The Correlation Between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Among Military Police Officers

Ricardo H. Miranda

Brandman university, mirandarb99@yahoo.com

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The Correlation Between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Among
Military Police Officers
A Dissertation by
Ricardo H. Miranda

Brandman University
Irvine, California
School of Education
Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership
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Committee in charge:
Obed Magny, Ed.D., Committee Chair
Keith Larick, Ed.D.
Michael Goold, Ed.D.
The dissertation of Ricardo H. Miranda is approved.

Obed Magny, Ed.D.

Keith Larick, Ed.D.

Michael Goold, Ed.D.

Patricia Clark-White, Ed.D.

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The Correlation Between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Among Military Police Officers

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DEDICATION

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The Correlation Between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Among Military Police Officers

by Ricardo H. Miranda

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, its purpose was to examine the degree to which emotional intelligence influenced the decisions made by Army military police officers. Finally, the purpose was to explore whether emotional intelligence has any effect on problem solving.
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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Allegation of unethical behavior among police officers throughout the United States such as police brutality and misconduct (Smith, 2009) has received a lot of attention in recent years. Most recently following the deaths of Michael Brown and Eric Garner in 2014 by police officers, social media elevated these local events to the attention of a nation (Grinberg, 2014). In both cases, the officers involved for the deaths were not indicted by a grand jury (Sneed, 2014). These deaths and subsequent acquittals sparked outrage and protests throughout the United States. However, the protests were not just for the killings of Brown and Garner but also for the perceived widespread and unchecked brutality and injustice towards minorities (UN News Centre, 2016).

As in the savage beating of Rodney King in 1991 and the 1997 beating and sodomizing of Abner Louima, protests were sparked when incidents such as these were seen as all too familiar and frequent towards minorities (Tornquist, 1997). However, in the case of Rodney King, the rioting, fires, and deaths that occurred were because of the acquittal in the state trial of the four police officers involved in the case (Linder, 2001). During the federal civil trial, police officers Stacey C. Koon and Laurence M. Powell were sentenced to 30 months in prison, while police officers Timothy E. Wind and Theodore J. Briseno were fired from the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) (Linder, 2001). In the Louima case, Officer Justin A. Volpe was sentenced to 30 years for his assault on Louima, Officer Charles Schwarz served 5 years in prison for perjury, and Officers Thomas Bruder’s and Thomas Wiese’s original convictions were overturned for insufficient evidence (Chan, 2007). Yet the unethical conduct by police officers is not
only a concern for American cities but also a concern throughout the American Armed Forces (Associated Press, 2012).

Within the U.S. Army, hereinafter referred to as the Army, the military occupational specialty (MOS) of military police (MP) 31B is unique because it is a combination of a professional soldier and police officer. As such, they too are susceptible to the same unethical practices in the course of their duties and responsibilities as civilian police officers, examples of incidents as in Abu Ghraib prison in Iraq and Guantanamo Bay Cuba Detention Center of the controversial treatment of the detainees (The Center for Justice & Accountability, 2014). As members of the U.S. Armed Forces and as police officers, whether performing their duties in a theater of combat operations or within the Continental United States (CONUS), MPs are expected to make ethical and moral split-second decisions.

Police officers, whether sworn or military, have the responsibility and the expectation to act in the best interest of the people they are sworn to serve and protect. Police officers are expected to safeguard people and property, to protect the innocent, and to respect the rights afforded to all citizens by the U.S. Constitution (Law Enforcement Code of Ethics, 2015). Police officers are also expected to be trustworthy, ethical, and above all to enforce the law of the land. The very nature and visibility of police work makes it important to understand the impact of emotional intelligence (EQ) on police work (Turner, 2009). Yet even with research conducted by Melanye Smith (2009) on civilian police officers, no research has been conducted on the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs.
Police officers have a very demanding job exercising lawful authority appropriately when dealing with the public. However, there have been some instances of police officers abusing their authority (Stephens, 1994). Although such occurrences are not the norm, they do call into question the ethical and moral development of American civilian and MPs. As officers of the law, whether in the civilian or military community, the expectation of their conduct is set at a higher standard than most other professions. Law enforcement requires police officers to possess a developed sense of morals and emotions (Gleason, 2006). Although police behavior was examined and researched, the current literature research discovered few explorations on the ethical behavior of MPs, specifically on EQ and its impact on integrity. In the Police Chief, a magazine published monthly for law enforcement personnel with an online version, Martinelli (2007) stated,

The point is that soldiers, much like police officers should know right from wrong and must live their lives, both professional and personal, in accordance with the higher standards and expectations of their agency. It is an honor and privilege to be employed as a soldier or police officer, and attached to that honor come certain unwritten expectations and a sacrifice of individual rights. (Martinelli, 2007, p. 2)

The military police has evolved since its inception in 1778 to a police unit with the ability to move and communicate quickly. Along with their heavy firepower, MPs can significantly enhance a combatant commander’s options on the battlefield (Wright, 1992). Army MPs are trusted to enforce the law and must be combat effective on the battlefield as well. The vision of the MP Corps is as follows:

To be a premier integrated MP force recognized as policing, investigations and corrections professionals who enable the Army’s decisive action in unified land
operations in concert with our partners to achieve tactical, operational, and strategic outcomes in unstable and complex worldwide environments. (United States Army Military Police School, 2014, p. 1)

Understanding one’s emotional reactions through EQ can improve the decision-making process (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). EQ refers to how people are able to control their emotions and their relationships (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). EQ means having the skills to express feelings appropriately and effectively in the process of supporting others to work together towards a common goal (Goleman, 1998). Lieutenant Colonel Gerald F. Sewell, U.S. Army, Retired stated the Army needs “leaders aware of their own emotions and how they affect those around them as they undertake the daily missions and tasks assigned them” (Sewell, 2009, p. 94). With the demands of today’s war, it is imperative the Army leader development programs include all facets of leadership needed to establish a relationship of trust, teamwork, and esprit de corps (Sewell, 2009).

Few professions have such a high expectation of ethics and values than law enforcement personnel and soldiers from the society they serve and protect. On top of the list of virtues expected of law officers, integrity sits on the top of that list (Roufa, 2014). Lickona (2004) affirmed, “Integrity is adhering to moral principle, being faithful to moral conscience, keeping our word, and standing up for what we believe” (p. 10). Although the current literature discusses the police ethics violations, there exists a gap in the literature referring to the relationship of specific virtues and the manner they influence ethical behavior in MP personnel. However, unlike sworn police officers who do not serve in the military, MPs are both police officers and members of the armed
forces and therefore are expected not only to uphold the law but also to be a combat-capable professional requiring a different mindset of leadership, according to Field Manual (FM) 6-22 (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2006):

Combat leadership is a different type of leadership where leaders must know their profession, their soldiers, and the tools of war. Direct leaders have to be strong tacticians and be able to make decisions and motivate soldiers under horrific conditions. They must be able to execute critical warrior tasks and drills amidst noise, dust, explosions, confusion, and screams of the wounded and dying. They have to know how to motivate their soldiers in the face of adversity. (p. 10-4)

Background

Recently cases involving the appearance of misconduct by local law enforcement personnel have been angering the civilian community. Publicized scandals involving misconduct, excessive force, and even corruption damage the public’s perception of the police departments involved in such accusations. In order to investigate and act upon such misconduct, the United States Congress established the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994, Title 42 U.S.C. § 14141. Section 14141 (U.S. Department of Justice, n.d.-b) provides the Attorney General of the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) the authority to investigate and eliminate unlawful pattern or practice. Section 14141 is delegated to the Civil Rights Division for enforcement in actions by law enforcement officers that restrict a person’s constitutional rights (DOJ, n.d.-a). Under section 14141,

This law makes it unlawful for State or local law enforcement officers to engage in a pattern or practice of conduct that deprives persons of rights protected by the
Constitution or laws of the United States (42 U.S.C. §§ 14141). The types of conduct covered by this law can include, among other things, excessive force, discriminatory harassment, false arrests, coercive sexual conduct, and unlawful stops, searches or arrests. (DOJ, n.d.-a, p. 2)

In 2003, investigations by the DOJ led to the elimination of practices in the Detroit Police Department, such as the use of excessive force and other unconstitutional practices (Noller & Werly, 2014). Publicized cases such as the 1991 beating of Rodney King by Los Angeles police officers or the more recent case of the fatal shooting of teenager Michael Brown on August 9, 2014 in Ferguson, Missouri resulted in the DOJ needing to conduct an investigation in order to determine whether the police officer involved in the Brown case violated Title 42 Section 14141 (Noller & Werly, 2014). More recently, on March 4, 2015, the DOJ released its investigation of Civil Rights Violations by the Ferguson Police Department (FPD) due to the fatal shooting of Michael Brown by Ferguson Police Officer Darren Wilson. The DOJ’s investigation found the FPD engaging in a pattern or practice violating the First, Fourth, and 14th Amendments of the Constitution (U.S. Department of Justice, 2015). The DOJ found the 14th Amendment was regularly violated by FPD police officers by stopping people without reasonable doubt, arrests without probable cause, and the use of unreasonable force against them (U.S. Department of Justice, 2015). The amendments violated state the following:

Amendment I

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the
press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the
Government for a redress of grievances.

Amendment IV
The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Amendment XIV
SECTION. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

(Constitutional Amendments, 2015)

Police misconduct creates an environment of distrust of all law enforcement personnel from the very public they are sworn to serve and protect. Andrew Borrello (2012) wrote, “Society scrutinizes and holds expectations of police conduct at a higher level than many other professions” (p. 13). While police officers try being civil when dealing with the public, being civil should not be mistaken for weakness (Borrello, 2012). The duties of a police officer require them to put their personal fears aside and run into a situation most people would be running away from, considering only the safety of others
before their own (LearningExpress Editors, 2010). However, even decisions where police officers are placed at personal risk of injury, many officers feel they are constantly under scrutiny and criticism by the public and media for their actions (LearningExpress Editors, 2010).

As recently as April of 2014, the DOJ found the Albuquerque Police Department was violating the Fourth Amendment by engaging in a pattern of using excessive force and even deadly force (Wihbey & Kille, 2015). Generally, the amount of force needed to apprehend a suspect is determined by the circumstances determined by the officer at that time. The use of deadly force is predicated upon the threat of great bodily harm or death to the officer (Tarleton, 2014). These issues become a problem when force used is believed to be excessive and unwarranted in subduing a suspect.

However, what gets little media attention is the numerous times in which police officers do not fire their weapons and demonstrate restraint in the midst of extremely stressful incidents (Wihbey & Kille, 2015). Nevertheless, the times of the appearance of wrongdoing spark the interest of the media and the public. Such incidents of abuse or any wrongdoing generate outrage and mistrust towards police officers and question their ethical values towards the use of excessive force and mistreatment of local citizens.

The ethical development of police officers is not only essential in how they will conduct themselves while on duty but also in the decisions and actions in their personal lives. Ethics training should not just focus on knowing the importance of ethical decisions but also the motivation behind such decisions (Gleason, 2006). These tools will better equip the officer when faced with ethical challenges (Papenfuhs, 2011). The knowledge acquired in ethics training teaches the officers to identify potential ethical
circumstances in order to make a better decision when addressing it. Thomas Martinelli, adjunct professor at Wayne State University wrote that “in law enforcement, the legal side of the job cannot be divorced from the ethical side” (Martinelli, 2013, p. 3).

Police violations have also occurred in the U.S. military. Army Military Police (MPs) are subject to the same ethical and moral principles of a police officer and to the principles of a U.S. Army soldier. The MP mission and vision are as follows:

Mission
Provide professional policing, investigations, corrections, and security support across the full range of military operations in order to enable protection and promote the rule of law.

