growth. In contrast, if an employee views a demand as a challenge, it

is also viewed as a chance for development that subscribes to the positive elements of

engagement (Ventura et al., 2015).

Burnout

Schaufeli and Peeters (2000) describe stress as an interaction between an employee and

the occupation's environmental conditions. The stress process is comprised of environmental

factors, which employees describe as job stressors, and their reactions or strain towards these

stressors are characterized into three groups: (1) physiological strains (e.g., migraines, sweaty palms, high blood pressure); (2) psychological strains (e.g., dissatisfaction, burnout, anxiety); (3) behavioral strains (e.g., alcohol and drug abuse, absenteeism, domestic violence). However, while stress is a subjective experience, burnout is most often considered mental and emotional fatigue due to sustained interactions under stressful environmental conditions with limited relief and inadequate resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Burnout and Law Enforcement

The study of relationships among people and high-stress occupations and professions in the modern age has come to include burnout, which is characterized by a profession's long-term stress reactions. Working in law enforcement has always been considered a high-stress, emotionally laborious job. Given the current climate of opinions among laypersons and media, in the wake of the call for police reform, there is empirical evidence to support the assertion that stress can be observed, taxing, and cause potential long-term adverse effects on those in certain professions, particularly law enforcement.

Burke (1994) found that law enforcement individuals are more likely than any other profession to experience burnout. Additional research in the modern examination of burnout's concept showed multiple definitions in the literature and minimal consistency on an agreed-upon definition. This lack of agreement and difficulty in defining and measuring the construct of burnout led to its early development in an article describing the burnout phenomenon by Freudenberger (1975) and Maslach (1976). Fortunately, Maslach (1982, 1998) created a theoretically based framework for the burnout construct, under which much of the literature today operates.

Andragogy

Learning is a continuous progression wherein we process and assimilate information. Teaching is a method wherein learning is the outcome of those lessons. Opposite from pedagogy, the term andragogy defines learners as the primary contributors in the teaching-learning transaction (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982). Generally, the term pedagogy is how the teaching-learning transaction occurs between children and adults, whereas the term andragogy encompasses the teaching-learning transaction constructs between adults. A comparative overview of the historical model, philosophical approach, and the two concepts' teacher-learner transactions will be discussed. Additionally, the focus will facilitate adult learning's most essential characteristics.

Background and Historical Model

Pedagogy and andragogy share the same root word, "gogy, "which in Greek translates to "leading"; however, the term has been modified to indicate learning, teaching, or instruction. The mutual linguistic root is the most obvious similarity between the two. The word "peda" translates as child; therefore, pedagogy is the art and science of teaching children (Simpson & Weiner, 1989). Conversely, "andra" is a derivative of the word adult. Accordingly, andragogy is the art and science of guiding adults in the learning process (Knowles, 1984). In the realm of andragogy, adults are individuals who have assumed adult roles in society, regardless of their age (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982). More specifically, an adult is an individual who has acquired the principal social role of employee or worker, spousal partner, or parent and has departed the primary social role that children and adolescence hold, a traditional full-time student. These individuals have assumed chief responsibility for their own life (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Forrest & Peterson, 2006).

41

Before 1950, most educational research focused on children; subsequently, there was a lack of evidence to support how adults learn. In 1833, the term "andragogy" first appeared when Alexander Kapp used the term to refer to Plato's theory. In 1921, Eugen Rosenback coined the term during a conference in Frankfurt, Germany. In the 1960s, andragogy emerged in modern educational literature by practitioners to describe adult learners' distinctive characteristics. The existing use of the term is due primarily to the substantive work of Malcolm Knowles when he first introduced it in 1968 with his publication of *Adult Education: Andragogy Versus Pedagogy.* In the 1980 edition of *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*, Knowles revised the correlation between the pedagogical and andragogical concepts. Knowles expressed pedagogy as subject-centered and andragogy as learner-centered.

Adult Education

Adult Education is any form of learning adults engage in beyond traditional K-12 schooling in the broadest sense. Over the past decades, adult education's focus has changed considerably; the scope has grown from a constricted vocational skill focus to broader encompassing fields such as information technology (Imel, 2005). The primary sources of adult education are schools, colleges and universities, proprietary schools, and the government. In the past, the bulk of adult education was limited to apprenticeship programs; wherein, an individual learned a trade from his mentor in areas such as farming, carpentry, blacksmithing, etc. (Rose, 1991). At present, millions of individuals are engaged in adult education. This educational array ranges from traditional courses, correspondence courses, online courses, discussion groups, seminars, in-service training (Imel, 2005; Rose, 1991).

Progression of Adult Education

Apprenticeship was the primary form of adult education during the American Colonial period.

In 1727, Benjamin Franklin founded Juno, one of the first adult education programs and

organizations in American History (Imel, 2005). The course of study in Juno comprised topics

such as politics, philosophy, and conventional topics. About four years later, Franklin founded

the first Public Library. The concept of borrowing books was introduced, and adults were

admitted based on fees and fines, generating revenue for the library operations (Imel, 2005).

Around 1800, Josiah Holbrook formed another adult education program called the

Lyceum. At the Lyceum, men met and participated in debates, lectures, and discussions. At one

point, the Lyceum grew to over three thousand around the country (Imel,2005; Rose, 1991). In

the 1830s, it dissolved (Imel, 2005; Parker, 1990).

In the 1900s, the Federal Government became involved in the educational process with

the Smith Hughes Act's implementation, which was initiated to provide funding for training in

the area(s) of farming, home economics, and vocations (Imel, 2005). In the 1920s, English

language programs for immigrants were established (Parker, 1990; Rose, 1991). The depression

of the 1930s saw the formation of the Works Progress Administration; wherein, the government

trained adults to re-employ them. During the 1940s, the government-sponsored Army recruits'

literacy testing and GED development (Parker, 1990).

After WWII, the government formed the Veterans Administration, wherein veterans

received a monetary incentive to attend school. It was a catalyst for an increase in American

colleges and universities (Rose, 2005). In the 1950s, the United States Office of Education

created education programs for African Americans (Barros, 1968). The National Association for

Public Schools Adult Educators was founded, which provided grants that assisted in installing

Adult Education Directors in nine states. In the late 1950s, the National Commission on Adult Literacy was established to increase awareness and stimulate community action (Rose, 1991).

In the 1960s, the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Adult Basic Education Act were created. The Manpower Development and Training Act allocated funds to train unemployed adults and increase their marketability (Parker. 1990; Rose, 2005). The Adult Basic Education Act was part of the War on Poverty initiative. These acts were a segway for many adult basic education programs, which are still in use today, including the Adult Education Act and its amendments, which spanned from the 1970s to the late 1980s. In 1991, the National Literacy Act replaced the AEA and established the National Institute for Literacy, only to be replaced in 1998 by Title II of the Workforce Investment Act (Parker, 1990; Rose, 1991).

Adult Education

The information provided in the preceding paragraphs promotes a previously portrayed concept that adult education referred to learning corrective and rudimentary skills. However, today's curriculum emphasizes advanced level skills, which are extensive and embrace concepts such as problem-solving, conflict resolution, lifelong learning, information literacy, and information technology. Learners can enroll in adult education programs at schools, community colleges, university extension programs, and prisons. However, education goes beyond what takes place within the classroom's four walls. A learner obtains education from the experiences outside the classroom. There are three main education settings: formal, informal, and non-formal.

Formal education occurs in a school or designated classroom. Some of the formal education characteristics are the hierarchical structure, planned and deliberate, due fees, and a chronological grading system; it is syllabus oriented, and the syllabus has is covered within a specific time (Coombs, 1991).

Informal education is not pre-planned or deliberate (Dib, 1988; Nelson, Cushion &

Potrac, 2006). It consists of experiences and living in a family or community. Some of the

characteristics are independent of boundary walls; there is no definite syllabus; it is not pre-

planned and has no timetable. It is a lifelong process (Coombs, 1991).

Non-formal education includes adult basic education, adult literacy education, and school

equivalency preparation. Non-formal education is conveyed consciously and deliberately

(Coombs, 1991). It is implemented systematically and typically is programmed to serve the

identified group's needs. Some of the characteristics include: the education is planned and takes

place apart from the school system, the timetable and syllabus are adjustable, non-formal

education has no age limit, fees or certificates may or may not be necessary, and maybe full-time

or part-time learning. Within these environments, the constructs of the motivation in adult

education theory apply to the adult learner (Houle, 1984).

This learning can be obtained from various means and agencies with very different

agendas for the adult learner. According to Schroeder (1980), there are four types of adult

education agencies: Independent Agencies, Education Institutions, Quasi-educational

Organizations, and Non-educational Organizations. A description and example of these agencies

are in the following table (Table 2).

Over the past 30 years, adult education programs have experienced significant

interferences and changes in education and training delivery for adult learners. Possibly, one of

the most substantial changes has been the introduction of online learning in its various formats to

higher education (Allen & Seaman, 2015). Online modalities were advances initiated out of

necessity by an adult and continuing education entities in higher education instead of traditional

academic entities (Picciano, Seaman, & Allen, 2010).

45

Table 2

Adult Education Agencies by Schroeder (1980)

Type #	Type	Description	Example
Type I	Independent Adult Agencies	The education of adults is the principal goal or function.	Community-based agencies, Non-Profit adult schools, Residential Adult Centers, Proprietary Schools, Technical Schools, Correspondence Schools
Type II	Educational Institutions	Adult education is not a principal goal or function.	Public schools, Community Colleges, Four-year Colleges and Universities, Cooperative Extension, Community Education
Type III	Quasi-Educational Organizations	Education is an associated function to achieve some goals of the agencies.	Cultural Organizations, Religious Organizations, Senior Citizens Centers, Occupational Associations
Type IV	Non-Educational Organizations	Education is used to improve the realization of goals.	Business and Industry Government Agencies, Armed Forces Unions, Correctional Institutions, Hospitals

---

Adult Education's goal is to assist adults in examining, recognizing, and modifying assumptions, beliefs, and values that form how they learn, perform, contemplate, and meet their needs (Cranton & King, 2003; Finger, 1989).   A vigorous adult education system is a financial imperative for individuals and the United States' economic prosperity. The nation cannot compete economically without improving the skills of its workforce. High school graduates and those without education will find themselves mostly left behind in the coming decade as the

employer demand for workers with postsecondary credentials continues to proliferate (Bughin, Hazan, Lund, Dahlstrom, Wiesinger & Subramaniam, 2018).

Adults that have not obtained a high school diploma are almost twice as likely to be unemployed and are more than three times more likely to live in poverty than adults with some college education are (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). It is predicted that by 2020, 65% of all U.S. jobs will require education or training beyond high school; however, 38% of the U.S. workforce (59 million out of 166 million adults) possesses a high school education or less (Carnevale, Smith & Strohl, 2013). Also, adults who have more education earn higher incomes and pay more taxes, which helps communities prosper (McLendon, Jones & Rosin, 2011). In addition, they are less likely to face incarceration and are more poised to make their voices heard on matters of public policy (Davis, Bozick, Steele, Saunders & Miles, 2013). Adult Education is not the means to all ends; however, it appears to be one of the obvious advantageous paths.

Teacher-Learner Transactions

According to Knowles (1977), pedagogy is not learner-centered because it focuses on the subject matter to be learned and the instructor's knowledge (Nottingham Andragogy Group, 1983). Conversely, andragogy's philosophy does not ignore what students have to offer to the learning experience in favor of prearranged course content (Knowles, 1980). Furthermore, andragogy and pedagogy are not teaching techniques but rather philosophies that guide practitioners' frameworks. Resoundingly, instructional strategies are neither pedagogical nor andragogical because they can use multiple strategies.

At the foundation of the pedagogical learning model is dependency; the assumption is that students have little knowledge. Therefore, in this paradigm, the pupil is reliant upon the

instructor. According to Knowles (1977), the andragogical teaching model likens the relationship between the teacher and the learner to traveler and guide. The learner distinguishes the destination and has previous experiences in traveling. The teacher provides direction, allows learners to use their experiences, and seeks new information. In contrast to pedagogy, the instructor is not just a conveyer of information but rather serves as a mentor and guides to assist students in their development.

Arguably, the ultimate goal of andragogy is to develop individuals capable of adaptation, free inquiry, and self-sufficiency. As the education process continues, the instructor becomes less critical to the student's learning. Due to the latter, andragogy is considered a learner-centered educational model. Knowles (1984, 1989) defined the following assumptions as crucial foundations for andragogy and are the essential characteristics of the andragogical model:

      1. Learner's Self Concept - Adults have a self-concept of a self-directing personality,

      2. Role of Experience - Adults bring a wealth of experience to the learning process,

      3. Readiness to Learn - Adults come to the learning process ready to learn,

      4. Need to know - Adults need to know the reason for learning something; and

      5. Motivation to Learn - Adults are driven by an intrinsic motivation to learn.

Learner's Self-concept

Most adults believe they are independent and are responsible for their own lives (Knowles, Swanson, & Holton, 2005). Adults must be recognized and treated as being capable and self-directed. Facilitators should construct environments conducive to the development of self-directed learning skills, which are sometimes dormant (Brookfield, 1986).

Role of Experience

As opposed to youth, adults enter an educational activity with a wealth of different experiences and knowledge (Knowles et al., 2005; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). These experiences are unique to the individual and include differences in background, learning style, motivation, needs, interests, and goals, which create a greater need for individualization of teaching and learning strategies (Brookfield, 1986; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998). The most abundant means for learning exist in the adult learner. Hence, experiential techniques, such as problem-solving activities, case methods, and discussion, to tap into these resources are beneficial to the facilitator (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles et al., 2005; McKeachie, 2002; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998).

