Chapter #2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the foregoing chapter, the meaning of the terms ‘emotional intelligence’ and ‘job satisfaction’ were enunciated. It was also shown that these themes have been researched on a variety of populations. Apparently, they have not been as much studied in the context of police personnel. It was also mentioned that there are possible linkages between EI and JS that has not been fully explored. It would be worthwhile to take stock of the research done both in the west as well as in our country on these themes before it is contemplated whether any training program could be undertaken to improve EI and see its effects on JS in the police people of our country. The key questions confronting this investigation could be:

i. What is the level of emotional intelligence in police personnel?

ii. What is the level of job satisfaction in police personnel?

iii. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in police personnel?

iv. Does intervention help to improve levels of emotional intelligence in police personnel?

v. What will be the impact of tailor made intervention program to improve levels of emotional intelligence in police personnel?

The present review of relevant literature is also undertaken against the need, rationale, and background of the above mentioned questions. The studies are presented sequentially along the same lines.
2.1 Emotional Intelligence & Police Personnel

It has been aptly lamented that studies on police personnel has been scarce (Gul & O’Connell, 2013; p. 28). Despite its acknowledged need, most police studies have been inchoate and sporadic at least in our country. A thorough search of literature on EI vis-à-vis police personnel brought to light lesser than a dozen research articles and still fewer books on the theme.

One among the few books on this topic titled as ‘Emotional Intelligence Police Officers: Effects of Crisis Intervention Team Training’ (Coonen, 2016) highlights the era of 1950s in the United States following deinstitutionalization and setting free people with mental illness in the open community. As a result, police departments witnessed an increase of cases involving persons with mental illness (Bonfine, Ritter & Munetz, 2014; Watson & Fulambarker, 2012). The police personnel were ill-equipped to handle persons with mental illness coming into conflict with law. There was even an incident of a shooting by a police officer involving a person with mental illness (Hanafi, Bahora, Demir & Compton, 2008). It was then that need was felt to sensitize the police force on the nuances of EI as reflected in this book. Another book titled ‘The relationship between Emotional Intelligence of Patrol Sergeants and Subordinate Patrol Officers’ (Burnette, 2006) brings out the delicate role of matters concerning feelings in their dealings with the general public. Gilmartin (2002) authored ‘Emotional Survival of Law Enforcement: A Guide for Officers and their Families’ with specific preventive strategies that can be employed to reduce the negative emotional impacts of law enforcement career, while remaining committed and engaged in productive law enforcement.
Aremu (2005) used a questionnaire based field survey to investigate the predicting effect of credentials, career experience and self efficacy on EI in young Nigerian police personnel. It was found that the independent variables were good predictors of their career commitment.

Afolabi, Awosola and Omole (2010) sought to explore the relationship between EI and job performance in Nigerian police officers. A 2 x 2 factorial design as well as multiple regression analysis showed that police officers who were high on EI were more satisfied and performed better than those who were low on it. This observation was confirmed by another study in a sample of 310 police officers; wherein, after controlling for general mental abilities and personality traits, significant correlations were found between the two variables of EI and job performance (Al-Ali, Garner and Magadley, 2011).

Policing requires the mastering of emotions and the application of psychological principles in dealing with members of the public. Educational qualification was not found to influence EI of 58 police officers accessed through purposive sampling in Nigeria; although gender differences was apparent with males scoring significantly higher than their female counterparts (Oligbemi & Bolaji, 2016). It was also found that older or younger age and/or personality attributes like extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism did not significantly predict their EI.

Extending on the series of studies targeting Nigerian police, it has also been shown that EI has a moderating effect on corruption (Aremu, Pakes & Johnston, 2011). Following these successful achievements, psychological assessment of EI has been made a routine practice (Aremu & Tejumola, 2008; MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner
&Roberts, 2003) along with an insistence for all police recruits to mandatorily undergo a training program (Okoiye, 2011).

Although studies on EI related to Indian police is yet-to-be explored field in India, credit must be given to the first book made available on the theme (Kidwai, 2012). This book titled ‘Emotional intelligence among police personnel: An Indian study’ reports the results of an exploratory study focused on examining the relationship of EI and leadership excellence with organizational effectiveness among police personnel. It examined the process and structure of Indian police force and examined how they differ on different components of EI. Moreover, an effort was made to demonstrate that how leadership style and its effectiveness contribute towards improving organizational effectiveness. The results of the study suggest that a positive, caring, and supportive work environment can predict a team's effectiveness. These findings imply that police leadership can try to create team and workplace that would foster, value, and reward positive and respectful working relationships.