Vision
A premier integrated Military Police force recognized as policing, investigations and corrections professionals who enable the Army’s decisive action in unified land operations in concert with our partners to achieve tactical, operational, and strategic outcomes in unstable and complex worldwide environments. (United States Army Military Police School, 2014, p. 1)

Yet the public and graphic cases of prisoner abuse in Iraq and Cuba by American MPs demonstrates how ethical violations can happen even in an organization like the U.S. military. The abuse of prisoners of war in the manner conducted in Iraq was humiliating, degrading, and against the Geneva Conventions (Global Policy Forum, 2015). The Geneva Conventions are a set of treaties dating back to 1864 and last revised in 1949 with the fourth Geneva Convention, signed and agreed upon by 194 nations (International Committee of the Red Cross, 2010). The Geneva Conventions govern the
humane treatment and protection of all civilians and noncombatants. The treatment of our enemies is written in the Geneva Conventions, Article 13, relating to the treatment of prisoners of war:

Prisoners of war must at all times be humanely treated. Any unlawful act or omission by the Detaining Power causing death or seriously endangering the health of a prisoner of war in its custody is prohibited, and will be regarded as a serious breach of the present Convention. In particular, no prisoner of war may be subjected to physical mutilation or to medical or scientific experiments of any kind which are not justified by the medical, dental or hospital treatment of the prisoner concerned and carried out in his interest. Likewise, prisoners of war must at all times be protected, particularly against acts of violence or intimidation and against insults and public curiosity. Measures of reprisal against prisoners of war are prohibited. (Convention (III) Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War. Geneva, 12 August 1949., 1949, p. 4).

The ethical violations of American service members resonate throughout the world, from our allies to our enemies.

**Statement of the Research Problem**

The Army is an organization spread throughout the world relying on its leaders not only to be proficient in their jobs but also to be good role models to their subordinates (Robinson, 2007). Bartone, Pastel, and Vaitkus, (2010) wrote, “Military organizations have long emphasized the importance of leadership and sought to train or develop highly effective leaders in a multitude of ways” (p. 121). One such way has been through the indoctrination of the Army values and a warrior’s ethos to help instill a moral compass
for each soldier. In an article written by retired U.S. Army Lieutenant Colonel Gerald F. Sewell, he discussed the importance of EQ. Sewell (2009) described the similarities of Army attributes and competencies with EQ models and insisted it can improve leader performance.

Campbell (2012) found it important for law enforcement executives to apply EQ to their leadership skills to better lead in today’s rapidly changing operationally, economically, and politically challenged environment. Campbell further examined the challenges of policing today in American cities having benefited from law enforcement executives possessing EQ attributes, such as motivating others, the ability to adapt to changes, and the ability to manage stress (Campbell, 2012). Ojedokun’s (2010) findings in a study of Nigerian police officers showed EQ to discourage unethical behaviors and attitudes of the officers. The Nigerian police in Ojedokun’s (2010) research showed high EQ was significant in moderating the effects of unethical behavior due to the perception of effort-reward imbalance. Effort-reward imbalance in the Nigerian police in Ojedokun’s (2010) study was the perception of hard work not being appropriately rewarded and therefore justifying unethical practices. Ojedokun (2010) described those with high scores of EQ were less prone to unethical work behavior than those scoring low in EQ. Burnette’s (2006) research found a need for further research on EQ and behavior modeling because it could provide insight to selecting and training of future police officers.

EQ benefits people in many other ways as well. According to Kia and Heidari (2014), people with high EQ scores (or high EQ) have less anxiety, depression, insomnia, and social disorders. These types of people are more self-aware of their emotions and
make decisions and plans with less disappointing consequences and stress (Kia & Heidari, 2014). The attributes of EQ enable people to interact better with people and thereby create healthy relationships at home and at work (Segal & Smith, 2015).

Misconduct and unethical behavior among law enforcement officers can lead to the loss of public trust, creating dangerous conditions for the officers attempting to preserve order (Smith, 2009). In the Army, recent integrity violations such as those in the Abu Ghraib prisoner abuse scandal and the Guantanamo Bay prisoner abuse occurred because of individual integrity failures (Muskopf, 2006). Further research will add to this body of knowledge and will examine the connection between EQ and decision making by Army MPs.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, its purpose was to examine the degree to which emotional intelligence influenced the decisions made by Army military police officers. Finally, the purpose was to explore whether emotional intelligence has any effect on problem solving.

**Research Questions**

In order to address the study’s purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?
2. There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers.

**Significance of the Study**

This study will benefit civilian and MP departments, civilian communities, and relationships with foreign nations of prisoners being detained by the MPs. The research will provide insight into the benefits of EQ development and its impact on how police officers interact with people. By assessing the level of EQ and if it is used during a tour of duty, it may be possible to identify the effectiveness of EQ and ethical conduct of the police officers.

To avoid implications of police brutality or the use of excessive force, it is important to understand the circumstances in order to minimize or eliminate them from occurring. This research will examine the correlation between EQ and decision making among MPs in order avoid future scandals. If this research proves that a relationship exists, the Army can use the data to conduct frequent, intensive, and more morals-based training.

The United States Army Military Police School (2014), located on Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri, is responsible for all levels of professional training and development of the Army’s MP force. The results will provide valuable information for the MP school regarding the strength between EQ and decision making and whether it merits additional or advance training for the students. By determining a correlation between EQ and decision making, it may help to better understand the factors influencing police integrity (Smith, 2009). The Army Leader Development Program (ALDP) strives to develop
leaders capable of performing in the complex and challenging operational environment of the 21st century guided by the ideals of the Army profession (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2013a); integrity is an important factor in those ideals.

This study will add to the body of knowledge examining cognitive and moral development by examining if there is a correlation between EQ and MP integrity. EQ is found to be significant in predicting police job performance (Ebrahim, Garner, & Magadley, 2012). Specifically, it seeks to fill gaps in the literature by examining whether the level of EQ influences decision making by the individual MPs when confronted with moral and ethical decisions, which could lead to ethical violations. In light of the recent allegations of police officers using excess force on suspects, it is important to understand how EQ can contribute to officers becoming more aware of the emotional triggers generating negative and even violent responses towards the civilian populace (Saville, 2006).

**Definitions**

**Combat leadership.** The ability “to execute critical warrior tasks and drills amidst noise, dust, explosions, confusion, and screams of the wounded and dying. They have to know how to motivate their soldiers in the face of adversity” (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2006, p. 10-6).

**Duty.** Fulfilling one’s obligations. Duty is the legal and moral obligation to do what should be done without being told.

**Emotional intelligence.** The ability to recognize and understand the emotions of others and of oneself and the ability to use that understanding to control one’s own behaviors and the interactions with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).
**Ethics.** Behavior considered right or wrong according to one’s own beliefs, no matter the culture or society (Howard & Korver, 2008).

**Honor.** Living up to Army values. The nation’s highest military award is The Medal of Honor. This implies always following one’s moral compass in any circumstance.

**Integrity.** Adhering to moral principle, being faithful to moral conscience, keeping one’s word, and standing up for what one believes. It means honesty, uprightness, the avoidance of deception, and steadfast adherence to the standards of behavior. It is one of the seven Army values that describe a virtue of always doing what is right, morally and legally (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2007).

**Loyalty.** Bearing true faith and allegiance to the U.S. Constitution, the Army, one’s unit and other soldiers. This means supporting the military and civilian chain of command as well as devoting oneself to the welfare of others.

**Personal courage.** Facing fear, danger, or adversity (physical or moral). This means being brave under all circumstances (physical or moral).

**Respect.** Treating people as they should be treated. In the Soldier’s Code, we pledge to “treat others with dignity and respect while expecting others to do the same.”

**Selfless service.** Putting the welfare of the nation, the Army, and one’s subordinates before one’s own. This means putting the welfare of the nation and accomplishment of the mission ahead of personal desires.

**Delimitations**

This study is delimited to the 93rd Military Police Battalion (BN), Fort Bliss, Texas. Specifically, the results are delimited to the officers, noncommissioned officers,
enlisted soldiers who hold the military occupational code (MOS) of 31B for enlisted and 31A for commissioned officers throughout the 93rd Military Police Battalion (BN), Fort Bliss, Texas. The MOS is a code used in the U.S. Army to identify a soldier’s specific job. It will be unknown as to what extent the soldiers of the 93rd MP BN sampled will represent the larger population of MP officers throughout the Army.

**Organization of the Study**

This study comprises five chapters. Chapter I provided an introduction, background, the statement of the research, the purpose statement, the research questions, the significance of the problem, definitions, and the delimitations. Chapter II discusses relevant, current literature and any pertinent literature related to the research questions. Chapter III describes the methodology used for data gathering as well as describing the population and sample used for gathering the data. This chapter also includes the instrumentation, any limitations, and data analysis. Chapter IV discusses the results and analysis of the gathered data. Finally, Chapter V provides a summary and a discussion of the key findings, conclusions, implications, and final remarks and ends with references and appendices.
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Dunham and Alpert (2015) described how the ethical problems faced by police differ from other professions because police are public servants who are held to higher standard. As public servants, they possess authority over others, and their actions are for the public good. Military police are also faced with the same ethical decisions affecting the welfare of others. However different the mission of a police officer is to that of the MP, the ethical problems remain the same, doing what is legally, morally, and ethically right.

The lineage of the modern Army military police can be traced to 1 June 1778, when General George Washington, Commander of the Continental Army, formed a special unit of men to help maintain order to enforce the Articles of War (Global Security, 2016). In an article in Global Security, the writer describes how theses first MPs “protected the Continental Army and its supplies in camp, on the move and in combat. The soldiers of the Corps defended the nation by capturing spies and establishing discipline in the Army, as well as fighting in the ranks” (Global Security, 2016, para. 8). Although the military police can trace its history back to the Revolutionary War, it did not receive permanent status in the Army until September 26, 1941 (Ashmccall, 2012). Today every branch of the armed forces has its own military police force formed with personnel within its own ranks.

For those wishing to join the ranks of the Army military police corps, first they must score a minimum of 91 in the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB), which is a series of tests that help identify a person’s strengths and best-suited job in the Army. If selected, after successful completion of the 10 weeks Basic Combat
Training, the soldier will attend the 20-week military police training at Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri (U.S Army, 2016). U.S Army (2016) described that during the 20 weeks, training soldiers will spend time in classroom and field learning such skills as the following:

- Basic warrior skills and use of firearms
- Military/civil laws and jurisdiction
- Investigating and collecting evidence
- Traffic and crowd control
- Arrest and restraint of suspects. (p. 1)

The duties and responsibilities have evolved over the years, enhancing their ability to adapt to myriad duties and responsibilities both in times of peace and war (Ashmccall, 2012). Police Operations stated,

Military police and United States Army Criminal Investigation Command (USACIDC) police operations have historically been, and will continue to be, required to assist commanders in maintaining a safe and secure environment for their own personnel and provide Army law enforcement (LE) resources to support of friendly force operations. Police operations are also a key enabler in support of civil security and civil control lines of effort conducting to establish conditions, capability, and capacity within the host nation (HN), leading to the successful transition to civilian control. (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2015, p. 1-1)

The Army MP is a soldier who is proficient in executing law enforcement and combat operations (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2013b). MPs are an
invaluable asset to the combatant commander anywhere in the world. Whether in the continental United States (CONUS) or outside the continental United States (OCONUS), MPs are trained to deal with a wide variety of situations requiring a quick decision from the ethical, lawful, and safety point of view. Army MPs receive their training at the United States Army Military Police School, located on Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri.

The United States Army Military Police School’s (2014) vision is as follows:

A premier integrated Military Police force recognized as policing, investigations and corrections professionals who enable the Army’s decisive action in unified land operations in concert with our partners to achieve tactical, operational, and strategic outcomes in unstable and complex worldwide environments. (p. 1)

This chapter provides comprehensive background information related to the issues presented in the study. This review focuses primarily on EQ, moral development, and decision making by police officers and MPs. The first section of this chapter discusses a background of the military police. The next section focuses on ethics development within the Army and police officers. The third section examines police use of force. The fourth section examines moral development. The final section of Chapter II discusses the EQ theories.

The Development of Ethics

Army Ethics

Ethics, as defined by Howard and Korver (2008) is the behavior considered right or wrong according to our own beliefs, no matter the culture or society. Every profession, including the military, should have at its core a sense of ethical certainty (Gabriel, 1982). At the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, ethics are taught to future
officers throughout their entire academic journey by putting the cadets in leadership positions where they will face ethical dilemmas (R. L. Dufresne & Offstein, 2012).

