



Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development

**Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency at
Petaling Jaya Police Headquarters, Selangor, Malaysia**

Pavitra Kanesan

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Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency at
Petaling Jaya Police Headquarters, Selangor, Malaysia

Pavitra Kanesan

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that all the information in this document is presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all materials and results that are not original to this work. The thesis has not been accepted for any degree and is not concurrently submitted in candidacy of any other degrees.

K. Pavitra

Pavitra Kanesan

Matric No: 16020166

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency in junior and senior police officers using correlational research design. About 296 junior and 109 senior police officers from Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, Selangor participated. Self-administered instruments were used to collect data. Data analysed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis, Independent-samples T-test, and one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) were carried out to test the hypotheses developed for this particular study. The findings revealed that junior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed largely by self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion. Meanwhile, senior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed mainly by use of emotion. Both junior and senior police officers demonstrated lower others' emotional appraisal. Next, findings showed that junior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed largely by interpersonal skills and least by communication skills. Meanwhile, senior police officers' nature of job competency was highly contributed by interpersonal skills and leadership. However, senior police officers demonstrated less problem-solving skills. It was found that emotional intelligence and job competency are strongly correlated. Both junior and senior police officers who demonstrated high emotional intelligence also demonstrated high job competency. The findings showed a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers' emotional intelligence is higher compared to junior police officers'. Findings also showed a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers demonstrated higher job

competency compared to junior police officers. No significant differences in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service were observed in both junior and senior police officers. The findings suggested that competency-based training using adaptive emotional intelligence skills might enhance junior and senior police officers' job performance.

Keywords: Age, emotional intelligence, job competency, job position, length of service

***Hubungan antara Kecerdasan Emosi dan Kompetensi Kerja di Ibu Pejabat Polis
Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia***

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji hubungan antara kecerdasan emosi dan kompetensi kerja pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan polis. Responden kajian terdiri daripada 296 pegawai rendah dan 109 pegawai kanan yang sedang berkhidmat di Ibu Pejabat Polis Daerah Petaling Jaya, Selangor. Borang soal-selidik yang diisi sendiri telah digunakan untuk mengumpul data. Data dianalisis dengan menggunakan program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) versi 20. Ujian korelasi Pearson, ujian T bagi sampel bebas, dan ujian ANOVA sehalu telah digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian ini. Keputusan kajian menunjukkan sifat kecerdasan emosi pegawai rendah polis dipengaruhi oleh aspek penilaian emosi sendiri dan mengawal emosi. Malah, sifat kecerdasan emosi pegawai kanan polis dipengaruhi oleh penggunaan emosi. Kedua-dua pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan polis mendemonstrasikan penilaian emosi orang lain yang rendah. Seterusnya, dari segi kompetensi kerja, pegawai rendah polis mendemonstrasikan kemahiran interpersonal yang tinggi, malah kemahiran komunikasi yang rendah. Di samping itu, pegawai kanan polis mendemonstrasikan kemahiran interpersonal dan kepimpinan yang tinggi tetapi kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah yang rendah. Hasil ujian korelasi menunjukkan kecerdasan emosi mempunyai hubungan yang tinggi dengan kompetensi kerja. Ini bermakna, semakin tinggi kecerdasan emosi maka semakin tinggi kompetensi kerja dalam kalangan pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan polis. Seterusnya, keputusan kajian menunjukkan perbezaan yang signifikan dalam kecerdasan emosi antara pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan, dimana pegawai kanan memiliki kecerdasan emosi

yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan pegawai rendah. Penemuan kajian juga menunjukkan perbezaan yang signifikan dalam kompetensi kerja antara pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan, dimana pegawai kanan mencatatkan kompetensi yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan pegawai rendah. Kecerdasan emosi kedua-dua pegawai rendah dan pegawai kanan tiada berbeza secara signifikan dari segi faktor demografi, iaitu umur dan tempoh perkhidmatan. Penemuan mencadangkan bahawa latihan kompetensi berasaskan kemahiran kecerdasan emosi boleh meningkatkan prestasi kerja pegawai polis.

Kata kunci: Jawatan, kecerdasan emosi, kompetensi, tempoh perkhidmatan, umur

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	Construct Reliability
GTP	Government's Transformation Program
NKRA	National Key Results Areas
PEMANDU	Performance Management and Delivery Unit

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, background of the study, problem statement, objectives, research questions, hypotheses, conceptual framework, definition of terms, significant, scope, and limitations of this study are explained.

1.2 Background of the Study

Malaysia's rapid transformation towards a developed and high-income nation by 2020 has exerted a higher demand on the police sector as the high crime rate affects Malaysian's socio-economic growth. Police profession is stressful, challenging, and involves high-risk tasks, thus police officers are vulnerable to occupational hazards such as accidents, health risks, and emotional imbalance. Psychological factors such as emotional intelligence and job competency may be related to police officers' performance. Therefore, their recruitment processes and training methodology have to evolve, taking into consideration measures of emotional intelligence based on job competency.

Malaysia's Government Transformation Program (GTP) is working towards transforming Malaysia into a developed and high-income nation by 2020 (Performance Management and Delivery Unit [PEMANDU], 2012). As envisaged in Vision 2020, GTP with the help of Performance Management and Delivery Unit aims to enhance the socio-economic growth of Malaysians. The GTP focuses on seven National Key Results Areas (NKRA) and one of them is to reduce the crime rate. Royal Malaysia Police is responsible

to maintain national security by reducing and preventing crime. Based on the crime rate index report produced by Numbeo's database, among the eight countries in south-eastern Asia, the highest crime rate was reported in Malaysia between 2015 (69.97%) and 2017 (64.75%) (Numbeo, 2015, 2016, 2017). Although the crime rate index has reduced slightly, the index is still relatively high. Of this, the highest crime rate was reported in Selangor contingent continuously from year 2010 to 2016 (Royal Malaysia Police Headquarters Bukit Aman, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017) (Table 1.1). Even though the crime rate pattern was decreasing, the intensity is low and merely 9% per year (PEMANDU, 2016).

Table 1.1: Crime rate in Malaysia from 2010 to 2016 based on states

State	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Johor	22427	20970	19068	17,105	15082	13480	12941
Kedah	11722	10667	10100	8,636	8028	7817	7440
Kelantan	7210	6199	6053	5737	5603	5031	4548
Kuala Lumpur	28495	25002	23022	22319	18293	15946	16989
Melaka	5369	4830	4764	4186	3675	2948	3664
Negeri Sembilan	6816	6050	6563	5993	5495	4787	4474
Pahang	6194	5994	5619	5267	5085	4257	3777
Perak	11364	9869	8545	7429	6860	6228	5841
Perlis	1089	1113	974	831	814	741	655
Pulau Pinang	12473	9758	8399	7936	7491	6698	6116
Sabah	7680	6617	6046	5772	5210	5176	5367
Sarawak	11760	11083	10382	9191	7556	7230	6826
Selangor	49469	44302	40629	43060	36165	32547	31222
Terengganu	4094	3841	3505	3610	3213	2659	2494
Total	186162	166295	153669	147062	128570	115545	112354

(Source: Royal Malaysia Police Headquarters Bukit Aman)

Inevitably, crime is the major source of discomfort and insecurity in the society, as the increasing crime rate will embolden and rouse criminals to be engaged in illegal business activities for example narcotics, human trafficking, and kidnapping more often

(Ahmad, Ali, & Ahmad, 2014). A study conducted by Costanza et al. (2007) revealed that security is one of the human basic needs, which enhances persons' subjective well-being and improves their quality of life. Maslow's hierarchy of need also stated that safety is a deficiency need that motivates our behaviour to achieve self-actualisation (Maslow, 1943).

Past researches had acknowledged that police is a stressful profession (Abdullah, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2014; Kasan, Hajari, Jaafar, & Yusoof, 2012; Masilamani et al., 2013; Suresh, Anantharaman, Angusamy, & Ganesan, 2013). The job itself is challenging by nature (Abdullah, 2010; Alias, 2014; Yaacob, 2012) since it entails high-risk tasks (Abdullah, 2010; Patterson, 2009; Russell, 2014; Suresh et al., 2013). Ursin and Eriksen's (2004) cognitive arousal theory asserted that inability to cope with stress will develop a hopeless feeling in oneself and will lower one's emotional health. Following this, there is a high possibility for the person to be in frustration, deprivation, or discontentment. Kasan et al. (2012) found that stress affects Malaysian Public Servants' motivation level, performance, thinking skills, health, and emotional well-being. Abdullah (2010) documented that interacting with victims or criminals occasionally induce negative emotions such as anger amongst police officers. Some of them whom have failed to manage their emotions due to the internal stress, fell victim to critical psychological issues such as homicide, causing injuries to the public, attempting suicide, and mental illness (Baker & Ibrahim, 2014), and also less committed to their job (Baker & Ibrahim, 2017). Williams, Ciarrochi, and Deane (2010) noticed that newly appointed police officers experienced high depression and mental health problems as they often suppress their negative emotions. Thereby, strong emotional strength and endurance are undeniably

crucial for police officers to deal with work stress (Abdullah, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2014, 2017; Yaacob, 2012).

In this aspect, Goleman (1995) confirmed that 80% of successes at work are determined by emotional intelligence and only 20% by ordinary intelligence. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence is a person's capacity to perceive, express, understand, use, and manage emotions in oneself and in others. Emotional intelligence empowers police officers to cope better with emotional demands caused by stressful stimulus (Abdullah, 2010). Moreover, emotionally intelligent police officers highly satisfied (Afolabi, Awosola, & Omole, 2010; Yaacob, 2012; Yusoff, Abdullah, & Adnan, 2017) and committed to their job (Baker, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2017; Yaacob, 2012). Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, and Farr-Wharton (2012) explained that high level of emotional intelligence in police officers leads to job satisfaction; subjective well-being; fosters positive relationship, which encourages the police officers to be engaged and committed to their organisation. Furthermore, police officers with high emotional intelligence performed better as compared to those who have low emotional intelligence (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali, Garner, & Magadley, 2011). Indeed, Ali et al. (2011) discovered that emotional intelligence predicts job performance over cognitive ability and personality traits in police officers.

Royal Malaysia Police's aspiration is to achieve the ultimate aim of providing world-class policing service to society (Bakar, 2016). The Royal Malaysia Police recognises human resource development, which emphasises the need for individual skills, abilities, and career development as important assets for the organisation's success. Hence,

the training division of the Royal Malaysia Police is providing dynamic training programmes based on competency development and continuous learning. As a result, police officers could meet the demands of modern policing. In fact, a competency-based approach is fundamental to human resource management in determining job performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In relation to this, in 2002, Public Service Department Malaysia started to implement competency-based human resource practices in order to increase their quality of service (Azmi, 2010; Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004). In the Royal Malaysia Police, supportive group police officers have to complete competency courses up to the fourth level (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002). Meanwhile, professional and management group police officers have to complete competency training up to the sixth level. Generally, competency is the skills required by an employee to perform a task at his/her level best and varies according to job positions (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In this study, the skills measured as competency of police officers were derived from Haron's (2006) proposed competency framework, with a further discussion with Royal Malaysia Police's management department, and supported by the job descriptions listed in the Public Service Department Malaysia (2009). The required competency for the supportive group that composed of junior police officers are (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, (3) problem-solving skills, and (4) teamwork. On the other hand, the competency matrix or skills set required for the professional and management group that comprised senior police officers are (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, (3) problem-solving skills, (4) proactiveness, (5) decision-making skills, (6) planning skills, and (7) leadership. Although the police officers are well trained with holistic knowledge, skills, aptitude, and attitude that required by the service to achieve the optimum level of competency, they failed to meet the

benchmark and deliver good services. As a result, more complaints were made against the police to the Public Complaint Bureau (Public Complaint Bureau, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018).

To sum up, emotional intelligence is closely related to police work as the job involves human contact (Ali et al., 2011). In relation to that, previous studies on police found that emotional intelligence positively related to their job performance (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011). Similarly, competency is the key to human resource management in determining job performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). As emotional intelligence and competency may relate to job performance, the recruitment processes and training methodology of those police officers have to evolve, taking into consideration measures of emotional intelligence based on job competency. Inclusion of emotional intelligence in the selection process could be deemed fair and legal, only if the direct link between emotional intelligence and required job competency to perform a job is identified based on scientific study (Bethell-Fox, 2003; The Bar Council, 2012). Therefore, this study aims to find the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency among junior and senior police officers in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, Selangor Contingent using a combination of cross-sectional correlational and descriptive design.

1.2.1 Royal Malaysia Police

Malaysia's national security agency, the Royal Malaysia Police has a long history and operates via ten departments, which composed of police officers from supportive, professional and management, and higher management groups. Police is a stressful, challenging, high-risk as well as emotionally challenging profession.

Junior police officers are clustered as supportive group; their job tasks are mainly working together in groups to collect security information, comply and follow orders, perform tasks assigned to them, and supervise their subordinates (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Meanwhile, senior police officers are classified as the professional and management group, and their job scope includes planning, organising, making decisions, leading operations, investigate, and coordinating their subordinates (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009).

In relation to their job scope and nature, police officers' duty demands all-time preparedness in the face of any possible contingencies (Yusoff et al., 2017). Department of Community Health of National University of Malaysia found that police profession is the most stressful profession (53.7%) as compared to other professions including prison officers, fire-fighters, teachers, nurses, doctors, and assistant pharmacists ("*Polis lebih*", 2011). Masilamani et al. (2013) revealed that prevalence of stress in Malaysian police was 38.80%. Masilamani et al. explained that inspectors are the backbone of an investigation team in all departments, thereby they are more prevalence to stress. In fact, police are under stress as they confront various situations and diverse human contact from victims to criminals (Abdullah, 2010). Abdullah (2010) expounded that the stress could be due to long working hours, less likely to get leave, on-standby call at all times, and demanding jobs bounded to cumbersome rules, regulations, and instructions. Additionally, the structure and climate of Royal Malaysia Police organisation are the major contributors to stress amongst police as it highly emphasised on discipline and assertive (Zaidi & Raop, 2017). Unsurprisingly police organisation is a bureaucratic-military structured organisation that foregrounded discipline (Patterson, 2009). To sum up, the work nature, organisation

structure, and organisation climate are the main contributors to stress amongst police officers in Malaysia.

Police is indeed a challenging profession, as they have to ensure the safety of public, as well as nation by tackling the high crime rates (Yaacob, 2012). Additionally, police officers are expected to deliver excellent services and being sensitive to the needs of the community (Abdullah, 2010). Generally, although police officers provide excellent service to the public, the public always perceives police officers as an enemy (Suresh et al., 2013). Therefore, building a relationship with the public for effective community policing is poses as a challenge for police. Due to the myriad scope of the job itself, certain personal qualities like fair-minded, courageous, firm, patience, tolerance, and dedication are extremely required, although those qualities are hard to develop (Abdullah, 2010; Alias, 2014).

Police job involves high-risk tasks (Abdullah, 2010; Patterson, 2009; Russell, 2014; Suresh et al., 2013). Police officers encounter various traumatic experiences that sandwiched them between death or life decisions (Patterson, 2009). According to Suresh et al. (2013), police profession has an adverse effect on the total life span of the police officers including their family, as they are more vulnerable to face prejudice, suspicion, and hostility from the public even during off duty. Datuk Seri Mohamad Fauzi Harun, former Director of Management Department, Bukit Aman reported that every day at least one police officer dies on duty (Kumarappa, 2014). Police officers have one of the highest rates of injuries and illnesses among all professions (Christopher et al., 2015). Particularly, junior police officers are more prone to threat as they are in the combat zone and are

responsible to manage crime activities, control public safety and order, perform search, rescue, and escorting tasks (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Therefore, it is common for police officers to be injured during an operation (Razali, 2018) or while helping the public (Ismail, 2018). Some unlucky one got shot by criminals (Randhawa, 2017) or attacked by public ("*Latihan polis*", 2017).

In fact, Williams et al. (2010) claimed that policing is an emotionally challenging profession and police officers experienced high depression and mental health problems as they often suppressed or failed to identify their emotions. Since, police is a highly bureaucratic-military structured organisation (Patterson, 2009), rational is given more importance compared to emotions (Putnam & Mumby, 1993). Besides, police job nature associated with masculinity, therefore the police officers mask their emotions (Martin, 1999) and practice higher emotional control (Daus & Brown, 2012). The police officers feel uncomfortable to express their emotions to their colleagues.

In this respect, junior police officers who often deal directly with public are expected to detach their emotions when dealing with public (Martin, 1999). Consequently, hardening their emotions will reduce their receptivity to understand the public's problem, which may result in less responsive behaviour (Pogrebin & Poole, 1991). Eventually, the ability to understand others' emotions will be reduced. Besides, junior police officers have to comply with the orders of higher-ranking officers, regardless of their personal opinions, which may induce emotional dissonance (Yaacob, 2012).

On the other hand, senior police officers hold higher authority and are the backbone of an investigation team. Police officers at higher power tend to be less sensitive to others' emotions (Martin, 1999). At higher levels, the police officers are expected to maintain more emotional control by manipulating their emotional expressions which eventually reduce their ability to be sensitive toward others (Daus & Brown, 2012). Generally, police officers practice "Silent Approach" by controlling their facial expressions in order to frighten the suspects during investigations (Arther & Caputo, 1959). Practicing higher emotional control may eventually reduce police officers' vulnerability to be sensitive toward others (Daus & Brown, 2012).