Readiness to Learn

In order to adapt to real-life situations, adults develop a readiness to learn, which they perceive as things they believe need to be known to adapt (Knowles et al., 2005). Adults desire to learn what they believe applies to them in their current role, making training outside their field difficult.

Need to Know

Adult learners want to know why they need to learn something before participating in the learning event (Knowles et al., 2005). Thus, facilitators need to make a case for the value of learning and assist adult learners in becoming aware of their need to know and its connection to their personal goals.

Motivation to Learn

Adults are responsive to some external motivators (e.g., better profession, increased salaries, promotion, fringe benefits); however, the most compelling motivators are internal

49

(e.g., aspiration for increased engagement, personal growth, self-esteem, pride, autonomy) (Knowles et al., 2005).

When Knowles updated his theoretical andragogical model in 1984, he also suggested four principles applicable to adult learning. These principles were planning, experience, relevance, and content. According to Knowles (1984), adults should have direct involvement in planning their learning opportunities. Additionally, adults benefit more from these learning opportunities when they are involved in evaluating their instruction (Knowles, 1984). Adults often learn directly from their personal experiences, including prior mistakes, which become the basis for present and upcoming learning opportunities. Adults have a preference to learn about concepts or ideas that have an immediate significance to them (Knowles, 1984). This concept implies that the most effective learning occurs when a learner's career or personal life will directly impact the learning opportunity. Finally, adults learn from a problem-centered perspective instead of a content-orientated perspective, which is typically the perspective of a pedagogical-based curriculum (Knowles, 1984).

The pedagogy paradigm does not embrace the requirements of adult learners. The differences between pedagogy and andragogy are quite apparent as can be seen in Table 3. There have been several theoretical approaches to adult learning that have provided insight on the adult learner. These methods have provided researchers with conceptual frameworks in which they consider practices across numerous adult learning contexts.

Arguably, andragogy is the best known of these approaches. Knowles is recognized with bringing this framework to attention in North America. There are specific assumptions within the andragogy paradigm, such as Adults prefer self-direction in learning; Adults bring a wealth of experience that should be considered when planning the learning experience. Additional

assumptions include adults demonstrate a readiness to learn, which is based on a need to know

something or do something; Adults demonstrate an orientation to learning that is task-or

problem-centered rather than subject-centered, and adults demonstrate a high degree of intrinsic

motivation. Despite being widely debated by scholars, who note the situational variables that

influence the degree to which adults exhibit these characteristics, this framework is one of

the most resilient and widely cited theories of adult learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

Table 3

Comparison of Pedagogical and Andragogical Models

	Pedagogical	**Andragogical**
The Learner	• The learner is dependent upon the teacher. • The teacher assumes responsibility for what is taught and how it will be taught • The teacher evaluates learning	• The leaner is self-directed • The learner is responsible for their learning • Self-evaluation occurs
Orientation to Learning	• Learning is the method of procuring prescribed subject matter • Units of content are sequenced according to the logic of the subject matter	• Learners desire to perform and solve a task/problem and live in a more satiating manner • Leaning must have relevance • Learning is organized around the personal and professional life of the learner
Learner Motivation	• Primary motivation is extrinsic, grades, and the consequence of failure	• Primary motivation is intrinsic

Self-Directed Learning

Allen Tough, a Canadian adult educator, published a study suggesting the majority of adult learning happened without the assistance of formally trained educators (Brookfield, 1981). The framework of self-directed learning intrigued and inspired many adult educators worldwide. There is currently sufficient research and theoretical analysis to validate the publication of many literature reviews dedicated exclusively to self-directed learners (Caffarrella and O' Donnell, 1990).

Self-directed learning is the transfer of learning from the instructor to the learner. SelfIt is a process in which individuals take the initiative, diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify human and material resources for learning, choose and implement appropriate learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes (Knowles, 1975). This concept's target population is the adult learner; however, one of the significant issues is the incorporation of self-directed learning into traditional adult learning settings.

Background

Knowles introduced andragogy to North American adult educators; during the same period, self-directed learning emerged as another model that helped discerning adult learners from children. Knowles contributed to the self-directed learning literature wherein he published an explanation of the concept and outlined its implementation through learning contracts (Knowles, 1975). Additionally, Knowles's first assumption underlying andragogy is that learners become increasingly self-directed as they mature (Knowles, 1975). Nevertheless, Tough (1967, 1971), expounding on the work of Houle (1961), delivered the first inclusive description of self-directed learning as a form of study. Established on Houle, Tough, and Knowles' groundbreaking work, initial research in self-directed learning was expressive, which confirmed the extensive

presence of self-directed learning among adults and documented the progression by which it

occurred. The unveiling of this concept engendered one of the key advancements of research in

adult education (Brookfield, 1981).

According to Knowles (1975), there are three primary reasons for self-directed learning.

First, he suggested that proactive learners learn more things and learn better than reactive

learners learn. Secondly, self-directed learning was more in line with our natural psychological

development processes (Knowles, 1975). Finally, many of the novel developments in education

place a considerable responsibility on the learners to have a substantial amount of initiative in

their learning (Knowles 1975). Additionally, Knowles' offered a five-step model to incorporate

the concept of self-directed learning. This model consisted of diagnosing learning needs,

formulating learning needs, identifying human material resources for, choosing and

implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes.

Self-Directed Learning and Adult Education Settings

Education is the process of facilitating learning, or the acquisition of knowledge, skills,

values, beliefs, and habits. Traditionally, education takes place under teachers' guidance;

however, learners may also educate themselves. Education can take place in a formal, informal,

or non-formal setting.

Formal education is an organized education model that is structured and systematic.

Schools and universities use this method to transfer knowledge to their students. In this setting,

learning institutions are administratively, physically, and curriculum-focused. In formal

education, teachers and students must observe; this involves intermediate and final assessments

to advance students to the next learning stage. In formal education, the students receive a degree

or diploma at the end of the formation, and there are often desired behavioral objectives, which are often operationally established (Brookfield, 1981).

Informal education is learning which occurs outside of a formal learning environment. It is learning in daily life and learning projects that we embark on for ourselves (Smith, 2009). Informal education can be used in formal or non-formal education settings to facilitate learning. This facilitation can be achieved through using television programs, films, or the internet to identify and support ideas. It also includes non-credit programs, such as engaging in community art classes. Non-formal education (experiential or incidental/random learning) results from daily activities related to work, family, or leisure. It is learning that is not organized or structured in terms of objectives, time, or learning support. In most cases, informal learning is unintentional from the learner's perspective (Smith & Clayton, 2009).

Implications

A self-directed learning environment necessitates learners to create their own learning goals and activities within the course objectives (Hanna, Glowacki-Dudka, & Conceicao-Runlee, 2000). It also entails a curriculum dedicated to processing versus content (Conrad & Donaldson, 2012; Knowles, 1984). The facilitator must relinquish control of the course and allow learners to be empowered, initially working within the course together as equal and respected persons, and then with the facilitator as an expert (Burge, 1988; Conrad & Donaldson, 2012). Collaboration between learners requires establishing a safe environment where learners cannot share ideas, experiences, and learning through conversation and information exchange (Conrad & Donaldson, 2012; Palloff & Pratt, 2001).

As Knowles (1980) indicated, some learners will be more self-directed than others. Learners should be encouraged to communicate with each other frequently with substantive,

thoughtful conversation. As learners begin to share their thoughts, communication will generally

increase and prompt valuable discussion. Although adult learners may desire self-direction in

their learning activities, they may lack the necessary resources to function independently.

Knowles acknowledged this and suggested faculty act as a guide (Knowles 1975). As with

andragogy, self-directed learning has proven to be a pillar of adult learning theory. Recent self-

directed learning applications include its role in lifelong learning and continuing professional

education, how self-directed learning can be acknowledged and incorporated into the workplace,

and how being self-directed is one criterion for success in online learning environments

(Merriam et al., 2007).

Summary

As previously mentioned, the law enforcement profession has evolved since its inception;

therefore, law enforcement's training needs have evolved. These needs will continue to evolve as

technology improves (Chan, 2001) and as new threats to social order and demands for social

stability increase in the community. The training needs will continue to evolve with political

changes and the associated transformations of policing roles (Garland, 2001; Hills, 2000; Koch,

1998; Marenin, 1996). Longstanding skills and values need to be matched with new skills

appropriate to new policing philosophies. As policing ideologies change, the organization should

continuously and routinely evaluate formal training structure and impact.

CHAPTER 3. METHODS

Introduction

Chapter 1 presented the study by providing the over-all background information of the topic, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 delivers a literature review systematized into five key sections: police organizations, emotional intelligence (EI), employee engagement, burnout, and andragogy's role in law enforcement training. Chapter 3 offers the current study's research methods, the process of participant recruitment, and the target population and demographics of the sample. Additionally, Chapter 3 describes the current study measures, the basis of the instruments used for each measure, each measure's reliability to include corresponding Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and examples of the questions for respective instruments.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among administrative officers', criminal investigators,' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between employee engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

Numerous studies support the concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout as the sole or correlating variable; however, there are limited studies wherein these three concepts are considered and are compared to these two distinct occupations in law enforcement. The concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout and

their relationship to law enforcement officers have been researched; however, there is limited research as to the correlation regarding these concepts between administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers. This study's findings may imply vetting during hiring processes and promotions, targeted in-service training, specialized assignments, disciplinary procedures, and descriptive analysis in performance evaluations.

Research Questions

1. What demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

2. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

3. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement, and b) burnout among police officers?

Participants

Three-hundred and thirty-five survey responses were received from police officers currently employed in the United States. While gender distribution was not equal, the present study provided a nationally representative sample of law enforcement officers; thus, the decision was made to use the sample for data analysis ($N_{males} = 85.1\%$; $n_{males} = 88.6\%$). Participants with more than 50% of data missing were removed ($N = 63$). The study's inclusion criteria were: participants must be age 19 years of age or older and currently employed by a law enforcement agency as an administrative officer, criminal investigator, or patrol officer in the United States.

A total of 272 respondents were used for analyses. Characteristics of the analytic sample are presented in the next section. A demographic questionnaire advised by previous studies and designed by the researcher was applied to acquire participant demographic information. Three groups were projected: administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers.

Demographics

This study's target population was law enforcement officers, who self-reported position classification (i.e., administrative, criminal investigators, and patrol) from each of the seven geographic regions in the United States. The researcher identified the following variables as demographic indicators for the focus of this study: age, ethnicity, gender, years of law enforcement experience [EXP], level of education, and current position classification [CLASS].

A total of 335 surveys were received. Of these, 272 were used for analyses. Participants with more than 50% of data missing were removed ($N = 63$). A demographic questionnaire advised by previous studies and designed by the researcher was applied to acquire participant demographic information. Three groups were projected, and the following classifications remained intact: administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers.

Sample

The sample population consisted of 88.6% male ($n = 241$), 10.7% female ($n = 29$), and two participants (0.7 %) preferred not to answer. Most participants ($n = 247$, 90.8%) identified as Caucasian/White, 3.3% identified as African American/Black ($n = 9$), 3.7% identified as Hispanic/Latino ($n = 10$), 1.5% identified as Asian ($n = 4$), and 0.8% identified as Other ($n = 2$). Ages ranged from 22 to 84 years old (M = 50.1, $SD = 10.48$). Of these, 2.6% ($n = 7$) reported 1-5 years of professional experience, 5.5% ($n = 15$) reported 6-10 years, 7.7% ($n = 21$) 11-15 years, 12.9% ($n = 35$) reported 16-20 years, 26.1% ($n = 71$) reported 21-25 years, 16.9% ($n = 46$) 26-30

years, and 28.3% ($n = 77$) reported 31+ years professional experience. Results indicated that 40.8% ($n = 111$) had a bachelor's degree, 33.1% ($n = 90$) had a Master's, 11% ($n = 30$) had some college, 7.7% ($n = 21$) had an associate degree, 3.3% ($n = 9$) had a doctorate, 1.5% ($n = 4$) had a Specialist/Technical, 1.1% ($n = 3$) selected Other, and 0.7% ($n = 2$) had a high school diploma. Most participants identified their current job classification as administrative officers ($n = 161$, 59.2%), 21.3% (n = 58) as criminal investigators, and 19.5% ($n = 53$) as patrol officers.

The *administrative officers group* consisted of 89.4% male ($n = 144$), 9.3% female ($n =15$), and two participants ($n = 1.2$ %) preferred not to answer. Most participants ($n = 147$, 91.3%) identified as Caucasian/White, 3.1% identified as African American/Black ($n = 5$), 2.5% identified as Hispanic/Latino ($n = 4$), 1.9% identified as Asian ($n = 3$), and 0.6% identified as Other ($n = 1$). Ages ranged from 33 to 84 years old (M = 53.2, $SD = 9.59$). Of these, 1.2% ($n = 2$) reported 1-5 years of professional experience, 1.2% ($n = 2$) reported 6-10 years, 3.7% ($n = 6$) 11-15 years, 11.8% ($n =19$) reported 16-20 years, 24.2% ($n = 39$) reported 21-25 years, 21.7% ($n = 35$) 26-30 years, and 36% ($n = 58$) reported 31+ years professional experience. Results indicated that 36.6% ($n = 59$) had a bachelor's degree, 41.6% ($n = 67$) had a Master's, 8.7% ($n = 14$) had some college, 6.2% ($n = 10$) had an associate degree, 4.3% ($n = 7$) had a doctorate, and 1.9% (n = 3) selected Other.