Gabriel (1982) wrote,

A soldier without ethics, values, and beliefs with which he can live in moral sense will himself be destroyed by the horrors of the battlefield. Without ethics the humanist quality so necessary to moral man will die. Only ethics can place the destruction of warfare in perspective and prohibit men from using violence beyond reason. (p. 227)

In the Iraq and Afghanistan War, the need for ethical conduct is vital in counterinsurgency operations by winning the confidence, also referred to as the hearts and minds, of the local people (Jennings & Hannah, 2011). The moral conduct of American soldiers adds a sense of credibility to their presence in foreign countries, whether conducting combat operations, peacekeeping missions, or nation-building operations (K. R. Williams, 2010). Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (as cited in Avolio, Riggio, Sosik, & Zhu, 2011) stated, “Ethical leadership was found to significantly predict followers’ willingness to report ethical problems to their leaders” (p. 804). Army values based on the leadership principles, which make up the acronym LDRSHP, are described in Army Regulations 600-100 (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2007) as the following:

1. Loyalty—Bear true faith and allegiance to the U.S. Constitution, the Army, your unit and other soldiers. This means supporting the military and civilian chain of command, as well as devoting oneself to the welfare of others.
2. Duty—Fulfill your obligations. Duty is the legal and moral obligation to do what should be done without being told.

3. Respect—Treat people as they should be treated. In the Soldier’s Code, we pledge to “treat others with dignity and respect while expecting others to do the same.”

4. Selfless Service—Put the welfare of the nation, the Army and your subordinates before your own. This means putting the welfare of the Nation and accomplishment of the mission ahead of personal desires.

5. Honor—Live up to Army values. The nation’s highest military award is The Medal of Honor. This implies always following your moral compass in any circumstance.

6. Integrity—Do what is right, legally and morally. Integrity is a quality you develop by adhering to moral principles. This is the thread woven through the fabric of the professional Army ethic. It means honesty, uprightness, the avoidance of deception, and steadfast adherence to the standards of behavior.

7. Personal Courage—Face fear, danger or adversity (physical or moral). This means being brave under all circumstances (physical or moral). (p. 18)

**Police Ethics**

Police officers are also subject to following a set of ethics guiding their moral decisions. The conducts of police officers have a great impact on the type of relationship they will have with the public. It either builds or destroys trust, which is why educating police officers about the realities and necessities to apply ethical decisions is very crucial. Papenfuhs (2011) wrote,
Rather than simply telling an officer that he needs to control his use of force, feature-intensive training would include explaining to an officer that, “You are going to be adrenalized, you are going to feel the physical effects of that adrenaline, you may very well feel a need to continue to strike the suspect, that need may even persist after the suspect is handcuffed. It is completely normal and acceptable to feel that way, but when the time comes, you must recognize the feelings for what they are, physical and emotional responses to the chemicals in your system and you need to breathe and re-engage you higher thinking brain and process the situation.” (p. 3)

Ethics training for police officers should enhance the officers’ skills when operating within their community. Training should help increase the officer’s mindfulness of ethical concerns, the decision-making process for addressing ethical concerns, and inspiring the courage and commitment to act in an ethical manner (Gleason, 2006). To police officers, ethics means that under no circumstance will they cheat, steal, or lie, even with the many temptations to do so otherwise (Klein, 2012).

Gleason (2006) discussed how ethics training should help the police officer to think and act in an ethical manner, thereby being seen by the community as fair trustworthy, and upholding the public’s trust should derive from a social contract.

**Use of Force**

**Police Actions**

At times, the public fails to understand the necessity for police officers to use a certain amount of force. Too many times police officers must quickly determine the proper means necessary to apprehend a suspect or to protect themselves and others
Under certain circumstances, using force to include deadly force is a great responsibility given to police officers (Fitzgerald, 2007). However, according to Flosi (2012), the use of and amount of force is subjective to the individual officer:

An officer will make his/her force-option decision based on the actions of the suspect. If the suspect is non-resistive and compliant, the officer will have no reason to have to resort to a force response. So in essence, the suspect forces an officer to choose a force response. (p. 2)

Ferguson, Missouri Police Department’s use of force policy (section 410.01) states, “An officer may use lethal force only when the officer reasonably believes that the action is in defense of human life, including the officer’s own life” (Wyllie, 2014, p. 2). However, many people throughout the United States felt Officer Darren Wilson should have been indicted for murder in the 2014 fatal shooting of Michael Brown. Some people believe Brown was not posing any threat to Officer Wilson; therefore deadly force was not needed (Cave, 2014). Yet just like many other officers, police have to make the best ethical decision with the limited, and maybe even inaccurate, information while under extreme and chaotic circumstances (Gleason, 2006). In this case, Officer Wilson was not indicted in the shooting of Brown (Olson, 2014). The DOJ also cleared Officer Wilson of any civil rights violations (Perez & Bruer, 2015). However, on November 29, 2014, Officer Wilson resigned from the Ferguson Police Department because of threats and high tensions with the community. In Wilson’s resignation letter, he wrote, “It was my hope to continue in police work, but the safety of other police officers and the community are of paramount importance to me. It is my hope that my resignation will allow the community to heal” (Ellis, Todd, & Karimi, 2014, p. 3).
Speed, surprise, and controlled violence of action are principles which the Army applies mainly when assaulting a target at close quarters (Headquarters Department of the Army, 2002). These principles are vital to the killing or capturing of enemy combatants. However, these principles are not just limited to the military; police officers also apply these principles. They are used to overwhelm a person’s ability to resist, therefore submitting much more quickly (John, 2011). What is important to remember is only to apply the right amount of force necessary to affect the arrest (Wallentine, 2007).

Police officers are trained to actively scan their areas and take in a great deal of information in a very short amount of time, such as discerning certain cues from what people are saying and doing and even reading their body language. All this information is taken in, analyzed, and used to determine the police officer’s reaction in a very short time (Baker, 2014). Police officers are trained in quick reaction skills in shoot/don’t shoot scenarios where split-second reaction determines life, death, or bodily harm (Rossen & Davis, 2015). Quanell X, an African American activist, learned how difficult this skill is while participating in police shoot/don’t shoot scenarios with the Maricopa County Sheriff Office in Arizona (Chiaramonte, 2015). Quanell X now has a better understanding for the difficulties police officers have in making split-second decisions during high-pressure situations. Quanell X completed the training with a better understanding of the pressures of police work and the need for teaching their communities to comply with police officers when being confronted by them until the situation has been resolved (Chiaramonte, 2015).

Others, such as CNN anchor Carol Costello (2015), have also taken part of police training, “Shoot, Don’t Shoot”. In Costello’s first scenario, she hesitated to act when the
suspect showed a weapon and was shot by the role player. In the second scenario, fearing the suspect had a knife, Costello shot the role player without positive proof that he was armed. After going through a training facility in upstate New York, Costello learned how important it is to understand the perspective of the officer in that difficult situation (Costello, 2015). In Salt Lake City, Utah, reporter Kiersten Nuñez (2015) learned just how quickly a situation can turn deadly and the need for the police officer to quickly make a decision and act on it. In one scenario, Nuñez failed to see the danger until the role player attacked. In other scenarios, what seemed routine stops quickly turned into real-life scenarios that police see every day, such as people armed with weapons or aggressive and confrontational people in which police must act quickly.

City Council member Lee Kleinman from Dallas, Texas, said, “It’s very easy to second-guess situations after the fact, but the reality is, when you’re there, it’s happening, and it’s happening fast” (Hallman, 2015). Kleinman and Dallas reporter Tristian Hallman attended a Shoot, Don’t Shoot training seminar in Dallas, Texas. In Scenario 1, both men failed to notice threats until the suspect began shooting. In Scenario 2, both men stopped their attacker, although Hallman’s hesitation could have jeopardized his life. In the final scenario, during a traffic stop, both men failed to properly read the suspect’s actions and were attacked (Hallman, 2015).

Reverend Jarrett Maupin, a civil rights activist known for his blunt position against law enforcement, underwent Shoot, Don’t Shoot training with the Maricopa County Sheriff’s Office. In Scenario 1, Maupin was shot when the suspect quickly pulled out a gun and began shooting before Maupin was able to react. In Scenario 2, when Maupin approached two men fighting, he shot an unarmed man for charging Maupin.
Finally, in Scenario 3 Maupin had to be forceful to subdue a suspect who afterwards was found to have been hiding a knife in his waistband. After the training, he said that the experience changed his thinking and learned how important it is for people to comply with police orders (PoliceOne, 2015).

Police officers are not without emotions when involved in a fatal shooting of a suspect. During a traffic stop in 2014, Montana police officer Grant Morrison fatally shot Richard Ramirez after he exited the car and started reaching for the waistband of his pants. It was later confirmed, Applegate (2015) reported, “According to an autopsy report, Ramirez had enough methamphetamine in his bloodstream at the time of the shooting to kill a person not accustomed to the drug” (p. 3). The video of the incident shows Officer Morrison very upset and distraught over the shooting and stating that he feared Ramirez was going for a gun; Morrison was acquitted of any wrongdoing and has returned to active duty (Applegate, 2015).

**Moral Development**

**Integrity**

Integrity is described as a virtue of always doing what is right, morally and legally (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 2007). Kotter (1990) discussed how integrity is influenced by significant events in adulthood and people and circumstances can corrupt a person.

An investigation into the Abu Ghraib allegations of prisoner abuse discovered MPs at the prison lacked sufficient training in detainee operations (Strasser, 2004). The investigation also revealed personnel not organized or equipped to deal with the challenges of prisoner detainee operations at the level they were operating. The report
described the command climate at Abu Ghraib made it possible for morally corrupt and unsupervised personnel to commit sexual and physical abuse on the prisoners (Strasser, 2004). The abuse allegations were in direct and deliberate violations of the 1949 Geneva Conventions in which Part II describes the general humane protection and the treatment of prisoners of war (Gebhardt, 2005).

K. R. Williams (2010) researched the moral development of Army soldiers’ training to become MPs while attending the Initial Entry Training (IET). The study focused on the effects of IET on the soldiers’ moral development while being indoctrinated into the Army’s moral code, core values, warrior’s ethos, and the soldier’s creed. The study revealed the leader-follower relationship had the greatest impact on the soldiers’ moral development.

**Police Morality**

Smith (2009) examined the correlation between EQ and moral development of police officers in a law enforcement agency in Kentucky. The data discovered a positive correlation between the two variables, which was proven by the decisions the officers made. Smith (2009) also discovered perceptions of misconduct being attributed to the individuals’ interpretation of their emotions.

Johnson (2011) concluded a significant difference between leaders’ perceptions of their own EQ compared to police officers in nonleader roles. The research shows EQ affects the police department’s work environment as well as the police officers. The leaders’ behaviors influence the officers as they perform their duties and interact with the public. In his study, Johnson (2011) explained how leadership studied affects the integrity and the ethical behavior of the organization. The research also explained how
leaders with EQ training could improve decisions and relationships between leader and employee by developing better understanding and skills to interact with each other, improve coping abilities with the pressures of police work, and create a positive organizational climate (Johnson, 2011). Blanchard and Miller (2012) described how a truly honest self-evaluation is one of the most difficult things for a leader to do.

**Emotional Intelligence Research**

**Emotional Intelligence**

Goleman (1995) suggested EQ skills will become an increasingly valued asset in the future. Weisinger (1998) wrote,

> You can maximize the effectiveness of your emotional intelligence by developing good communication skills, interpersonal expertise, and mentoring abilities. Self-awareness is the core of each of these skills, because emotional intelligence can only begin when affective information enters the perceptual system. (p. 4)

Today companies see the value EQ has in the workplace. Companies such as Toyota are now recruiting compassionate, reliable, and productive people who care about their fellow workers (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009). These types of people are better able to deal with the stresses associated with the workplace environment. When compared to people with low EQ, people with high EQ reduce job stress by regulating their emotions (Zeidner et al., 2009). Bradberry and Greaves (2005) asserted that EQ is critical to job success and is the biggest predictor of job performance, leadership, and personal excellence.