Other independent studies have addressed discrete issues related to EI in the Indian police force. For example, Alam (2014) examined the influence of EI on adjustment in police personnel from the sensitive state of Jammu and Kashmir in India. An adjustment inventory and another emotional intelligence scale was used in the survey covering 200 police persons to reveal the fact that total EI and almost all its constructs influence one or the other facet of adjustment in the targeted sample.

Chauhan and Joshi (2013) sought to assess the relationship between EI and psychological well being among lower ranks of policepersons, such as, constables and head constables selected randomly from Gujarat Police. A strong correlation between
EI and psychological well being was found for constables but not for the head constables.

Sinha and Mahakud (2012) studied the relation between emotional competency (a.k.a. EI) and organizational stress by including 20 police personnel from the rank of Constable to Sub-Inspector in the age between 30 to 40 years. They were assessed for their Occupational Stress Index and Emotional Competency. It was found that certain dimensions of occupational stress and emotional competence have significant relationships with each other. People having low emotional competency were more prone to stress as compared to the persons having high emotional competency. It was also found out that Indian Police personnel have average emotional competency. Personnel having high job profiles (Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors) were more stress-prone as compared to the personnel having low job profiles (Constables).

### 2.2 Job Satisfaction & Police Personnel

Empirical studies on job satisfaction among police personnel is limited (Zhao, Thurman & He, 1999; Bennett 1997; Buzawa, 1984). Nonetheless, they have been sporadically addressed across few nations on different target groups of police personnel. While doing so, sources or factors in JS or otherwise have been identified in the *individual, their job characteristics or their organization*.

Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011) sought to address the factors affecting JS of police in the UAE. In depth interviews, focus group discussions and investigator developed scales were used to measure their JS. Results showed a host of culture specific intrinsic and extrinsic factors and work environment are better predictors of JS than personal or individual demographic variables. The studied variables included
(in the order importance) salary and incentives, nature of the work, public perception, organizational policy and strategy, relationships with co-workers, supervision, promotion opportunity, performance appraisal, professional development, communication, job stress, nationality, sex, shift work and public contact.

A similar attempt was made to measure JS among South Korean police officers by using a qualitative approach (Kang & Cheong, 2013). Based on e-mail interviews, the study measured the multiple dimensions of JS including work conditions, relationship with supervisors and colleagues, personnel management, pay and benefit, and discretion. The results suggested that police officers' attitude toward their job and motivation of becoming police officers influence their JS. An earlier study in the same developing nation had compared the JS of police officers in metropolitan cities with that of officers in smaller areas to find no significant difference (Hwang, 2008). Nevertheless, certain factors, especially length of service and rank, negatively affected officers' job satisfaction in metropolitan cities; this was not the case in smaller cities and rural areas. Work related factors determining levels of JS has been reported in Korean officers (Jo & Hoover, 2012).

Similar demographic, organizational, jurisdictional, cultural, and nation wise differences in felt or reported JS has been observed in the context of Turkish National Police (Buker & Dolu, 2010). In our own country, JS and work stress was examined on traffic police in Salem city of Tamil Nadu to discover that family size and experience have a significant influence on satisfaction with the present job (Kanchana, Vijayalakshmi & Sudha, 2012). Among the stress factors reported by respondents were, inability to give time for the family, unhealthy work atmosphere, long duty hours during hot summer, and pressure for discharging duties. In sum, it is
posited that not all traditional predictors, such as individual characteristics, influence JS. Nation specific external internal political factors affect levels of JS (Bennett, 1997).

A variety of individual factors have been studied in relation to JS in police persons. To begin with, gender has been linked to JS in police personnel (Burke & Mikkelsen, 2005). Three gender issues have been considered: perceptions of equal opportunity, possible reasons for differences in male and female career opportunities, and experiences of sexual harassment. Female officers indicated significantly lower levels of equal opportunity perceptions, more reasons for career opportunity differences (particularly discrimination), and more sexual harassment than did male officers. Such of them were less satisfied with their jobs, more cynical, and indicated more health complaints.

Kumar and Dhingra (2016), for example, found significantly higher level of JS in female police officers compared to their male counterparts in Gujarat, which contrasts an opposite trend of male police persons with higher JS scores in women (Mohanraj & Natesan, 2015; Vidya & Kotian, 2014).