In summary, police is a high-risk profession and the nature of their job exposed them to stressful and emotionally challenging tasks. Therefore, strong emotional strength and endurance are extremely crucial to overcome the challenges (Abdullah, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2014, 2017; Yaacob, 2012). Emotional intelligence enables police officers to cope better with emotional demands (Baker & Ibrahim, 2014). Researchers found that emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with police officers' job performance (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011). Since emotional intelligence and job competency are related to performance, this study might provide useful information on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency.

1.3 Problem Statement

The nature of police occupations become more complex, challenging, and demanding as the crime rate is high. Therefore, police officers are susceptible and vulnerable to occupational hazards such as accidents, emotional imbalance due to stress,

anxiety, and fatigue (American Psychological Association, 2011; Hockey, 1997; Sauer, Wastell, Hockey, Crawshaw, Ishak, & Downing, 2002). The increasing concern on occupational safety and health issues, especially in high-risk sectors has directed psychologists' attention towards psychological factors such as emotional intelligence, as it voids the impact on stress, anxiety, and fatigue (Cox & Cox, 1993). As a result, human error margin could be lessened. Emotional intelligence is pragmatically easy to apply in some human resource development areas such as training and development (Boyatzis, 2008; Goleman, 1995), therefore using emotional intelligence as recruitment and selection criterion needs more in-depth analysis. Following that, research has found that emotional intelligence act as a catalyst in promoting integrity-based policing (Aremu, Pakes, & Johnston, 2011) and integrity is paramount in Malaysian world-class policing (Bakar, 2016). However, according to the statistic of Enforcement Agency Integrity Commission, the highest complaint was made against the Royal Malaysia Police, whereby the numbers are increasing drastically from 18 complaints in year 2011 to 440 complaints in year 2017 (Enforcement Agency Integrity Commission, 2018). To encounter this problem as well as to achieve world-class policing, the training division of the Royal Malaysia Police is providing dynamic training program based on competency (Bakar, 2016). Therefore, by analysing the direct link between emotional intelligence and required job competency, inclusion of emotional intelligence in the selection process can be justified and legal (Bethell-Fox, 2003; The Bar Council, 2012).

In fact, researchers found that emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with police officers' job performance (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011). In 2002, Malaysia started implementing competency-based human resource practices in order to

increase the quality of public service sectors (Azmi, 2010; Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004). However, public, in general, is dissatisfied with the service rendered by police based on the number of complaints made against Royal Malaysia Police from year 2013 to 2017, (Public Complaint Bureau, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018). Since emotional intelligence and job competency are related to performance, this study may provide useful insights and information on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency.

Next, generally, in Malaysia, numerous studies on emotional intelligence have been conducted on employees at schools, universities, and private organisations (Mahdinezhad, Suandi, Silong, & Omar, 2013; Mohamad & Jais, 2016). In fact, emotional intelligence role in Malaysian police officers' competency is still lacking. Previous studies on emotional intelligence in Malaysian police officers mostly focused on job stress, job commitment, job satisfaction, and work-life balance (Abdullah, 2010; Baker, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2017; Kumarasamy, Pangil, & Isa, 2015; Yaacob, 2012; Yusoff et al., 2017). On the other end, majority of studies on competency have been focused on educators (Ahmad & Yusof, 2017; Ghani, Shahadan, & Liew, 2013; Goh & Wong, 2014), and managers (Chipulu, Neoh, Ojiako, & Williams, 2013; Koh, Avvari, & Tan, 2016). Specifically in police organisation, competency studies on Malaysian police officers revolves around identifying and evaluating the competency (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006; Lazim, 1994), measure the difference in competency based on demographic factors (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006), and also the relationship between competency and crime prevention (Alias, 2014). There are no known studies, which opt to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency. Due to the limited number of studies conducted on this topic in Malaysia, this research is imperatively needed as it will provide

insights on the importance of emotional intelligence in police officers based on their job competency which might be helpful in enhancing performance and achieving world-class policing.

In addition, there is a methodological gap in previous studies on emotional intelligence of Malaysian police officers. Most literature combined both junior and senior police officers and in most cases, junior police sample is dominant. In fact, studies have been revealed, that employees' emotional intelligence varied by position and employees at higher rank demonstrated higher emotional intelligence (Maamari & Shouweiry, 2016; Stein, Papadogiannis, Yip, & Sitarenios, 2009; Sy & Cote, 2004). It is proven that in previous studies, the actual nature of junior (lower position) and senior (higher position) police officers' emotional intelligence was undiscovered. Thus in this study, junior and senior police officers have been treated as split sample rather than whole sample.

Moreover, the founder of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey (1997) strongly stated that emotional intelligence increases with age or experience. However, inconsistent results were reported in previous studies which measures the differences in police officers' emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age (Abdullah, 2010; Brunetto et al., 2012; Lokesh, Patra, & Venkatesan, 2016; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014) and length of service (Abdullah, 2010; Lokesh et al., 2016; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014). The inconsistent results showed that another aspect determined the difference in emotional intelligence, which was overlooked by the major theorists Mayer and Salovey. The inconsistent results might be influenced by the collectivist community work culture, as the members process emotions in a standard way, and maintain their actions and behaviours

(Hofstede, 1980). This study could provide some insight on difference in emotional intelligence based on demographic factors of age and length of service, especially in Malaysian police organisation culture.

Additionally, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) emotional intelligence model does not comprise competency elements. However, Bar-On's (1997) and Goleman's (1998) emotional intelligence models included competency elements such as problem-solving skills and communication. In fact, Goleman (1998) viewed emotional intelligence as a competency. However, Mayer and Salovey (1997) affirmed that emotional intelligence is cognitive ability in processing emotions and irrelevant to competency. This contradictory view of Goleman has challenged Mayer and Salovey's model. This study could provide some insight to differentiate emotional intelligence components from competency elements by proving that emotional intelligence is related to competency, as supported by literature (Deniz, 2013; Heidari, 2014) however, it is not a competency itself.

The good news is emotional intelligence is acquired via learning (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) meanwhile, job competency also can be taught and learned (Boyatzis, 2008; Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Therefore, it stimulates a curiosity to uncover the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency. This study seeks to answer some questions concerning the importance of emotional intelligence to job competency of the police. How does emotional intelligence relate to job competency of the police officers? Since senior police officers hold key appointments, do they utilise better emotional intelligence in their job? Do police officers who are older and longer in the service possess better emotional intelligence?

1.4 Objectives, Research Questions, and Hypotheses

Table 1.2 shows the objectives, research questions, and hypotheses of the study.

Table 1.2: Objectives, research questions, and hypotheses

Objectives	Research Questions/Hypotheses	Sub-Research Questions/Hypotheses
To analyse the nature of emotional intelligence of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.	What is the nature of emotional intelligence of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?	What is the nature of emotional intelligence of junior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?
		What is the nature of emotional intelligence of senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?
To analyse the nature of job competency of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.	What is the nature of job competency of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?	What is the nature of job competency of junior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?
		What is the nature of job competency of senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers.	H_{a1} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers.	H_{a1a} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers.
		H_{a1b} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of senior police officers.

Table 1.2 continued

Objectives	Research Questions/Hypotheses	Sub-Research Questions/Hypotheses
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and junior police officers' job competency dimensions including interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork.	H_{a2} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of junior police officers.	-
	H_{a3} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of junior police officers.	-
	H_{a4} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of junior police officers.	-
	H_{a5} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and teamwork of junior police officers.	-
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and senior police officers' job competency dimensions including interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.	H_{a6} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of senior police officers.	-
	H_{a7} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of senior police officers.	-
	H_{a8} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of senior police officers.	-
	H_{a9} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and proactiveness of senior police officers.	-
	H_{a10} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and decision-making skills of senior police officers.	-

Table 1.2 continued

Objectives	Research Questions/Hypotheses	Sub-Research Questions/Hypotheses
	<i>H_a11:</i> There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and planning skills of senior police officers.	-
	<i>H_a12:</i> There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership of senior police officers.	-
To measure the difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a13:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.	-
To measure the difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a14:</i> There is a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.	-
To measure the difference in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service for both junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a15:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age for both junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a15a:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers. <i>H_a15b:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers.
	<i>H_a16:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service for both junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a16a:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers. <i>H_a16b:</i> There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers.

1.5 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study explains the relationship between independent variable and dependent variables (Figure 1.1). The independent variable was emotional intelligence, while the dependent variables were job competency. Emotional intelligence consists of self-emotional appraisal, others' emotional appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion. For junior police officers, job competency comprised (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, (3) problem-solving skills, and (4) teamwork. Whereas for senior police officers, job competency composed of (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, (3) problem-solving skills, (4) proactiveness, (5) decision-making skills, (6) planning skills, and (7) leadership. Besides, the framework also described the difference in emotional intelligence based on age and length of service.

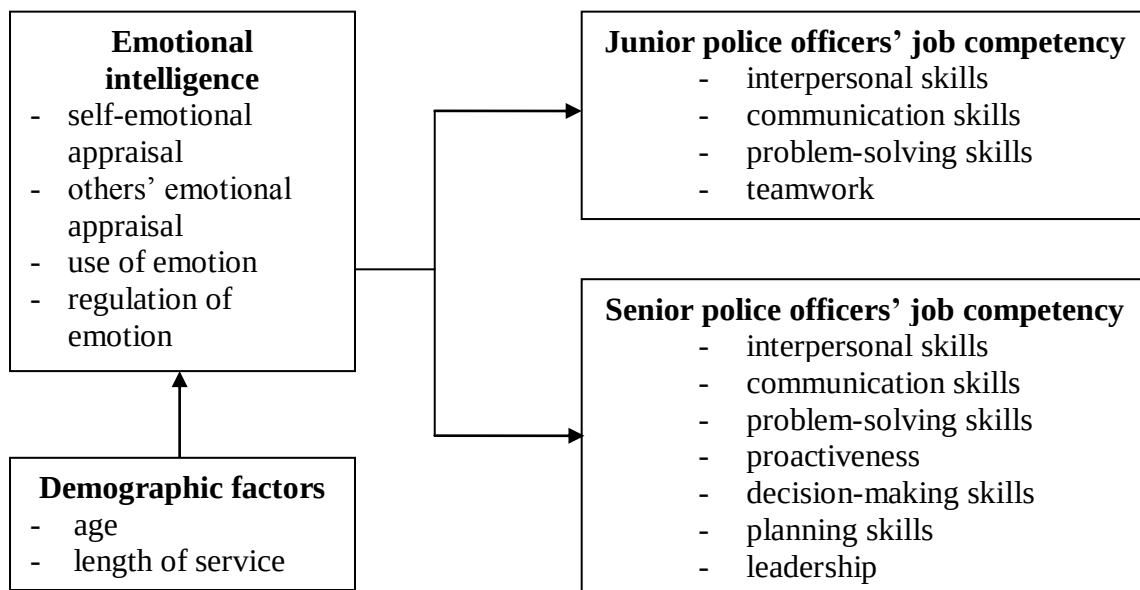


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the study

1.6 Definition of Terms

This section defines the terms used in this study conceptually and operationally.

1.6.1 Emotional Intelligence

Conceptual definition: The term emotional intelligence was coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and is defined as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). Meanwhile, Goleman (1995) explained emotional intelligence as any underlying personal characteristic that is not represented by cognitive intelligence. Similarly, Bar-On (1997) viewed emotional intelligence as non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence an individual’s ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures successfully. In contrast, Petrides and Furnham (2001) defined emotional intelligence as a trait that constellates emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies.

Operational definition: In this study, emotional intelligence is measured by using Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong & Law, 2002). The scale has four constructs: (1) self-emotional appraisal, (2) others’ emotional appraisal, (3) use of emotion, and (4) regulation of emotion.

A. *Self-emotional appraisal*

Conceptual definition: According to Wong and Law (2002), self-emotional appraisal is defined as individuals’ ability to understand their emotions deeply and to express those emotions naturally. Therefore, they could acknowledge their emotions better.

Operational definition: In this study, self-emotional appraisal measures individuals' ability to understand their emotions; understand their feelings; acknowledge their happiness and have a good sense of reason behind having certain feelings more often.

B. Others' emotional appraisal

Conceptual definition: According to Wong and Law (2002), others' emotional appraisal is defined as the ability of an individual to recognise and understand others' emotions, as well as reading their minds. Therefore, an individual tends to be more sensitive and receptive towards others' feelings.

Operational definition: In this study, others' emotional appraisal measures whether an individual has the ability to identify his/her friends' emotions from their pattern of behaviours; good in observing others' emotions; sensitive towards others' feelings and emotions; understand others' emotions well.

C. Use of emotion

Conceptual definition: According to Wong and Law (2002), use of emotion is defined as individuals' ability to make use of their emotions by directing them towards constructive activities and personal performance. Therefore, they could encourage themselves to do better continuously by directing their emotions in more positive and productive way.

Operational definition: In this study, use of emotion measures on an individual's ability to set and achieve goals; being a self-motivated person; always encourage himself/ herself to do their level best and always see himself/ herself as a competent person.

D. Regulation of emotion

Conceptual definition: According to Wong and Law (2002), regulation of emotion is defined as individuals' ability to regulate their emotions that will recover them from psychological distress. Therefore, they could get back to normal psychological states after rejoicing or being upset. Thus, they could control their emotions well and less likely to lose their temper.

Operational definition: In this study, regulation of emotion measures individuals' ability to control their temper and rational in handling difficult situations; have the capability of controlling their emotions; de-escalate their emotions within reasonable timeframe when he/she is very angry; good control over their emotions.

1.6.2 Job Competency

Conceptual definition: Boyatzis (1982) described competency as underlying individual characteristics of an individual related to effective job performance. Meanwhile, Carnevale, Gainer, and Meltzer (1990) defined competency as the accumulation of prerequisite skills for hiring which solely represents the responsibility of the individual worker. Spencer and Spencer (1993) defined competency as "an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation" (p. 9). According to Public Service Department Malaysia, competency is the required knowledge, skills, and personal characteristics of a person to perform a task or duty assigned to them and varies according to job positions (Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004; Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002; Shah & Liew, 2002). The competency in Public Service Department Malaysia is divided into two

categories: (1) generic competency, required for all jobs; (2) functional competency, required for specific jobs.

Operational definition: In this study, job competency is the required job-related skills for junior and senior police officers. The required generic competency for both junior and senior police officers are interpersonal skills, communication skills, and problem-solving skills. Meanwhile, the functional competency measured for junior police officers is teamwork. On the other hand, the functional competency measured for senior police officers are proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.

A. Interpersonal skills

Conceptual definition: Rahman, Uddin, and Rahman (2016) defined interpersonal skills as a tool used by a person to interact with others properly.

Operational definition: In this study, interpersonal skills measure the ability to have a good relationship with departmental staff; ability to deal with public and other agencies (external relationship), and within the police organisation (internal relationship).

B. Communication skills

Conceptual definition: According to Thibault, Lynch, and McBride (1990), communication skills is defined as information sharing between individuals.

Operational definition: In this study, communication skills measure the ability to communicate with colleagues; deliver a speech in public; explain a task to other officers with clarity.

C. Problem-solving skills

Conceptual definition: Problem-solving skills is defined as the ability to recognise and define a problem; invent and implement solutions; track and evaluate results (Carnevale et al., 1990).

Operational definition: In this study, problem-solving skills measure the ability to identify the root cause of a problem; ability to evaluate options to solve a problem; ability to formulate a logical conclusion in solving the problem.

D. Teamwork

Conceptual definition: According to Carnevale et al. (1990), teamwork is co-operation between individuals subordinated to group unity and efficiency.

Operational definition: In this study, teamwork measures the ability to collaborate well with the team members while performing a task; encourages and motivates their team members; forming team identity.

E. Proactiveness

Conceptual definition: According to Bateman and Crant (1993), proactive is the characteristics of a person who is analytic, seeks opportunities to resolve threats, initiative, and persevere until a meaningful change happen.

Operational definition: In this study, proactiveness measures the ability to accept any task positively; have a high desire to try something more diligently; initiate changes in the workplace.

F. Decision-making skills

Conceptual definition: Decision-making is choosing an option between various solutions (Aeppli, Ribaux, & Summerfield, 2011).

Operational definition: In this study, decision-making skills measure the ability to make decisions quickly; explain the rationale about the decision made; make decisions without involving personal interest.

G. Planning skills

Conceptual definition: Planning is the process of developing a method or procedure to achieve the goal (Pea & Kurland, 1984).

Operational definition: In this study, planning skills measure the ability to identify alternative solutions for an issue; find suitable strategies to achieve an organisation's goal; generate a contingency plan to resolve an issue.

H. Leadership

Conceptual definition: According to Carnevale et al. (1990), leadership is a delicately woven image achieved by cultivating the respect of peers and projecting a sense of reliability, goal orientation, and vision. Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) on the other hand, viewed leadership as persuading other people to set aside their individual concerns in order to pursue a common goal for the welfare of a group.