A study conducted by Salovey from Yale concluded participants receiving the biggest raises and who were promoted most were those individual whose peers rated
highest in EQ (Kreamer, 2011). A leader whose style has a positive emotional impact has better financial returns than others leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Organizations educating their leaders on the positive qualities of EQ and the negative leadership traits have the potential to affect productivity, profitability, and performance (Webb, 2011). EQ is the foundation of just a few of the critical skills such as team work, time management, decision making, flexibility, and accountability, which account for 90% of top performers possessing high EQ (Bradberry, 2015).

Global business leaders have highly developed EQ, which allows heightened ability to sustain superior global business leadership (Colfax, Perez, & Rivera, 2010). Goleman (1995) wrote, “It is this ability to harmonize, that all other things being equal, will make one group especially talented, productive, and successful, and another with members whose talent and skills are equal in other regards do poorly” (p. 160). Everyone in an organization can benefit from EQ; employees with high levels of EQ interact better with coworkers and are therefore more successful on the job (Entis, 2014).

EQ is the ability to recognize and understand the emotions of others and of oneself and the ability to use such understanding to control one’s own behaviors and the interactions with others (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). It is a person’s perception, his or her self-awareness, and his or her sensitivity of things happening around them (Rosenstein, 2009).

People are not born with EQ; it is taught, developed, and improved (Chopra & Kanji, 2010). Daniel Goleman (2004) not only asserted that EQ can be learned, but his research also showed nearly 90% of the outstanding performers he studied were credited with high EQ, which strongly suggests that EQ is directly linked to strong performance.
Unlike intelligence quotient (IQ), which does not change much after the teen years, EQ continues to grow with new experiences (Goleman, 1998).

Research by Bradberry and Greaves (2009) showed EQ impacts every-day actions and it accounts for 58% of performance in all types of jobs. EQ helps leaders to deal with their own emotions and reactions; however, to accomplish this, the leader must first have self-awareness, the foundation of EQ (McKee, Boyatzis, & Johnston, 2008). This skill relies solely on the leaders and on their ability to direct the emotions of their employees in a positive direction (Goleman et al., 2013). A positive attitude towards work and between worker and leader are due to the ability to regulate one’s emotions, which is developed through EQ (Yong, 2013).

In recent years, EQ has been an area of interest in the empirical literature, which focuses on its relationship to leader efficacy (McDonald, 2013). In the book *Emotional Intelligence and Projects*, Clarke and Howell (2009) reported the following:

To date only five studies have appeared in the literature specifically investigating emotional intelligence in project contexts, all of which have examined relationships between emotional intelligence and either leadership or project management competences. Together these studies suggest a significant role for emotional intelligence in terms of underpinning both leadership and the important behaviors suggested as associated with successful outcomes in projects. (p. 1)

EQ also plays an important part in the teaching of young children by helping to develop healthy emotional growth. Just as important as academic development is, so too is the emotional development of young students. Cultivating EQ helps to develop relationships by applying self-awareness, self-confidence, and empathy, which are all
important aspects of EQ (Jacob, Wadlington, & Enloe, 2012). It is therefore important for children to be able to identify their own emotions first. They must have the language to identify those emotions before they can talk about them (Rovenger, 2000).

EQ can also help those students struggling with depression or loneliness because of abuse, neglect, or bullying (Jacob et al., 2012). Schools teaching EQ report more success in academics, better teacher-student relationships, and fewer problems with behavior such as bullying (Rivers, 2014). Teaching EQ to young students is proving to have very positive results in their emotional development (Rivers, 2014).

**Empathy**

Zeidner et al. (2009) defined empathy as “the ability to perceive, identify, and directly feel the emotion (s) of another” (p. 380). It is considered one of the five major building blocks of EQ (Jansen, 2006). It helps people understand the perspective of others and better able to relate to what people are feeling. Empathy builds on the emotional self-awareness and is considered a fundamental people skill (Goleman, 1995).

Empathy requires that in order to be open minded to someone else’s thinking, people must understand the thoughts, feelings, and emotions of others (Paul & Elder, 2012). Many officers are not without empathy; in fact, many understand damage to a community by criminals and are determined to stop it (Fitzgerald, 2007). Jansen (2006) stated when people stop caring about the people they work with, it could lead to unethical behavior. In the workplace, an empathetic person attempts to understand another person’s perspective and has a good sense of what it is like to be in his or her shoes (Jansen, 2006). Self-evaluation is important in order to continue growing emotionally, and yet leaders find self-evaluation to be very difficult (Blanchard & Miller, 2012).
The ability for police officers to develop empathy towards the people they serve is an invaluable trait to develop. Empathy helps to have a better understanding of others and what motivates their behavior, especially when working within communities of cultural diversity (Block, 1994). Police academies in Washington have increased the emphasis of treating citizens with respect and dignity and of expressing empathy towards them (Miletich, 2013). Empathy training is designed to enhance the trait, which people already possess. The ability to de-escalate a situation before it becomes necessary to use force begins with empathy. Empathy helps police officers make a more informed decision as to how to proceed; it may disclose that the person is suffering from a mental episode and just needs someone to listen to them (J. Dufresne, 2003).

Procedural justice is a practice that focuses on four principles; Trust & Justice (2016) describes these principles:

1. Treating people with dignity and respect
2. Giving citizens “voice” during encounters
3. Being neutral in decision making
4. Conveying trustworthy motives. (p. 2)

These four principles are the basis for the way police officers interact with the community and how the community views those interactions (Trust & Justice, 2016). Procedural justice describes the perception of fairness of the process more than the actual outcome itself. In other words, people are more willing to accept losing a case or receiving a fine if people feel that the outcome is decided fairly by the justice system (Gold & Bradley, 2013). Michelle Maiese (2004), Associate Professor at Emmanuel College, wrote,
The notion that fair procedures are the best guarantee for fair outcomes is a popular one. Procedural justice is concerned with making and implementing decisions according to fair processes. People feel affirmed if the procedures that are adopted treat them with respect and dignity, making it easier to accept even outcomes they do not like. (p. 1)

**Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is the level of contentment people have towards their jobs; the more satisfied people are generally, the more productive they are. Robbins and Judge (2011) stated satisfied employees are willing to engage in helpful behavior with coworkers; job satisfaction is also an important factor in reducing absenteeism and job turnover. In his research, Glodstein (2014) discussed the significant relationship between EQ and job satisfaction by the increased ability to handles the stresses on the job.

Glodstein (2014) further stated,

"The results indicated a positive and significant effect of total EI on job satisfaction indicating that increased total EI brings more job satisfaction. The results indicated that as total EI increases, job satisfaction increases as well. As expected, EQ was found to be positively associated with and a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Furthermore, participants’ scores indicate that EI employees experience greater job satisfaction. (p. 14)"

People with high EQ are good at evaluating the emotions of other people and thereby are good at helping to develop the motivations within a working group. Zeidner et al. (2009) stated supervisors with high EQ are more capable of helping others to
manage negative emotions as well as encouraging a positive work environment, which lead to a higher state of job satisfaction.

In law enforcement, research by White, Cooper, Saunders, and Raganella (2010) showed job satisfaction among police officers is linked to meeting the inspirations influential in first joining the force. Furthermore, just as in the corporate world meeting the expectations which lead people to a specific career choice is a big factor in determining the level of job satisfaction. Buzawa, Austin, and Bannon (as cited in Erciktii, Vito, Walsh, & Higgins, 2011) wrote how job satisfaction is an important factor, as it has a direct impact on work performance, which in turn affects police-community relations and the attitude towards police by the public. Police officers are unique individuals willing to take on the demands and stresses of the job. Despite long hours, shift work, and the constant possibility of violence, police officers still find satisfaction in serving and upholding the law (House, 2013).

Motivation

According to Robbins and Judge (2011), motivation is “the process that accounts for an individual’s intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal” (p. 205). Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (as cited in Wren, 1995) stated although there are several motivation theories, the most well-known is Abraham Maslow’s 1943 hierarchy of needs model, in which he described how people are motivated to satisfy five basic needs. The needs are often depicted in a pyramid with the most basic needs at the bottom and the more complex towards the top. Maslow’s five needs are physiological, security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization needs. As each need is fulfilled the next need then becomes the dominant need to achieve (Wren, 1995). Allam (as cited in Bond,
2014) and Dumbrava (as cited in Bond, 2014) listed 10 benefits of EI in the law enforcement work place:

1. Better work and department attitudes and behaviors that lead to improved self-confidence and better job performance (less citizen complaints)
2. Ability to focus on real issues and not department politics (stays out of departmental gossip circles)
3. Better performance within a team environment (active listening)
4. Ability to understand others’ viewpoints (empathy)
5. Positive influence on others and encourages teamwork (general good attitude avoids being a negative influence when unhappy)
6. Leads by example (on time, prepared for work)
7. Stays calm and effectively problem solves (does not overact or allow bad decision to be made out of emotions)
8. Understands the bigger picture and is proactive with communications (supports department’s initiatives and is a positive role model)
9. Optimistic attitude that helps reduce stress levels (sees the good in things)
10. Works towards removing communication barriers that affect morale. (Bond, 2014, pp. 1-2)

Motivated employees tend to perform better and are more productive (Valencia, 2015). In police work, fulfilling the needs of police officers is very important and something that the leader and the individual must constantly work at to achieve. Lack of motivation, desire, or empathy in any other job could be troublesome; in police work it could be deadly. As of May 9, 2015, 44 police officers have been killed in the United
States in the line of duty (Officer Down Memorial Page, 2015). From 2012-2014, the national annual average of police duty-related deaths were 117 police officers (National Law Enforcement Officers Memorial Fund, 2015). What makes police officers so unique is that following Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model, police not only fulfill their own personal needs on different levels on the model but also help fulfill other people’s need on the model such as safety.

Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs developed in 1940-1950s is a model which describes the motivations of people to achieve certain needs; and when one need is achieved a person will look to achieve the next one (McLeod, 2014). Maslow’s model is shown in a pyramid form in which our most basic needs are at the bottom such as food, water, shelter etc. and only when the basic needs are met are people then concerned with higher needs such as self-actualization needs (Chapman, 2014). Chapman (2014) described Maslow’s original model:

1. Biological and Physiological needs—air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep, etc.
2. Safety needs—protection from elements, security, order, law, limits, stability, etc.
3. Belongingness and Love needs—work group, family, affection, relationships, etc.
4. Esteem needs—self-esteem, achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige, managerial responsibility, etc.
5. Self-Actualization needs—realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences. (p. 3)
Competencies

EQ Competencies

Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management are four competencies which help to determine how people manage themselves (Vyas, 2005). Self-awareness is the knowledge people have of their own strengths, weaknesses, emotional state, and the circumstances affecting how a person feels in a particular situation (Brenner, 2015). A higher level of EQ begins by enhancing one’s self-awareness ability. The better understanding people have of their own emotions first, the better they can understand other people’s feelings (Crompton, 2010). Effective leadership requires leaders to be understanding of how they are personally affected by certain feelings and how their own moods affect the moods of the people in the organization (Crompton, 2010).

Self-management involves the control of ones’ emotions, especially those that are disruptive. Self-managing provides the ability to self-monitor and to understand when it is appropriate to take action if correction is needed (Vyas, 2005). Self-management helps people not to be ruled by their emotions and thereby aids in establishing lasting and strong relationships in people’s private and professional lives (Tschiesche, 2012).

A person with social awareness has empathy towards other’s feelings, needs, and concerns. It helps to establish a rapport and a better understanding of the best way to communicate with others. Social awareness helps to identify and understand someone’s behavior or moods and to use that knowledge to improve a relationship (Bradberry, 2014). Leaders possessing social awareness have a better understanding of the organization’s politics and their effects on the workers (Goleman, as cited in Batool,
2013). Leaders are thereby better able to communicate with the workers in a manner meeting their needs (Manning, 2012).