Griffin, Dunbar & McGill (1978) investigated the consequences of education to refute the hypothesis that there is a relationship between increasing levels of education and decreasing levels of JS. It was noticed that as educational level increases, more emphasis is placed on internal than on external sources of JS. For instance, for lower educational level officers, JS was related to the degree of perceived competence of superiors, while for the officer with greater educational attainment, it was related to perceived control. Almost, in contrast, it has been shown that police officers with higher education are more satisfied with their jobs in the first few years of work, but
may become dissatisfied if certain job expectations are not met (Dantzker, 1992). This
contrasting finding invites agencies to address this problem by providing more
promotional opportunities, job enrichment, transferability within the agency, leaves of
absence, or in-service training.

Based on ethnicity and race, black officers have been reported to have greater levels
of JS than white officers, although their overall satisfaction was still less than the cut-
off point (Dantzker, 1994). In the same study, on the whole, the more satisfied
officers were those between ages 20 and 25. Rank had a mixed effect on JS. The idea
of racial differences in felt or reported JS was debunked by another study (Dowler,
2005) with findings that African American police officers are likely to feel criticized,
more likely to believe they are perceived as militant, and less likely to feel negative or
depressed about work.

Some studies have proposed the role of individual factors, such as, mood, well-being
and alcohol consumption (Kohan & O’Connor, 2002), years of service and feedback
on the job (Ercikti, Vito, Walsh & Higgins, 2011)as crucial in influencing police
officer JS. Personality characteristics of the individuals have not been found to
significantly contribute to their JS (Miller, Mire & Kim, 2009).In another study, JS
was found to have an inverse relationship with emotional exhaustion,
 depersonalization, and a sense of reduced accomplishment at work (Griffin et al.
2009). An analysis using six independent variables rank, age, gender, education,
years of service and length of time in present position was undertaken to determine
their effects on police JS. Collectively, these variables accounted for 11 percent of
variance in the level of JS experienced by the police officers (Forsyth & Copes,
1994).
A few studies attribute organizational factors like productivity, morale, and personnel turnover as critical to explain JS among police officers (Dantzker & Surrette, 1996). The role of police work environment in shaping their JS has been highlighted (Zhao, Thurman & He, 1999). Among the job-related factors, enjoyment of the outdoors, independence, job diversity/variety, and meeting people were identified as crucial in JS (Johnson, 2012). Emphasizing the role and importance of job characteristics in determining satisfaction for its incumbent, four factors were identified: enjoyment of the outdoors, independence, job diversity/variety and meeting people (Eliason, 2006).

A deeper level analysis of JS in respect of police force was undertaken to examine the influence of supervisory behavior and job-induced stress on JS in police personnel in Ekiti State, Nigeria. While a significant effect of supervisory behavior on turnover intention was noted, job-induced stress (Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2011). Several studies have implicated felt stress levels of police employees to their reported JS (Kuo, 2015; Lu, Liu, Sui & Wang, 2015; Wang, Zheng, Hu & Zheng, 2014; Alexopoulos, Palatsidi, Tigani & Darviri, 2014). Three stressors have been consistently identified to explain JS in police officers: officers’ relationships with their peers and with their supervisors, and their perceptions about the department’s promotion system.

The only longitudinal study available on the theme between 1978 and 1994 (Buzawa, Austin & Bannon, 1994; Buzawa, 1984) reported far lower levels of JS on questions related to supervision and advancement in the police persons. Moreover, mentored police have been reported to be more committed and satisfied with their jobs (Aremu & Adeyoju, 2003). It has been shown that how the public and self-perception of police affects their JS (Talarico & Swanson, 1982). Their levels of JS were low if the police officers believed that they are perceived less favorably by the community (Yim
& Schafer, 2009). In a similar vein, it has been shown that community oriented police officers who perceived themselves as having impact on public showed more JS than the traditional police (Lawton, Hickman, Piquero & Greene, 2000).

Hoath, Schneider and Starr (1998) studied JS in municipal police department as a function of officer career orientation (careerist, artisan, social activist, and self-investor), job assignment category (patrol, investigation, and administration), and two indices of tenure (organization and position). The results revealed that among career orientations, careerists were highest in JS, and among assignment categories, officers in investigation and administration were higher than those in patrol. Also, of four background variables (position tenure, organization tenure, rank, and age), only position tenure accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in JS.