The *criminal investigator group* consisted of 89.7% male ($n = 52$), and 10.3% female ($n =6$). Most participants ($n = 52$, 89.7%) identified as Caucasian/White, 3.4% identified as African American/Black ($n = 2$), 5.2% identified as Hispanic/Latino ($n = 3$), and 1.7% identified as Asian ($n = 1$). Ages ranged from 28 to 72 years old (M = 47.3, $SD = 9.70$). Of these, 12.1% ($n = 7$) reported 6-10 years professional experience, 10.3% ($n = 6$) 11-15 years, 13.8% ($n = 8$) reported 16-20 years, 27.6% ($n = 16$) reported 21-25 years, 12.1% ($n = 7$) 26-30 years, and 24.1% ($n =

14) reported 31+ years professional experience. Results indicated that 44.8% ($n = 26$) had a bachelor's degree, 20.7% ($n = 12$) had a Master's, 20.7% ($n = 12$) had some college, 5.2% ($n = 3$) had an associate's degree, 3.4% ($n = 2$) had a doctorate, 1.7% ($n = 1$) had a Specialist/Technical, and 3.4% ($n = 2$) had a high school diploma.

The *patrol officer group* consisted of 84.9% male ($n = 45$), and 15.1% female ($n = 8$). Most participants ($n = 48$, 90.6%) identified as Caucasian/White, 3.8% identified as African American/Black ($n = 2$), and 5.7% identified as Hispanic/Latino ($n = 3$). Ages ranged from 22 to 63 years old (M $= 43.8$, $SD = 10.37$). Of these, 9.4% ($n = 5$) reported 1-5 years of professional experience, 11.3% ($n = 6$) reported 6-10 years, 17% ($n = 9$) 11-15 years, 15.1% ($n = 8$) reported 16-20 years, 30.2% ($n = 16$) reported 21-25 years, 7.5% ($n = 4$) 26-30 years, and 9.4% (n = 5) reported 31+ years professional experience. Results indicated that 49.1% ($n = 26$) had a bachelor's degree, 20.8% ($n = 11$) had a Master's, 7.5% ($n = 4$) had some college, 15.1% ($n = 8$) had an associate degree, and 5.7% ($n = 3$) had a Specialist/Technical.

Instrumentation

Demographic information was acquired using a demographic questionnaire consisting of gender, age, racial/ethnic origins, and education. Also, participants were requested to report employment information in the questionnaire. The questions addressed tenure, years of experience, classification, education level, the United States region, organization size, and participation in training relevant to this study. The instruments can be found in Appendix 2.

Table 4

Demographics of Sample by Class Status (N = 272)

	Administrative (n = 159)	Criminal Investigators (n =58)	Patrol (n =53)
Gender			
Female	15 (9.3%)	6 (10.3%)	45 (15.1%)
Male	144 (89.4%)	52 (89.7%)	8 (90.6%)
Age			
Range	33-84	28-72	22-63
Mean	53.2	47.3	43.8
Ethnicity			
Caucasian/White	147 (91.3%)	52 (89.7%)	48 (90.6%)
African-American/Black	5 (3.1%)	2 (3.4%)	2 (3.8%)
Hispanic/Latino	4 (2.5%)	3 (5.2%)	3 (5.7%)
Asian	3 (1.9 %)	1 (1.7%)	
Education			
< HS		8 (5.4%)	
HS/GED		70 (47.3%)	
Some College	10 (6.2%)	46 (31.1%)	4 (7.5%)
Associate's	7 (4.3%)	14 (9.5%)	8 (15.1%)
Bachelor's	59 (36.6%)	8 (5.3%)	26 (49.1%)
Master's	67 (41.6%)	2 (1.3%)	11 (20.8%)
Doctorate	7 (4.3%)		
Specialist/Tech			3 (5.7%)
Other	3 (1.9%)		1 (1.8%)
Years of Experience			
1-5	2 (1.5%)		5 (9.4%)
6-10	2 (1.5%)	7 (12.1%)	6 (11.3%)
11-15	6 (3.7%)	6 (10.3%)	9 (17%)
16–20	19 (11.8%)	8 (13.8%)	8 (15.1%)
21-25	39 (24.2 %)	16 (27.6%)	13 (30.2%)
26-30	35 (21.7%)	7 (12.1%)	4 (7.5%)
Over 30	58 (36%)	4 (24.1%)	5 (9.4%)

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Emotional intelligence was assessed using the SSEIT, also referred to as the Assessing

Emotions Scale (Schutte et al., 1998), which focused on assessing conventional emotional

intelligence, also known as a trait or characteristic of emotional intelligence. The inventory

contains 33 self-report items rated on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 =

61

Somewhat disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Somewhat agree; 5 = Strongly agree. Higher scores suggested more characteristic emotional intelligence in managing emotions or reactions associated with emotions. The instrument has four subscales: Perception of Emotion (e.g., "I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people"), Managing Own Emotions (e.g., "When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them"), Managing Others' Emotions (e.g., "I help other people feel better when they are down"), and Utilization of Emotion (e.g., "Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important"). The latter grouping was the most identified and validated in the literature (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. *Personality and individual differences*, *31*(7), 1105-1119. The composition of the subscale is as follows: Perception of Emotion (items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), Managing Own Emotions (2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), Managing Others' Emotions (1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30) and Utilization of Emotion (6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27). Questions 5, 28, and 33 are reversed scored. The internal consistency across 46 diverse samples with emotional intelligence ($\alpha = 87$) has been good (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The score ranged from 33 to 165, with the higher scores indicating more characteristic EI (Schutte et al., 1998). The mean EI score is 124, while scores below 111 or above 137 are considered uncommonly low or high (Malouf, 2014). The EI scale was reported to have a good two-week test-retest reliability and an internal consistency of Cronbach 's alpha .90 (Schutte et al., 1998). The scale also showed predictive and discriminant validity (Schutte et al., 998). For the full sample in the current study, the mean score was 127.06, B = 10.87), $\alpha = .88$. Cronbach's alphas for the four-subscales were $\alpha = .80$ perception of emotion, .74 managing own emotions, .67 managing others' emotions, and .69 utilization of emotion.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Engagement was assessed using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2003). The UWES was developed to assess employee work engagement. Work engagement is described as the intensity to which employees within an organization (hourly or salaried) are emotionally attached to their work resulting in efficiency and productivity (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The use of the UWES has demonstrated validity and reliability as an acceptable psychometric measure (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). The inventory consists of 17 self-report items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale: 0 = Never; 1 = Almost Never (A few times a year or less); 2 = Rarely (Once a month or less); 3 = Sometimes (A few times a month); 4 = Often (Once a week); 5 = Very Often (A few times a week); 6 = Always (Every day). Higher scores indicated greater feelings of engagement in their current job. There are three dimensions identified within the engagement measure; the three subscales are vigor (3 items, e.g., "At work, I arrive full of energy"), dedication (3 items, e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job"), and absorption (3 items, e.g., "I am mentally focused on my work"). Subscale composition is as follows: Vigor (items 1, 4, 8, 12,15,17), Dedication (2,5,7, 10, 13), and Absorption (3,6,9, 11, 14, 16). Internal consistency across 14,521 participants with employee engagement (α = 92) has been excellent (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006). For the full sample in the current study, the mean score was 72.55 (*SD* = 11.14), α = .90. Cronbach's alphas were α = .80 for vigor, α = .84 for dedication, and α = .73 for absorption.

Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5

Burnout was assessed by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (Stamm, 2009). The PROQOL scale was developed to assess burnout (compassion satisfaction and compassion fatigue). Burnout is described as is a condition that can be experienced by

human services professionals in stressful situations, with 60% reporting they have experienced burnout during their careers (McCray, Cronholm, Bogner, Gallo, & Neill, 2008). The use of the PROQOL 5 has demonstrated validity and reliability as an acceptable psychometric measure (Stamm, 2002 & 2005). The inventory consists of 30 self-report items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Very Often.   There are three facets identified within the burnout measure three subscales are Compassion Satisfaction (10 items, e.g., "I get satisfaction from being able to help people"), burnout (10 items, e.g., "I am happy"), and secondary traumatic stress (10 items, e.g., "I feel depressed because of the traumatic experiences in my life"). Subscale composition is as follows: Compassion Satisfaction (items 3,6, 12, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 27, 30), Burnout (items 1, 4, 8, 10, 15, 17, 19, 21, 26, 29), and Secondary Traumatic (items 2, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 23, 25, 28). Questions 1, 4, 15, 17, and 29 are reversed scored. For the full sample in the current study, the mean score was 59.38 ($SD = 10$), α = .77. The mean score for the Burnout sub-scale was 55.76, ($SD = 10$), α = .82. The alpha reliabilities for the scales are as follows: Compassion Satisfaction α = .88, and Secondary Traumatic Stress α = .82.

Research Design

A research design aims to ensure that the evidence acquired allows the researcher an effective means to address the research problem. The complexity and length of research designs can vary; however, most sound designs will do the following things (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2006):

- Identify the research problem and validate its selection,

- Review previously published literature related to the problem area,

- Unambiguously specify hypotheses/research questions essential to the problem,

- Effectively describe the data which will be necessary to test the hypotheses,

- Explain how the data will be obtained, and

- Describe the analysis methods applied to the data in determining whether the

  hypotheses are true or false (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2006).

The experimental design enables the researcher to maintain control over all factors that may affect an experiment's result. In this design, the researcher tries to predict what may occur. The classic experimental design identifies an experimental group and a control group. The researcher administers the independent variable to the experimental group and not to the control group. Subsequently, a measurement of both groups on the same dependent variable is obtained during the analysis. True experiments must have control, randomization, and manipulation (Labaree, 2009).

The quasi-experimental design resembles experimental research but is not true experimental research. The researcher manipulates the independent variable, but the participants are not randomly assigned to conditions or orders of conditions (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Because manipulation of the independent variable has occurred before the dependent variable is measured, quasi-experimental research eliminates the directionality problem. Nevertheless, quasi-experimental research does not eliminate the problem of confounding variables. Therefore, quasi-experiments are generally between correlational studies and true experiments in terms of internal validity. They are often conducted in field settings where random assignment is difficult or impossible. Quasi-experiments are often conducted to consider a treatment's effectiveness (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

In contrast, correlational research is described as a type of descriptive research. There are two main conditions where a researcher may choose to conduct correlational research:

- The researcher wants to determine if a relationship exists between two variables, but there is no causal relationship expectation.
- The researcher suspects that a causal relationship exists between two variables; however, it is impractical and unethical to conduct experimental research that changes one of the variables.

Correlational research is considered non-experimental because it focuses on the statistical relationship between two variables. Unlike experimental design and quasi-experiment design, correlational research does not include manipulating an independent variable.

Procedures

The design elected to answer this quantitative study's research questions was a non-experimental correlational design. A quantitative methodology was selected for this study for several reasons. This study determined a statistically significant relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout of three classifications of law enforcement officers in the United States. Moreover, this study provided empirical, measurable results that are reproducible for future research. Researchers such as Campbell and Stanley (1963) explicitly advocated for a focus on multivariate experimentation instead of the McCall (1923) period's approach of one variable at a time.

Additionally, this study examined the relationship using three validated scales. Quantitative methodologies are utilized when numerical variables are measured on a scale (Campbell, 2016). Furthermore, the purpose was to complete a correlational analysis to determine if the variables were related and were predictive of the suggested outcome as detailed

in the research questions. A qualitative methodology was not chosen for this study because it investigated a statistical relationship between multiple variables, which required a quantitative methodology.

This study's data collection was conducted in 2020 after approval from the Institutional Review Board was received (Appendix 1). The researcher emphasized the confidentiality of data and anonymity of responses for those participating in the study. Also, the researcher assured participants that individual results would not be shared, and the findings published from this study would only incorporate aggregate data from all respondents. An incentive for participation was not offered in the study.

The demographic questionnaire was the first domain assessed and was followed by Emotional intelligence. The next assessment was the engagement questionnaire. The final measure participants were assessed on was burnout. The order of measures was intended to minimize social desirability and self-evaluation bias issues (Lavrakas, 2008) of which are challenges often prevalent in self-report measure designs.

Recruitment of participants was conducted online via the LinkedIn social networking platform, more specifically to law enforcement professionals serving in the United States within the following groups: Police1 Network and The Law Enforcement Network. A digital flyer bearing a link was created and disbursed to the groups. After selecting the link, participants were directed to Qualtrics and were provided with an Information Letter outlining the study's purpose, benefits of participation, and any foreseeable risks from participation. The letter also supplied participants with the researcher's information and information for the Institutional Review Board at Auburn University (see Appendix 1). After consent was obtained, the participants initiated the self-report questionnaires through Qualtrics (see Appendix 2 for the full survey packet).

Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics and correlations were computed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Statistics 23. The data was initially screened for missing cases and multivariate outliers. The data consisted of 63 missing cases out of 335 cases. There were no multivariate outliers discovered from a review of the pertinent boxplots. To examine RQ1, (i.e., "What demographic characteristics are predictive of police officer EI, employee engagement and burnout), a multiple linear regression was conducted using data collected from participant surveys. To examine RQ2 (i.e., "After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and c) burnout among police officers?"), A two-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted using the participants' data. RQ3 was examined (i.e., "After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (i.e., Administrative, Patrol, or Investigations) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout among police officers?"). Results from the study are provided in the following chapter using a three-stage hierarchical multiple regression with an interaction variable for emotional intelligence and class.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter 1 presented the study by providing the over-all background information of the topic, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 delivers a literature review systematized into five key sections: police organizations, emotional intelligence (EI), employee engagement, burnout, and Andragogy's role in law enforcement training. Chapter 3 offers the current study's research methods, the process of participant recruitment, and the target population and demographics of the sample. Chapter 3 also describes the current study measures, the basis of the instruments used for each measure, each measure's reliability to include corresponding Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and examples of the question from the respective instrument. Chapter 4 offers the findings of this nonexperimental quantitative study based on instruments used to survey the sample population.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among criminal investigators' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between employee engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

Numerous studies support the concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout as the sole or correlating variable; however, there are limited studies wherein these three concepts are considered and are compared to these two distinct occupations in law

enforcement. The concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout and their relationship to law enforcement officers have been researched; however, there is limited research on the correlation between these concepts among administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers. This study's findings may imply vetting during hiring processes and promotions, targeted in-service training, specialized assignments, disciplinary procedures, and descriptive analysis in performance evaluations.

Research Questions

1.   What demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

2.   After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

3.   After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement, and b) burnout among police officers?

This study is structured to focus on the detailed research questions to address a much broader research issue. The forthcoming paragraphs of this chapter summarize the collected data by describing the data analysis and the results. Moreover, this chapter includes tables and figures to represent the descriptions and results visually. Finally, the chapter concludes by discussing interactions where the IV's effect on the DV differs at different values of another independent variable in the model.

Data Analysis

Demographic information was acquired to support the research questions of this study. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout concerning three law enforcement categories: administrative officer, criminal investigator, and patrol officer. The current study utilized Qualtrics to host the web-based survey. All participants selected the link and a post on the LinkedIn social networking platform. Those who consented to participate in the study were provided the survey instruments online through Qualtrics. Participation was 100% voluntary; all participants were 19 years or older and were selected by convenience sampling, with all respondents reported being law enforcement professionals in the United States.

Compensation was not offered or provided to participants upon completion of the survey. On average, each participant spent between 6 to 10 minutes to complete the survey. The survey remained open for data collection for 21 days when the survey was closed. Data were then downloaded to a data file for analysis. The statistical software used to analyze the data was The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Statistics 23.

Multiple regression was used to examine the relationships between two or more independent variables to predict the dependent variable's value. Multiple regression was the appropriate test for all three research questions as there were categorical and continuous independent variables and only one dependent variable, which was continuous. Since this study was exploratory, a multiple regression was conducted for three of the research questions (Aron & Aron, 1999); however, Research Question 3 does include an interaction term.

Data Analysis Results

Research Question 1: What demographic characteristics (gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

Three separate multiple linear regression analyses were used to develop a model for predicting a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout. The regression analyses included all variables related to the research question. Gender represented in the sample population was female (0), male (1). Classification represented in the same population was administrative (3), criminal investigator (2), and Patrol officer (1). Age was a continuous variable, and years of professional experience were represented as (1) < 1 year, (2) 1-5 years, (3) 6-10 years, (4) 11-15 years, (5) 16-20 years, (6) 21-25 years, (7) 26-30 years, and (8) > 30 years of professional experience.

Assumptions (RQ1, EI)

Testing assumptions for multiple linear regression were met for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity and occurred prior to conducting the multiple linear regression. Tests to see if the data met the assumption of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern except for age and years of experience, (Age = .34, VIF = 2.93; Gender = .98, VIF = 1.02; Years of Experience = .34, VIF = 2.95; Education = .97, VIF = 1.03).

Figure 1

Normal Probability Plot for Emotional Intelligence Variable

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: EQ Score with reversed scoring

Figure 2

Scatterplot Diagram for Emotional Intelligence Variable

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: EQ Score with reversed scoring

Emotional Intelligence

The multiple regression equation for predicting emotional intelligence scores can be expressed as follows:

Emotional Intelligence = β0 + *b2XAge* + *b3XGender* + *b5XEdu* + *b6Exp*

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting police officer's emotional intelligence from gender, education level, and years of experience. A

73

multiple linear regression model was fit, ($F(4, 265) = 0.14$, $p = 0.706$, $R^2 = .008$). There was no

evidence found which indicated that any of the considered demographic variables were

predictors of emotional intelligence. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table

5.

Table 5

Coefficients for Emotional Intelligence Model Variables

	B	**ß**	**t**	**p**	**Bivariate r**	**Partial r**
Age	.145	.138	1.317	.189	.041	.081
Gender	-1.347	-.038	-.622	.535	-.040	-.038
Exp	-.773	-.115	-1.094	.275	-.008	-.067
Education	-.041	-.007	-.117	.907	.000	-.007

Employee Engagement Assumptions (RQ1, ENG)

Testing assumptions for multiple linear regression were met for normality, linearity, and

homoscedasticity and occurred prior to conducting the multiple linear regression. Tests to see if

the data met the assumption of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern

(AGE = .34, VIF = 2.95; Gender = .98, VIF = 1.02; Years of Experience = .34, VIF = 1.04;

Education = .97, VIF = 1.03).

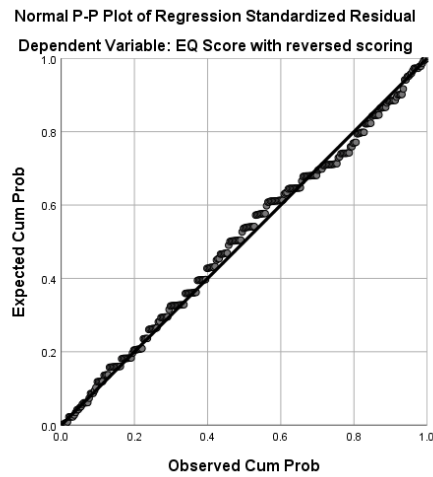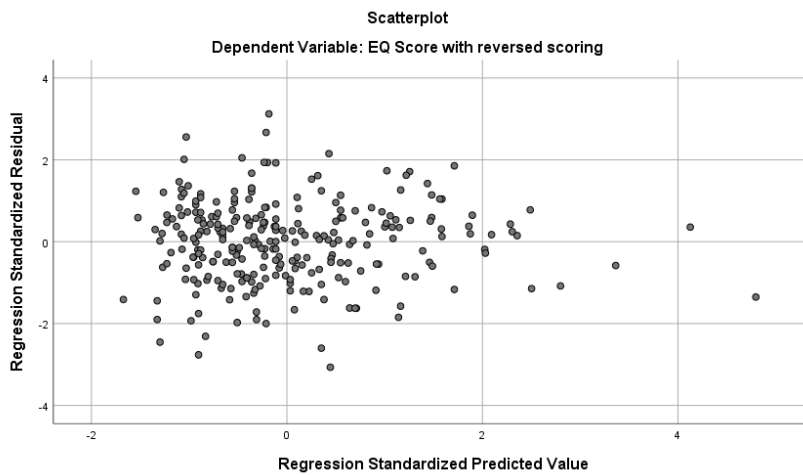**Figure 3**

Normal Probability Plot for Engagement Variable
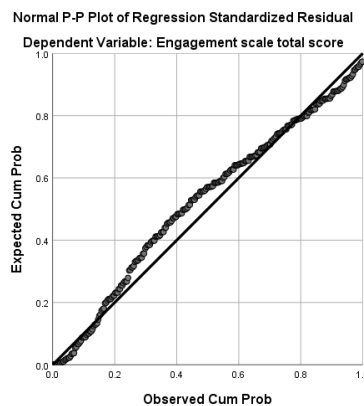
Figure 4

Scatterplot Diagram for Engagement Variable

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Engagement scale total score
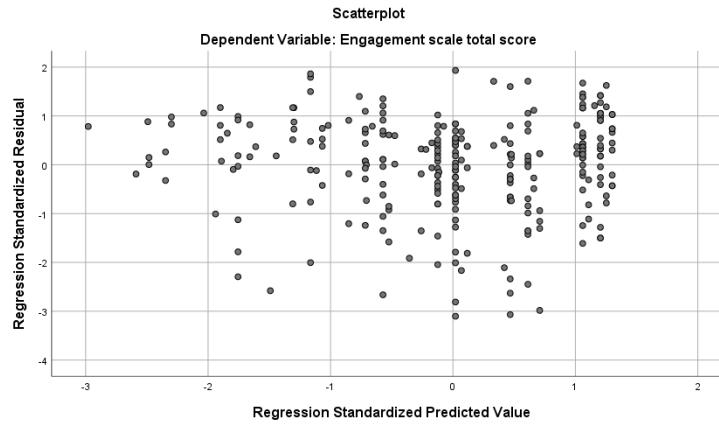
Employee Engagement

The multiple regression equation for predicting employee engagement scores can be expressed as follows:

$Employee\ Engagement = \beta 0 + b2XAge + b3XGender + b5XEdu + b6Exp$

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting police officer's employee engagement from gender, education level, and years of experience. Regression results indicate that the overall model significantly predicts police officer employee engagement, $R^2 = .059$, $R^2_{adj} = .048$, $F(3, 266) = 5.59$, $p < 0.005$. This model accounts for 56% of the variance in police officer employee engagement. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Coefficients for Engagement Model Variables

	B	**β**	**t**	**p**	**Bivariate r**	**Partial r**
Age	.635	.470	4.786	<.001	.349	.282
Gender	2.643	.058	1.012	.312	.082	.058
Exp	-1.261	-.145	-1.479	.140	.236	-.085
Education	-.313	-.043	-.733	.464	.010	-.042

Assumptions (RQ1, BO)

Testing assumptions for multiple linear regression were met for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity and occurred before conducting the multiple linear regression. A multiple linear regression model was fit, ($F_{(4, 265)} = 0.16$, $p = 0.080$, $R^2 = .031$). There was no evidence found which indicated that any of the considered demographic variables were predictors of burnout. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Coefficients for Burnout Model Variables

	B	**β**	**t**	**p**	**Bivariate r**	**Partial r**
Age	-.214	-.222	-2.137	.034	-.144	-.129
Gender	-1.132	-.035	-.574	.566	-.048	-.035
Exp	.513	.083	.797	.426	-.089	.048
Education	.422	.080	1.307	.192	.058	.079

Figure 5

Normal Probability Plot for Burnout Variable

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: T Score Burnout Total Score
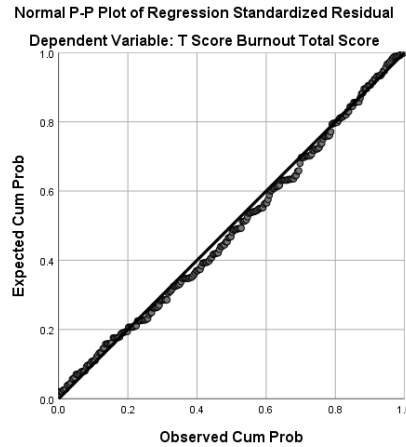
Figure 6

Scatterplot Diagram for Burnout Variable

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: T Score Burnout Total Score
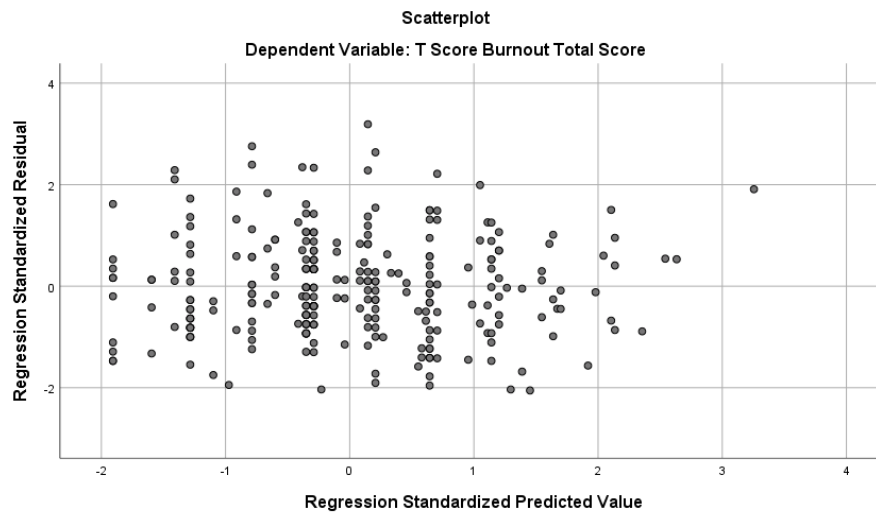
Research Question 2: After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

Preceding the analysis of RQ2 with a hierarchical multiple regression model, testing for relevant assumptions was met. All statistics for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were within the appropriate parameters. Additionally, residual and scatterplots were examined to correlate with meeting regression assumptions.

Predicting Engagement

A two-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with Employee Engagement as the dependent variable. Age, gender, years of experience, and education were entered at stage one of the regression model to control characteristic differences. The predictor variable, Emotional Intelligence (EQ_TOT), was entered at stage two. Regression statistics were reported in Table 7.