Relationship-management takes social awareness one step further by managing relationships in a manner making people feel supported and understood (Connelly, 2015). It helps leaders to have open communications, which helps developing others and improving teamwork collaboration (Goleman, 2000). Zimmerman (2013) wrote,

Relationship Management is all about your interpersonal communication skills. It’s all about your ability to get the best out of others . . . your ability to inspire and influence them, your ability to communicate and build bonds with them, and your ability to help them change, grow, develop, and resolve conflict. (p. 2)

Bradberry and Greaves (2009) discussed how making good decisions requires more than just facts; good decision makers require an understanding of themselves and having emotional mastery when it is needed most. However, Army Field Manual (FM) 6-22 and Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 6-22, the former and current manuals on Army leadership, fail to discuss methods to develop and successfully implement the different aspects of emotions (Sewell, 2009). Goleman (1998) discussed how leaders throughout the military clearly set the emotional tone, which has a ripple effect. Furthermore, a Navy study revealed most effective leaders were more emotionally outgoing, whereas the least effective leaders were harsher and more disapproving (Goleman, 1998). Keeping emotions under control is an important virtue to possess for those in law enforcement, which is why a competence study on law enforcement found the best officers were the ones able to use the least force necessary when faced with de-escalating a highly stressful situation (Goleman, 1998).
Davar and Singh (2014) conducted a study of employees in the private, public, and cooperative bank sectors as well as insurance companies throughout many regions in India. Their study discovered the positive effect EQ has on job performance across all target groups in the different banking and insurance sectors (Davar & Singh, 2014). The study revealed the advantages on the long-term development of EQ, especially in the sectors where employees interact with customers. Leaders benefit from a higher level of EQ by better helping their employees keep positive attitudes when dealing with customers (Davar & Singh, 2014).

**Gaps and Weakness of Literature**

Policing American cities has always been a challenging and dangerous profession. It is a profession which calls for fighting and preventing crime while simultaneously establishing a relationship of public trust. Establishing trust with the community requires police officers to act ethically and fair while enforcing the law. It is a difficult and sometimes misunderstood profession necessary for order in American society.

Previous studies have examined EQ and ethical behavior in police officers; however, there has been little research which cognitively examined the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. Of those studies extending to the military, ethical violations were discussed as well as the military decision-making processes; but little research has been conducted on whether EQ plays a factor in decision making. The current literature also does not adequately establish whether EQ development helps to improve the empathetic connection between police officers and the local population they serve. This study addresses the gaps and weaknesses discussed in the study by Smith (2009) by extending the study to an MP unit.
MPs are unique because of their dual roles as both law enforcement officers and warfighters. Whether it is conducting a traffic stop or conducting combat operations against a foreign enemy, ethical behavior is crucial. This literature review showed the significance of examining EQ and its correlation to decision making. Also examined was whether there exists a correlational connection between EQ and decision making by Army police officers.

**Emotional Judgment Inventory**

The Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI) is a self-report inventory measuring the responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale (The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, Inc. [IPAT], 2015). The EJI is made up of seven dimensions comprising 70 items. The dimensions of the EJI are being aware of emotions, identifying one’s own emotions, identifying others’ emotions, managing one’s emotions, managing others’ emotions, using emotions in problem solving, and expressing emotions adaptively (Bar-On, Maree, & Elias, 2007).
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Overview

Chapter III provides a systematic explanation of the design of the study; it describes the methods and the procedures used in this quantitative study. This chapter states the purpose statement and the research questions. Chapter III also describes the research design used, the population, and the sample used in the data collection. Also described in this chapter are the instrumentations used in gathering data, methodology for the data collection, the processes to analyze the data collected, and the general validity and reliability of the study. Finally, Chapter III explains the limitations of the study and a summary of the chapter.

Specifically used was quantitative methodology via correlational analysis, exploring the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. This design is appropriate because it explores whether there is a relationship between the two variables but does not determine or imply causation (Smith, 2009). Furthermore, the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI) was used, which is a self-report inventory measuring the participants’ responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, its purpose was to examine the degree to which emotional intelligence influenced the decisions made by Army military police officers. Finally, the purpose was to explore whether emotional intelligence has any effect on problem solving.
Research Questions

In order to address the study’s purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?

2. There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers.

Research Design

This study is based on the quantitative research conducted by Melanye V. Smith (2009). Smith (2009) examined the relationship between EQ and the moral development among police officers in Kentucky. The study discovered high levels of EQ helping in the ethical development of the police officers. Smith’s study also revealed how the individuals’ interpretation of their own emotions attributed to their perceptions of misconduct. Adapted for this purpose was Smith’s (2009) research to MPs, and convenience and purposive sampling were used for selecting the participants as well as the research questions.

Research based on a previous study adds to the strength and to the clarity of the research findings and can make a valuable contribution to the study of that topic (Roberts, 2010). For this purpose, the study was modified by the population, geography, and the research questions. The rationale for the modifications was to get a unique perspective from personnel who are both police officers and warfighters.
This study used quantitative methodology via correlational analysis exploring the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. This design is appropriate, as it explores whether there is a relationship between the two variables but does not determine or imply causation (Smith, 2009). This study used the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI), which is a self-report inventory measuring the participants’ responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale.

The use of the EJI and a demographic questionnaire examined the correlation between the EQ and decision making. The study only examined the correlation between the variables and does not imply causation. Due to the nature of the data, a quantitative correlational design was used in examining the variables of this study. Its design was to have a better understanding of the correlation between the variables.

**Population**

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) asserted, “A population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research” (p. 129). The specific population targeted for this study was the roughly 70%, 500 MPs of the 700 total soldiers within the 93rd MP Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas. The sample did not include those soldiers in jobs not specific to military policing. According to the U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency (USAFMSA), current authorization levels for enlisted and officer military police officers in the Army stand at around 37,000 MPs (U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency, 2015). The officers/soldiers were male and female, over the age of 18 years, commissioned officers in the pay grade of O-1 (2nd lieutenant) through O-6 (colonel); noncommissioned officers (NCOs) in the pay grade of E-5
(sergeant) to E-9 (command sergeant major); and finally, enlisted soldiers in the pay grade of E-1 (private) through E-4 (specialist) within the battalion.

The population represents MPs from a variety of backgrounds throughout the United States, different stages in their military careers, gender, number of deployments, and combat experience. Soldiers of the 93rd Military Police (MP) Battalion (BN) provide law enforcement and force protection on post and to the local community. They also provide rapid deployment capabilities to conduct combat operations and police and detainee operations while in a theater of combat operations.

The 93rd Military Police Battalion is one of five battalions of the 89th Military Police (MP) Brigade (BDE) located throughout the United States. The 93rd Military Police Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas; the 759th Military Police Battalion, Fort Carson, Colorado; the 97th Military Police Battalion, Fort Riley, Kansas; the 720th Military Police Battalion, Fort Hood, Texas; and the 92nd Military Police Battalion, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri make up the 89th MP BDE.

**Sample**

This study used two types of nonprobability sampling approaches: convenience and purposive sampling. The participants were selected using convenience and purposive sampling from the 93rd MP Battalion, a subordinate unit within the 89th MP Brigade. Convenience sampling was defined by Salkind (2009) as “a nonprobability sampling procedure wherein the selected sample represents a captive audience” (p. 302). This method searches for participants readily available and willing to participate (Bamberger, Rugh, & Mabry, 2012). A convenience sampling is considered the most commonly used sampling method (Harmon & Morgan, 1999). For this study, a convenience sampling is
appropriate due to time and availability of the MPs, as they may be involved in training exercises, deployments, or any other number of duties that would make them unavailable to participate.

A purposive sampling targets a specific group of the population (Crossman, 2014). The purposive sampling method is effective when the study requires a certain level of knowledgeable experts within the population (Tongco, 2007). A purposeful sampling gathers insight about the variables in the study from those able to provide the most relevant data (Patton, 2002). The targeted group was soldiers within the 93rd MP BN of 18 years and older whose duties and responsibilities included but not subject to just police operations. The soldiers were specifically selected by their age of 18 years old and older and military occupational specialty (MOS), so any soldier whose MOS was that of support personnel for the battalion was not selected. Only soldiers whose job was within military law enforcement were asked to participate in the survey.

The sampling was of Army MPs specifically stationed in Fort Bliss, Texas. This organization was chosen for its willingness to participate as well as for this unit’s experience in detainee operations in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba. Current authorization levels stand around 700 soldiers, with roughly 500 being military police in the 93rd MP BN. P. Williams (2004) asserted, “A sample is a set of individuals selected from a population that is being studied in an experiment, usually subjects are selected randomly from a population to help ensure that the sample is representative of the population” (p. 378). A sample can be any number of people from a specific population; however, the larger the sample the more likely it is that it will represent the population being studied.
Probability and nonprobability are two different categories of different sampling techniques (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

**Instrumentation**

This study used a quantitative methodology via correlational analysis exploring the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. This design is appropriate, as it explores whether there is a relationship between the two variables but does not determine or imply causation (Smith, 2009). This study used the EJI, which is a self-report inventory used in the United States and United Kingdom, measuring the participants’ responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale (IPAT, 2015). Permission was granted by IPAT. The supporting document can be found in Appendix A. According to Bar-On et al. (2007),

The EJI consists of seven dimensions comprising 70 items. The dimensions are as follows:

1. Being aware of emotions
2. Identifying one’s own emotions
3. Identifying others’ emotions
4. Managing one’s emotions
5. Managing others’ emotions
6. Using emotions in problem-solving
7. Expressing emotions adaptively. (pp. 267-268)

**Validity and Reliability—Emotional Judgment Inventory**

According to Salkind (2009), “Validity, is the truthfulness or accuracy within the score of a test or interpretation of an experiment” (p. 308). Salkind continued, “Validity
is the quality of a test doing, what it is designed to do” (p. 117). Patten (2012) stated, “A test is said to be reliable if it yield consistent results” (p. 73). P. Williams (2004) affirmed, “Reliability refers to the question of how consistent a measurement procedure is across different administrations” (p. 322).

Bedwell (as cited in Bar-On et al., 2007) wrote,

Raw scores for each of the scales are standardized. An additional ten items from an impression management index used to assess response distortion. Internal consistency reliabilities are reported to range from .75 to .90 while test-retest reliability ranges from .48 to .69 after an eight-week interval. (p. 268)

According to IPAT (2015), “Internal consistency averages .81. Test/retest reliabilities average .73 for four-week interval, and .61 for two-month interval” (p. 23). It further goes on to say, “The EJI is unrelated to cognitive ability and exhibits moderate relationships with personality. It provides incremental information for performance in jobs which require close interpersonal or service-oriented interactions” (p. 23).

**Data Collection**

Quantitative research is deemed the most appropriate approach for this study because the data gathered are quantifiable through statistical analysis (Patten, 2012). For this research, a quantitative correlational design was applied to in the study that best recognizes the factors that influence a certain outcome (Creswell, 2003). This was a nonexperimental study using a common data gathering technique of survey.

Nonexperimental research is the method of data gathering procedure using techniques such as questionnaires and surveys to obtain the data. It focuses on correlation between two variables with no attempt to control or manipulate the variables (Price, 2012). The
use of surveys studied characteristics of the population being studied (Salkind, 2009). Surveys were beneficial to this study because it allowed data gathering from a large population that operates in a high-tempo environment in a relatively short amount of time. Surveys are fairly low cost and easy to disseminate to a large group of people (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003).

The researcher used data collection by means of the EJI. First, authorization was granted by e-mail from IPAT after reviewing the proposal of research that was to be conducted using their EJI instrument. The supporting document can be found in Appendix A. Second, the Executive Officer (XO) of the 93rd Military Police Battalion was contacted by phone requesting permission to use the battalion in this research. Permission was granted by phone, and a subsequent e-mail was sent verifying this. The supporting document can be found in Appendix B.