The importance or role of rank position in influencing levels of JS was shown as a function of relatively high level of pride in police service. A report on the relationship between rank-position and JS was investigated on Bihar Police found a significant increase for each hierarchical position (Vikas & Kishore, 1986). This may be probably a culture-related variable since on the other hand there was increasing dissatisfaction with appraisal/promotional procedures and information communication modes as rank increased from constables to sergeants in the West (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003).

The number of years of police service in influencing their JS was studied across five career stages: less than 1 year, 1–3 years, 6–15 years, 16–25 years and over 25 years in policing. Constables in the midcareer stage reported the most negative work setting, greatest stress, least JS, greatest psychological burnout and most work-family
conflict. Constables in the most advanced career stage reported the poorest physical health, a function of their greater age (Burke, 1989).

The perusal of a series of books published by Indian writers on topics related to policing in the country shows cursory mention on or about various issues or problems related to their JS (Chande, 1997; p. 220; Sengupta, 1995; p. 218; Gautam, 1993; 140).

In sum, there is no clear and consistent picture emerging on the JS of police personnel across nations, and/or factors related to the individual, their jobs as well as their organization. A culture-specific pattern may also emerge in the Indian context since public perceptions of the police as fear-evoking authority figures may influence their self perceptions. The role of family ties is qualitatively different for the policemen themselves. The work-to-family and family-to-work conflicts may be an important factor in determining their JS (Rathi & Barath, 2013). Slovak (1978) cautioned that JS in police staff cannot be construed as a general single dimensional characteristic or phenomenon, but a highly structured one composed of specific components that tend to be independent of one another. Predictors of JS can include salaries, fringe benefits, promotional opportunities, equipment, policies and procedures. All this is apart from the idiosyncratic or individual factors unique to each person. Therefore, a multi-dimensional approach or model might better explain the scenario of JS in relation to police personnel (Johnson, 2012; Sheley & Nock, 1979).

A unique and innovative approach to bridge the gap between police and public was undertaken by the concept of ‘Friends of Police Movement’ (Philip, 1996). It covered one-day’s ‘Training for Transformation Workshops’ organized for each urban police district in Tamil Nadu. Following a cascade model, the objective was that trained
persons would in turn transmit or influence other police personnel as well as other potential members of the movement. The training program covered topics like identification of a community problem, solving the problem, change management, developing communication skills, rapport building, fostering listening skills and empathy and team building.

**2.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence & Job Satisfaction in Police Personnel**

A series of studies have been undertaken to peruse relationship, if any, between the two variables of EI and JS in the context of police persons. A positive relationship has been noticed between these variables for teachers (Anari, 2012; Mousavi, Yarmohammadi, Nosrat & Tarasi, 2012), nurses (Tagoe & Quashie, 2017), physicians (Psilopanagioti, Anagnostopoulos, Mourou & Niakas, 2012), employees (Emdady & Bagheri, 2013; Hosseinian, Yazdi, Zahraie & Fathi-Ashtiani, 2008), call centre agents (Shamsuddin & Rahman, 2014), frontline employees (Sony & Mekoth, 2016), primary health care providers (Rahmati & Mohebi, 2016), food service employees (Sy, Tram & O’Hara, 2006), shop floor workers (Chiva & Alegre, 2008), senior managers (Carmeli, 2003), research and development scientists (Law, Wong, Huang & Li, 2008), white collared employees (Thiruchelvi & Supriya, 2009) and others. However, there is a dearth of systematic research on the connection between EI and JS among police staff.

In a rare study available on the theme of EI with reference to Nigerian armed forces (not police personnel), 64 samples out of which 37 females and 67 males were participated. Age of the participants varied from 22 to 45 with mean age of 38.07. Results of the study revealed that gender, age and self efficacy was shown to
influence job performance and job involvement (Mwantu, Dagona, Agbo & Ngwama, 2015).

Similarly, another investigation found significant correlations for EI in relation to job performance (not JS) in a sample from police organizations (Al-Ali, Garner & Magadley, 2011). In this study 310 police officers were included and results also revealed that after controlling general mental abilities with personality traits EI found to be explain extra incremental variance while predicting job performance among police personnel.