77

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables predicting Engagement

Variable	β	t	sr^2	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.373	.139	.139
Age	.477	4.867***	.277			
Gender	.058	1.004	.057			
Experience	-.145	-1.481	-.084			
Education	-.044	-.753	-.043			
Step 2				.439	.193	.054
Age	.477	4.691***	.259			
Gender	.067	1.195	.066			
Experience	-.121	-1.265	-.070			
Education	-.041	-.727	-.040			
EI	.232	4.188***	.232			

*$p<.05$, **$p<01$, ***$p<.001$

The results of step one indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first four independent variables (Age, Gender, Experience, Education) equaled .139 (adjusted $R^2 = .126$), which was significantly different from zero, $F(4, 265) = 10.69$, $p<.001$. Age was the only statistically significant independent variable, $\beta = .477$, $p<.001$, and accounted for 13.9% of employee engagement variation. In step two, the emotional intelligence scores were entered into the regression equation. The change in variance accounted for (ΔR^2) was equal to .054, which was significantly different from zero, $F(5, 264) = 12.60$, $p<.05$). The addition of Emotional Intelligence scores explained an additional 5.4%. Together the five independent

variables accounted for 19.3% of the employee engagement variance. The remaining 80.7% percent can be attributed to unknown variables or inherent variability.

Predicting Burnout

A two-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with Burnout as the dependent variable. Age, Gender, Years of Experience, and Education were entered at stage one of the regression model to control characteristic differences. The predictor variable, Emotional Intelligence (EQ_TOT), was entered at stage two. Regression statistics were reported in Table 8.

The results of step one indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first four independent variables (Age, Gender, Experience, Education) equaled .039 (adjusted R^2 = .024), which was significantly different from zero, $F(4,256) = 2.578$, $p<.05$. Age was the only statistically significant independent variable, β = -.328, $p<.01$, and accounted for 3.9% of burnout variation. In step two, the emotional intelligence scores were entered into the regression equation. The change in variance accounted for (ΔR^2) was equal to .298, which was significantly different from zero, $F(5, 255) = 25.91$, $p<.001$). The addition of Emotional Intelligence scores explained an additional 29.8%. Together the five independent variables accounted for 33.7% of the burnout variance. The remaining 66.3% percent can be attributed to unknown variables or inherent variability.

Table 8

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables predicting Burnout

Variable	β	t	sr^2	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.197	.039	.039
Age	-.328	-2.829**	-.173			
Gender	.001	.010	.001			
Experience	.190	1.637	.100			
Education	.057	.907	.056			
Step 2				.580	.337	.298
Age	-.225	-2.323	-.118			
Gender	-.010	-.192	-.010			
Experience	.097	1.004	.051			
Education	.070	1.351	.069			
EI	-.549	-1.708***	-.546			

*$p<.05$, **$p<01$, ***$p<.001$

Research Question 3: After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

Preceding the analysis of RQ3 with a hierarchical multiple regression model, testing for relevant assumptions was met. All statistics for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were within the appropriate parameters. Additionally, residual and scatterplots were examined to correlate with meeting regression assumptions.

Predicting Engagement

A two-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with Employee Engagement as the dependent variable. Age, Years of Experience, Gender, and Education were entered at the first stage of the regression model to control for characteristic differences. Emotional Intellegence, Class 1 (Patrol), the Patrol Class Emotional Intellegence Interaction Term, Class 2 (Criminal Investigators), and the Criminal Investigator Class Emotional Intelligence Interaction Term were entered at stage two of the regression model. Regression statistics were reported in Table 9.

Interaction Between Class and EI on Engagement Among Police Officers

The results of stage one indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first independent variable (Age) equaled .134 (adjusted R^2 = .121, which was significantly different from zero, $F(4, 265) = 10.26$, $p <. 001$. The model accounted for 13.4% of the variance.

In stage two, The change in variance accounted for (ΔR^2) was equal to .216, which was significantly different from zero, $F(9, 260) = 7.97$, $p < .001$). The model accounted for 21.6 % of the variance.

The models accounted for total of 35% of the variance. The remaining 65% percent can be attributed to unknown variables or inherent variability.

Table 9

Interaction Effect of Class and Emotional Intelligence on Engagement in Police Officers

Variable	β	t	sr2	R	R²	Δ R²
Step 1				.366	.134	.134
Age	.470	4.786***	.274			
Experience	-.145	-1.48	-.085			
Gender	.058	1.012	.058			
Education	-.043	-.733	-.042			
Step 2				.465	.189	.082
Age	.430	4.534***	.249			
Experience	-.171	-1.76	-.095			
Gender	.059	1.069	-.050			
Education	.-.051	-.911	.225			
EQ	.241	4.112***	-.153			
Patrol	-.174	-2.235	-.009			
Patrol EQ Interaction	-.333	-.446	.249			
Criminal Investigators	-.732	-1.129	-.062			
Inv EQ Interaction	-.764	-1.170	.260			

*p<.05, **p<01, ***p<.001*

Predicting Burnout

A two-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with burnout as the dependent variable. Age, Years of Experience, Gender and Education were entered in the first stage and. Regression statistics were reported in Table 10.

Table 10

Interaction Effect of Class and Emotional Intelligence on Burnout in Police Officers

Variable	β	t	sr^2	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.176	.031	.031
Age	-.118	-2.137*	-.129			
Experience	.282	.797	.048			
Gender	-.622	-.574	-.035			
Education	.232	-1.307	.079			
Step 2				.587	.341	.314
Age	-.145	-1.672	-.084			
Experience	.013	.149	.007			
Gender	-.057	-1.125	-.056			
Education	.075	1.474	.074			
EQ	-.557	10.154***	.-.509			
Patrol	-.016	-.306	-015			
Patrol EQ Interaction	-.003	-.059	-.003			
Criminal Investigators	.001	.016	-020			
Inv EQ Interaction	.029	.477	.024			

*p<.05, **p<01, ***p<.001*

Interaction Between Class and EI on Burnout Among Police Officers

The results of stage one indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first independent variable (Age) equaled .031 (adjusted $R^2 = .016$), $F(4,265) = 2.12$, $p=080$. There was no evidence found which indicated that any of the considered variables were predictors of burnout.

In stage two, class (patrol), class (investigators), and emotional intelligence were entered into the regression equation. The change in variance accounted for (ΔR^2) was equal to .314, which was significantly different from zero, $F(5, 260 = 16.181, p<.001)$.

The model accounted for 34.4% of the variance in the response variables. The remaining 65.6% percent can be attributed to unknown variables or inherent variability.

CHAPTER 5. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 1 presented the study by providing the over-all background information of the topic, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 delivers a literature review systematized into five key sections: police organizations, emotional intelligence (EI), employee engagement, burnout, and Andragogy's role in law enforcement training. Chapter 3 offers the current study's research methods, the process of participant recruitment, and the target population and demographics of the sample. Additionally, Chapter 3 describes the current study measures, the basis of the instruments used for each measure, each measure's reliability to include corresponding Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and examples of the questions for respective instruments. Chapter 4 offers the findings of this nonexperimental quantitative study based on instruments used to survey the sample population. Chapter 5 serves as the conclusion and summarizes the findings of the study. This chapter will discuss how the findings can be implemented, the study's perceived limitations, and finally, future recommendations.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among administrative officers', criminal investigators,' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). The study also explored the relationship between employee engagement as measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

Numerous studies support the concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout as the sole or correlating variable; however, there are limited studies wherein these three concepts are considered and are compared to these two distinct occupations in law enforcement. The concepts of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout and their relationship to law enforcement officers have been researched; however, there is limited research on the correlation between these concepts among administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers. This study's findings may imply vetting during hiring processes and promotions, targeted in-service training, specialized assignments, disciplinary procedures, and descriptive analysis in performance evaluations.

Research Questions

1. What demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education level, and years of experience) are predictive of police officers a) emotional intelligence, b) employee engagement, and c) burnout?

2. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does emotional intelligence predict a) engagement and b) burnout among police officers?

3. After accounting for differences in demographic characteristics, does police officer job classification (e.g., administrative, patrol, or criminal investigators) moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and a) employee engagement, and b) burnout among police officers?

Summary

This study's primary goal was to examine the relationships between three classifications of law enforcement's emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout. In this study, a sample population of 272 law enforcement professionals employed in the United States

completed self-report questionnaires delivered via the Qualtrics platform. The respondents

completed a survey packet containing a demographic survey and three instruments. The

demographic survey was created to capture variables such as age, gender, length of employment,

race, education, and classification.

The first instrument, the Assessing Emotions Scale (SSEIT), measured the level of

emotional intelligence mastery possessed by an individual. The second instrument, the Work and

Well-Being Survey (UWES-9) considered the respondent's overall engagement concerning their

current career. The final instrument was the PROQOL questionnaire, which considered the

amount of burnout reported by each participant.

The analysis suggested that education, gender, and years of service did not affect the

level of emotional intelligence, engageme, or burnout of law enforcement officers who

participated in this study. There was evidence that age did impact the levels of emotional

intelligence, engagement, and burnout throughout the three different professions. This study

indicated that age and emotional intelligence influenced employee engagement and burnout.

Additionally, the results indicated that class had a moderation effect on emotional intelligence

and its relationship to employee engagement and burnout.

Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among administrative officers',

criminal investigators,' and patrol officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the

Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009), employee engagement,

and burnout. The study also explored the relationship between employee engagement as

measured by the Work and Well-being Survey (UWES). Finally, this study sought to examine

burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009).

The current state of police work and officer responsibilities have changed dramatically. Effectively trained police officers are more in demand. Along with this demand is a need to have trained and sufficient personnel. Across the country, law enforcement officers perform the jobs they have trained. Police officers lay their lives on the line daily to save and protect the public but are faced with on and off-duty stressors that subconsciously interfere with work performances. According to Redman (2018), officers who could not cope with job-related stress turned to maladaptive coping alternatives such as alcohol and other self-medicating behaviors caused by off-duty conflicts. Because of the negative perceptions, officers learned how to secretly deal with the emotional problems that caused them to create unnecessary strain in their everyday lives. This stress can lead to burnout and ultimately to substance abuse, suicide, and symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD); Bloodgood, 2006).

Law enforcement officers made up approximately 3.5% of the workforce population and were accountable for the second leading cause of career suicide in the United States (The Blue, 2019). Police suicide has outnumbered line-of-duty deaths for the past three years, and Police officers were 1.5 times more likely to commit suicide than other members in the population. A study conducted by Arce (2018) concluded that first responders experiencing higher burnout are significantly more likely to report feeling more callous towards people, have difficulty concentrating, and report more often feeling overwhelmed by emotions. The study also concludes that responders with PTSD symptoms are more likely to experience burnout.

The incidents of several high-profile cases that have been exposed in the national media regarding police use of force have indicated the need for transparency and reform in police training, as the prevalence of police misconduct complaints stems from the use of force incidents (Arnold, 2014). The increase in aggressive thoughts and behaviors and decreased empathetic

87

response results from repetitive exposure to violence (Bartholow, Sestir, & Davis, 2005). Gutshall, Hampton, Sebetan, Stein, and Broxtermann (2017) indicated that aggressive behavior stemming from an increase in burnout symptoms emphasizes the need for preventive measures for law enforcement officers prone to stress-related disorders. Their study further suggested that stress impacts problem-solving capabilities resulting in wrongful arrests, improper shootings, poor memory recall, and excessive use of force.

Limitations

This study's limitations include that it was not representative of the national demographics and that frequently found in the literature concerns self-report measures. A relationship between adult social desirability and response bias (Van de Mortel, 2008) has been found in this research area. A limitation of this study was participants experiencing burnout might have a reluctant to provide accurate data for various reasons to include anonymity issues, which would influence their reports. Another limitation of this study was that correlational design does not determine causation.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Future Study

Emotional intelligence can serve as a safeguard against burnout. Future research should focus on the relationship between law enforcement professionals' emotional self-efficacy and compassionate fatigue based on the current research findings. Another recommendation is to conduct a longitudinal study following law enforcement professionals over two years after EI training and self-care education to assess the impact of EI training and burnout. Additionally, a future researcher could conduct a qualitative study interviewing law enforcement professionals about their personal experiences and strategies when recognizing that they are presenting burnout

signs. Finally, a researcher could examine if there is a difference in trait EI and burnout levels of those with EI training and those without using a predictive correlational research design.

Recommendations for future practice

Burnout is a risk for the law enforcement profession, and there is a need to implement protective factors to decrease the risk of burnout. One such protective factor is educating recruits on emotional intelligence during their career onboarding. Law enforcement Administrators could use this study's results as baseline information to develop and conduct training to enhance law enforcement officers' emotional intelligence to reduce burnout. Organizations could consider emotional intelligence training as a component of their in-service training. Also, organization leadership could encourage their personnel experiencing burnout to engage in self-care activities as a relief from work demands and provide opportunities for stress relief and wellness.

According to Panchal, Kamal, Cox, and Garfield (2020), approximately 4 out of 10 adults in the United States reported anxiety or depressive disorder symptoms during the pandemic, which increased from one out of ten the previous year. Death or harm are the critical mediators of mental health consequences for occurrences such as natural disasters and terrorist attacks (Goldmann & Galea, 2014); however, collective actions can also take an extensive toll on mental health even in the absence of violence (Hou, Hall, Liang, Li, Liu, Galea, 2021). Stressors and stress appraisal processes are likely explanations for protests' mental health impact. Therefore, stressors are presented as environmental demands and can suggest a greater risk of mental disorder following stress exposure (Schmidt, 2007). These findings' significance could support law enforcement professionals' need to develop further andragogical based training curriculums that emphasize emotional intelligence, peer support, and self-care to propagate another evolution of policing.