The researcher began collecting data after being granted permission and approval from the Brandman University Institutional Review Board (BUIRB). All e-mails for the participants were sent to the battalion’s XO, which at that point were disseminated throughout the battalion, by e-mail. The researcher sent out an e-mail to the soldiers of 93rd MP BN requesting their participation with the understanding that it was voluntary (Appendix C). A second e-mail provided a link to the survey (Appendix D). In accordance with BUIRB, all participants were required to acknowledge having read the online consent form prior to beginning the survey (Appendix E). Participants were also asked to read and acknowledge consent to the BUIRB Participant’s Bill of Rights before moving forward to the online survey (Appendix F).
In order to ensure privacy of the participants, the researcher secured all files and data using a personal laptop computer with password protection. The researcher’s laptop computer was maintained in the researcher’s home. The names and ranks of the participants were known only to the researcher. Concerning IPAT, confidentiality was maintained by not identifying names, rank, or positions held by the participants. No data were accessible without the password to the researcher’s laptop computer, which only the researcher knows.

**Data Analysis**

This section discusses the two research questions along with corresponding hypotheses proposed in this study. The gathered data were analyzed and scored, and reports were generated using a statistical analysis software program by way of IPAT’s NetAssess International service (Internet). Statistical analysis and correlation coefficient were also used in the data analysis. Results were provided using a graphic presentation of $t$ scores. Bedwell (2015) wrote, “T-scores have a theoretical mean and standard deviation of 50 and 10 respectively” (p. 11).

The EJI specifically analyzes seven dimensions of EQ. First, being aware of emotions, this entails the awareness of one’s emotions as well as the emotions of other people. Second, is identifying one’s own emotions. This evaluates the participant’s ability to identify and distinguish his or her own emotions. Next is identifying the emotions of others and accurately determining those emotions. Fourth is managing one’s own emotions. This evaluates the participant’s ability to access and to express the appropriate emotion when confronted with either positive or negative emotions. Fifth, managing other’s emotions deals with but is not limited to counseling, influencing, and
generating motivation. Next is expressing emotions adaptively. This dimension deals with a person’s ability to communicate his or her feelings, whether they are positive or negative feelings. Finally, impression management deals with a person’s attempt to present himself or herself in a positive way to other people (Bedwell, 2015).

Participants were required to rank the 80-question self-report inventory survey regarding EQ using a seven-point rating scale. Each number represents a description of the participants’ response to each question: 1 represents that the participant absolutely disagrees, 2 the participant strongly disagrees, 3 slightly disagrees, 4 not sure, 5 slightly agree, 6 strongly agree, and 7 the participants absolutely agree.

Research Question 1 states, “Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decision making among military police officers?”

H₀₁. There is no correlation between emotional intelligence and decision making among Army military police officers.

H₁₁. There is a correlation between emotional intelligence and decision making among police officers.

Research question 2 states, “There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decision making among Army military police officers.”

H₀₂. There is little to no degree in which emotional intelligence influences the decisions made by Army military police officers.

H₁₂. Emotional intelligence influences the decisions made by Army military police officers in a high degree.
Limitations

Limitations are certain features found in every type of study that may have a negative impact on the study (Roberts, 2010). The first disadvantage is, “The risk the sample might not represent the population as a whole, and it might be biased by volunteers” (Business Dictionary, 2014, p. 1). The second limitation is that the sample was from within one battalion from one installation from the southwestern Texas portion of the United States. Therefore, the results may not be applicable to other installations in other parts of the United States. Although the unit is made up of soldiers from all over the United States with different backgrounds, the cultural environment of an Army MP unit in Fort Bliss, Texas may be unique to that of other MP units with different missions and capabilities. The third limitation is that the data collected were self-reported, which depended on the honesty of the participants’ answers and their understanding of the questions asked (Hoskin, 2012).

Summary

Chapter III described the study’s purpose and discussed the research questions that are addressed. The chapter also described the instruments used for data collection, the population and sample, data analysis, and limitations. Participants in this study were guaranteed that their responses and identities would be kept confidential and that the researcher would not divulge any information that could be traced back to them. The results of the data analysis obtained from the data collection are presented in Chapter IV. This research based on Smith’s (2009) study examined the relationship between EQ and moral development. This study, based on Smith’s (2009) research to MPs, used convenience and purposive sampling for selecting the participants.
CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

This chapter analyzes and summarizes the data collected that measured the correlation between the decisions made by Army military police officers and EQ. Furthermore, in this chapter the purpose statement, the research questions, and the research methodology are restated. This chapter also describes the population and samples used in the data collection, followed by the presentation of the data. Finally, this chapter concludes with a discussion and summary of the findings based on the research questions.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, its purpose was to examine the degree to which emotional intelligence influenced the decisions made by Army military police officers. Finally, the purpose was to explore whether emotional intelligence has any effect on problem solving.

Research Questions

In order to address the study’s purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?

2. There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers.
Methodology

This study is based on the quantitative research study conducted by Smith (2009). Smith (2009) examined the relationship between EQ and the moral development among police officers in Kentucky. The study discovered high levels of EQ helping in the ethical development of the police officers. Smith’s study also revealed how the individuals’ interpretation of their own emotions attributed to their perceptions of misconduct. Adapted for this purpose was Smith’s (2009) research to MPs, and convenience and purposive sampling were used for selecting the participants as well as adding more research questions.

A replication of a previous study adds to the strength and to the clarity of the research findings and can make a valuable contribution to the study of that topic (Roberts, 2010). For this purpose, the replication was altered by the population, geography, and the modified research questions. The rationale for the modifications was to get a unique perspective from personnel who are both police officers and warfighters.

This study used quantitative methodology via correlational analysis exploring the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. This design is appropriate, as it explores whether there is a relationship between the two variables but does not determine or imply causation (Smith, 2009). This study used the EJI, which is a self-report inventory measuring the participants’ responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale.

The use of the EJI and a demographic questionnaire examined the correlation between the EQ and decision making. This study only examined the correlation between the variables and does not imply causation. Due to the nature of the data, a quantitative
correlational design was used in examining the variables of this study. Its design was to have a better understanding of the correlation between the variables.

**Population**

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) asserted, “A population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research” (p. 129). The specific population targeted for this study was the roughly 70%, 500 MPs of the 700 total soldiers within the 93rd MP Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas. The sample did not include those soldiers in jobs not specific to military policing. According to the U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency (USAFMSA), current authorization levels for enlisted and officer military police officers in the Army stand at around 37,000 MPs (U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency, 2015). The officers/soldiers were male and female, over the age of 18 years, commissioned officers in the pay grade of O-1 (2nd lieutenant) through O-6 (colonel); noncommissioned officers (NCOs) in the pay grade of E-5 (sergeant) to E-9 (command sergeant major); and finally, enlisted soldiers in the pay grade of E-1 (private) through E-4 (specialist) within the battalion.

The population represents MPs from a variety of backgrounds throughout the United States, different stages in their military careers, gender, number of deployments, and combat experience. Soldiers of the 93rd Military Police (MP) Battalion (BN) provide law enforcement and force protection on post and to the local community. They also provide rapid deployment capabilities to conduct combat operations and police and detainee operations while in a theater of combat operations.
The 93rd Military Police Battalion is one of five battalions of the 89th Military Police (MP) Brigade (BDE) located throughout the United States. The 93rd Military Police Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas; the 759th Military Police Battalion, Fort Carson, Colorado; the 97th Military Police Battalion, Fort Riley, Kansas; the 720th Military Police Battalion, Fort Hood, Texas; and the 92nd Military Police Battalion, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri make up the 89th MP BDE.

**Sample**

The sampling was of Army MPs specifically stationed in Fort Bliss, Texas. Current authorization levels stand around 700 soldiers, with roughly 500 being military police in the 93rd MP BN. P. Williams (2004) asserted, “A sample is a set of individuals selected from a population that is being studied in an experiment, usually subjects are selected randomly from a population to help ensure that the sample is representative of the population” (p. 378). A sample can be any number of people from a specific population; however, the larger the sample the more likely it is that it will represent the population being studied (P. Williams, 2004). Probability and nonprobability are two different categories of different sampling techniques (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). For this study 150 EJI surveys were sent out to be completed by the 93rd MP BN. At the time of the study, the battalion had roughly three companies unavailable due to deployment, training, or police duties. Three companies include roughly 300 soldiers. Of the 150 EJI surveys sent out, 101 were completed.

This study used two types of nonprobability sampling approaches: convenience and purposive sampling. The participants were selected using convenience and purposive sampling from the 93rd MP Battalion, a subordinate unit within the 89th MP Brigade.
Convenience sampling was defined by Salkind (2009) as “a nonprobability sampling procedure wherein the selected sample represents a captive audience” (p. 302). This method searches for participants readily available and willing to participate (Bamberger et al., 2012). A convenience sampling is considered the most commonly used sampling method (Harmon & Morgan, 1999). For this study, a convenience sampling is appropriate due to time and availability of the MPs, as they may be involved in training exercises, deployments, or any other number of duties that would make them unavailable to participate.

A purposive sampling targets a specific group of the population (Crossman, 2014). The purposive sampling method is effective when the study requires a certain level of knowledgeable experts within the population (Tongco, 2007). A purposeful sampling gathers insight about the variables in the study from those able to provide the most relevant data (Patton, 2002). The targeted group was soldiers within the 93rd MP BN of 18 years and older whose duties and responsibilities included but not subject to just police operations. The soldiers were specifically selected by their age of 18 years old and older and military occupational specialty (MOS), so any soldier whose MOS was that of support personnel for the battalion was not selected. Only soldiers whose job was within military law enforcement were asked to participate in the survey.

**Presentation and Analysis of Data**

The purpose of this quantitative study data was collected using the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI) survey to examine the correlation between EQ and the decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, this study also
explored whether EQ had any effect on problem solving, as measured by the EJI scale. There were 101 Army military police officers who completed the EJI for the study.

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics for the EJI scale score. These current sample scores were expressed as t scores ($M = 50, SD = 10$) compared to the normative sample. The highest mean scores were for impression management ($M = 51.36, SD = 9.03$) and managing own emotions ($M = 51.24, SD = 9.22$). The lowest mean score was for being aware of emotions ($M = 36.97, SD = 7.76$).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Emotional Judgment Inventory Summated Scale Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being aware of emotions</td>
<td>36.97</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>53.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying own emotions</td>
<td>50.16</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>73.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying others' emotions</td>
<td>47.34</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>73.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing own emotions</td>
<td>51.24</td>
<td>9.22</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>74.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing others' emotions</td>
<td>41.30</td>
<td>10.13</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>72.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using emotions in problem solving</td>
<td>43.98</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>75.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing emotions adaptively</td>
<td>46.63</td>
<td>8.93</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>69.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impression management</td>
<td>51.36</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>69.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $N = 101$. Scores expressed as t scores ($M = 50, SD = 10$) compared to the normative sample.

Table 2 displays a multiple regression model to predict decision making based on six of the EJI scale scores. This table shows that decision making is higher when there
are higher scores of *being aware of emotions*, lower scores of *identifying own emotions*, and higher scores of *expressing emotions adaptively*.

Table 2  
*Prediction of Decision Making Based on Emotional Judgment Inventory Scale Scores*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>16.70</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being aware of emotions</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying own emotions</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying others’ emotions</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing own emotions</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing others’ emotions</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing emotions adaptively</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Research Question 1 was “Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?” and the related null hypothesis was “$H_0$: There is no correlation between EQ and decision making by Army military police officers.” To test this, Table 2 displays the multiple regression model predicting decision making based on six EJI scale scores. The final six-variable model was statistically significant ($p = .001$) and accounted for 48.8% of the variance in the dependent variable. Specifically, decision making was positively related to *being aware of emotions* ($\beta = .40$, $p = .001$) and *expressing emotions adaptively* ($\beta = .40, p = .001$), and negatively related
to identifying own emotions ($\beta = -.20, p = .03$). These findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 3 provides Pearson correlations for six of the EJI scale scores with using emotions in problem solving scales score. This table shows there is a significant correlation between being aware of emotions and decision making. Table 3 also shows that there is no significant relation between identifying own emotions and decision making.