More specifically, Afolabi, Awosola and Omole (2010) in their study found gender influences the relationship between EI and JS among Nigerian policemen. This study employed multiple regression with EI and gender as independent variable. 119 samples were randomly selected for their study. Other findings of this study includes that police people who are high in EI were more satisfied than their counterpart and their job performance were better than those who scored low in EI. As mentioned above both male and female participants who scored more in EI test were perform better and had more job satisfaction than others.

On the contrary, Salim, Nasir, Arip & Mustafa (2012) found that gender has no effect on the relationship between EI and JS. They have used ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) to measure EI and JDS (Job Diagnostic Survey) to measure JS and the sample size was 1200 both primary and secondary school teachers. Even though result of the study showed that there is a positive relationship between EI and JS gender haven’t revealed any significant effect between the variables.

Ealias and George (2012) found that marital status and experience affect the relationship between the EI and JS. It was further found that designation does not
affect the relationship between the variables. Even though primary aim of this study was to examine relationship between EI and JS it also analyzed how experience, designation and marital status of an employee effect on EI and JS. Data were collected from electronic firm in which 208 participants responded for questionnaire. Finding of this study suggested that there is significant positive correlation between EI and JS.

Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock & Farr-Wharton (2012) examined the effect of EI on JS in Australian police officers using partial least squares path modeling techniques. As predicted, EI was found to lead to JS along with well-being, employee engagement and organizational commitment. This survey included 193 police officers and finding of the research also includes that officers turnover get affected by employees organizational commitment and engagement with positive relationship.

Dar, Alam and Lone (2011) studied the relationship between EI and psychological well being of police personnel. A sample of 200 male personnel was selected from Jammu and Kashmir police. Results revealed that male police personnel are well placed in terms of both these variables and it was also seen that both the variables are well correlated.

Ricca (2003) examined the relationship between EI, negative mood regulation and burn out among police officers. Regression analysis supported the main hypothesis which predicted an inverse relationship between EI, as measured by EQ-I, and burnout. Results further supported a positive relationship between EI and negative mood regulation.
2.4 Training on Emotional Intelligence in Police Personnel

Police organizations are known to implement training programs periodically for their in-service cadre at all levels. Such training happens by use of several procedures including focus group discussions, daily journaling, real life simulations, role plays and didactic lectures on various topics or themes of contemporary need or interest. The idea and intention is to improve their efficiency and job performance. Sometimes, they may be addressed to resolve interpersonal conflicts, foster employee satisfaction, promote activity involvement, improve physical health, or ameliorate their soft skills. There is still an open debate whether most intervention programs designed to change EI were indeed designed or meant to be so. It is argued that many of such intervention programs scarcely meet the cannons of internal and external validity (Zeidner, Roberts & Mathews, 2002).

Police training forms an integral part of a process to foster the spirit of professionalism and inculcating the right values with true sense of humility and service for everyone in uniform. To achieve this end, a Global Center of Excellence and Nodal Center for Police Training in India was established as SVP National Police Academy, at Hyderabad, in 1975. Some of the core training activities at this Academy include Equitation or Horse Riding, Assault Training, Firing, Tactical Training, Rock Climbing, etc. This apart, the National Crime Records Bureau, under the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, periodically organizes short term in-service courses related to advanced crime detection techniques. Following a recent call given by the Prime Minister of India, these institutions are rolling out short term strategies to scale up in-service police training beyond teaching investigative skills towards enabling mediation and conflict resolution, attitude change, developing personality,
body language, communication, leadership, stress management and soft skills (Tulgan, 2015; Mohanty & Mohanty, 2014; Philip, 2006).

Researcher tried to find out information to peruse details in the available websites for ‘psychology related training for police personnel’ as reportedly available across 30 states in the country. The web page was found to be inactive for eight states. From among the other twenty two states, ‘no information’ was available for eight states. For the remaining fourteen states, for which some information was given, there was mention of short term sensitivity training programs or workshops on themes like yoga, meditation, soft skill, stress and relationship management, empathy, motivation and leadership development, organizational behavior and communication skills. On the whole, there was no mention of any formal training programs exclusively on EI and/or JS for the police personnel in any of the States according to official website of Jharkhand Police (2017).