References

Allen, E. & Seaman, J. (2015). *Online report card*: *Tracking online education in the united states*. Babson Survey Research Group: Babson, MA.

Aguilar, C. A. (2016). *Emotional intelligence and perception of a suspect in an interrogation* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The Chicago School of Professional Psychology, Chicago, IL

Akers, M., & Porter, G. (2007). *What is emotional intelligence (EQ)?* Retrieved http://psychcentraol.com/lib/what-is-emotional-intelligence-eq/001037

Arce, E. (2018). The efficacy of debriefing for first responders. [doctoral dissertation California Southern University]. Costa Mesa, CA.

Arnold, P. J. (2014). *Using the MMPI-2's clinical depression scale and the M-PULSE inventory's liabilities scales to determine if a law enforcement officer will be terminated for cause or forced to resign*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Alliance International University. Fresno, CA.

Ascoli, D. (1979). *The Queen's peace: The origins and development of the metropolitan police, 1829-1979*. London: Hamish Hamilton.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309-328.

Bakker, A. B., Emmerik, H. V., & Euwema, M. C. (2006). Crossover of burnout and engagement in work teams. *Work and Occupations*, *33*(4), 464-489.

Bano, B., & Talib, P. (2017). Understanding police stress towards a secure and sustainable society. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, *19*(3), 159-170.

Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkcaldy, B. D., & Thome, E. P. (2000). Emotional expression and implications for occupational stress; an application of the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(6), 1107-1118.

Barros, F. J. (1968*).* Equal opportunity in higher education*. The Journal of Negro Education, 37*(3*), 310-315.*

Belur, J. (2013). Police shootings: Perceived culture of approval. *Crime and Justice in India*, 203-25.

Birzer, M. L. (2003). The theory of andragogy applied to police training. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(1),* 29-42.

Bloodgood, E. (2006). *Law enforcement officers' previous experience with, attitude toward, and willingness to participate in mental health services*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Alliance International University. Fresno, CA.

Bughin, J., Hazan, E., Lund, S., Dahlstrom, P., Wiesinger, A. & Subramaniam, A. (2018). *Skill shift: Automation and the future of the workforce.* McKinsey Global Institute, *1*, 3-84.

Burge, L. (1988). Beyond andragogy: Some explorations for distance learning design. *International Journal of E-Learning & Distance Education*, *3*(1), 5-23.

Burke, R. J. (1994). Stressful events, work-family conflict, coping, psychological burnout, and well-being among police officers. *Psychological Reports*, *75*(2), 787-800.

Burnette, M. E. (2006). The relationship between emotional intelligence of patrol sergeants and subordinate patrol officers. [unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Capella University. Minneapolis, MN.

Brookfield, S. (1981). Independent adult learning. *Studies in Adult Education*, *13*(1), 15-27.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). Understanding and facilitating adult learning: *A comprehensive analysis of principles and effective practices*. California: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Brough, P., & Frame, R. (2004). Predicting police job satisfaction and turnover intentions: The role of social support and police organisational variables. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, *33*(1), 8-18.

Brunetto, Y., Teo, S. T., Shacklock, K., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2012). Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, well-being, and engagement: Explaining organisational commitment and turnover intentions in policing. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *22*(4), 428-441.

Caffarella, R. S., & O'Donnell, J. M. (1990). *Self-directed learning*. *Adults: Psychological and Educational Perspectives*. No 1. Nottingham: Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham.

Carnevale, A., Smith, N. and Strohl, J. (2013). *Recovery: Job growth and education requirements through 2020*. Washington, DC: Georgetown Center on Education and the Workforce.

Chan, S. (2010). Applications of andragogy in multi-disciplined teaching and learning. *Journal of Adult Education, 39(2)*, 25.

Cherniss, C., & Cherniss, C. (1980). Staff burnout: Job stress in the human services. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Conrad, R. M., & Donaldson, J. A. (2012). *Continuing to engage the online learner. San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.*

Conroy, R. J. (2017). *Beyond emotional intelligence: A correlational study of multifactor measures of performance and law enforcement leadership styles* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Dallas Baptist University, Dallas, Texas.

Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design & analysis issues in field settings.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Coombs, P. H. (1989). *Formal and nonformal education: Future strategies.* C.T. Titmus (Ed.), *In Lifelong Education for Adults – International Handbook*. (pp.57-60). Pergamon.

Cranton, P., & King, K. P. (2003). Transformative learning as a professional development goal. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 98, 31-38.

Dantzker, M. L., & Kubin, B. (1998). Job satisfaction: The gender perspective among police officers. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *23*(1), 19-31.

Davis, L. M., Bozick, R. Steele, J., Saunders, J. & J. N. V. Miles. (2013). *Evaluating the effectiveness of correctional education: A meta-analysis of programs that provide education to incarcerated adults*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Darkenwald, G. G., & Merriam, S. B. (1982). *Adult education: Foundations of practice*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Dib, C. Z. (1988). Formal, non-formal and informal education: concepts/applicability. Cooperative Networks in Physics Education. (pp. 300-315). New York: American Institute of Physics.

Emsley, C. (2009). *The great British bobby: A history of British policing from the 18th century to the present*. London: Quercus.

Finger, M. (1989). New social movements and their implications for adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 40*(1), 15-22.

Forrest III, S. P., & Peterson, T. O. (2006). It's called andragogy. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *5*(1), 113-122.

Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burn-out syndrome in alternative institutions. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice,* 12(1), 73.

Gaines, L. K., Kappeler, V. E., & Vaughn, J. B. (1999). *Policing in America* (3rd Ed.). Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Pub.

Gill, C., Weisburd, D., Telep, C. W., Vitter, Z., & Bennett, T. (2014). Community-oriented policing to reduce crime, disorder and fear and increase satisfaction and legitimacy among citizens: A systematic review. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, *10*(4), 399-428.

Goldmann, E., & Galea, S. (2014). Mental health consequences of disasters. *Annual Review of Public Health*, *35*.

Goleman, D. (2011). The brain and emotional intelligence: New insights, (2nd ed). More than Sound.

Gutshall, C. L., Hampton Jr, D. P., Sebetan, I. M., Stein, P. C., & Broxtermann, T. J. (2017). The effects of occupational stress on cognitive performance in police officers. *Police Practice and Research*, *18*(5), 463-477.

Hall, A. V., Hall, E. V., & Perry, J. L. (2016). Black and blue: Exploring racial bias and law enforcement in the killings of unarmed black male civilians. *American Psychologist, 71*(3*)*, 175.

Hanna, D. E., Glowacki-Dudka, M., & Conceicao-Runlee, S. (2000). *147 practical tips for teaching online groups*. Madison, WI: Atwood Publishing.

Hawkins, H. C. (2001). Police officer burnout: A partial replication of Maslach's Burnout Inventory. *Police Quarterly*, *4*(3), 343-360.

Herder, J. H. (2013). Police Service and the Criminal Justice System. S.J. Bernstein & W. G.

    Mellon (Eds.), *Selected Readings in Quantitative Urban Analysis International Library of*

    Science, Technology, Engineering and Social Studies, (pp. 189-218). *Pergamon Press.*

Hou, W. K., Hall, B. J., Liang, L., Li, T. W., Liu, H., & Galea, S. (2021). Probable depression

    and suicidal ideation in Hong Kong amid massive civil unrest. *Annals of*

    Epidemiology, *54*, 45-51.

Houle, C. 0. (1961). *The inquiring mind*. Wisconsin Press.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/074171366301300208

Houle, C. O. (1984). Patterns of Learning. *New Perspectives on Life-Span Education*. Jossey-

    Bass Inc. San Francisco, CA.

Hundersmarck, S. (2009). Police recruit training: Facilitating learning between the academy and

    field training. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 78*, 26.

Imel, S. (2005). ERIC and the Adult Education Act: 25 Years of Collaboration. Retreived from

    ERIC Digest 107 (329807). ERIC and the Adult Education Act: 25 Years of

    Collaboration. ERIC Digest. (ericdigests.org)

Johnson, D. R. (1981). American law enforcement: A history. St. Louis, MO: Forum Press.

Kahn, W. A. (2010). The essence of engagement: Lessons from the field. In S.L. Albrecht (Eds.),

    Handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research and practice. (pp 20-

    30). Edward Elgar Publishing Linited. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781849806374.00008

Kauts, A., & Hans, M. (2011). Study of teacher effectiveness and organizational climate in

    relation to emotional intelligence among teachers at secondary stage. *Gyanodaya: The*

    Journal of Progressive Education, *4*(2) 1-14.

Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, B. (2006). What is research design? The context of design. *Performance Studies Methods Course Syllabus*. New York University. Retrieved from http://www.nyu.edu/classes/bkg/methods/005847ch1.pdf

Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-directed learning.* Parsippany, NJ: Globe Fearon.

Knowles, M. 1977. *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus pedagogy*. New York: Association.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge Books.

Knowles, M. S. (1984). *Andragogy in action*. New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M. S., Holton III, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2012). *The adult learner*. New York: Routledge.

Knowles, M. S., Swanson, R. A., & Holton, E. F. III (2005). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development* (6th ed.). California: Elsevier Science and Technology Books.

Koyuncu, M., Burke, R. J., & Wolpin, J. (2012). Work-family conflict, satisfactions and psychological well-being among women managers and professionals in Turkey, *Gender in Management: An International Journal*. *27*, 202-213.

Kurtz, D. L. (2008). Controlled burn: The gendering of stress and burnout in modern policing. *Feminist Criminology*, *3*(3), 216-238.

Labaree, R. V. (2009). *Research guides: Organizing your social sciences research paper: types of research designs*. Retrieved from https: //libguides.usc.edu/writingguide

Lavrakas, P. J. (2008). *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. Sage publications.

Lundman, R. J. (1980). *Police and policing: An introduction*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and

Winston.

Marenin, O. (2004). Police training for democracy. *Police Practice and Research, 5*(2*),* 107-123.

Maslach, C. (1976). Burned-out. *Human Behaviors*, 5(9), 16–22.

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The cost of caring*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Maslach, C. (1998). A multidimensional theory of burnout. In C/L. Cooper (eds), *Theories of

Organizational Stress*, (pp. 68–85). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of

Organizational Behavior*, *2*(2), 99-113.

Matusiak, M. C., King, W. R., & Maguire, E. R. (2017). How perceptions of the institutional

environment shape organizational priorities: Findings from a survey of police

chiefs. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, *40*(1), 5-19.

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide

(2nd ed.).* California: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

McCray, L. W., Cronholm, P. F., Bogner, H. R., Gallo, J. J., & Neill, R. A. (2008). Resident

physician burnout: Is there hope?. *Family Medicine*, *40*(9), 626.

McLendon, L., Jones, D. and M. Rosin. (2011). *The Return on Investment from Adult Education

and Training.* McGraw Hill Research Foundation.

Morin, R., Parker, K., Stepler, R., & Mercer, A. (2017). *Behind the badge: Amid protests and

calls for reform, how police view their jobs, key issues and recent fatal encounters

between blacks and police.* Pew Research Center.

Morris, W. A. (1910). *The frankpledge system* (Vol. 14). New York: Longmans, Green.

Needle, D. (2004). *Business in context: An introduction to business and its environment*. London. Thomson.

Nelson, L. J., Cushion, C. J., & Potrac, P. (2006). Formal, nonformal and informal coach learning: A holistic conceptualization. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, *1*(3), 247-259.

Nisar, S. K., Rasheed, M. I., & Qiang, W. (2018). They can't safeguard you when they are under stress: An exploratory study on issues and problems of job stress in police. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, *20*(2), 124-133.

Nottingham Andragogy Group (1983). *Towards a developmental theory of andragogy*. Nottingham, United Kingdom: Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham.

Paley, R. (2017). An Imperfect, Inadequate and Wretched System? Policing London Before Peel. In Emsley, C. (Eds.), The*ories and Origins of the Modern Police* (pp. 413-448). Routledge.

Palloff, R. M., & Pratt, K. (2005, March). Online learning communities revisited. In: Luppicini, R. (ed.) Online Learning Communities, pp. 3–16. Information Age Publishing (2007)

Panchal, N., Kamal, R., Orgera, K., Cox, C., Garfield, R., Hamel, L., & Chidambaram, P. (2020). *The implications of COVID-19 for mental health and substance use*. Kaiser family foundation.

Payne, W. L. (1985). *A Study of Emotion: Developing emotional intelligence; self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire.* [*doctoral dissertation Union Graduate School].* *Cincinnati, OH.*

Park, T. Y., & Shaw, J. D. (2013). Turnover rates and organizational performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(2), 268.

Parker, J. T. (1990). Modeling a Future Basic Education. *Adult Learning*, *1*(4), 16-28.

Picciano, A., Seaman, J. & Allen, E. (2010). Educational transformation through online learning: To be or not to be. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks. 14(*4), 17-35.

Poitras, J. P. (2017). Frameworks of police leadership: Evolution of change. *Leader Development Deconstructed 15,* 323-331.

Ponterotto, J. G., Ruckdeschel, D. E., Joseph, A. C., Tenenbaum, E. A., & Bruno, A. (2011). Multicultural personality dispositions and trait emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *151*(5), 556-576.