Table 3

**Pearson Correlations for Emotional Judgment Inventory Scale Scores with Using Emotions in Problem Solving Score**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Using emotions in problem solving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.57 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being aware of emotions</td>
<td>.57 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying own emotions</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying others' emotions</td>
<td>.34 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing own emotions</td>
<td>.24 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing others' emotions</td>
<td>.41 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing emotions adaptively</td>
<td>.53 ****</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 101.*

Research Question 2 was “There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers,” and the related hypothesis was “H$_0$: There is little
to no degree in which emotional intelligence influences the decisions made by Army military police officers.” To test this, Table 3 displays the Pearson correlations for the six Emotional Judgment Inventory Scales scores with the using emotions in problem solving score. Inspection of the table found five of the six correlations to be significant at the $p < .01$ level. Specifically, using emotions in problem solving had significant positive correlations with being aware if emotions ($r = .57, p = .001$), identifying others’ emotions ($r = .34, p = .001$), managing own emotions ($r = .24, p = .01$), managing others’ emotions ($r = .41, p = .001$), and expressing emotions adaptively ($r = .53, p = .001$). These findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Summary

In summary, this study used responses from 101 Army military police officers to examine the relations between EQ and decision making and between EQ and problem solving, as measured by the EJI scale. Hypothesis 1 (overall emotional intelligence with decision making) was supported (Table 2). Hypothesis 2 (individual emotional intelligence scales with decision making) was also supported (Table 3). In the final chapter, the findings are presented, conclusions and implications are made, and recommendations for future research are suggested.
CHAPTER V: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The focus of this study was to examine the correlation between EQ and the decisions made among Army military police officers, as well as to explore if EQ affects problem solving. Goleman (1995) suggested EQ skills will become an increasingly valued asset in the future. In recent years, EQ has been an area of interest in the empirical literature, which focuses on its relationship to leader efficacy (McDonald, 2013). Understanding one’s emotional reactions through EQ can improve the decision-making process (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Andrew Borrello (2012) wrote, “Society scrutinizes and holds expectations of police conduct at a higher level than many other professions” (p. 13). The very nature and visibility of police work makes it important to understand the impact of EQ on police work (Turner, 2009). In the Army, recent integrity violations such as those in the Abu Ghraib prisoner abuse scandal and the Guantanamo Bay prisoner abuse occurred because of individual integrity failures (Muskopf, 2006). In the Iraq and Afghanistan War, the need for ethical conduct is vital in counterinsurgency operations by winning the confidence, also referred to as the hearts and minds, of the local people (Jennings & Hannah, 2011). Lieutenant Colonel Gerald F. Sewell, U.S. Army, Retired stated the Army needs “leaders aware of their own emotions and how they affect those around them as they undertake the daily missions and tasks assigned them” (Sewell, 2009, p. 94). Although the current literature discusses the police ethics violations, there exists a gap in the literature referring to the relationship of specific virtues and the manner they influence ethical behavior in MP personnel.
Chapter V presents the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations of this study. This chapter restates the study’s purpose, the research questions, and the research methodology. It also describes the study’s population and sample and presents the major findings, the researcher’s conclusions, implications for action, and future research recommendations. Chapter V closes with the researcher’s concluding remarks and reflections.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers. In addition, its purpose was to examine the degree to which emotional intelligence influenced the decisions made by Army military police officers. Finally, the purpose was to explore whether emotional intelligence has any effect on problem solving.

**Research Questions**

In order to address the study’s purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?
2. There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers.

**Methodology**

This study is based on the quantitative research study conducted by Smith (2009). Smith (2009) examined the correlation between EQ and the moral development among
police officers in Kentucky. The study discovered high levels of EQ helping in the ethical development of the police officers. Smith’s study also revealed how the individuals’ interpretation of their own emotions attributed to their perceptions of misconduct. Adapted for this purpose was Smith’s (2009) research to MPs, and convenience and purposive sampling were used for selecting the participants as well as adding more research questions.

A replication of a previous study adds to the strength and to the clarity of the research findings and can make a valuable contribution to the study of that topic (Roberts, 2010). For this purpose, the replication was altered by the population, geography, and the modified research questions. The rationale for the modifications was to get a unique perspective from personnel who are both police officers and warfighters.

This study used quantitative methodology via correlational analysis exploring the correlation between EQ and decision making among Army MPs. This design is appropriate, as it explores whether there is a relationship between the two variables but does not determine or imply causation (Smith, 2009). This study used the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI), which is a self-report inventory measuring the participants’ responses on a seven-point Likert-type scale.

The use of the EJI and a demographic questionnaire examined the correlation between EQ and decision making. This study only examined the correlation between the variables and does not imply causation. Due to the nature of the data, a quantitative correlational design was used in examining the variables of this study. Its design was to have a better understanding of the correlation between the variables.
**Population**

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) asserted, “A population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the results of the research” (p. 129). The specific population targeted for this study was the roughly 70%, 500 MPs of the 700 total soldiers within the 93rd MP Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas. The sample did not include those soldiers in jobs not specific to military policing. According to the U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency (USAFMSA), current authorization levels for enlisted and officer military police officers in the Army stand at around 37,000 MPs (U.S. Army Force Management Support Agency, 2015). The officers/soldiers were male and female, over the age of 18 years, commissioned officers in the pay grade of O-1 (2nd lieutenant) through O-6 (colonel); noncommissioned officers (NCOs) in the pay grade of E-5 (sergeant) to E-9 (command sergeant major); and finally, enlisted soldiers in the pay grade of E-1 (private) through E-4 (specialist) within the battalion.

The population represents MPs from a variety of backgrounds throughout the United States, different stages in their military careers, gender, number of deployments, and combat experience. Soldiers of the 93rd Military Police (MP) Battalion (BN) provide law enforcement and force protection on post and to the local community. They also provide rapid deployment capabilities to conduct combat operations and police and detainee operations while in a theater of combat operations.

The 93rd Military Police Battalion is one of five battalions of the 89th Military Police (MP) Brigade (BDE) located throughout the United States. The 93rd Military Police Battalion, Fort Bliss, Texas; the 759th Military Police Battalion, Fort Carson,
Colorado; the 97th Military Police Battalion, Fort Riley, Kansas; the 720th Military Police Battalion, Fort Hood, Texas; and the 92nd Military Police Battalion, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri make up the 89th MP BDE.

Sample

The sampling was of Army MPs specifically stationed in Fort Bliss, Texas. Current authorization levels stand around 700 soldiers, with roughly 500 being military police in the 93rd MP BN. P. Williams (2004) asserted, “A sample is a set of individuals selected from a population that is being studied in an experiment, usually subjects are selected randomly from a population to help ensure that the sample is representative of the population” (p. 378). A sample can be any number of people from a specific population; however, the larger the sample the more likely it is that it will represent the population being studied (P. Williams, 2004). Probability and nonprobability are two different categories of different sampling techniques (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

This study used two types of nonprobability sampling approaches: convenience and purposive sampling. The participants were selected using convenience and purposive sampling from the 93rd MP Battalion, a subordinate unit within the 89th MP Brigade. Convenience sampling was defined by Salkind (2009) as “a nonprobability sampling procedure wherein the selected sample represents a captive audience” (p. 302). This method searches for participants readily available and willing to participate (Bamberger et al., 2012). A convenience sampling is considered the most commonly used sampling method (Harmon & Morgan, 1999). For this study, a convenience sampling is appropriate due to time and availability of the MPs, as they may be involved in training
exercises, deployments, or any other number of duties that would make them unavailable to participate.

A purposive sampling targets a specific group of the population (Crossman, 2014). The purposive sampling method is effective when the study requires a certain level of knowledgeable experts within the population (Tongco, 2007). A purposeful sampling gathers insight about the variables in the study from those able to provide the most relevant data (Patton, 2002). The targeted group was soldiers within the 93rd MP BN of 18 years and older whose duties and responsibilities included but not subject to just police operations. The soldiers were specifically selected by their age of 18 years old and older and military occupational specialty (MOS), so any soldier whose MOS was that of support personnel for the battalion was not selected. Only soldiers whose job was within military law enforcement were asked to participate in the survey.

Major Findings

This section provides a summary of key findings that arose from the data analysis in Chapter IV. The findings stemmed from the data collected using the EJI, a survey tool which scores seven specific areas of EQ, and are organized by the two research questions.

Research Question 1

*Is there a correlation between emotional intelligence and decisions made among military police officers?*

Table 2 (in Chapter IV) answers this question by displaying the multiple regression model that predicts decision making based on six EJI scale scores, which are *being aware of emotions, identifying own emotions, identifying others’ emotions, managing own emotions, managing others’ emotions, and expressing emotions*
adaptively. Specifically, decision making was positively related to being aware of emotions ($\beta = .40, p = .001$) and expressing emotions adaptively ($\beta = .40, p = .001$), and negatively related to identifying own emotions ($\beta = -.20, p = .03$).

**Research Question 2**

*There is no correlation in the individual scales in the Emotional Judgment Inventory related to emotional intelligence and decisions made among Army military police officers.*

Table 3 (in Chapter IV) answers this question by displaying the Pearson correlation for the six EJI scales scores with the using emotions in problem solving score. Inspection of the table found five of the six correlations to be significant at the $p < .01$ level. Specifically, using emotions in problem solving had significant positive correlations with being aware of emotions ($r = .57, p = .001$), identifying others’ emotions ($r = .34, p = .001$), managing own emotions ($r = .24, p = .01$), managing others’ emotions ($r = .41, p = .001$), and expressing emotions adaptively ($r = .53, p = .001$).

**Conclusions**

The findings of this study show that there is a positive correlation between EQ and decision-making among Army military police officers. Based on the findings it is concluded that military police officers who have high EQ will perform better in conflict situations and reduce potential for violence. The findings show EQ to be an important skill in helping to develop better understanding and therefore a better relationship with the community. Based on the findings it is concluded that Army military police with high EQ are better able to adjust from the battlefield to administering lifesaving care and treatment. These MPs are better able to control their emotions from trying to capture or
kill the enemy in one moment and then providing first aid or medical care in the next moment. Based on the findings MPs with high levels of EQ are better able to manage their emotions and still provide the same level of care and treatment that they would for any person on the battlefield.

As an Army MP on the battlefield, one minute they may be in engaging the enemy in a firefight, the next they may be administering lifesaving care and or treating the very same enemy they were just fighting with humane care. It can be difficult detaining and caring for prisoners, which are classified as enemies of our nation, having a good understanding of EQ can make such a task easier to perform. By applying EQ in such situations MPs not only can empathize with the prisoners but they are better able to evaluate their own feelings and thereby able to make better decisions. The results of the 101 Army MPs surveyed for this study, showed EQ had a positive impact on decision making. Based on the findings of this study it is concluded that military police officers with high EQ will be able to put aside high emotions created in violable situations to make decisions that reduce conflict leading to positive outcomes.

The EJI measured seven dimensions, which consisted of being aware of emotions, identifying one’s own emotions, identifying others’ emotions, managing one’s emotions, managing others’ emotions, using emotions in problem solving, and expressing emotions adaptively. The results of all seven dimensions determined that MPs who completed the EJI are inclined to using EQ to help guide their decisions. We can conclude that if EJI was a factor in such altercations as in the Michael Brown incident, the outcome may not have ended in the death of the suspect. It is apparent that the MPs that completed the EJI are inclined to using EQ to help guide their decisions. The results make it clear that that
decision making based on EJI Scale scores was specifically positive with *Being Aware of Emotions* and *Expressing Emotions Adaptively*, the scores were however negatively related to *Identifying own Emotions*.

Therefore, by incorporating EJI in training in organizations such as the military, local police, or similar organizations in which the use of force on a person is a real possibility would be beneficial in having less incidents of excessive force or death. Whether in a foreign nation or on American streets winning the hearts and minds of the people begins with building trust. Incorporating EJI in the training of MPs and local police will begin to identify those who have and those who could improve on EQ training. EQ training could also help police while investigating cases of sexual or domestic abuse. EJI training could also be beneficial to any organization such as intelligence gathering organizations in which establishing trust is paramount.