More specifically, training programs exclusively tailor made or directed towards foster EI has been rarely undertaken although some of its contents and components would have been part of some other such training programs. Therefore, it has been asked whether EI can be trained at all or what type of interventions can increase it, and what performance benefits can result from such attempts. The duration, format and content of EI training programs proposed different authors vary depending on the targeted audience as well as the chosen outcome variables. Much also depend on the framework espoused by the trainer (Boyatzis, 2008; Clarke, 2006a). For example, Slaski and Cartwright (2003) instructed their participants on techniques designed to (1) regulate emotions; (2) recognize emotions in others; and (3) understand the impact of one’s own behavior on emotion of others. Others have facilitated a range of EI
skills including: emotional disclosure (Ekman, 2004), emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001), emotional progression (Mayer et al., 2001), and emotional resiliency (Bagshaw, 2000).

Oden, Lohani, McCoy, Crutchfield and Rivers (2015) underlined the need, importance, rationale and justification for EI into the context of military training. They showed that practicing emotional recognition/regulation strategies, individuals can replace ineffective decision-making with productive responses to challenging situations.

In their book titled ‘Police Organization and Training: Innovation in Research and Practice’, the authors make an earnest plea for including the components covering EI into the instructional curriculum of these personnel (Haberfeld, Clarke and Sheehan, 2012). The emotions of law enforcement personnel affect the quality of their work, particularly in the areas of communication and interaction with the general public. Their professional conduct often includes the limitation of emotional expressions and appearing calm and under control even in the most distressing situations. Bar-On, Brown, Kirkaldy and Thome (2000) found that in comparison to other helping profession groups, “police officers (who) were more aware of themselves and of others, were more adaptable in general, coped better and positively enjoyed their work more” (p.1114).

A manual based emotion-regulation training (Integrative Training of Emotional Competencies; ITEC; Berking, Meir & Wupperman, 2010) was used to improve the emotion-regulation skills of police officers. First, self-reports of 9 emotion-regulation skills were assessed in a sample of officers ($N = 31$) and compared to those of a matched community-based control group. Then, the effects of training on the
emotion-regulation skills of officers were evaluated in a time-staggered design with a waitlist control condition. Results indicated that, compared to controls, officers have difficulties in accepting and tolerating negative emotions, supporting themselves in distressing situations, and confronting emotionally challenging situations. The training significantly enhanced successful skill application, especially some skills with which officers reported difficulty applying. These findings suggested that a focus on emotion-regulation skills is an important component for programs aimed at preventing mental-health problems in police officers.

In a recent attempt to standardize the workshop content to train EI, Mulle (2016) covered themes of anatomy of emotions, how emotions and thoughts work together, and what are its linkages to success in life. The training included practice sessions on agile thinking, increasing self awareness and intentional thinking, on how to manage emotions intelligently, expectation management, handling tendency to spend emotional energy on unworthy battles, anger control techniques, recognizing and managing negative emotions, relationship management, effective listening, empathy training, rapport building, conflict management, on how ‘thinking brain’ is used to manage the ‘emotional brain’. Such workshop techniques typically cover learning activities, question-answer sessions, dispensing of learning materials, brochures or handouts along with the use of games, power point slides, skills practice, wrap up or debriefing questions and comments (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007; Clarke, 2010; 2007; Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

Zacker and Bard (1973) attempted a program involving the police using training on conflict resolution following which it was seen that the officers who completed the course performed significantly better than a control group on a number of
performance criteria deemed vital by the authorities, such as, clearance rates, total
arrests, number of misdemeanors and total crime.

Bagshaw (2000) delineated a format for EI training for business executives while
sounding on its benefits, time and costs by way of building team spirit, managing
diversity and improving customer service. Barsade (2002) used a trained confederate
enacting mood conditions to study the ripple effect of emotional contagion for
facilitation of EI in a group of participants. Slaski and Cartwright (2003) gave training
in EI to managers and found significant improvements in their health, work
performance along with decrease in their stress levels. Reilly (2005) improved
negotiation skills in law students following training to improve their EI. Chi-Sum,
Maw-Der, Ching-Wen & Ping-Man (2007) successfully explored the feasibility of
training and development of EI in college students. Ulutas and Omeroglu (2007)
developed and used a picture based EI education program on children. Hansen,
Gardner and Stough (2007) developed an EI training module which was shown to
improve the motivation for learning, accuracy of emotional perception, self
expression, self control and self management in participants.