Operational definition: In this study, leadership measures the ability to be empathetic towards the rank and file; guide the subordinates to enhance their performance; advise the rank and file with regards to their jobs and tasks.

1.6.3 Junior Police Officers

Conceptual definition: Junior police officers consist of constables (KONST), lans corporal (L/KPL), corporal (KPL), sergeant (SJN), major sergeant (SM), and sub-inspector (SI); categorised as the supportive group (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002).

Operational definition: In this study, junior police officers are represented by constables to sub-inspectors working in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters and the police stations under Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.

1.6.4 Senior Police Officers

Conceptual definition: Senior police officers includes inspector general (IG), deputy inspector general (DIG), commissioners of police (CP), deputy commissioners of police (DCP), senior assistant commissioner of police (SAC), assistant commissioner of police (ACP), superintendent of police (SUPT), deputy superintendent of police (DSP), assistant superintendent of police (ASP), inspector (INSP), and probationary inspector (P/I)(Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002). The senior police officers are categorised under higher management group or professional and management group.

Operational definition: In this study, senior police officers are represented by deputy superintendent of police (DSP), assistant superintendent of police (ASP), inspector (INSP), and probationary inspector (P/I) working in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters. These officers are categorised under the professional and management group.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study is expected to strengthen the recruitment process in the Royal Malaysia Police. Since emotional intelligence is reported to be crucial to higher job competency

among the police officers, incorporating emotional intelligence as one of the hiring criteria would be significant in empowering job competency and organisational capacity of the police.

The findings of this study may also provide an important insight in designing emotional intelligence training methodology for the police force. With adaptive emotional intelligence skills, police officers will be able to cope with the adverse effect of stress and develop their subjective well-being. This would significantly increase their job satisfaction, job commitment, and job performance.

Specifically, the findings of this study would be helpful for the police department to understand the current state of police officers' emotional intelligence and job competency. The findings of the study would be a cornerstone, a fundamental basis, especially to psychology officers working in police departments on the importance of cultivating emotional intelligence among police particularly the aspect of emotional intelligence, which is lacking. Police should be trained and encouraged to express and manage their emotions rather than suppressing their emotions.

Interestingly, this study also expected to find the difference in emotional intelligence for both junior and senior police officers by age and length of service. The founders of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey (1997) argued that emotional intelligence would increase with age or experience. However, results of previous findings were inconsistent. Therefore, this study might contribute to discovering the difference in emotional intelligence based on age and length of services according to Malaysian police

culture. Additionally, this study could provide some insight to differentiate emotional intelligence components from competency elements by proving that emotional intelligence is related to competency however, it is not a competency itself as proposed by Goleman's and Bar-On's models of emotional intelligence.

Additionally, as this study treated junior and senior police officers separately, the actual nature of their emotional intelligence could be discovered. Usually, in previous studies, junior police officers' sample size will always dominate senior police officers' sample size. Therefore, in previous studies, the variance in junior and senior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was not discovered wholesomely.

This study also will contribute to the validity and reliability of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version, especially in police sector. This finding might add to the credibility of using Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version in Malaysia's context. In fact, future researchers who intend to study on the reliability and validity of this instrument are encouraged to look up these findings as a reference too.

Finally yet importantly, this study contributes to a limited corpus of literature on emotional intelligence and job competency in Malaysian police. Previous studies on emotional intelligence in Malaysian police workforce focused on job stress, job satisfaction, job commitment, and work-life balance. Previous studies on police job competency focused on competency level, differences in competency by demographic factors, and the relationship between competency and crime prevention. The findings of this study would, therefore, provide empirical evidence on the symbiotic relationship

between emotional intelligence and job competency. Hopefully, this study will be an impetus for other similar and related researches to be conducted in Malaysia.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study focuses on police workforce in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, Selangor as the crime rate in Selangor is the highest as compared to other states in Malaysia. All the eight police stations and departments under Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters were privy to this study. The study does not involve police personnel outside Petaling Jaya.

The study also was focused on junior and senior police officers only. Junior police officers are those ranked from constable to sub-inspector, whereas senior police officers are those ranked from probationary inspector to deputy superintendent of police.

This study utilised emotional intelligence measures validated by Wong and Law (2002). The instrument measures self-emotional appraisal, others' emotional appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion.

In this study, only soft job competency was measured. Junior police officers' job competency measured in this study were interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork. Senior police officers' job competency measured in this study were interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.

1.9 Limitation of the Study

This study utilised self-administered instruments. Therefore, the findings of this study can only rely on the honesty, sincerity, and truthfulness of the respondents.

Since this study employed quantitative method, we may infer that the findings are extrapolative to all police personnel in Malaysia, across departments. However, as the limitation of the quantitative method of data collection, in-depth information for a better understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency could not be gathered nor collated.

1.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter gave brief information to the readers concerning the study. The background of the study and organisation, problem statement, research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, conceptual framework, definition of terms, significance, scope, and limitation of the study were described.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, theories, models, and past researches on emotional intelligence and job competency are elaborated.

2.2 Theories of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is all about identifying, understanding, and managing one's own and others' emotions. Although, early work on emotional intelligence began in 1920 (Thorndike, 1920), followed by Gardner (1983), the term “emotional intelligence” was coined by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004) and brought into vogue by Goleman (1995) with an underlying concept that emotional intelligence is crucial for career success and can be learned.

Thorndike (1920) did the early work on emotional intelligence by viewing intelligence from a different dimension known as “social intelligence”. Thorndike defined social intelligence as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls-to act wisely in human relations” (p. 228). In other words, social intelligence is about understanding and managing others.

Then, Gardner (1983) proposed multiple theory of intelligence by defining intelligence as “the ability to solve a problem” (p. 25). In his multiple intelligence theory, intelligence was divided into eight aspects including intrapersonal and interpersonal

intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is about introspecting, while interpersonal intelligence is about understanding others. Both intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence serves as a foundation for the development of emotional intelligence concept by Salovey and Mayer (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

In 1990, Salovey and Mayer expounded the term “emotional intelligence” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Zeidner et al., 2004). The psychologist in the eighteenth century divided mind into three major components namely cognitive, affective, and motivation components. The term “emotion” indicates affective component while “intelligence” indicates cognitive component. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence is a person’s capability to perceive, express, understand, use, and manage emotions in oneself (personal intelligence) and in others’ (social intelligence) which lead to adaptive behaviour. In other words, emotional intelligence is the ability to understand and regulate emotions, in this context, Bandura’s self-efficacy theory proposed that, belief held by an individual is the foundation in presenting certain ability or skills effectively (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, if individuals believe that they have the ability to understand and regulate emotions, they will exhibit higher emotional intelligence.

Although emotional intelligence was developed by Salovey and Mayer in 1990, it reached its fame in 1995 as Howard Goleman published a book on emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Since then, emotional intelligence was widely known and practised in the workplace as Goleman (1995) professed that 80% of success at work is determined by emotional intelligence and only 20% by ordinary intelligence.

Interestingly, emotional intelligence is acquired by learning adaptive emotional skills and increases by time (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). According to incremental theory, effort is compulsory in creating, developing, and applying ability (Dweck, Chui, & Hong, 1995). Therefore, as emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence (ability), it can be enhanced by training and learning.

2.3 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Literatures have shown that the models of emotional intelligence have been categorised into three models known as (1) ability model, (2) mixed model, and (3) trait model. Goleman, Bar-On, and Petrides categorised emotional intelligence as a non-cognitive except Salovey and Mayer, the pioneer of emotional intelligence. Generally, the existing models have described emotional intelligence as personal intelligence (understanding, managing, and utilising emotion in oneself) and social intelligence (understanding and managing emotion in others).

Variation in definitions of emotional intelligence proposed by major theorists contributed to the development of various emotional intelligence models. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). Goleman (1995) on the other hand explained that emotional intelligence is any underlying personal characteristic that is not represented by cognitive intelligence. However, Bar-On viewed emotional intelligence as non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence an individual’s ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures successfully (Bar-On, 1997). By contrast, Petrides and Furnham

(2001) defined emotional intelligence as a trait and it is a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies. These various definitions of emotional intelligence have contributed to the development of three emotional intelligence models: (1) ability model, (2) mixed model, and (3) trait model.

Generally, the existing models have categorised emotional intelligence as personal intelligence and social intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1990) explained emotional intelligence as understanding and managing one's own (personal) and other's emotions (social). Similarly, Bar-On's mixed model of emotional intelligence included intrapersonal (personal) and interpersonal (social) dimensions (Bar-On, 1997). On the other hand, Goleman's (2001) refined mixed model also focused on personal intelligence (self-awareness and self-management) and social intelligence (social-awareness and relationship management). Likewise, Petrides and Furnham (2003) agreed that emotional intelligence construct is all about processing affect-stacked information intrapersonally (personal) and interpersonally (social). Therefore, it can be concluded that emotional intelligence revolves within personal intelligence and social intelligence, and the initial model proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) is already saturated.

2.3.1 Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence: Mayer and Salovey (1997)

Ability model was used in this study. Ability model of emotional intelligence is made up of four sets of emotion processing mental abilities, which arranged in order from very basic to higher-level ability. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model comprised ability namely (1) perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion, (2) emotional facilitation of thinking, (3) understanding and analysing emotions, and (4) reflective regulation of

emotions. Each group of ability has four levels that ranged from the very basic level to the highest advanced level.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) described perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion dimension as the ability to identify and differentiate emotion in oneself and in others. The process of perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion starts with ability to identify one's own emotions via body arousal, inner feelings, and thoughts. Subsequently, as the individuals mastered in generalising emotions based on their self-experience, the ability to identify others' emotion by observing surrounding cues develops. Following that, an individual could express feelings coherently to the surrounding cues. Finally, an individual can differentiate between accurate and inaccurate expressions of feelings, as well as recognise or ascertain between honest and dishonest expressions of feelings.

Another dimension of emotional intelligence in ability model is emotional facilitation of thinking dimension (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional facilitation of thinking dimension is described as the ability to use emotion in facilitating the thinking processes such as reasoning, problem-solving, and interpersonal communication. At the basic level, an individual will use emotions to prioritise thinking by focusing on important information in his/her surrounding environment. Eventually, an individual can generate vivid emotions to aid judgments and memory process. An individual will feel, manipulate, and examine the generated emotion deeply to plan or make a decision. Once then, an individual can think from various perspectives by utilising his/her emotional mood swing. Specifically, bad mood leads to pessimistic thoughts while good mood leads to optimistic

thoughts. As the mood swings, thinking style will shift too. Hence, emotionally intelligent persons tend to be more flexible while constructing a plan as they use emotional mood swing ability (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The highest level in emotional facilitation of thinking dimension is the ability to recognise reasoning induced by the emotions. Happiness (positive emotional state) facilitates creative and inductive reasoning, while sadness (negative emotional state) facilitates deductive reasoning.

The third dimension, understanding and analysing emotions, explains an individual's ability to classify emotions and understand meanings implied by those emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Labelling emotions and recognising similarities and differences between the emotions labelled is fundamental for understanding emotions. For instance, joy is an emotion of great delight or happiness meanwhile, sadness is an aversion emotion that makes us want to cry and withdraw ourselves from the surroundings (Reeve, 2009). Succeeding that level, leads to the ability to interpret the emotion and its origin, like sadness accompanied loss; happiness accompanied gain. Once then, the person can understand the complex feelings or blended feelings at a time, such as simultaneous feelings of love and hate. Finally, an individual mastered in understanding and analysing emotions, able to recognise transitions between emotions. For example, anger can be a shame or satisfaction based on the circumstances of a situation.

The last dimension, reflective regulation of emotions dimension is the ability to prevent, reduce, enhance, or modify our own and others' emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This encourages cognitive and emotional growth of an individual. In fact, good regulation of emotion, facilitate thinking processes to plan. Basically, individuals with a

good reflective regulation of emotions tend to accept both pleasant and unpleasant feelings. Eventually, they learn to engage or detach from emotion based on its utility. Subsequently, the individual could monitor and reflect one's own and others' emotions. Finally, the individual will become proficient in managing his/her emotions by enhancing pleasant emotions and moderating unpleasant emotions.

To summarise, the ability model is the most influential model as it purely uses cognitive ability in processing emotions and scientifically proven. Furthermore, Mayer and Salovey (1997) argued that emotional intelligence is an ability and not a trait (consistent behaviour over time) as it increases by age and training (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Additionally, Cherniss (2010) stated that ability model is the best model of emotional intelligence as it follows the common definition of emotional intelligence, "managing emotions in oneself and in others" which also agreed by other major theorists including Petrides, Goleman, and Bar-On. In this perceptive, O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, and Story (2011) agreed that instruments based on ability model are the best as it has the capability to differentiate emotional intelligence from related variables such as personality and other competencies. Therefore, in this study, the ability model and instrument developed based on ability model was used to describe the phenomena as it emphasises the pure form of emotional intelligence excluding trait. Figure 2.1 shows Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability model.

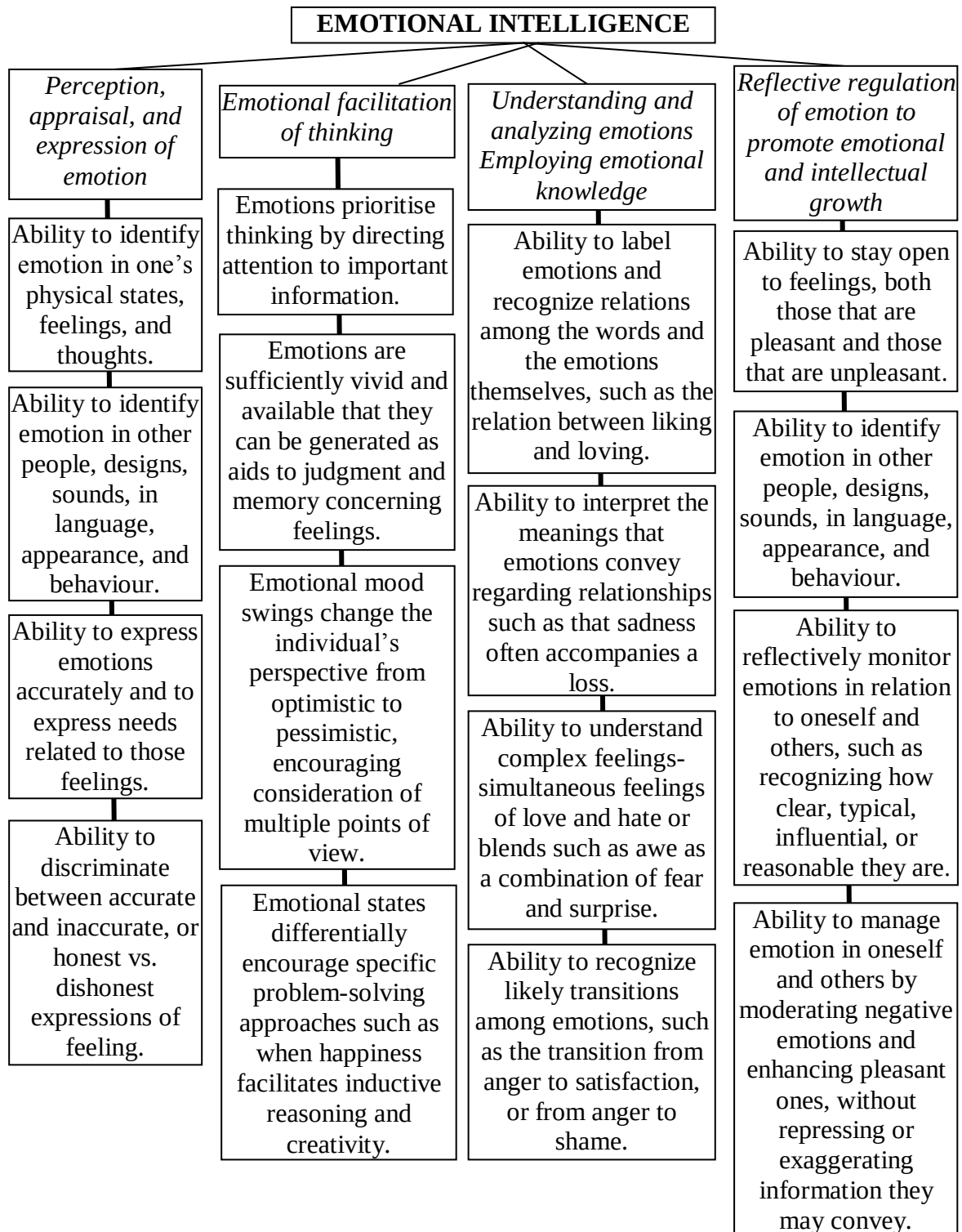


Figure 2.1: Ability model of emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey
(Source: adapted from Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 11)

2.3.2 Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Mixed model of emotional intelligence enjoys the goodness of both competency (ability) and general disposition (trait). There are two big mixed models of emotional intelligence proposed by Bar-On (Bar-On, 1997) and Goleman (2001) respectively. Basically, Bar-On's mixed model is more theoretical, meanwhile, Goleman's mixed model is more practical.