Prenzler, T., & den Heyer, G. (Eds.). (2015). *Civilian oversight of police: advancing accountability in law enforcement*. Cleveland, OH. CRC Press.

Reaves, B. A., & Hickman, M. J. (1998). *Census of state and local law enforcement agencies, 2008*. US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Reiner, R. (2010). The politics of the police. *Oxford University Press, 30*(3), 355-360, DOI: 10.1080/10439463.2019.1680674

Rektor, B. (1975). *Federal law enforcement agencies*. Danubian Press.

Rokeach, M., Miller, M. G., & Snyder, J. A. (1971). The value gap between police and policed. *Journal of Social Issues*, *27*(2), 155-171.

Rose, A. D. (1991). Ends or means: An overview of the history of the Adult Education Act (No. 346). ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Center on Education and Training for Employment, Ohio State University.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, *9*(3), 185-211.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Peeters, M. C. (2000). Job stress and burnout among correctional officers: A literature review. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *7*(1), 19-48.

Schmidt, C. W. (2007). Environmental connections: a deeper look into mental illness. *Environmental Health Perspective, 115*(8, A404) A404, A406-A410.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., & Bhullar, N. (2009). The assessing emotions scale. In C. Stough, D. Saklofske & J. Parker (Eds.). *Assessing emotional intelligence*. Springer, Boston, MA. 119-134.

Schroeder, W. L. (1980) Typology of adult learning systems. In Peters, J. M. & Associates (Eds.). *Building an Effective Adult Education Enterprise.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 41-77.

Selker, M. (2014). Emotional Intelligence and Law Enforcement: A Conversation That's Long Overdue. American Society for Public Administration. Retrieved from https://patimes.org/emotional-intelligence-law-enforcement-overdue-conversation/

Senge, P. M. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization.* New York: Currency Doubleday.

Simmons, K. C. (2007). The politics of policing: Ensuring stakeholder collaboration in the federal reform of local law enforcement agencies. *Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology*, *98*, 489.

Skinner, A. L., & Haas, I. J. (2016). Perceived threat associated with police officers and black men predicts support for policing policy reform. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*. DOI:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01057

Silberman, M. L., & Auerbach, C. (1998). Active training: A handbook of techniques, designs, case examples, and tips *(2nd ed.)*. California: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

 Simpson, J. A., & Weiner, E. S. C. 1989. The oxford english dictionary (2nd ed., Vol. 20). Oxford, United Kingdom: Clarendon.

Smith, L., & Clayton, B. (2009). Recognising non-formal and informal learning: Participant

Spitzer, S. (1979). The rationalization of crime control in capitalist society. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, *3*(2), 187.

Spreitzer, G., & Porath, C. (2012). Creating sustainable performance. *Harvard Business Review*, *90*(1), 92-99.

Stewart, S. (2018). *Examining the relationships between front line supervisors and employees' emotional intelligence, engagement, and job satisfaction within the manufacturing industry.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Auburn University.

Sudibjo, N & Sutarji, T. (2020). The roles of job satisfaction, well-being, and emotional intelligence in enhancing the teachers' employee engagements. *Management Science Letters, 10*(11), 2477-2482.

Tough, A. M. (1967). *Learning without a teacher: A study of tasks and assistance during adult self-teaching projects*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Tough, A. (1971). The adult's learning projects: A fresh approach to theory and practice in adult learning. Pfeiffer and Company. Ontario, Canada.

Trahant, B. (2009). Driving better performance through continuous employee engagement. *Public Manager, 38*(1), 54-58. Retrieved from http://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/driving-better-performance-through-continuous/docview/236317477/se-2?accountid=8421

Turner, K. B., Giacopassi, D., & Vandiver, M. (2006). Ignoring the past: Coverage of slavery and slave patrols in criminal justice texts. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, *17*(1), 181-195.

Turner, T. (2006). The need for emotional intelligence in leadership. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, *75*(9), 10.

Uchida, C. D. (1997). The development of the American police. *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Readings*, 14-30.

U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2018, July). *Employment status of the civilian population 25 years and over by educational attainment.* Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/news.release/empsit.t04.h

Vance, R. J. (2006). Employee engagement and commitment. *SHRM foundation*, 1-53.

Van de Mortel, T. F. (2008*).* Faking it: Social desirability response bias in self-report research. *The Australian Journal of Advanced Nursing, 25*(4), 40–48.

Ventura, M., Salanova, M., & Llorens, S. (2015). Professional self-efficacy as a predictor of burnout and engagement: The role of challenge and hindrance demands. *The Journal of Psychology*, *149*(3), 277-302.

Ventura, M., Salanova, M., & Llorens, S. (2015). Professional self-efficacy as a predictor of burnout and engagement: The role of challenge and hindrance demands. *The Journal of Psychology*, *149*(3), 277-302.

Violanti, J. M., & Aron, F. (1995). Police stressors: Variations in perception among police personnel. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *23*(3), 287-294.

Vosloban, R. I. (2013). Employee engagement concept–A theoretical and practical approach. *Contemporary Readings in Law and Social Justice*, *2,* 759-765.

Walker, S., & JUSTICE, O. C. (2016). The history of proactive policing in the US. *Panel on Proactive Policing, National Academy of Sciences*.

Wang, X. (2015). Key Themes of Policing. In Wang, S. (Eds.), *Empowerment on Chinese Police Force's Role in social service* (pp. 13-58). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

White, M. D., & Escobar, G. (2008). Making good cops in the twenty-first century: Emerging issues for the effective recruitment, selection and training of police in the United States and abroad. *International Review of Law, Computers & Technology, 22(1-2),* 119-134.

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*(3), 243-274.

Wrobleski, H., & Hess, K. (2005). *Introduction to law enforcement and criminal justice.* Cengage Learning.

Zou, M. (2015). Gender, work orientations and job satisfaction. *Work, Employment and Society*, *29*(1), 3-22.

Appendix 1

Auburn University Human Research Protection Program

EXEMPTION REVIEW APPLICATION

For information or help completing this form, contact: **THE OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE,**
Location: 115 Ramsay Hall   **Phone:** 334-844-5966   **Email:** IRBAdmin@auburn.edu

---

Submit completed application and supporting material as one attachment to IRBsubmit@auburn.edu.

---

1. PROJECT IDENTIFICATION   **Today's Date** 10/8/2020

a. Project Title Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Employee Engagement, and Burnout:
A Comparison of Administrative Officers, Criminal Investigators and Patrol Officers in Law Enforcement

b. Principal Investigator Clarence J.C. Stewart, IV   **Degree(s)** BS and MPA
Rank/Title Doctoral Candidate   **Department/School** EFLT/College of Education
Phone Number (334) 750-5484   **AU Email** cjs0013@auburn.edu

Faculty Principal Investigator (required if PI is a student) James E. Witte, PhD
Title Professor and Chair   **Department/School** Department of Aviation/College of Liberal Arts
Phone Number (334) 844-1905   **AU Email** witteje@auburn.edu

Dept Head James Satterfield, Ed. D.   **Department/School** College of Education
Phone Number (334) 844-4460   **AU Email** jws0089@auburn.edu

c. Project Personnel (other PI) – Identify all individuals who will be involved with the conduct of the research and include their role on the project. Role may include design, recruitment, consent process, data collection, data analysis, and reporting. Attach a table if needed for additional personnel.

Personnel Name N/A _____ Degree (s) _____
Rank/Title_____ Department/School_____
Role_____
AU affiliated? ☐ YES   ☐ NO   If no, name of home institution _____
Plan for IRB approval for non-AU affiliated personnel? _____

Personnel Name N/A _____ Degree (s) _____
Rank/Title_____ Department/School_____
Role_____
AU affiliated? ☐ YES   ☐ NO   If no, name of home institution _____
Plan for IRB approval for non-AU affiliated personnel? _____

Personnel Name N/A _____ Degree (s) _____
Rank/Title_____ Department/School_____
Role_____
AU affiliated? ☐ YES   ☐ NO   If no, name of home institution _____
Plan for IRB approval for non-AU affiliated personnel? _____

d. Training – Have all Key Personnel completed CITI human subjects training (including elective modules related to this research) within the last 3 years?   YES ☑   NO ☐

> The Auburn University Institutional
> Review Board has approved this
> Document for use from
> 10/08/2020 to ----------
> Protocol # 20-484 EX 2010

AU Exemption
Form Version   Version Date (date document created): 10/8/2020   page 1 of 8

104

e. Funding source – Is this project funded by the investigator(s)? ☑ YES ☐ NO
Is this project funded by AU? ☐ YES ☑ NO   If YES, identify source _____
Is this project funded by an external sponsor? ☐ YES ■ No If YES, provide the name of the sponsor, type of sponsor (governmental, non-profit, corporate, other), and an identification number for the award.
Name N/A _____ Type N/A _____ Grant # N/A _____

f. List other AU IRB-approved research studies and/or IRB approvals from other institutions that are associated with this project.
N/A _____

2. Mark the category or categories below that describe the proposed research:

☐ 1. Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, involving normal educational practices. The research is not likely to adversely impact students' opportunity to learn or assessment of educators providing instruction. 104(d)(1)

■ 2. Research only includes interactions involving educational tests, surveys, interviews, public observation if at least ONE of the following criteria. (The research includes data collection only; may include visual or auditory recording; may NOT include intervention and only includes interactions). **Mark the applicable sub-category below (i, ii, or iii).** 104(d)(2)

■ (i) Recorded information cannot readily identify the participant (directly or indirectly/linked);
   OR
   • surveys and interviews: no children;
   • educational tests or observation of public behavior: can only include children when investigators do not participate in activities being observed.

■ (ii) Any disclosures of responses outside would not reasonably place participant at risk; **OR**

☐ (iii) Information is recorded with identifiers or code linked to identifiers and IRB conducts limited review; no children. **Requires limited review by the IRB.***

☐ 3. Research involving Benign Behavioral Interventions (BBI)** through verbal, written responses (including data entry or audiovisual recording) from adult subjects who prospectively agree and ONE of the following criteria is met. (This research does not include children and does not include medical interventions. Research cannot have deception unless the participant prospectively agrees that they will be unaware of or misled regarding the nature and purpose of the research) **Mark the applicable sub-category below (A, B, or C).** 104(d)(3)(i)

☐ (A) Recorded information cannot readily identify the subject (directly or indirectly/linked); **OR**

☐ (B) Any disclosure of responses outside of the research would not reasonably place subject at risk; **OR**

☐ (C) Information is recorded with identifiers and cannot have deception unless participant prospectively agrees. **Requires limited review by the IRB.***

☐ 4. Secondary research for which consent is not required: use of identifiable information or identifiable bio-specimen that have been or will be collected for some other 'primary' or 'initial' activity, if one of the following criteria is met. Allows retrospective and prospective secondary use. **Mark the applicable sub-category below (I, ii, iii, or iv).** 104(d)(4)

☐ (i) Biospecimens or information are publically available;

☐ (ii) Information recorded so subject cannot readily be identified, directly or indirectly/linked; investigator does not contact subjects and will not re-identify the subjects; OR

105

☐ (iii) Collection and analysis involving investigators use of identifiable health information when use is regulated by HIPAA "health care operations" or "research or "public health activities and purposes" (does not include biospecimens (only PHI and requires federal guidance on how to apply); OR

☐ (iv) Research information collected by or on behalf of federal government using government generated or collected information obtained for non-research activities.

☐ 5. Research and demonstration projects which are supported by a federal agency/department AND designed to study and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine: (i) public benefit or service programs; (ii) procedures for obtaining benefits or services under those programs; (iii) possible changes in or alternatives to those programs or procedures; or (iv) possible changes in methods or levels of payment for benefits or services under those programs. (must be posted on a federal web site). 104(d)(5) (must be posted on a federal web site)

☐ 6. Taste and food quality evaluation and consumer acceptance studies, (i) if wholesome foods without additives are consumed or (ii) if a food is consumed that contains a food ingredient at or below the level and for a use found to be safe, or agricultural chemical or environmental contaminant at or below the level found to be safe, by the Food and Drug Administration or approved by the Environmental Protection Agency or the Food Safety and Inspection Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. The research does not involve prisoners as participants. 104(d)(6)

New exemption categories 7 and 8: Both categories 7 and 8 require Broad Consent. (Broad consent is a new type of informed consent provided under the Revised Common Rule pertaining to storage, maintenance, and secondary research with identifiable private information or identifiable biospecimens. Secondary research refers to research use of materials that are collected for either research studies distinct from the current secondary research proposal, or for materials that are collected for non-research purposes, such as materials that are left over from routine clinical diagnosis or treatments. Broad consent does not apply to research that collects information or biospecimens from individuals through direct interaction or intervention specifically for the purpose of the research.) **The Auburn University IRB has determined that as currently interpreted, Broad Consent is not feasible at Auburn and these 2 categories WILL NOT BE IMPLEMENTED at this time.**

*Limited IRB review – the IRB Chairs or designated IRB reviewer reviews the protocol to ensure adequate provisions are in place to protect privacy and confidentiality.

**Category 3 – Benign Behavioral Interventions (BBI) must be brief in duration, painless/harmless, not physically invasive, not likely to have a significant adverse lasting impact on participants, and it is unlikely participants will find the interventions offensive or embarrassing.