Fletcher, Leadbetter, Curan & O’Sullivan (2009) undertook a pilot study on EI
training and communication skills training through a period of seven months with
third year medical students. The group-mean scores of EI in intervention group
increased across time, whilst the mean scores of control group decreased. Nelis,
Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Hansenne (2009) used controlled experimental design to
attempt a brief empirically derived EI training covering four group training sessions
of two hours and half each while control group participants continued to live
normally. Results showed a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion
management abilities in the training group. Follow-up measures after 6 months revealed that these changes were persistent. No significant change was observed in the control group. These findings showed that EI can be improved and sustained over time.

Berking, Meir & Wupperman (2010) used a manual based emotion-regulation training program to discover that the wait-listed control group of officers continued to have difficulties in accepting and tolerating negative emotions, supporting themselves in distressing situations and confronting emotionally challenging situations. Pool and Qualter (2012) also demonstrated that it is possible to increase emotional self-efficacy and some aspects of EI ability in university students and enhance their prospects of employability. Ruiz-Araanda, Castillo, Salguero, Cabello, Fernandez-Berrocal & Balluerka (2012) studied the sustained effects of EI educational program on adolescent mental health as evidenced through show of fewer clinical symptoms and lasting even beyond a period of six months.

EI training was undertaken on a group of pre-service teachers which resulted in the enhancement of the competencies that facilitated the identification, processing and regulation of their emotions apart from enhancing successful stress management, well being and classroom performance (Vesely, Saklofsker & Nordstokke, 2014).

Mulle (2016) outlined activities, presentation slides, handouts, workbooks, journals, videos, tools, and assessments needed to create and deliver powerful and effective EI training programs. Beginning with a discourse on why it is important to develop EI, this manual covers all that one needs to know about the training, the preparations that need to go into such programs, the time lines, agenda or contents to be included within a typical half or full day program. The manual insists why or how EI training
programs has to be customized based on a strategic needs analysis for a targeted audience in terms of themed sessions, format, contents or activities. A pretest and post test impact evaluation and follow up are insisted within this module.

Hughes, Patterson and Terrell (2005) provide a comprehensive list of training and coaching activities to create real change while improving EI for leaders and managers. Lynn (2000) provides a practical guide to 50 activities for developing EI. Handpicked selected exercises are given. Even though no standardized or exclusively tailor made workshops and training modules on EI targeting police people is available, one can readily draw excerpts from other similar contents (Clarke, 2010; 2007; 2006b; Hughes, Thompson & Terrell, 2009; Biech, 2008; Boyatzis, 2009; 2007; Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008; Brackett & Katulak, 2007; Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007; Ekman, 2001; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Cherniss & Adler, 2000).

2.5 Rational of the Study

Police department is one of the most important organizations in any society. Its main function is to provide security, safety and shield from unlawful acts to both individuals as well as society. Even though bestowed with special powers, the police share varied roles and responsibilities. They have to maintain law and order, undertake patrolling and prevention of crime, initiate investigation of crime, manage crowds, provide security to VIPs, monitor unlawful assemblies and public agitations, help weaker sections of society, and handle special occasions like processions, elections, communal riots, or natural disasters. They blend a leader, manager, and friend. Even as they handle themselves, they need to hold the public at another end. Their job is fraught with challenges and frustrations imposed by their supervisors, call of duty and discipline, and the relatively prolonged psychological and physical
separation from their friends and family (Bharati, 2006; Srivastava, 1999). Under these circumstances it would be worthwhile to explore how these persons manage their own emotions vis-à-vis those with others. Under the circumstances, it would be pertinent to explore or profile the scenario of EI of police personnel in contemporary times.

From the available literature, it is also evident that there is no clear or consistent picture on the profile of socio-demographic variables vis-à-vis police JS across nations as well as in our country. The studied variables are education, ethnicity, gender, age, rank, and years of service. In the contemporary scene of police managerial practices, there appears to be a ‘trend of increasing specialization of police tasks’ which is ‘said to have reduced JS by limiting the scope of their work’ (Mathur, 2002; p. 1021). Related research questions that emerge on this theme are: What could be the levels of JS in a representative cross sectional sample of police personnel? Would there be differences in their JS in relation to variables like gender, age, education, job position and experience? Would it be possible to profile the highs and lows among the various facets of JS in police personnel?

While there is no denial that EI is the need of hour for police personnel in our country, questions are asked whether this asset can be fostered by training or what type of interventions in the form of training can increase it, and what performance benefits result from such attempts, how much should be the duration of such training programs, which format is to followed and what ought to be the ideal model or content of EI training programs. Most police training and education have downplayed if not ignored the role of emotions. Based on above discussion present study has been taken for research.