2.3.2.1 Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence: Bar-On (1997)

Emotional intelligence is viewed as non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1997). The original model has five dimensions with 15 components. Intrapersonal skills comprise self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-actualisation, and independence, while interpersonal skills consist of empathy, interpersonal relationship, and social responsibility were described in the first and second dimensions, respectively. This is then followed by adaptability dimension that includes problem-solving, flexibility, and reality testing. The fourth dimension is stress management comprises stress tolerance and impulse control. In the last dimension, general mood such as happiness and optimism were explained. In 2000, Bar-On (2000) refined his original model by re-categorising the components into constituent components (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, interpersonal relationship, problem-solving, flexibility, reality testing, stress tolerance; impulse control) and facilitators (self-actualisation, independence, social responsibility, optimism; happiness). Figure 2.2 shows the original Bar-On's mixed model of emotional intelligence with five main dimensions and its components.

Intrapersonal • Self-regard • Emotional self-awareness • Assertiveness • Self-actualisation • Independence		Interpersonal • Empathy • Social responsibility • Interpersonal relationships	
Adaptability • Problem-solving • Flexibility • Reality testing	Stress Management • Stress tolerance • Impulse control	General Mood • Happiness • Optimism	

Figure 2.2: Components in Bar-On's mixed model of emotional intelligence

2.3.2.2 Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence: Goleman (1998)

Goleman (1995) explained that emotional intelligence is any underlying personal characteristic that is not represented by cognitive intelligence. The initial model comprised five dimensions with twenty-five emotional intelligence competencies (Goleman, 1998). First dimension is self-awareness whereby an individual is able to recognise his/her emotions, strengths, weaknesses, goals, motivations, and impact of their emotions on others. Second dimension is self-regulation that includes recognising, control, and redirects their negative emotions into more productive or positive purpose. Third dimension is social skills, which include managing relationships with others and directing others. Fourth dimension is empathy: considers others' feeling when making decisions. Last dimension is the motivation, the urge or drive for achievement. Later in 2001, Goleman refined his model into four dimensions with twenty emotional intelligence competencies based on the work by Boyatzis and Rhee (Goleman, 2001). The dimensions in the refined model are self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness, and relationship management. Figure 2.3 shows the refined mixed model of emotional intelligence that integrates an individual's ability and personality by Daniel Goleman (Goleman, 2001).

	Self (Personal Competence)	Other (Social Competence)
Recognition	Self-Awareness • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	Social Awareness • Empathy • Service orientation • Organisational awareness
Regulation	Self-Management • Emotional self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative	Relationship Management • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Visionary leadership • Catalysing change • Building bonds • Teamwork and collaboration

Figure 2.3: Refined framework of Goleman’s mixed model of emotional intelligence
(Source: adapted from Goleman, 2001)

To summarise, both Goleman’s (1995) and Bar-On’s (1997) mixed model of emotional intelligence assimilates the goodness of both competency (ability) and general disposition (trait). The idea of mixed model is actually broad-based and good. However, the problem with mixed model is the construct, as it is redundant with personality traits. It can be said that, the mixed model is not purely measuring emotional intelligence, as it focused more on adaptive functioning such as social skills, coping with stress, motivation which less likely to be categorised as either emotion or intelligence. In addition, Goleman’s (1995) model includes imprecise terms used in practice, which is hard to appraise scientifically (Petrides, 2010). On the other hand, various definitions of emotional intelligence have contributed to the development of various models. In this aspect, Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as non-cognitive capabilities, however in his model he included problem-solving skills which is widely known as cognitive ability. In other words, the component in the Bar-On model is ambiguous. Cherniss (2010) also agreed that Bar-On’s and Goleman’s models included wider concepts (ability and trait) which are

contrary to the widely accepted definition of emotional intelligence by Salovey and Mayer. Therefore, these models do not qualify as true, exemplary models.

Additionally, the founder of emotional intelligence Mayer and Salovey (1997) claimed that emotional intelligence is the cognitive ability to process emotions and assigned the ability in a sequence from basic to higher level. However, in mixed models, emotional intelligence components are not arranged sequentially. Moreover, Bar-On's emotional intelligence measure, Bar-On's Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) showed low discriminant validity with personality measures. Webb et al.'s (2013) study found that two-thirds (62%) of the variance in Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory scores was accounted by Big Five personality traits and emotional well-being (adaptive functioning). This shows that the components are having high degree of overlapping with personality traits and adaptive functioning. Therefore, using mixed model concept to evaluate emotional intelligence is incongruous and inept. Hence, it was ruled out.

2.3.3 Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence: Petrides (2009)

Petrides and Furnham (2001) explained that emotional intelligence is entwined to self-perceived ability and tendency to behave. Therefore, personality dimension should be used to measure emotional intelligence and proposed the idea of Trait emotional intelligence (or trait emotional self-efficacy). Trait emotional intelligence composed of fifteen emotion-related facets scattered across personality dimensions and clustered under four factors namely, well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (Petrides, 2009). Well-being is related to better adaptation. Self-control is controlling urges and desires. Emotionality indicates perception and expression of emotions to establish and maintain a

relationship. Lastly, sociability is related to social relationships and social influence. Meanwhile, adaptability and self-motivation facets directly feed global trait emotional intelligence. Figure 2.4 shows trait emotional intelligence model of Petrides (2009).

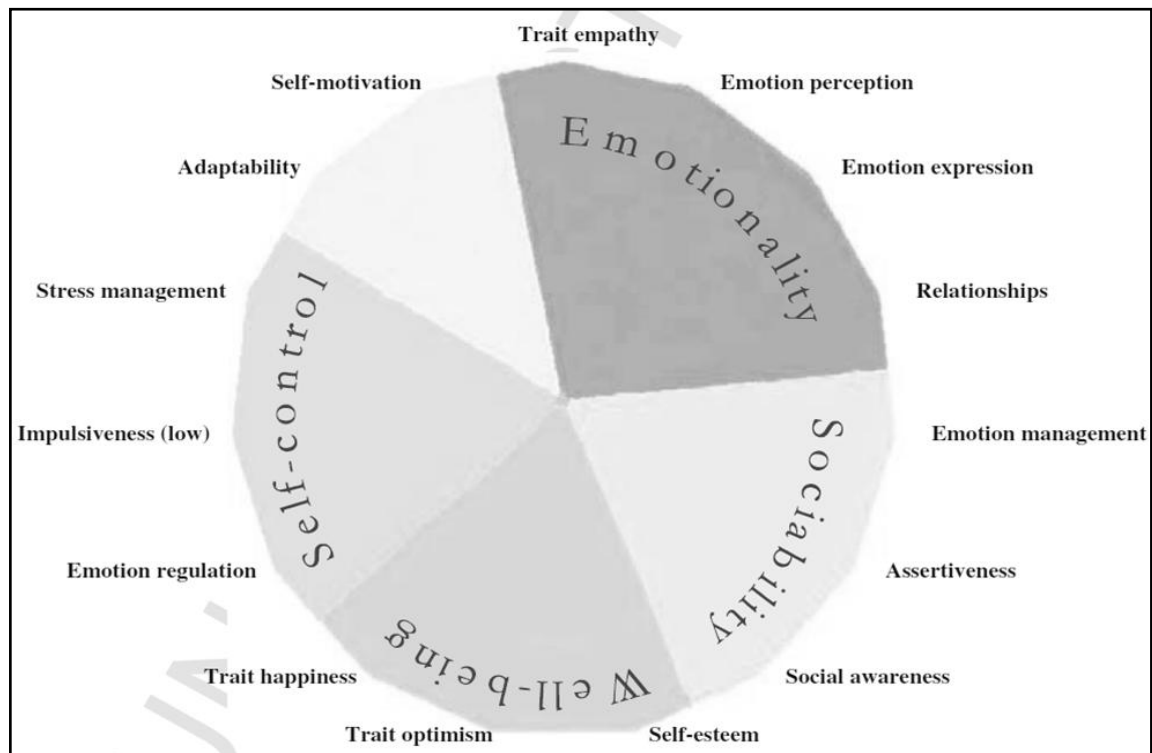


Figure 2.4: Trait model of emotional intelligence by Petrides
(Source: adapted from Petrides, 2009)

To summarise, studies have been proven that trait emotional intelligence is overlapping, even similar to general personality factor (Van et al., 2017), although Petrides and Furnham (2001) stated that trait emotional intelligence is located at the lower levels of personality. To add on, trait emotional intelligence seems to be reframing emotional intelligence into the mainstream of known Big Five personality theories. Petrides (2009, 2010) argued that emotional intelligence is a trait and not intelligence, which actually does not make sense. Intelligence as an ability to solve problems (Gardner, 1983), similarly,

emotional intelligence is the ability to identify, understand, and relate emotions to solve problems which involve information processing and memory (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). Moreover, according to Horn and Cattell (1966), intelligence can be fluid (reasoning; problem-solving) or crystallised (knowledge; experience). With this aspect, fluid emotional intelligence is based on processing emotion-information meanwhile, the crystallised emotional intelligence is based on knowledge and experience (Ortony, Revelle, & Zinbarg, 2007). Additionally, Carroll (1993) stated that, in order to consider a proposed intelligence as a new domain of cognitive intelligence, it should show positive associations with the existing intelligence factors; concurrently not highly overlapped with existing intelligence. In this aspect, a study by Schulte, Ree, and Carretta (2004) proved that emotional intelligence is a new kind of intelligence as it moderately correlated to general intelligence (g) and the impact of general intelligence on emotional intelligence was predicted by both personality and gender. Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, and Weissberg (2006) also agreed that emotional intelligence is different from both intelligence quotient (IQ) and personality. Therefore, it clearly shows that emotional intelligence is an intelligence and not to be clustered as personality.

Furthermore, intelligence increases with age (Horn & Cattell, 1966; Mayer et al., 2000). In contrast, personality trait is inborn characteristic, which persists over time and situation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Morris & Maisto, 2002). In fact, studies on emotional intelligence agreed that emotional intelligence increases with age (Goleman, 1995; Lokesh et al., 2016; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Therefore, emotional intelligence should not be measured as a trait. To apply this model, it is contentious that emotional intelligence is

intelligence. Hence, using this concept to evaluate emotional intelligence is incongruous and unsuitable.

In a nutshell, in this study ability model which composed of (1) perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, (2) emotional facilitation of thinking, (3) understanding and analysing emotions, and (4) reflective regulation of emotions was used to elaborate emotional intelligence phenomena.

2.4 Theories of Job Competency

Literature largely agreed that components of job competency revolve around knowledge, ability, prerequisite skills suitable for the job as well as personal characteristics that contribute to superior job performance. Competence person has the ability to master his/her skills through learning or training and motive drives an individual to master certain competency. The early work on competency was done by David McClelland (McClelland, 1973), followed by Boyatzis (1982), and refined by Spencer and Spencer (1993).

In early 1970s, David McClelland, a professor from Harvard University proposed that competency assessment is more important than traditional intelligence assessment (based on higher education) in determining job performance (McClelland, 1973). Subsequently, his idea of assessing competency was absorbed into many fields such as vocational education, business management, and human resource management (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Boyatzis (1982) described competency as underlying characteristics of an individual that is related to effective job performance. Carnevale et al. (1990) proposed that competency comprises prerequisite skills, for hiring purposes and accumulation of such skills are the responsibility of the individual worker. Likewise, Spencer and Spencer (1993) defined competency as “an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation” (p. 9). Similarly, Mirabile (1997) defined competency as a mixture of knowledge, skills, abilities, and/or characteristics associated with high performance on a job. Public Service Department Malaysia defined competency as the required knowledge, skills, and personal characteristics of a person to perform a task or duty assigned to them and varies according to job positions (Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004; Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002; Shah & Liew, 2002).

In relation to that, Spencer and Spencer (1993) argued that superior performance is the manifestation of underlying soft skills. Therefore, if an employee mastered the skills required for a particular job, he will be an outstanding performer. According to Bandura’s self-efficacy theory, if a person believes that he has the ability or skills; he will perform well (Bandura, 1977). Similarly, if a police officer believes that he has certain skills to execute the job effectively, he will carry out his duty effectively. Besides, motive is one of the underlying of competency that drives us to achieve a goal (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). According to Three Needs Theory proposed by David McClelland, motive is boosted by the needs for achievement, power, and affiliation (McClelland, 1961; Reeve, 2009). Those with a high need for power would try to influence others and tend to have competency like leadership skills; person with a high need for achievement tend to be success-oriented and

have tasks related competency including problem-solving skills; meanwhile those with a high need for affiliation focused on relationship and tend to have competency like interpersonal skills. In other words, motive drives a person to acquire such competencies or skills.

Interestingly, competency (ability) is acquired through learning and can be developed (Boyatzis, 2008; Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In fact, Dweck's incremental theory proposed that ability can be enhanced by effort (Dweck et al., 1995). Spencer and Spencer (1993) explained competency-learning process by Bandura's Social Learning theory, which proposed that behaviour is learned by modelling. Competencies such as communication and interpersonal skills can be learned by observing others directly or through media. In this sense, managers have to show good behaviours, in order for the subordinates to model their behaviour. This will lead to an effective organisation. Furthermore, competency is also determined by educational level, as past studies have been proven that police officers with a college degree exhibit higher interpersonal, communication, and problem-solving skills as these skills are brushed up during college education (White & Escobar, 2008).

2.5 Model of Competency

Generally, competency model is developed by identifying and analysing required knowledge, skills, ability, and key characteristics of people that contribute to superior job performance. Boyatzis's (1982) integrated model of management competencies included several skills required for a manager. Similarly, competency model developed by Spencer and Spencer (1993) and Public Service Department Malaysia (2002) included skills

competency. Furthermore, Haron (2006) proposed a competency framework for Malaysian police officers, which comprises several required skills for better performance. To sum up, all the models or framework primarily focused on skills competency as skills are visible competency and can be enhanced by training.

2.5.1 Integrated Model of Management Competencies: Boyatzis (1982)

Competencies in manager are crucial, as managers are the pillars of organisation sustainability and success as they hold higher responsibility, power in order to achieve the goal of an organisation by managing, directing, and leading their subordinates and employees.

Boyatzis (1982) derived six clusters of management competencies namely goal and action management, human resource management, leadership, directing subordinate, focus on others, and specialised knowledge. Each cluster composed of several competencies. Goal and action management cluster composed of efficiency orientation, diagnostic use of concepts, proactivity, and concern with impact, whereas human resources management cluster comprised use of socialised power, managing group process, positive regard, and accurate self-assessment. Competencies in leadership cluster are self-confidence, the use of oral presentation, conceptualisation, and logical thought. Meanwhile, directing subordinates included competencies like spontaneity, developing others, and use of unilateral power. Lastly, focus on others cluster made up of perceptual objectivity, stamina, adaptability, and self-control. Boyatzis concluded that an effective manager should possess all the competencies. However, some of the competencies may not be related to certain

management jobs. Figure 2.5 illustrates the integrated model of management competencies at skill level (Boyatzis, 1982).

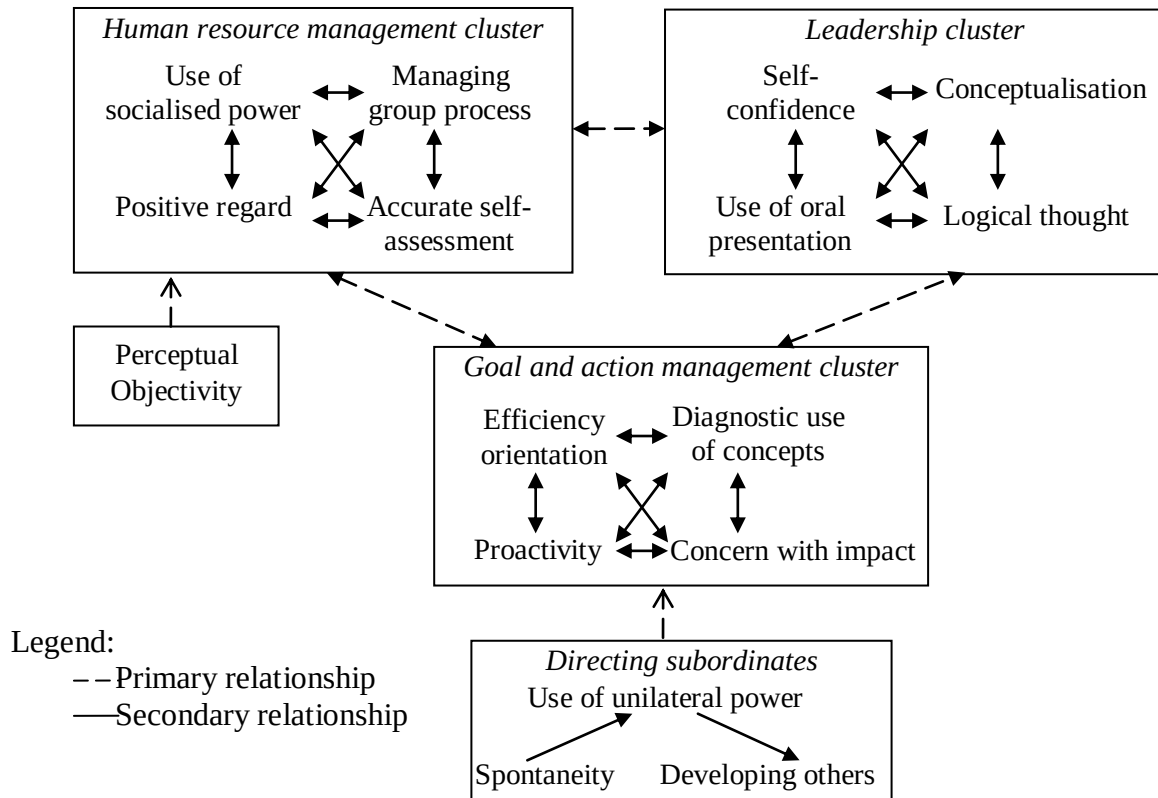


Figure 2.5: Integrated model of management competencies by Boyatzis
(Source: adapted from Boyatzis, 1982, p. 194)

2.5.2 Iceberg Competency Model: Spencer and Spencer (1993)

Competencies could be technical competencies (knowledge and skills, which can be enhanced by training) and behavioural competencies (trait, value, and motive, which enhanced intrinsically).