3. PROJECT SUMMARY

a. Does the study target any special populations? (Mark applicable)

Minors (under 18 years of age)	☐ YES ☑ NO
Pregnant women, fetuses, or any products of conception	☐ YES ☑ NO
Prisoners or wards (unless incidental, not allowed for Exempt research)	☐ YES ☑ NO
Temporarily or permanently impaired	☐ YES ☑ NO

b. Does the research pose more than minimal risk to participants?   ☐ YES ☑ NO

Minimal risk means that the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or test. 42 CFR 46.102(i)

c. Does the study involve any of the following?

10/8/2020

Procedures subject to FDA regulations (drugs, devices, etc.)	☐YES ☑NO
Use of school records of identifiable students or information from instructors about specific students.	☐YES ☑NO
Protected health or medical information when there is a direct or indirect link which could identify the participant.	☐YES ☑NO
Collection of sensitive aspects of the participant's own behavior, such as illegal conduct, drug use, sexual behavior or alcohol use.	☐YES ☑NO
Deception of participants	☐YES ☑NO

4. **Briefly describe the proposed research, including purpose, participant population, recruitment process, consent process, research procedures and methodology.**

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship among law enforcement officers' emotional intelligence traits as measured by the Assessing Emotions (SSEIT) Scale, employee engagement as measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), and to examine burnout as measured by the Professional Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL) version 5. The SSEIT is a 33-item survey, the UWES-17 consists of 17 items, and the PROQOL (burnout) consists of 30 items, all of which use the Likert like scale. All instruments are approved for educational and research purposes.

The population of this study will consist of law enforcement officers from various regions of the United States. The variables of interest are age, gender, time in service, level of education and current position. The latter will be obtained from a demographic questionnaire. Participants will be recruited via email and postings on Social Media Software Platform (LinkedIn). The email will state the purpose of the research as well as provide an estimated time of completion. Those that wish to participate will be directed to a consent page on Qualtrics. After consent is provided the assessment will begin with the demographic survey, followed by the SSEIT, the UWES, and then the PROQOL (burnout) survey.

The collected data will be exported from Qualtrics and IBM SPSS will be used to perform the data analysis. The syntax for the analysis (descriptives and multiple linear regression) will be documented and saved for future reference.

5. **Waivers**

Check any waivers that apply and describe how the project meets the criteria for the waiver. Provide the rationale for the waiver request.

☐ **Waiver of Consent (including existing de-identified data)**

☑ **Waiver of Documentation of Consent (Use of Information Letter)**

☐ **Waiver of Parental Permission**

All retrospective information will be de-identified.

Waiver of documentation of consent will be through the use of an Information Letter.

AU Exemption
Form Version
07.14.2020

Version Date (date document created): 10/8/2020

page 4 of 8

107

6. Describe how participants/data/specimens will be selected. If applicable, include gender, race, and ethnicity of the participant population.

An invitation letter will be placed on the LinkedIn social media platform, more specifically to the following groups: Police1 Network and The Law Enforcement Network. Participants will choose whether they desire to participate in this study or not. The gender, race, and ethnicity of the participants will vary; however, all of the participants will be law enforcement officers to include administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers in the United States.

7. Does the research involve deception? ☐ YES ☑ NO If YES, please provide the rationale for deception and describe the debriefing process.
N/A

8. **Describe why none of the research procedures would cause a participant either physical or psychological discomfort or be perceived as discomfort above and beyond what the person would experience in daily life.**

Risks to participants are minimized by using procedures and instruments which are consistent with sound research design and do not unnecessarily expose the participants to risks. Additionally, adequate safeguards (passwords and encryption) have been placed in the research design to protect the confidentiality of the data and the participants.

9. **Describe the provisions to maintain confidentiality of data, including collection, transmission, and storage.**

During the collection process, the data will be maintained on a secure server that requires a password and dual authentication. After the data is exported from Qualtrics it will be stored on AU BOX a free platform available to Auburn University student.

AU Exemption
Form Version
07.14.2020

Version Date (date document created)

10/8/2020

page 6 of 8

109

10. Describe the provisions included in the research to project the privacy interests of participants (e.g., others will not overhear conversations with potential participants, individuals will not be publicly identified or embarrassed).

The survey(s) will be distributed through Qualtrics and the participants will be able to complete the survey at their leisure and in a setting in which they find suitable and appropriate. The identities of the participants will not be known to the principal investigator or the faculty principal investigator. Any data that is obtained which may readily identify a participant of the study, will be de-identified and removed so that no link can be made to identify the source.

11. Will the research involve interacting (communication or direct involvement) with participants?
■ YES ☐ NO If YES, describe the consent process and information to be presented to subjects. This includes identifying that the activities involve research; that participation is voluntary; describing the procedures to be performed; and the PI name and contact information.
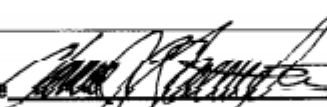Participants will be recruited via email and postings on Social Media Software Platform (LinkedIn). The post/flyer will state the purpose of the research and those that wish to participate will be directed to the information letter (attached) and the consent page on Qualtrics. After consent is provided the assessment will begin with the demographic survey, followed by the SSEIT, the UWES, and then the PROQOL (burnout) survey.

AU Exemption
Form Version
07.14.2020

Version Date (date document created): 10/8/2020

page 7 of 8

110

12. Additional information and/or attachments.

In the space below, provide any additional information you believe may help the IRB review of the proposed research. If attachments are included, list the attachments below. Attachments may include recruitment materials, consent documents, site permissions, IRB approvals from other institutions, etc.

The following documents are attached with this submission:

1. Application;
2. Consent Document (information letter);
3. Recruitment Materials (flyer for post);
4. Copy of Electronic Survey); and
5. CITI training documentations.

Principal Investigator's Signature _____ Date 10/5/2020

If PI is a student,
Faculty Principal Investigator's Signature _____ Date October 5, 2020

Department Head's Signature _James Satterfield_ Date 10/5/2020

AU Exemption
Form Version
07.14.2020
Version Date (date document created): 10/8/2020   page 8 of 8

Appendix 2

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

English ⌄

Informed Consent

The Auburn University Institutional
Review Board has approved this
Document for use from
10/08/2020 to _____
Protocol # ___20-484 EX 2010___

Welcome to the research study!
INFORMATION LETTER
for a Research Study entitled
"Examining the relationship between emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout: A comparison of administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers in law enforcement"

You are invited to participate in a research study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, employee engagement, and burnout comparing administrative officers, criminal investigators, and patrol officers within law enforcement settings in order to suggest effective training and communication programs to enhance productivity and retention within organizations. This study is being conducted by Clarence J.C. Stewart, IV, a PhD candidate of the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University, under the direction of Professor James Witte, PhD, of the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University. You were selected as a possible participant because you are currently a law enforcement professional, and you are age 19 or older.

If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to take a confidential on-line survey. Your total time commitment will be approximately 10-15 minutes.

Your participation in this study is completely confidential and voluntary. There are no foreseeable risks associated with this study. However, if you feel uncomfortable answering

any questions, you can withdraw from the survey at any time by not continuing to answer questions and closing your browser. Once you have submitted confidential data, it cannot be withdrawn since it will be unidentifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology or your employer.

There will be no costs for participation. Information collected through your participation may be used to fulfill and educational requirement, professional journal publication and national or international professional presentations.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Clarence Stewart at cjs0013@auburn.edu or Dr. James E. Witte, Professor, at witteje@auburn.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone at (334) 844-5966 or email at IRBadmin@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use, 10/08/2020 to 10/08/2021, AU IRB Protocol Number 20-484.

By clicking the button below, you acknowledge that your participation in the study is voluntary, you are 19 years of age, and that you are aware that you may choose to terminate your participation in the study at any time and for any reason.

Please note that this survey will be best displayed on a laptop or desktop computer. Some features may be less compatible for use on a mobile device.

O I consent, begin the study

O I do not consent, I do not wish to participate

Demographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions about yourself as honestly as possible. All responses will remain confidential and will not be seen by anyone in your organization. Please read each question carefully and mark only ONE answer per question.

113

What is your gender?

O Male

O Female

O Prefer not to answer

What is your age?

What is your length of employment with your CURRENT employer?

O less than 1 year

O 1-5 years

O 6-10 years

O 11-15 years

O 16-20 years

O 21-25 years

O 26-30 years

O over 30 years

How many years of experience do you have in your profession?

O less than 1 year

O 1-5 years

O 6-10 years

O 11-15 years

O 16-20 years

O 21-25 years

O 26-30 years

O over 30 years

Which classification most accurately describes your current position?

○ Patrol

○ Investigations

○ Administrative

○ Other

How many years of general workforce experience do you possess?

○ less than 1 year

○ 1-5 years

○ 6-10 years

○ 11-15 years

○ 16-20 years

○ 21-25 years

○ 26-30 years

○ over 30 years

What is your current employment status?

○ Employed full time

○ Employed part time

○ Retired

What is your racial/ethnic origin?

○ White/Caucasian

○ Black/African American

○ Hispanic/Latino

○ American Indian or Alaska Native

○ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

○ Asian

○ Biracial/Multiracial

○ Other, please specify

115

If given the opportunity, would you take a *comparable* job elsewhere?

○ Yes
○ Not Sure
○ No

What is your highest level of education?

○ Less than high school
○ High school graduate
○ Some college
○ 2 year degree
○ 4 year degree
○ Professional degree
○ Specialist/Technical
○ Masters Degree
○ Doctorate
○ Other

In which region of the United States do you work?

○ New England (CT, ME, MA, NH, RI, VT)
○ East South Central (AL, KY, MS, TN)
○ Pacific (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA)
○ East North Central (IN, IL, MI, OH, WI)
○ Mountain (AZ, CO, ID, NM, MT, UT, NV, WY)
○ Middle Atlantic (NY, NJ, PA)
○ West South Central (AR, LA, OK, TX)
○ South Atlantic (DE, DC, FL, GA, MD, NC, PR, SC, VA, WV)
○ West North Central (IA, KS, MN, MO, ND, NE, SD)
○ Other

What is the size of your organization (sworn officers)

○ Less than 100

○ 100 to 500

○ Greater than 500

Have you participated in emotional intelligence training?

○ Yes

○ No

Have you participated in employee engagement training?

○ Yes

○ No

Have you participated in stress management training?

○ Yes

○ No

Work & Well-being Survey (UWES)

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. if you have never had this feeling, select "O" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it select the number (from 1 to 7) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

At my work, I feel bursting with energy	✓
I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose	✓
Time flies when I'm working	✓
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	✓
I am enthusiastic about my job	✓
When I am working, I forget everything else around me	✓
My job inspires me	✓
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	✓

117

I feel happy when I am working intensely   ⌄

I am proud of the work that I do   ⌄

I am immersed in my work   ⌄

I can continue working for very long periods at a time   ⌄

To me, my job is challenging   ⌄

I get carried away when I'm working   ⌄

At my job, I am very resilient, mentally   ⌄

It is difficult to detach myself from my job   ⌄

At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well   ⌄

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the provided scale.

I know when to speak about my personal problems to others   ⌄

When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them   ⌄

I expect that I will do well on most things I try   ⌄

Other people find it easy to confide in me   ⌄

I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people   ⌄

Some of the major events in my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important   ⌄

When my mood changes, I see new possibilities   ⌄

Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living   ⌄

I am aware of my emotions as I experience them   ⌄

I expect good things to happen   ⌄

I like to share my emotions with others   ⌄

When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last   ⌄

I arrange events others enjoy   ⌄

I seek out activities that make me happy   ⌄

I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others   ⌄

I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others   ⌄

When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me   ⌄

By looking at facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing   ⌄

I know why my emotions change   ⌄

When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas   ⌄

I have control over my emotions

I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them

I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on

I compliment others when they have done something well

I am aware of non-verbal messages other people send

When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself

When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas

When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail

I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them

I help other people feel better when they are down

I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles

I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice

It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do

Profession Quality of Life Scale (PROQOL)

COMPASSION SATISFACTION AND COMPASSION FATIGUE (PROQOL) Version 5 (2009) Stamm, B.

When you [help] people you have direct contact with their lives. As you may have found, your compassion for those you [help] can affect you in positive and negative ways. Below are some-questions about your experiences, both positive and negative, as a [helper]. Consider each of the following questions about you and your current work situation. Select the number that honestly reflects how frequently you experience these things in the last 30 days.

I am happy.

I am preoccupied with more than one person I [help].

I get satisfaction from being able to [help] others.

I feel connected to others.

I jump or am startled by unexpected sounds.

I feel invigorated after working with those I [help].

I find it difficult to separate my personal life from my life as a [helper].

I am not as productive at work because I am losing sleep over traumatic experiences of a person I [help].

I think that I might have been affected by the traumatic stress of those I [help].

I feel trapped by my job as a [helper].

Appendix 3

Participate in the Nationwide Study

The future of law enforcement is in your hands...

Please click on the link below to view the information letter containing more details on how you can support the profession

https://auburn.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_6Rsn7EbSSeTxBdj

Appendix 4

Completion Date 25-Jun-2018
Expiration Date 24-Jun-2021
Record ID 27621013

This is to certify that:

Clarence Stewart

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

IRB # 2 Social and Behavioral Emphasis - AU Personnel - Basic/Refresher (Curriculum Group)
IRB # 2 Social and Behavioral Emphasis - AU Personnel (Course Learner Group)
1 - Basic Course (Stage)

Under requirements set by:

Auburn University

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

Verify at www.citiprogram.org/verify/?wcb616659-2637-43eb-9132-daf97cdf2e4e-27621013