Overcoming world public opinion of prisoner abuse, mistreatment, and torture by the American military has been a daunting task. However, based on the results of the survey results, Army MPs are better able to show positive decision-making was related to emotional intelligence. Instead of shying away from emotions and feelings, today's MPs perceive emotions in a positively in problem solving. With no EQ training the MPs surveyed acknowledged that EQ is important to decision making, for this reason it is clear that time needs to be made for formal EQ training. American soldiers need the opportunity to develop and nurture their EQ skills so that the world opinion of the American soldier can once again be that of respect and admiration not only for the ability to prowess to kill an enemy but also by their humane treatment of that enemy when they are no longer considered armed combatants.
Implications for Action

This study leads to the undeniable implications on the part of Army military police leadership seeking to enhance decision making by using EQ. This study provided evidence that there indeed exists a correlation between EQ and decision making among Army military police officers. The study supports the importance of EQ development for decision making among Army MPs. Based on the review of literature and the data gathered using the Emotional Judgement Inventory, the following actions were recommended:

1. The American Soldier is a person willing to go anywhere in the world under any condition away from their loved ones for many months at a time, in order to fight an enemy that threatens the U.S or its allies. These soldiers train day in and day out in order to be prepared to conduct their wartime missions. Many are even trained in the skill of parachuting from a low flying aircraft with over a hundred pounds of equipment in order to be the first ones in the fight. With that said, being able to treat an enemy once they are captured with compassion can be somewhat difficult, which is why EQ training would be beneficial in this regard. Having a higher EQ can help a soldier to adapt when they are required to care and safeguard the very person that was trying to kill or capture them earlier. This can be done by having the military conduct research or by hiring people to continue to research and to publish those findings of EQ development in the Army. It is recommended to use the EJI as the instrument to measure data in like studies. The military must conduct research that provides data on the long-term benefits of EQ developmental training.
2. Requiring an MP to treat people with empathy, respect, and with the ability to identify their own and others’ emotions will require that the MPs are provided with the proper skills to do this. EQ development in law enforcement is critical for the police officer and for the people they serve. Winning the hearts and minds of people of the host nation which an MP will find themselves will require the ability to empathize with the people of that are faced the American military fighting on their land. Establishing trust, having compassion, and treating those people with dignity and respect will require a good understanding of EQ. Furthermore, how American MPs treat detainees is looked upon and criticized by the world. Mistreatment of detainees creates and furthers the negative opinion of the American military. This can be avoided by establishing EQ development courses at all levels of leadership development. Before a prospective soldier enters basic training, they can complete online EQ assessments that would provide awareness of the person’s EQ level and begin to introduce the person to EQ development. At the Army Military Police School at Fort Leonard Wood, MO the EQ courses should also include an assessment of every participant in order for the soldiers and instructors to have a better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses in this field. The courses would be no longer than a few hours and could be a combination of lectures, interactive discussions, surveys, and even role playing scenarios. Additionally, the United States Army Military Police Corps should direct all MP organizations in every installation to include EQ training as part of the annual Soldier training requirements. Hiring consultants in the field if EQ would help in establishing a curriculum focused on EQ development. Without the proper training, it will only perpetuate the cycle of mistrust and mistreatment of people.
Proper training will provide an opportunity of breaking this cycle and establishing real change.

3. Soldiers are usually young men and women given responsibilities more advance than nonmilitary people of the same age. They are put in leadership positions where they are responsible for the training of other people in skills that may determine whether that person lives or dies on the battlefield. Soldiers are trained in many different skills except the skills for knowing when and how to integrate feelings in decision making and problem solving. As the EJI surveys showed, the participants use emotions for problem solving and decision making. EQ development will help in having a better understanding of their feelings and therefore make better decisions and solve problems. Incorporating EQ training in yearly or quarterly training requirements would include discussions, role-playing, online training, and leader reaction courses that test the decision making skills of the soldiers. From the beginning of their military service, soldiers would be indoctrinated in using EQ as part of their decision making skills. Being a young leader in the Army can be an overwhelming experience filled with feelings of fear, doubt, intimidation, and excitement. EQ training will help leaders to have a better understanding of their feelings and those of the soldiers in their charge; this will help in developing a more effective leader on and off the battlefield.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the results of this study, there are a several recommendations for future research that can be made. Currently there does not exist adequate research regarding EQ and decision making among military police officers. The following are recommendations for future research that should be considered:
1. This study focused on a particular MP battalion on Fort Bliss, Texas. The population and samples may not reflect those of other Army MP organizations throughout the world. Therefore, future studies should replicate this study using different military police organizations throughout the Army.

2. This study should be replicated using military police organizations of the different armed services. Each branch of service has a military organization with different characteristics and demographics. Therefore, future studies should include the U.S. Navy, Air Force, Marines, and Coast Guard.

3. A replication study focused on police departments outside the military is needed to provide validity to the efficacy of EQ development by providing data from different perspectives from police officers outside the U.S Army and unique to their location and culture.

4. This study used the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI) instrument for data collection. Future research should use different instruments that test the participants’ EQ.

5. Future research is needed from a qualitative approach. Instead of using a quantitative approach as in this study, a qualitative study would allow for a smaller focus group that could include but not limited to observations, interviews, and archival documents. A qualitative approach would provide data from a different perspective, which is not easily put into a numerical score.

6. Future research is needed on other occupations such as first responder type professions such as firefighters and emergency medical technicians. Within the military, future studies could include other military occupational specialties such as special forces,
infantry, and other jobs in which the soldier must interact and even live with the people of the host nation.

7. This study focused on Army MPs; future research is needed in organizations not in law enforcement or military such as education, law, or business.

**Concluding Remarks and Reflections**

Before starting on this research, I was always bothered with accusations of misconduct towards people willingly putting their lives in danger for others. Accusations of police misconduct led me to learn what skill was missing that could help limit such cases. During my 21 years of service in the Army, we had many classes on ethics, values, how to conduct ourselves with people of a host nation, the Geneva Conventions, and even rules of engagement while in a theater of operation. Yet there were still cases in which soldiers were accused of abuse or misconduct. I have had the pleasure and honor of serving with some of the best people our nation has to offer, and I have even lost some of those great warriors. Therefore, I started on this journey to examine if EQ, a skill I believe to be important in decision making, could play an important role in the actions of Army military police.

Consequently, because of this study, I learned that EQ does in fact bear a correlation with the decisions made by Army military police officers. The research showed that those officers who were more aware of their own emotions were therefore more able to express their emotions.
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Appendix A: Authorization to Purchase and Use the Emotional Judgment Inventory

Michael Stowers <Michael.Stowers@ipat.com> 12/10/15 at 6:32 AM
To: ricardo miranda
CC: IPAT Customer Service

Ricardo,

Thank you for your patience.

After reviewing your proposal, we have determined that you are eligible to purchase and use the EJI via our NetAssess (Internet) platform for your research study.

You and your research chair will need to fill out qualification forms on our website, and once that is done you will be able to order the assessment credits from our Customer Service department.

Please let me know if you have any further questions.

Thanks!

Mike
Michael R. Stowers, PsyD
Senior Consulting Psychologist
p: 612-225-4780 x344
f: 612-474-7489
w: www.ipat.com

ipat
people insights
Appendix B: Permission to Use the 93rd Military Police Battalion in Survey

Fuata, Melanie L MAJ USARMY 89 MP BDE (US) <melanie.l.fuata.mil@mail.mil>

To: mirandarh99@yahoo.com

CC: Prince, Jeremy D MAJ USARMY 89 MP BDE (US), Meckley, Wayne P MAJ USARMY (US)

Mr. Miranda,

93D MP BN would be happy to assist you with your research. You can send the surveys to us once approved and ready and we will disseminate them to the specified audience. MAJ Prince may be the BN Executive Officer at the time, so he is on the cc line to ensure continuity after I leave. MAJ Meckley will be the new BN S3 in the next week or two.

V/R,

Melanie L. Fuata
MAJ, MP
Battalion Executive Officer

93D Military Police Battalion
C#: 915-569-5855
BBC#: 915-538-9932
Appendix C: Invitation E-Mail to Participate in Survey

January 10, 2016

Dear Warfighters:

My name is CW3 (Retired) Ricardo Miranda and since retiring from the Army, I have been enrolled in the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at Brandman University.

The purpose of this e-mail is to alert you in advance that you will be receiving an e-mail within the next week inviting you to participate in a voluntarily research study. The research topic is the study of emotional intelligence and its impact on decision making as a military police. The goal of this study is to contribute to the field of knowledge regarding emotional intelligence through the unique perspective of military police.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a multiple-choice online survey, which should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Along with the next week’s email, you will also receive more details concerning the study and your rights as a participant. Meanwhile if you have any questions please do hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Ricardo Miranda
Doctoral Candidate at Brandman University
mira6001@mail.brandman.edu (university email)
mirandarh99@yahoo.com (alternate email)
808-349-6350 (cell phone)
Appendix D: Official Letter/E-Mail inviting Soldiers to Participate

January 17, 2016

Dear Warfighters:

My name is CW3 (Retired) Ricardo Miranda and since retiring from the Army, I have been enrolled in the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at Brandman University.

The purpose of this e-mail is to invite you to participate in a research study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and decision making by military police officers. The goal of this study is to contribute to the field of knowledge regarding emotional intelligence through the unique perspective of military police.

If you voluntarily agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete the following:

First, review the Informed Consent form along with the Brandman University Institutional Review Board (BIRB) Participant’s Bill of Rights.

Second, you will be asked to agree or disagree to the Informed Consent.

Lastly, if you agree to participate, you will be prompted to complete the online survey, which should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. If you disagree, just close and exit the survey.

To begin the survey, please click here (If the survey fails to open, please copy and paste the link below into a new browser page). https://xxxxxxxxxx.com

The survey is available now and is scheduled to end on February 1, 2016 at 11:59:59 PDT.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study or the survey, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you in advance for this opportunity to share my doctoral experience with my fellow warfighters. I am honestly grateful.

Sincerely,

Ricardo Miranda
Doctoral Candidate at Brandman University
miraf001@mail.brandman.edu (university email)
mirandarb99@yahoo.com (alternate email)
508-349-6350 (cell phone)
Appendix E: Online Consent Form

1. INFORMED CONSENT:

I understand that I may refuse to participate in or I may withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. I have been made aware that there are no known risks or discomforts associated with this survey. Also, the investigator may stop the study at any time. I also understand that no information that identifies me will be released without my separate consent and that all identifiable information will be protected to the limits allowed by law.

If the study design or the use of the data is to be changed I will be so informed and my consent obtained. I understand that there are no monetary or other benefits promised to me. I understand that if I have any questions, comments, or concerns about the study or the informed consent process, I may write the Office of the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, 16350 Lapace Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618, or call the office by telephone at (949) 341-7641.

Please review the Brandman University Institutional Board Participant’s Bill of Rights before proceeding.
After reviewing the Brandman University Institutional Board Participant’s Bill of Rights, then select your choice below.

Check "AGREE" to voluntarily participate in the study.

If you do not wish to participate in this study, please check "DISAGREE".

The survey will ONLY open for responses if you AGREE to participate.

☐ I AGREE - to voluntarily to participate in the study.
☐ I DISAGREE- and will not participate in the study.
Appendix F: BUIRB Participant’s Bill of Rights

BRANDMAN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Research Participant’s Bill of Rights

Any person who is requested to consent to participate as a subject in an experiment, or who is requested to consent on behalf of another, has the following rights:

1. To be told what the study is attempting to discover.

2. To be told what will happen in the study and whether any of the procedures, drugs or devices are different from what would be used in standard practice.

3. To be told about the risks, side effects or discomforts of the things that may happen to him/her.

4. To be told if he/she can expect any benefit from participating and, if so, what the benefits might be.

5. To be told what other choices he/she has and how they may be better or worse than being in the study.

6. To be allowed to ask any questions concerning the study both before agreeing to be involved and during the course of the study.

7. To be told what sort of medical treatment is available if any complications arise.

8. To refuse to participate at all before or after the study is started without any adverse effects.

9. To receive a copy of the signed and dated consent form.

10. To be free of pressures when considering whether he/she wishes to agree to be in the study.

If at any time you have questions regarding a research study, you should ask the researchers to answer them. You also may contact the Brandman University Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. The Brandman University Institutional Review Board may be contacted either by telephoning the Office of Academic Affairs at (949) 341-9937 or by writing to the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA, 92618.

Brandman University IRB
Adopted
November 2013