Spencer and Spencer (1993), classify the clusters of competency in an iceberg model. An iceberg itself metaphorically shows that some competencies are clearly seen,

whereas others are hidden. Knowledge and skills competencies are more visible, basic, and enhanced by training. Knowledge is the information regarding a specific field. Skill is the ability to perform physical and mental tasks. In contrast, self-concept, traits, and motive competencies are hidden, inner, and deeper, thus cannot be enhanced by training and the individual has to cultivate them intrinsically. Motives are known as a drive that directs an individual's behaviour and stimulates actions in order to attain a goal. Trait is the physical characteristics that encourage an individual to respond to a situation or information. Self-concept is an individual's personal values and attitudes. In fact, knowledge and skills are technical competencies that are required for a job, whereas self-concept, traits, and motive are behavioural competencies that determine an individual's performance. Job competency can be any of the five competencies; motive, trait, skill, self-concept, and knowledge that enable an individual to perform a task or activity within a specific function or job. Figure 2.6 illustrates the competency model of Spencer and Spencer (1993).

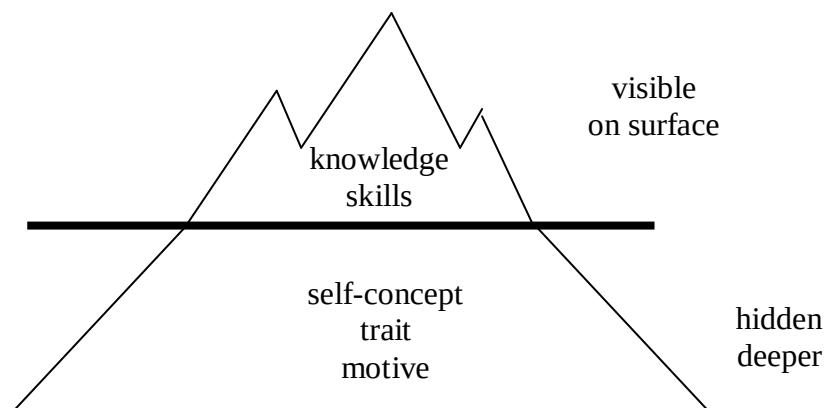


Figure 2.6: Iceberg model of competencies by Spencer and Spencer
(Source: Spencer and Spencer, 1993, p. 11)

2.5.3 Competency Model of Public Service Department Malaysia (2002)

In 2002, Malaysian Public Service Department started to implement competency-based human resource practices in order to enhance public service quality as more complaints were reported to Public Complaint Bureau (Azmi, 2010; Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004). The competency model used in Malaysian Public Service Department is adapted from Spencer and Spencer's (1993) iceberg competency model and has included self-image and social roles in attitude competency.

The competency-based human resource practices range from recruitment and selection, career development, performance management, reward, and training and development (Shah & Liew, 2002). The competency-based recruitment and selection is used to screen competent candidates from a large group of applicants expeditiously and efficiently in the hope to reduce the turnover rate. The competency-based career development practice aims to promote the staff once they attained the level of competencies required. The competency-based performance management is to keep track and gradually increase the staff' performance by using Annual Work Performance Report, which is evaluated by the managers. The competency-based reward is to give monetary and non-monetary rewards to the employees who demonstrated high level of competency and outstanding performance. The competency-based training and development aims to enhance staff' skills and knowledge to targeted levels of job profile in order to tune them into effective performers in meeting the organisation's needs. In Royal Malaysia Police, the junior police officers have to complete competency courses of up to the fourth level while, the senior police officers up to the sixth level (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002).

Competency model of Public Service Department Malaysia comprised key elements of skills, knowledge, and attitude (Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004; Shah & Liew, 2002). This competency model has been integrated with Human Resource Management Information system (HRMIS) in order to implement competency-based human resource practices. Skills competency is the ability to perform a given task physically and mentally. Skills competency is manageable, efficient, easy to discover, develop, and measure. The skills competency is divided into two categories: (1) generic competency, which is required for all job positions, and (2) functional competency, which is required for a specified job position. Knowledge competency represents the information an individual has in his respective field. Besides, attitude competency included values, social roles, motive, self-image, and trait. Values are an individual's beliefs, whereas social roles are the images shown by an individual to others. Motive is a drive for continuous development. Self-image is how individuals view themselves internally. Trait is the characteristics that persist over time. Attitude competency is cumbersome, complex, and pose a challenge to discover and develop. However, it is the underlying principle that distinguishes outstanding and average performer. Figure 2.7 illustrates the competency model of Public Service Department Malaysia.

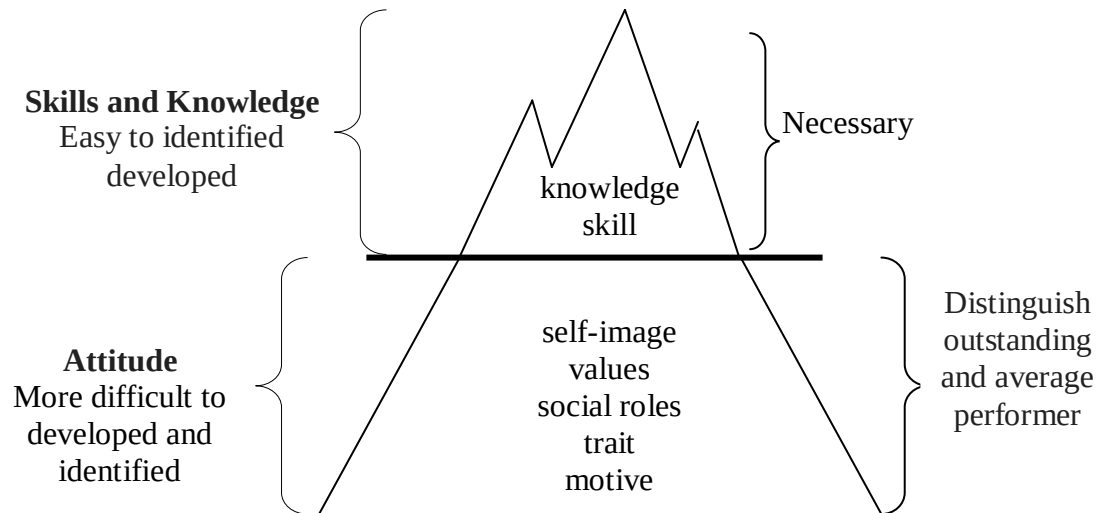


Figure 2.7: Iceberg model of Public Service Department Malaysia
(Source: HayGroup Sdn. Bhd adapted from Baharuddin and Hashim, 2004)

2.5.4 Competency Framework for Malaysian Police Officers (Haron, 2006)

Competency framework proposed by Haron (2006) was used in this study. Haron adapted integrated model of management competencies by Boyatzis (1982) and further validated it with Royal Malaysia Police. Figure 2.8 shows the skills competency identified by Haron (2006) for senior police officers.

Competency		
• Problem-solving skills • Interpersonal skills • Communication skills • Using power skills	• Teamwork • Proactiveness • Leadership • Thinking skills	• Decision-making skills • Planning skills • Organisation skills • Motivating skills

Figure 2.8: Police officers' competency
(Source: adapted from Haron, 2006)

In this study, only the soft skills competency is measured, as they are evident, recognisable, observable, quantifiable, and computable (Baharuddin & Hashim, 2004). Job

competency criteria were adapted from Haron's (2006) proposed competency framework with a further discussion with Royal Malaysia Police management department, and supported by job description listed in the Public Service Department Malaysia (2009). The generic competency measured in all the participated police officers were (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, and (3) problem-solving skills. For functional competency, (1) teamwork was analysed in junior police officers, while in senior police officers, functional competency such as (1) proactiveness, (2) decision-making skills, (3) planning skills, and (4) leadership were measured.

A. Police officers' generic competency

The generic competency measured for all the police officers are interpersonal skills, communication skills, and problem-solving skills.

a. Interpersonal skills

Interpersonal skills is crucial in police officers in order to maintain a good relationship within their organisation and also with public at large, as Malaysia is moving towards a focussed community policing. Some organisational activities and good self-reflection foster interpersonal skills in oneself.

Rahman et al. (2016) defined interpersonal skills as a tool used by a person to interact with others properly. The managers' interpersonal skill creates a sense of belonging in their down-lines, which will indirectly lead to effective functional organisation and serves as a key for a project succession (Rahman et al., 2016; Strohmeier, 1992). It is crucial for senior police officers to have good interpersonal skills as they serve as head of the department, project, or

investigations, and hold the responsibility to manage their down-lines in order to achieve the departmental goals (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Meisler (2014) also agreed that political skills, an aspect of interpersonal relationship is vital in managing others by building networking ability and apparent sincerity in order to accomplish personal or organisational goals. Interpersonal skills is the key to maintain good relations internally within police organisations (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009).

Interpersonal skills in a police officer is the key to build good relationships with the public that composed of diverse community from youth to elderly, victims to offenders, and also with the most powerful media members culturally, racially, and socioeconomically (Miller & Hess, 1994). Police officers ought to maintain good relationship externally with the public and other agencies (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Malaysia is focusing on community policing which emphasises on good cooperation and collaboration between the police and members of the public in reducing crime rate (Sulaiman, Othman, Hamsan, Samah, & D'Silva, 2012). Perception of Crime Indicator (PCI) among public is high even though the actual number of crime rates has decreased (PEMANDU, 2016). Omnipresence Programmes like “Stop and Talk” and “Meet and Greet” were launched to foster the relationship between police and public, as well as to reduce the perception of crime among public. In actual fact, such organisational activities or programmes serve as a platform to enhance interpersonal skills in staff (Strohmeier, 1992). Moreover, individuals with higher interpersonal skills are good at expressing social skills (Strohmeier,

1992). Additionally, good self-reflection induces happy feeling in oneself, which, in turn, fosters interpersonal relationship (Takano, Sakamoto, & Tanno, 2011).

b. Communication skills

Generally, communication skills is a prerequisite skill for all workers in an organisation, especially if an organisation involves more interdependent tasks such as police, in order to share or transfer the information flawlessly within the chain of command by adapting good manner and mood while communicating.

Ainsworth (2002) stated that communication skills is paramount in policing and police officers need to master a variety of communication strategies to fulfil the demands of multifarious situations they encounter. Communication aspects in policing cover both delivering details (instructions or produce evidence in court) and collecting evidence (interrogating witnesses and suspects). In Royal Malaysia Police, every police officer is required to attend local meetings and serves as school liaison officers (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Thus, police officers should be able to convey their message across to the public with precise subtlety as and when there is a need to do so. Junior police officers are responsible to gather information and report back to senior police officers. Senior police officers on the other hand, have to give instructions and update the collected information to the High Management Group of senior police officers. This shows that police work structure is interdependent, thus information sharing is crucial, and police officers have to exchange information

with one another, most of the times across departments/agencies. In fact, police organisation follows chain of command characterised by hierarchy of authority (Brandl, 2017). Every police officer will have a supervisor, and the supervisor holds high level of authority. Consequently, a formal communication that follows a specific communication channel from subordinate to supervisor is practiced and observed. Interestingly, the manner by which a police officer communicates will affect the judgments and feelings of the receiver (Gudjonsson, 2003). Additionally, general mood gives impact to communication effectiveness (Jorfi, Jorfi, Yaccob, & Nor, 2014). In short, communication skills is the key for an organisation's performance and progress, that has to be mastered by both managers and down-lines as good communication skills cultivate a good understanding between the sender and receiver.

c. Problem-solving skills

Basically, police job is all about solving problem step-by-step following set of standard written rules as they always encounter well-structured problems compared to ill-structured problems.

Problem-solving skills is defined as the cognitive ability to recognise and define a problem; invent and implement solutions; track and evaluate results (Carnevale et al., 1990; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Goldstein (1990) added that the nature of police job varies from present incident-by-incident, case-by-case orientation to more problem-oriented. According to Goldstein, problem-solving

process involves four steps that are composed of identifying, analysing, and assessing information gathered from multiple sources. The first step is to identify the problem by defining and understanding the root cause, while the second step is to analyse the problem by collecting information from various sources. This is then followed by the third step, which is to find alternative responses to the problem. The final step involves implementation and assessment of a response to the problem.

Moreover, as police practice bureaucratic culture, written rules and policies are strictly followed while performing a task or an operation (Brandl, 2017). Standard operating procedures, which outline the way to execute a job, and the responsibility related to that particular job are followed step-by-step. In fact, police officers face well-structured problems compared to ill-structured problems. Well-structured problems require lower levels of cognitive processing compared to ill-structured problems (Reason, 1990). This is because well-structured problems are bounded to rules, procedures, laws, and professional codes. As the police job nature is bounded by well-structured problems, honing a practising a skill enhances automaticity, which may lead to skills retention (Stothard & Nicholson, 2001).

B. Junior police officers' functional competency

The functional competency measured for junior police officers is teamwork.

a. Teamwork

Teamwork is salient for junior police officers as they serve as supportive group and involve highly in collaborative tasks. Teamwork implies when individuals work in a cooperative environment to attain a common goal by sharing their knowledge and skills (Haron, 2006). According to Luca and Tarricone (2001), everyone in a team has to be interdependent on another team member while working towards a shared goal. In this regard, teamwork competency is imperative to junior police officers because they serve as supportive groups and carry out tasks that require high teamwork such as in controlling and managing public safety and orders duty; search, rescue, and escorting tasks; collect, distribute, screen security information tasks; assist in security information screening tasks (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009).

C. Senior police officers' functional competency

The functional competency measured for senior police officers are proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.

a. Proactiveness

The changes should begin from the management, therefore, as the member of managerial and professionals group, senior police officers have to cultivate positive emotions, which in turn results in proactive behaviours that eventually will be emulated by the followers.

In police setting, senior police officers serve as a manager and professionals who lead the organisation (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Senior police officers have to propose their ideas without any fear of rejections (Haron, 2006), which is a form of being proactive. According to Bateman and Crant (1993), a proactive person tends to be more analytic, seeks opportunities to resolve any threats, initiative, and perseverance until a meaningful change happen. Proactive people usually transform themselves first to have an impact on their surroundings. By contrast, those with deficient proactive skills are less likely to initiate change and prefer to adapt within circumstances. In this sense, proactive individuals tend to be charismatic leaders who greatly influence and cultivate changes in their followers. Fritz and Sonnentag (2009) explained that positive emotions determine proactive behaviours of civil service employees as they acknowledge their experiences positively. The study also noted that employees who fell short of universally accepted proactive behaviour, would not initiate any changes as they focused more on the negative emotions due to their negative perception of their experiences. Therefore, senior police officers have to acquire good proactive skills in order for them to lead the organisation. This is essential to significantly influence their subordinates' belief in achieving the organisational goals too.

b. Decision-making skills

Decision-making is a pre-eminent skill for management group police officers as they lead the organisation as well as executing investigations, management issues, maintenance of public order, and problem with technical issues.

Senior police officers are responsible to make decisions as they serve as professional and management group (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). This includes being a leader in community safety and security programmes, in operations, in raids and serves as the lead investigation officers. Apart from that, they also function as the head of a unit, division, department, chief police officers in police stations, and officer-in-charge of police district (OCPD) in police headquarters. The nature of police decision-making comprises four areas namely criminal investigations, management issues, maintenance of public order, and problem with technical issues (Aepli et al., 2011).

Decision-making in criminal investigation involves several steps (Aepli et al., 2011). The first step is to define the problem by stating the crime committed and uncover the identity of possible suspect based on the information gathered. Second step is to evaluate the situation by seeking out pertinent records, analysing the physical evidence obtained at crime scene, and interviewing witnesses. The following step is to identify the suspects. Then additional evidence is obtained to test the hypothesis of scenario. Final step is to mount an operation to arrest the suspect based on the evidence gathered.

In making decision of management issues, the first step is to define the situation and consider the degree of urgency (Aepli et al., 2011). This is then followed by linking the situation with other projects or issues in order to avoid redundancies and generate possible synergies. In the third step, lesson learned from similar

cases that led to success or failure in order to maximise the success rate are reviewed. Next is to identify the persons who can provide information. Following that step is to seek internal and external opportunities, and analyse the potential internal and external risks. Last step is to take a decision.

In operational decision-making, the first step is to analyse the mission and consequences (Aepli et al., 2011). Next, schedule the tasks and chain of commands by establishing specific working groups. Following that is to evaluate the situation by considering several factors, which includes mission statement, legal basis, location, weather, potential actions of offenders and police; the time constraints. Next step is to decide. Following that, orders are given to take action. Then, the actions are monitored and corrective measures will be implemented, if necessary.

Any problem arises involving technical issues, decision is made by choosing, installing, and evaluating the technical devices (Aepli et al., 2011). To sum up, decision-making is an important competency for senior police officers as they are the key of professional and management group.

c. Planning skills

Planning skills is an important skill for management group to achieve the goal of the organisation. Effective planners are more flexible while conceiving plans and planning influenced by emotions.

According to Haron (2006), planning skills is one of the key skills competency required for managers or executives, especially senior police officers. In police setting, senior police officers are responsible to plan crime prevention operations, on-job training, and use of human resources (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). In police organisation, planning can be divided into four types (Haron, 2006). First type is mission which focuses on the direction of an organisation itself. Next is the strategic planning, the plans to achieve long-term objectives such as a five-year plan. Third is tactical planning which is projected to achieve the shortened annual objectives of the five-year plan based. The last type of planning is operational planning, the plan targeted to achieve short-term goals.

Effective planners tend to be more flexible while formulating a plan, as they tend to revise their plans frequently by considering the possible alternatives in order to achieve the goal (Pea & Kurland, 1984). Maglio, Gollwitzer, and Oettingen (2014) explained that inherently emotional experience influence the plan formation. In fact, those with high planning skills use their emotions to generate more consecutive plans in order to achieve their goal. Ferreira (2013) agreed that planning is influenced by emotions, and effective planners have a good control over their emotional drives. This could be because effective planners are aware of their emotion and regulate it to monitor their thinking processes in order to generate effective plans. In short, effective planners use emotions and have good control over emotions while initiating plans.

d. Leadership

Senior police officers' roles and responsibilities entail strong leadership skills in order to build up a lean and effective organisation.

Malaysia is practicing and moving towards community policing, that is to collaborate with public to reduce crime rate (Sulaiman et al., 2012). In the implementation of community policing, leadership plays an important role. According to Hogan et al. (1994), leadership is a management skill where the leader persuades their down-lines or followers to be away from their personal concerns in order to pursue a common goal that is important for the welfare of the group. It involves various processes like coaching, motivating or inspiring, directing or guiding, supporting or counselling, and others. A good leader does not only focus on achieving the organisation goals, but also have the capability to touch the heart of the followers. Leadership is important to produce a healthy and effective organisation. In police setting, senior police officer serves as a leader in community safety and security programmes, in operations, and in raids (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Besides, they also function as the head of a unit, division, department, chief police officers in police stations, and officer-in-charge of police district (OCPD) in police headquarters. Hence, senior police officers need to set the benchmark for the organisation and provide appropriate leadership, mission, and vision to ensure each member of the Royal Malaysia Police is actively involved in community policing activities. In fact, the Royal Malaysia Police College provides many leadership training

for senior police officers to boost their leadership qualities and enhance their skills set.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

As the crime rate is spiralling, the nature of police occupations become more complex, challenging, and demanding which resulted in higher workload. Therefore, police officers are susceptible and vulnerable to occupational hazards such as accidents, health risks, and emotional imbalance due to stress, anxiety, higher cognitive workload, and fatigue (American Psychological Association, 2011; Hockey, 1997; Sauer et al., 2002). The increasing concern on occupational safety and health issues, especially in high-risk sector has directed psychologists' attention towards psychological factors (Cox & Cox, 1993). One of them is emotional intelligence, as it voids the impact on stress, anxiety, and fatigue. As a result, human error (cause of accident) margin could be lessened and the safety of the high-risk employees enhanced. Emotional intelligence is pragmatically easy to apply in some human resource development areas such as training and development (Boyatzis, 2008; Goleman, 1995), thus using emotional intelligence as recruitment and selection criterion needs more in-depth analysis. Therefore, the direct link between emotional intelligence and required job competency to perform a job has to be identified based on scientific study. By analysing the direct link between emotional intelligence and required job competency, inclusion of emotional intelligence in the selection process can be justified and legal (Bethell-Fox, 2003; The Bar Council, 2012). In fact, Boyatzis (2008) explained that competency for the 21st century should include emotional intelligence as a competency, as it predicts effectiveness in professional, management, and leadership roles in many sectors of society.

This study is aimed to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency. In this study, ability model proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) is used to explain the phenomena, as the founders of emotional intelligence proposed this model; ability model fits well with the common definition, “managing emotions in oneself and in others”, agreed by other emotional intelligence theorists (Cherniss, 2010); emphasised pure form of emotional intelligence excluding personality trait (O’Boyle et al., 2011). Therefore, instrument developed based on ability model, that is Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong & Law, 2002) is used to describe the phenomena. Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale is a self-reported instrument, therefore it is categorised as trait measure. However, studies have proven that Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale does not correlate with trait emotional intelligence as the constructs measured were based on ability model of emotional intelligence (Van et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the job competency criteria was adapted from Haron’s (2006) proposed competency framework with a further discussion with management department, and supported by job description listed in the Public Service Department Malaysia (2009).

The theoretical framework (Figure 2.9) illustrates concepts and models, used in this study.

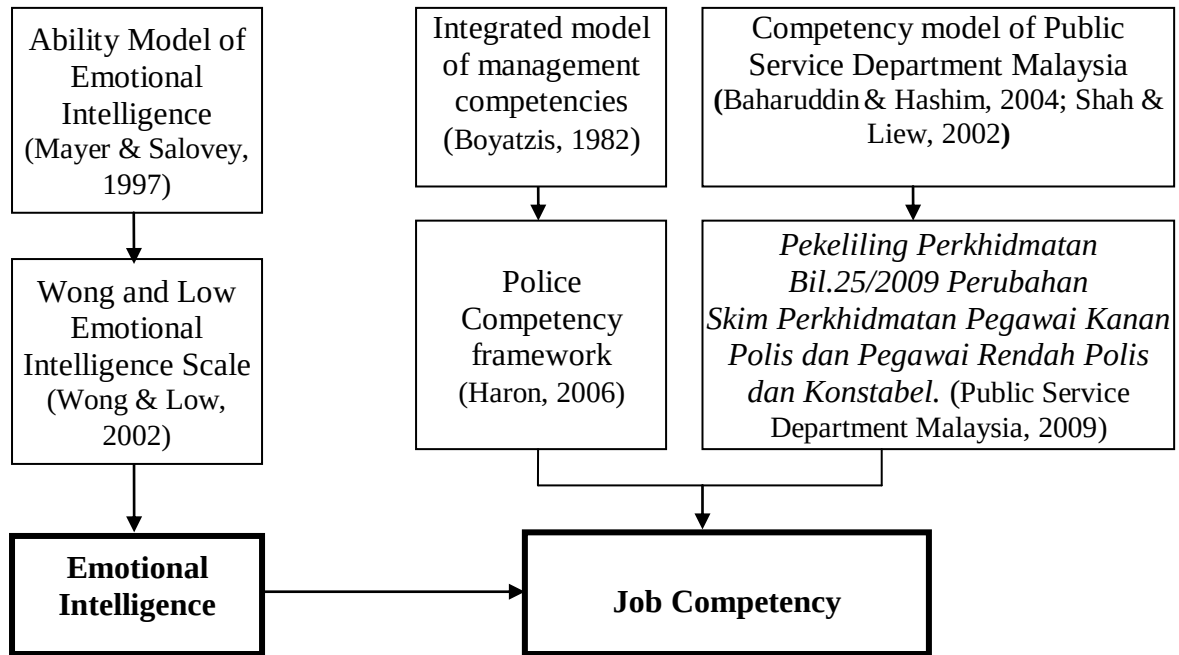


Figure 2.9: Theoretical framework of the study

2.7 Previous Studies

2.7.1 Nature of Emotional Intelligence

Generally, in Malaysia, numerous studies on emotional intelligence have been conducted on employees at schools, universities, and private organisations in order to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance (Mahdinezhad et al., 2013; Mohamad & Jais, 2016), job commitment (Choi & Tan, 2015; Mustafa, Ismail, & Buntat, 2014), job satisfaction (Azman, Yao, Yeo, Kong, & Ju, 2010; Pau & Sabri, 2012), and leadership (Cheah & Ken, 2012; Ling & Ibrahim, 2013).

Specifically, in Royal Malaysia Police, past studies have documented that police officers with good emotional intelligence found to be less stressed (Abdullah, 2010), highly satisfied with job (Yaacob, 2012; Yusoff et al., 2017), more committed to job (Baker, 2010; Baker & Ibrahim, 2017; Yaacob, 2012), psychologically well (Yaacob,

2012), and able to maintain work-life balance (Kumarasamy et al., 2015). Moreover, studies conducted abroad in policing have reported that emotionally intelligent police officers found to be superior performers (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011), inhibits unethical work attitude (Aremu et al., 2011; Ojedokun, 2010), and enriched with better leadership style (Bellamy & Bellamy, 2016; Campbell, 2012; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). Studies also have been reported that Malaysian police officers demonstrated higher emotional intelligence (Abdullah, 2010; Baker, 2010; Yaacob, 2012).

Police officers with high emotional intelligence have been found to be less stressed. Abdullah (2010) studied relationship between stress and emotional intelligence on 131 junior police officers from Marine Operation Force, Johor. Abdullah reported that emotional intelligence significantly correlated with stress level. Specifically, higher interpersonal emotional intelligence (social skills and empathy) helps police officers to forget the stress caused by physiological factors, for example, tiredness.

Studied have discovered that police officers with high emotional intelligence are more likely to be satisfied with their job. A study carried out on 193 Nigerian police officers documented that police officers with high emotional intelligence have the ability to internally encapsulate and segregate emotions, so that it does not interfere with their job, thereby enhancing their job satisfaction (Afolabi et al., 2010). Similarly, Brunetto et al. (2012) based on their finding on 193 police officers in Australia claimed that emotional intelligence enables police officers to regulate their external behaviour according to the situation, thereby the level of the police officers' well-being increased, which in turn bolster and up-lift their job satisfaction. Following that, a study on 252 police officers in

Police Headquarters of Melaka Contingent reported that emotionally intelligent police officers were satisfied with their job (Yaacob, 2012). In this context, the understanding and analysing emotion dimension (intrapersonal emotional intelligence) significantly predicts job satisfaction. Yaacob (2012) further explained that the capability to understand and analyse one's own emotions accurately allows police officers to regulate their emotions; be proactive; shows positive attitude towards the work; perform well, thereby giving them a sense of satisfaction with their job. In contrast, Yusoff et al. (2017) studied 400 police officers from Subang Jaya, Selangor and concluded that interpersonal emotional intelligence was highly correlated with job satisfaction as compared to intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotional intelligence contributes to job satisfaction. However, which dimensions of emotional intelligence are more related to job satisfaction may depend on the department they work. Most of the participants in Yaacob's (2012) study were from the operational departments where they were exposed to high level of stress and high-risk tasks. Irrespective of the pros and cons, they have to follow the order and perform. Thus, intrapersonal emotional intelligence was found to be predicting job satisfaction. In contrast, majority of the participants in Yusoff et al.'s (2017) study were from administration departments where they were less likely to be exposed to threat as they worked in office environment and deal with documents and paperwork most of the time. Thus, interpersonal emotional intelligence highly relates to their job satisfaction.

Past studies have proven that emotionally intelligent police officers are highly committed to their job. In a study carried out on 288 police officers in Kuching, Sarawak, Baker (2010) discovered that police officers with higher emotional intelligence were

highly committed to their job. Specifically, interpersonal emotional intelligence strongly correlated with job commitment as compared to intrapersonal emotional intelligence. High interpersonal emotional intelligence leads police officers to maintain a good relationship with their counterparts. Therefore, police officers developed a sense that their working environment is productive and supportive, which increases their commitment towards the job. Brunetto et al. (2012) also agreed that interpersonal emotional intelligence enhances individuals to engage positively with the organisation and reduces their turnover rate. In contrast, Yaacob (2012) explained that perception of self-emotion dimension of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal intelligence) significantly predicts job commitment despite the organisational factor. Similarly, Baker and Ibrahim (2017) found that self-emotional appraisal is much more related to affective job commitment. To sum up, interpersonal emotional intelligence correlates more with job commitment as it provides a supportive environment because of good relationship with their colleague. Meanwhile, intrapersonal emotional intelligence correlates more with job commitment as they can identify and use their emotions effectively despite the organisational factor.

Studies have reported that emotional intelligence is positively related to psychological well-being of police officers. Yaacob (2012) agreed that higher emotional intelligence leads to higher psychological well-being of police officers as it reduces work stress and promotes job satisfaction. Another study conducted by Dar, Alam, and Lone (2011) on 200 male police officers in India found that high emotional intelligence enables the police officers to maintain a good relationship with others which in turn increase their psychological well-being.

Emotionally intelligent police officers can balance their personal and professional life. Kumarasamy et al. (2015) stated that emotional intelligence highly predicts work-life balance, over, work overload, job engagement, organisational support, and technology advancement based on their study on 1566 young aged police officers in Peninsular Malaysia. Emotional intelligence helps an individual to understand self-emotions as well as others' emotions; to express their emotions appropriately, in a manner suitable for the occasion or purpose. Therefore, police officers are good at balancing their professional and personal life.

Police officers with high emotional intelligence have been found to be superior performers. Afolabi et al. (2010) studied 193 Nigerian police officers and found that emotional intelligence significantly associated with job performance. Likewise, Ali et al. (2011) also reported that emotional intelligence positively related to performance based on a study carried out on 310 Nigerian police officers. Emotional intelligence lubricates the persons' feel good factors and confidence level, and gears them up with a believe that they have total control over a given situation. Police officers with high emotional intelligence usually have a good interpersonal relationship; they can easily approach diverse ethnic groups, help people, and resolve their problem creatively. Furthermore, based on the hierarchical regression analysis, Ali et al. also found that emotional intelligence predicts job performance over cognitive ability and personality traits.

Studies have found that police officers with higher emotional intelligence follow work ethics. Ojedokun (2010) studied 225 Nigerian police officers and found that effort-reward imbalance and emotional intelligence were significant predictors of attitude

towards unethical work behaviour. Emotional intelligence moderated the effect of effort-reward imbalance on attitude towards unethical work behaviour. This is corroborated by Aremu et al. (2011) whom suggested that emotional intelligence acts as a catalyst in promoting integrity-based policing by moderating attitudinal measures on police corruption based on their quasi-experiment study on 100 Nigerian police.

Moreover, studies documented those police officers with good emotional intelligence adopts good leadership style. Campbell (2012) studied 139 law enforcement executives and found that emotional intelligence is related to transformational leadership style and contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership style. Ramchunder and Martins (2014) reported that emotionally intelligent individuals are the best leaders based on their study on 107 South African police officers. High emotional intelligence makes the leaders aware of their own as well as their followers' feelings and emotions. This enables them to influence their followers and direct them towards the organisation's goals. Based on a study conducted on 143 police officers, Bellamy and Bellamy (2016) on the other hand reported that those with lower emotional intelligence tend to be highly neurotic leaders. Those leaders tend to be paranoid, compulsive, depressive, and dramatic due to the highly bureaucratic-military structured nature of police organisation.

Past studies have been documented that Malaysian police officers demonstrated higher emotional intelligence. To be precise, personal/intrapersonal emotional intelligence is high in police officers involved in operations; meanwhile, social/interpersonal emotional intelligence is high in police officers involved in administration. Abdullah (2010) reported that junior police officers (majority of the respondents were from operation) possessed

higher level of emotional intelligence, specifically higher intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Abdullah elaborated that junior police officers directly deal with public and in combat zone, thus high intrapersonal emotional intelligence enables the police officers to reduce and regulate their negative emotions; being motivated; take appropriate action by perceiving emotions accurately in order to perform their job effectively. In contrast, Baker (2010) discovered that police officers (majority of the respondents were from administration) demonstrated higher interpersonal compared to intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Baker explained that high interpersonal emotional intelligence leads police officers to maintain a good relationship with their colleagues; cultivate a sense that their working environment is productive and supportive. Besides, Yaacob (2012) reported that police officers' emotional intelligence was largely contributed by utilising emotion, followed by managing emotion, understanding emotion, and perceiving emotion. Yaacob discovered that emotionally intelligent police officers focused more on positive emotions. Yaacob proposed that in order to maintain high level of emotional intelligence, police officers have to be selective while interacting and change their perception about working environment.

2.7.2 Nature of Job Competency

Generally, in Malaysia much studies on competency have been focused on educators (Ahmad & Yusof, 2017; Ghani et al., 2013; Goh & Wong, 2014), followed by managers (Chipulu et al., 2013; Koh et al., 2016), and entrepreneurs (Ahmad, Thurasamy, Wilson, & Kummerow, 2010; Ng, Daisy, & Thurasamy, 2016) to identify and evaluate competency, in addition to proposing competency model.

Specifically in police organisation, competency studies on Malaysian police officers revolves around identifying and evaluating the competency (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006; Lazim, 1994), measure the difference in competency based on demographic factors (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006), and also the relationship between competency and crime prevention (Alias, 2014). Additionally, competency studies conducted abroad focused on influence of competency on career development (Gunawan, Lubis, Adam, & Tabrani, 2016), performance (Yang, Yen, & Chiang, 2012) as well as proposing competency framework (Khader, Toh, Ang, Khoo, Khoo, & Ko, 2013; McDowall & Lindsay, 2014; Welsh, 2012).

Competency studies in policing focused on identifying and evaluating competencies. Effective communication, decision-making, interpersonal skills, and leadership were the common competencies addressed in previous studies (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006; Oliver, 2013). Lazim (1994) studied 53 police constables working at General duty division of Shah Alam District Police Headquarters, Malaysia and analysed twelve competency clusters. Among the twelve competency clusters, the most frequent task was control station post; meanwhile, the least task performed was visiting areas under their station's watch. Apart from these, Haron (2006) in his study on 109 senior police officers in Terengganu Contingent Police Headquarters, discovered that those police officers were less competent in problem-solving skills but high competent in interpersonal skills. Similarly, Alias (2014) also reported that police officers demonstrated high level of interpersonal skills in her study on 177 police officers from Kulai District Police Headquarters. Besides, Oliver (2013) studied 14 African Americans police chiefs and found twelve key competencies including awareness to community issues, culturally

competent, and can manage diversity. Among the 12 discovered competencies, decision-making and leadership were rated as crucial meanwhile, written communication skills was rated as least important.

Previous studies measured the differences in competency by demographic factors such as job position, academic qualifications, age, and gender. Haron (2006) and Alias (2014) revealed that police officers holding higher post were more competent. Similarly, studies reported that police officers with higher academic qualifications were more competent (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006). In terms of differences in competency by age, Haron (2006) discovered that elderly police officers were highly competent compared to younger officers. However, Alias (2014) acknowledged that competency does not vary by age. Additionally, both male and female police officers were found to be equally competent (Alias, 2014; Haron, 2006).

Police job competency significantly related to crime prevention, which means competent and effective police officers are good in preventing crime. In a study by Alias (2014) on 177 police officers from Kulai District Police Headquarters, she found that job competency significantly related to crime prevention management.

Besides, competency is essential for career development and advancement. Gunawan et al. (2016) conducted a study on 200 Indonesian police to find the effectiveness of human resource competency for career development of the Aceh regional police officers. The human resource competency divided into four competencies namely personal,

interpersonal, management, and critical evaluation. The study found that human resource competency significantly predicts career development of Aceh regional police officers.

Furthermore, leadership competency may influence police officers' performance appraisal through job satisfaction. In a questionnaire-based survey on 171 Taiwanese police officers by Yang et al. (2012) revealed that the relationship between leadership competency and project performance mediated by job satisfaction. The leadership competency comprised emotional and social competency, managerial competency, and intellectual competency.

Finally, competency was studied to develop competency framework based on skills, knowledge, and abilities required for police job. Welsh (2012) developed a six-point competency framework for forensic unit police officers in United Kingdom. Similarly, Khader et al. (2013) identified several competencies required for the management group in Singapore Police Force (comprised the commissioner of police, directors, and commanders) and constructed a leadership competency framework comprised five main dimensions. McDowall and Lindsay (2014) invented a work-life balance competency framework composed of eight key competencies including boundary management, managing flexibility, and managing expectations for United Kingdom police force.

2.7.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency

To date, there is no known study conducted to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency. Studies have been done to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency in terms of job

performance, as job performance is measurable with greater efficiency. Since emotional intelligence has been reported to significantly correlated to police officers' job performance (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011), it is assumed that emotional intelligence would have a similar effect on job competency, as job competency has been proven to be related to job performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

2.7.4 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency Dimensions

However, there are known studies on exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency in segments of competency including interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, teamwork, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.

The following session discusses the findings of past manuscripts on emotional intelligence and dimensions of job competency.

A. Emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills

Past manuscripts documented a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills, especially in managers (Rahman et al., 2016; Sunindijo & Zou, 2013).

Based on a study by Sunindijo and Zou (2013) on 273 various project management personnel in Australia, they found that emotional intelligence was positively related to interpersonal skills. In fact, Sunindijo and Zou claimed that social awareness

(understanding others) is a prerequisite of interpersonal skills and an emotionally intelligent manager has the ability to understand others' emotions.

Rahman et al. (2016) stated that emotional intelligence plays an important role in cultivating interpersonal skills based on their study employed on 127 full time working (manager position) postgraduate students in Bangladesh. Rahman et al. found that employees with high emotional intelligence understand that their mood can affect their relationship with others, thereby display good social skills while interacting with others.

B. Emotional intelligence and communication skills

Previous studies reported that emotional intelligence correlated positively with communication skills and most of the studies were conducted in organisations and on students, particularly in nursing profession (Ghasemi, Olyaie, & Shami, 2018; Jorfi et al., 2014; Kong, Liu, Li, Fang, Kang, & Li, 2016; Marzuki, Mustaffa, & Saad, 2015).

Jorfi et al. (2014) studied 82 bank managers in Iran and claimed that emotionally intelligent managers are able to convey word that gives better understanding than misunderstandings due to their ability to connect with others, as good communicators have the ability to understand and relate others' messages by adopting proper knowledge and skills while communicating. Jorfi et al. concluded that understanding others is the common underlying factor that connects emotional intelligence and communication skills.

A positive weak correlation between emotional intelligence and communication skills was found in a study on 3101 students from 10 public universities in Malaysia (Marzuki et al., 2015). Students with high emotional intelligence are better communicators. Higher emotional intelligence cultivates positive affects among students by enhancing their motivation, knowledge, and skills while communicating.

Kong et al. (2016) studied 379 nursing students and found that emotional intelligence positively correlated to clinical communication ability. Kong et al. explained that emotionally intelligent nursing students use positive coping as they gain support from their colleague, which in turn increase their communication ability. Furthermore, Kong et al. used structural equation modelling to analyse the moderation effect of resilience on the relationship between emotional intelligence and communication ability. Findings revealed that resilience gives impact to communication ability and served as a moderator.

Likewise, in a descriptive-correlational study on 286 nursing students in Kurdistan University of Medical Sciences, Iran, emotional intelligence positively and significantly correlated to communication skills (Ghasemi et al., 2018). Ghasemi et al. (2018) concluded that prioritising the importance of emotional intelligence and communication skills among nursing students could enhance the quality of nursing profession.

C. Emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills

Previous studies documented that emotional intelligence positively related to problem-solving skills of students (Arefnasab, Zare, & Babamahmoodi, 2012; Deniz, 2013; Heidari, 2014). Emotionally intelligent students are effective problem solvers.

Arefnasab et al.'s (2012) study on 250 undergraduate students in Iran documented that emotionally intelligent individuals are good problem solvers. High emotional intelligence makes a person use insightful strategy in solving problem and always considering alternatives or seek for acquisition in order to find a solution. Even when emotionally intelligent respondents failed to solve a problem, with higher emotional intelligence they effectively manage stress induced by failures. Therefore, emotionally intelligent respondents can successfully seek for acquisition by viewing the problem from other dimensions. By contrast, students with low emotional intelligence tend to use "trial-error" strategy in solving problem. Arefnasab et al. concluded that high emotional intelligence enables an individual to see a problem from many different perspectives in order to solve problem effectively.

Deniz (2013) studied 386 students in a teacher education institute, Turkey and revealed that emotional intelligence correlated to problem-solving skills. Deniz explained that an effective problem solver is less likely to avoid the problems and emotional intelligence enhances an individual's ability to use emotions in facilitating his/her thinking process while solving a problem.

Similar result was also reported by Heidari (2014) in his study on 43 nursing students from Shiraz Nursing and Midwifery Faculty, Iran. Heidari explained that students with high level of problem-solving skills have a better cognitive ability to analyse the problem in a pleasant way. Therefore, they tend to display matured emotional reactions towards the problem. Similarly, emotionally intelligent individuals are good in perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotion in oneself, thus they are good in displaying matured emotional reactions.

D. Emotional intelligence and teamwork

Higher teamwork related to higher emotional intelligence as emotionally intelligent individuals can understand others' emotions well, which in turn promote teamwork among students (Brown, Etherington, & Williams, 2017; Lee, Bristow, & Wong, 2018; Luca & Tarricone, 2001).

Luca and Tarricone (2001) stated that emotional intelligence affects teamwork based on their case study report on functional and dysfunctional team. The participants were 82 Interactive Multimedia course students in Edith Cowan University, Australia. Luca and Tarricone documented that the members in a functional team possessed high teamwork and high emotional intelligence as they are aware of, and regulate their own and others' emotions. Emotionally intelligent individuals understand that expressed emotions can have an impact on others. Similarly, individuals with high teamwork skills, understand that their expressed emotions affect their team members and always reflects positive comments about other members. By contrast, the members in

dysfunctional team subconsciously were not aware of their behaviours' impact on others and were emotional and personally overboard.

Brown et al. (2017) claimed that emotional intelligence positively and moderately correlated to teamwork skills. This study was a survey designed study employed on 114 occupational therapy students in Monash University, Australia. Brown et al. explained that emotionally intelligent students are good at understanding one's own and others' emotions, which is essential to build and sustain professional relationships within team members. Furthermore, the regression analysis findings showed that emotional reasoning and others' emotional management predicts teamwork skills amongst the participants.

In a research carried out on 42 undergraduate nursing and industrial engineering students in Ontario, Canada, an association between emotional intelligence and teamwork skills was found (Lee et al., 2018). Lee et al. (2018) claimed that students with high teamwork skills are more collaborative and empathetic toward other team members naturally, as higher emotional intelligence results in being empathetic towards others.

E. Emotional intelligence and proactiveness

Past studies documented that emotional intelligence positively correlated to proactive behaviour, especially in business and corporate setting (Bande & Fernandez-Ferrin, 2015; Jafri, Dem, & Choden, 2016; Zampetakis, Kafetsios, Bouranta, Dewett, & Moustakis, 2009).

Zampetakis et al. (2009) studied 280 undergraduate students in Greece and found that emotional intelligence was positively related to students' proactiveness. Zampetakis et al. explained that proactive students tend to be more initiative in starting a business, as the belief in their capability towards entrepreneurship is high. In relation to this, students with higher emotional intelligence have high emotional self-efficacy that composed of positive affectivity, tolerance to stress, and better control over the situation. As a result, the students tend to be initiative and active in searching for information. Therefore, students with higher proactive behaviours expressed higher emotional intelligence.

Similarly, emotional intelligence enhances proactive performance. Bande and Fernandez-Ferrin (2015) studied the underlying factors that connect emotional intelligence and proactive performance. 145 salesperson working in various enterprises located in Spain participated. Bande and Fernandez-Ferrin concluded that emotional intelligence enhances perceived self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation of salesperson that in turn influence their proactiveness.

In a cross-sectional designed study, emotional intelligence positively and moderately correlated to proactive personality of employees (Jafri et al., 2016). 250 full-time employees from two corporate sectors in Bhutan had participated. Moreover, moderated regression results proclaimed that proactive personality moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and creativity of the employees. Jafri et al. (2016) explained that higher tendency to initiate and explore new things in proactive

employees encourage them to utilise their emotions in facilitating thinking and actions, which in turn resulting in high creativity.

F. Emotional intelligence and decision-making skills

Past studies have been reported that emotional intelligence positively related to decision-making skills, which means emotionally intelligent individuals are good decision-makers (Fallon, Matthews, Panganiban, Wohleber, & Roberts, 2013; Miranda, 2016; Rahman et al., 2016).

In a study, which was carried out on 172 undergraduates in the United States of Ohio, Fallon et al. (2013) reported that negative feedback significantly increases distress and impaired decision-making in students with low emotional intelligence. On the contrary, students with higher emotional intelligence were associated with greater information-search activity irrespective of feedback condition. Fallon et al. concluded that effective decision-makers are good at retrieving memory meanwhile, emotionally intelligent individuals are good at moderating unpleasant emotions, which in turn results in greater information-search activity.

Similarly, Miranda (2016) found that there was a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and decision-making among 500 Military Army officers in Texas. The study documented that officers with high emotional intelligence performed better in conflict situations and have reduced potential for violence as they evaluated their feelings better to make better decisions.

Rahman et al. (2016) found that emotional intelligence plays an important role in managerial effectiveness of decision-making skills based on their study on 127 full time working (managers) postgraduate students in Bangladesh. Emotionally intelligent managers are capable of making correct decisions despite uncertainties and demands, as they can think with clarity and remained focused under pressure. Managers use their emotions to facilitate their thinking process in order to make the right decision by adopting the organisation with all peculiarities.

G. Emotional intelligence and planning skills

Emotional intelligence positively related to planning skills. A correlation design study by Beauvais, Brady, O'Shea, and Griffin (2010) on 87 nursing students in the United States of America found that emotional intelligence correlates with planning skills dimension of performance. In this study, emotional intelligence is viewed as a form of cognitive ability and planning was viewed as the ability to identify patient physical needs and emotional needs in order to perform effectively. Beauvais et al. concluded that nursing programmes should include emotional intelligence in order to enhance nurses' performance as nursing profession required nurses to make life-and-death decisions that are always precipitated by emotional demands.

H. Emotional intelligence and leadership

Past studies showed that emotionally intelligent individuals are good leaders as they can understand and manage others' emotions well (Anand & Udayasuriyan, 2010; Batool, 2013; Cote, Lopes, Salovey, & Miners, 2010).

In a study conducted on 138 undergraduate in Canada, Cote et al. (2010) recorded emotional intelligence related to leadership qualities in a small group of leaders. The leaders are skilful in influencing their members by regulating the member's emotional reactions in order to initiate particular courses of action. With high emotional intelligence, a leader can modify and influence others' emotional reactions. Cote et al. concluded that emotional intelligence significantly predicts leadership emergence over cognitive intelligence, personality traits, and gender.

Likewise, Anand and Udayasuriyan (2010) studied 256 South Indian executives to discover the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. The study discovered that emotional intelligence significantly related to leadership practices among executives. "Managing others" connects emotional intelligence and leadership as emotionally intelligent managers can manage others' emotions, meanwhile effective leaders have the ability to influence and manage their supervisees.

A survey employed on 50 managers from various sectors in Pakistan by Batool (2013) displayed a positive significant relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence. He then concluded understanding others connects emotional intelligence and leadership as effective leaders have the ability to understand others by putting themselves in other's shoes, meanwhile emotionally intelligent managers are better in understanding others' emotions.

2.7.5 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Position

Studies have been revealed that employees' emotional intelligence varied by position and employees at higher rank demonstrated higher emotional intelligence compared to those at lower position (Maamari & Shouweiry, 2016; Stein et al., 2009; Sy & Cote, 2004).

Sy and Cote (2004) studied 200 middle and senior level executives and concluded that emotional intelligence varied across level of position in an organisation. According to Sy and Cote individuals with high level of empathy and social skills are more suitable for position dealing with customers, meanwhile those with high self-management and self-awareness are aptly right for planning or other positions. In other words, customer-oriented position requires high interpersonal emotional intelligence. On the contrary, management position requires high intrapersonal emotional intelligence.

Moreover, Stein et al. (2009) conducted a study on 186 executives in Canada and concluded that executives would have significantly higher emotional intelligence compared to general population as executives hold leadership position that often requires emotional skills. As a leader in an organisation, executives are expected to be calm, composed, and positive while facing difficulties. Therefore, executives' emotional intelligence level is higher compared to general population. However, executives demonstrated lower level of regulation of emotion compared to general population because executives' role is to develop an organisation in tandem to the volatility of the market forces, which in turn makes them to be highly impulsive (less control over emotions).

Similarly, Maamari and Shouweiry (2016) revealed that emotional intelligence varied by position level based on their study on 792 employees serving in financial sector, Lebanon. Employees were comprised two groups, namely front-desk employees (directly dealing with customers) and back-end employees (limited contact with customers; more paperwork). Maamari and Shouweiry stated that front-desk officers need high level of regulation of emotion, use of emotion, and others' emotional appraisal as they work with customers directly and in teams as well as representing the organisation. Meanwhile, back-end officers only require high use of emotion.

2.7.6 Difference in Job Competency by Position

Studies have been documented that job competency varied by position and employees at higher position level are more competent compared to those at lower position (Dai, Tang, & Meuse, 2011; Raja & Rose, 2010).

Raja and Rose (2010) conducted a research on 60 employees from Information Technology industry in Karnataka, India. The aim of the study was to measure the variance in personal competencies between executives and managerial level employees. Raja and Rose stated that job competency varies by position level and employees at higher echelon are more competent.

Likewise, Dai et al. (2011) conducted a study on 770 employees from 13 industries in North America to explore the changes in competency profile across position levels (individual contributors, supervisors, middle managers, and executives). Dai et al. found that the employees' competency profile increase as the hierarchical distance between the

two positions increases. Specifically, employees at higher hierarchical position exhibit higher competency compared to employees at lower position and not much difference were found between employees horizontally.

2.7.7 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Demographic Factors of Age and Length of Service

Inconsistent results were reported in previous studies which measures the differences in police officers' emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age (Abdullah, 2010; Brunetto et al., 2012; Lokesh et al., 2016; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014) and length of service (Abdullah, 2010; Lokesh et al., 2016; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014). Similarities in emotional intelligence regardless of age or length of service could be explained by collectivist community nature (Hofstede, 1980), Durkheim's theory of collective representation (Durkheim, 1912), and Cooley's theory of looking-glass self (Cooley, 1902), although Mayer and Salovey (1997) argued that emotional intelligence increases with age or experience.

Police officers' emotional intelligence may or may not vary across age groups. Emotional intelligence of police officers working in Marine Operation Force, Johor was similar regardless of age (Abdullah, 2010). The study is supported by Brunetto et al. (2012) based on their finding on 193 police officers in Australia. Similarly, there was no significant mean difference observed in emotional intelligence by age group on 200 women police constables in Coimbatore city, Tamilnadu (Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014). However, a study conducted on 670 police officers from Mysore city, Karnataka revealed that emotional intelligence level varied across age groups (Lokesh et al., 2016). Lokesh et

al. (2016) reported that police officers aged between 21-30 years old and those aged between 51-60 years old scored significantly higher on emotional intelligence than their middle-aged (41-50 years old) colleagues.

Similar to age factor, previous studies showed inconsistent results on differences in emotional intelligence by length of service. Abdullah (2010) found no significant mean differences in emotional intelligence by length of service among Malaysian police. However, Lokesh et al. (2016) reported contradicting results whereby significant mean difference between the parameters was noted among Indian police. In their study, Lokesh et al. documented that those served in police profession for more than 20 years have higher emotional intelligence as compared to those served for less than 10 years, as well as between 11 to 20 years. Similarly, Mohanraj and Natesan (2014) also found that emotional intelligence increased with length of service.

Additionally, emotional intelligence increases with age or experience (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). However, three possible phenomena could have accounted for the similarity in emotional intelligence regardless of age and experience. Hofstede, a social psychologist stated that employees in a collectivist community give priority for good relationship, loyalty, and conformity (Hofstede, 1980). In fact, those employees who deviated from the social norm will be stigmatised and prejudiced. Similarly, Durkheim's theory of collective representation explained that society influences humans' actions, behaviours, and customs in order to increase their survival needs and to be a functioning member of their society (Durkheim, 1912). Such a collective nature is also relevant to Cooley's theory of looking-glass self (Cooley, 1902). Looking-glass self theory proposed

that individuals tend to shape and conform their action based on their interpersonal interaction and others' perception. Thereby, emotional intelligence of individuals in collective community does not vary by age or length of service as the members process emotions in a standard way and maintain their actions and behaviours coherent with their culture in order to be a functioning member of their society.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, theories, models, and past manuscripts that studied emotional intelligence and job competency were reviewed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, research design, location of the study, population and sample, instrumentation, ethical considerations, data collection procedures, and data analysis used are explained.

3.2 Research Design

In this study, a combination of cross-sectional correlational and descriptive design were used. In cross-sectional research, the data is collected just once over a period of days or weeks or months (Sekaran, 2003). The data was collected once in this study. According to Gravetter and Forzano (2011), the aim of a correlational research design is to examine and describe the associations between the variables. As this study was sought to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers, this design was used. In a descriptive design, characteristics of a given population or group are described (Dulock, 1993). As this study aimed to analyse the nature of emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers, this design was used.

In this study, quantitative data collection methods were used. Neale, Allen, and Coombes (2005) explained that in order to generalise the findings of a study, qualitative data collection methods should be avoided and quantitative data collection method should be adopted. As this study was intended to generalise the findings obtained to the larger

population of junior and senior police officers in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, quantitative data collection method is more appropriate compared to the qualitative data collection method (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Creswell, 2014).

In this study, the data were collected by using instruments. Emotional intelligence was measured by utilising Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version (Sulaiman & Noor, 2015). On the other hand, police officers' job competency was measured by adapting items from Haron's job competency questionnaire (Haron, 2006). According to Sekaran (2003), one of the efficient ways to collect quantitative data in a short period is by using instruments. The instruments have the capacity to measure the variables of interest efficiently, as the respondents will record their answers within the defined alternatives and the responses can be coded easily. However, the disadvantages of using instruments are the researchers are unable to probe in-depth information from the respondents and the non-verbal response of the respondents cannot be observed (Sullivan, 2001). In this study, self-administered instruments were used. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), self-administered instrument is better as it directly deals with the nature of respondent's thoughts, opinions, and feelings compared to researcher-administered instrument.

3.3 Location of the Study

The study was conducted in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, Selangor contingent. This particular district police headquarters was chosen as it was suggested by Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters as it recorded a high crime rate in Selangor contingent. In high crime rate area, the nature of police occupations become more

complex, challenging, and demanding which may results in emotional imbalance due to stress, anxiety, higher cognitive workload, and fatigue (American Psychological Association, 2011; Hockey, 1997; Sauer et al., 2002). Therefore, police officers working in high crime rate area should exhibit good emotional intelligence in order to discharge their duty effectively compared to those working in low crime rate area (Ali et al., 2011).

The Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters is headed by an Assistant Commissioner of Police and assisted by a Superintendent of Police. There are eight police stations under Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters. They are located in (1) Petaling Jaya, (2) Sungai Way, (3) Sea Park, (4) Damansara, (5) Kota Damansara, (6) Kelana Jaya, (7) Sri Damansara, and (8) Subang Jaya airport. In this study, police officers from all the departments and police stations were involved.

3.4 Population and Sample

Population is the entire group of people the researchers want to investigate meanwhile, sample is the representative of the population (Creswell, 2014). In this study, police officers were split into junior and senior police officers as their job competency vary. Based on the formula provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the sample size increases at a diminishing rate as the population increases, and eventually remains constant at 380 cases. Sekaran and Bougie (2013) also suggested that, sample size should be within the range of 40 to 300. In this study, the sample size was determined by Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size table (Refer to Appendix A). Krejcie and Morgan's sample size table is commonly used to determine sample size in survey research (Chuan, 2006). In addition, according to Gay and Diehl (1992), a minimum of 30 samples are required for a

correlational research design. Meanwhile, Ruddick, Sherwood, and Stevens (1983) suggested a minimum sample size of 40. In this study, the sample size exceeded the required minimum sample of 30 and within the maximum sample size of 300. Therefore, sample size used in this study is sufficient.

3.4.1 Junior Police Officers

The population size of junior police officers was $N=997$. According to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size table, the required sample representing the population size is 278 (Refer to Appendix A). Random sampling is a probability technique where each sample in that population given an equal chance to be the respondent (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Therefore, the name list of the entire population is required. In this study, the name list of police officers stationed in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters was unable to obtain due to confidentiality issues. Thus, random sampling technique could not be implied. Besides, some police officers were unavailable during the data collection time frame as they were on medical leave, in training, and outstation. Therefore, 300 set of instruments were distributed to the respondents available at that moment. Researcher went to different stations at different times to collect data in order to avoid sampling bias.

3.4.2 Senior Police Officers

The population size of senior police officers was $N=109$. According to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size table, the required sample representing the population size is 86 (Refer to Appendix A). 109 set of instruments were distributed.

3.5 Instrumentation

3.5.1 Instrument Structure

Self-administered emotional intelligence instrument and job competency instruments were used to measure emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers (Refer to Appendix B) and senior police officers (Refer to Appendix C).

3.5.1.1 Section A: Demographic Information of the Respondents

This section has six questions including age, gender, race, length of service, job position, and highest academic qualification.

3.5.1.2 Section B: Emotional Intelligence Instrument (Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version)

Table 3.1: Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version

Adopted from	Dimensions	Number of items
Sulaiman & Noor (2015)	• Self-emotional appraisal	4
	• Others' emotional appraisal	4
	• Use of emotion	4
	• Regulation of emotion	4
	Total	16

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version has four (4) dimensions as shown in Table 3.1. The original scale was developed by Wong and Law (2002) based on the Mayer and Salovey's ability model of emotional intelligence. In this study, Malay version of the scale developed by Sulaiman and Noor (2015) was used. The scale has four dimensions: (1) self-emotional appraisal measures the individuals' ability to understand their emotions; (2) others' emotional appraisal measures the ability to recognise and understand other people's emotions; (3) use of emotion measures the persons'

tendency to motivate oneself to enhance performance; (4) regulation of emotion measures the persons' ability to regulate emotions.

The scale has a total of 16-items. Each dimension has four (4) items. The items employ a 7-point Likert-scale, where a score of 1 represents “strongly disagree”, 2 represents “slightly disagree”, 3 represents “disagree”, 4 represents “neutral”, 5 represents “slightly agree”, 6 represents “agree”, and 7 represents “strongly agree”. The overall Cronbach’s alpha (α) coefficient yielded for all 16 items was .90 and Cronbach’s alpha (α) coefficient yielded for each dimension was ranged between .83 and .92. Therefore, Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version has good inter-item reliability.

3.5.1.3 Section C: Job Competency Instruments

Two (2) different sets of instruments were used to measure job competency of junior and senior police officers.

3.5.1.3.1 Junior Police Officers’ Job Competency Instrument (Haron, 2006)

Table 3.2: Junior police officers’ job competency instrument

Adopted/ adapted from	Dimensions	Number of items
Haron (2006)	Job competency:	
	• Interpersonal skills	3
	• Communication skills	3
	• Problem-solving skills	3
	• Teamwork	3
	Total	12

Junior police officers’ job competency instrument has four (4) dimensions as shown in Table 3.2. The items measuring interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-

solving skills, and teamwork were adopted and adapted from Haron (2006). Haron adapted those items from previous studies and sample questions developed by Boyatzis (1982). The items were in Malay Language. The items employ a 5-point Likert-scale, where a score of 1 represents “incompetent”, 2 represents “less competent”, 3 represents “moderately competent”, 4 represents “high competent”, and 5 represents “most competent”. All the four dimensions of job competency were reported with high Cronbach’s alpha (α) coefficient that was more than .80 in previous research.

3.5.1.3.2 Senior Police Officers’ Job Competency Instrument (Haron, 2006)

Table 3.3: Senior police officers’ job competency instrument

Adopted/Adapted from	Dimensions	Number of items
Haron (2006)	Job competency:	
	• Interpersonal skills	3
	• Communication skills	3
	• Problem-solving skills	3
	• Proactiveness	3
	• Decision-making skills	3
	• Planning skills	3
	• Leadership	3
	Total	21

Senior police officers’ job competency instrument has seven (7) dimensions as shown in Table 3.3. Interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership were measured by items adopted and adapted from Haron (2006). Haron adapted those items from previous studies and sample questions developed by Boyatzis (1982). The items were in Malay Language and employ a 5-point Likert-scale, where a score of 1 represents “incompetent”, 2 represents “less competent”, 3 represents “moderately competent”, 4 represents “high competent”, and 5 represents “most competent”. All the dimensions of job competency

were reported with high Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient that was more than .80 in previous research.

3.5.2 Pilot Study

Two weeks before the actual study, a pilot study was conducted on both emotional intelligence and job competency instruments. This pilot study was aimed to ensure that the research instruments draw accurate data without having ambiguous and misleading questions. Hill (1998) suggested 10 to 30 respondents for a pilot study. Therefore, 20 junior and 20 senior police officers have participated in pilot study. The respondents commented that the items were understandable and comprehensible.

3.5.3 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

Validity is the degree to which the item measures what it supposed to measure (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). In this study, Statistical Packages for Social Sciences Analysis of Moments Structure (SPSS Amos) version 20 software was used to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in order to analyse the construct validity of the instruments. Construct validity is the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct. In addition, there are four types of construct validity, namely convergent, discriminant, face, and nomological validity. In this study, convergent and discriminant validity were examined. Hair et al. (2014) explained convergent validity as the degree items in a construct are similar to each other and discriminant validity as the degree where a construct is different from another construct. The convergent validity is assessed by standardised factor loading, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Construct Reliability (CR). On the other hand, Fornell and Larcker

(1981) stated that discriminant validity is achieved if the square root of AVE of a particular dimension is greater than its correlation between other dimensions.

Meanwhile, reliability refers to the degree, which an instrument yields consistent results after repeated trials (Pallant, 2016). In this study, Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 20 software was used to calculate Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient to determine the internal consistency reliability of the items.

3.5.3.1 Validity and Reliability of Emotional Intelligence Instrument

Table 3.4: Convergent validity and reliability of emotional intelligence instrument

Dimensions	Standardised factor loading	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Construct reliability (CR)	Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient
Self-emotional appraisal				
• EA1	.71	.62	.87	.87
• EA2	.81			
• EA3	.85			
• EA4	.77			
Others' emotional appraisal				
• EB1	.82	.75	.92	.92
• EB2	.88			
• EB3	.88			
• EB4	.88			
Use of emotion				
• EC1	.78	.63	.87	.87
• EC2	.76			
• EC3	.85			
• EC4	.79			
Regulation of emotion				
• ED1	.83	.71	.91	.90
• ED2	.84			
• ED3	.84			
• ED4	.85			

The results of convergent validity and reliability analysis of emotional intelligence instrument are shown in Table 3.4. Validity analysis was done by conducting CFA on the actual data ($n = 405$). The CFA finding shows that the standardised factor loading estimated for all the items were ranged from .71 to .88, exceeding the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2014). AVE value for all the four dimensions were above the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2014). CR estimated for the four dimensions were above the cut-off value of .60 (Hair et al., 2014), which were ranged from .87 to .92. Therefore, the findings signified convergent validity of emotional intelligence instrument.

Reliability analysis was done by calculating the internal consistency reliability of the items using Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient on the actual data ($n = 405$). The Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient yielded for emotional intelligence dimensions were ranged from .87 to .92, exceeding the acceptable Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient of .70 (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2003). Therefore, emotional intelligence instrument is highly reliable.

Table 3.5: Discriminant validity of emotional intelligence instrument

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	Average variance extracted (AVE)
1 Self-emotional appraisal	.79				.62
2 Others' emotional appraisal	.36	.87			.75
3 Use of emotion	.58	.33	.79		.63
4 Regulation of emotion	.43	.33	.58	.84	.71

Note. Square root value of AVE (in bold).

The results of discriminant validity analysis on dimensions of emotional intelligence instrument are shown in Table 3.5. The findings signified discriminant validity

of the instrument as the square root values of AVE were found to be greater than the corresponding correlation between dimensions (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.5.3.2 Validity and Reliability of Junior Police Officers' Job Competency Instrument

Table 3.6: Convergent validity and reliability of junior police officers' job competency instrument

Dimensions	Standardised factor loading	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Construct reliability (CR)	Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient
Interpersonal skills				
• JA1	.71	.56	.80	.79
• JA2	.73			
• JA3	.81			
Communication skills				
• JB1	.73	.58	.80	.79
• JB2	.91			
• JB3	.61			
Problem-solving skills				
• JC1	.81	.64	.84	.84
• JC2	.83			
• JC3	.76			
Teamwork				
• JD1	.58	.50	.75	.74
• JD2	.80			
• JD3	.73			

The results of validity and reliability analysis of junior police officers' job competency instrument are shown in Table 3.6. Validity study was done by conducting CFA on the actual data ($n = 296$). The CFA finding shows that the standardised factor loading estimated for all the items were ranged from .58 to .91, exceeding the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2014). AVE value for all the four dimensions were above the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2014), with interpersonal skills = .56, communication skills = .58, problem-solving skills = .64, and teamwork = .50. CR estimated for the four dimensions

were above the cut-off value of .60 (Hair et al., 2014), which were ranged from .75 to .84. Therefore, the findings signified convergent validity of junior police officers' job competency instrument.

Reliability analysis was done by calculating the internal consistency reliability of the items using Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient on the actual data ($n=296$). The Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient yielded for job competency dimensions were ranged from .74 to .84 [interpersonal skills = .79, communicational skills = .79, problem-solving skills = .84, and teamwork = .74] exceeding the acceptable Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient of .70 (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2003). The junior police officers' job competency instrument is highly reliable.

Table 3.7: Discriminant validity of junior police officers' job competency instrument

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	Average variance extracted (AVE)
1 Interpersonal skills	.74				.56
2 Communication skills	.46	.76			.58
3 Problem-solving skills	.67	.52	.80		.64
4 Teamwork	.65	.54	.68	.71	.50

Note. Square root value of AVE (in bold).

The results of discriminant validity analysis on dimensions of junior police officers' job competency instrument are shown in Table 3.7. The findings signified discriminant validity of the instrument as the square root values of AVE were found to be greater than the corresponding correlation between dimensions (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.5.3.3 Validity and Reliability of Senior Police Officers' Job Competency Instrument

Table 3.8: Convergent validity and reliability of senior police officers' job competency instrument

Dimensions	Standardised factor loading	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Construct reliability (CR)	Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient
Interpersonal skills				
• JA1	.71	.51	.75	.75
• JA2	.77			
• JA3	.65			
Communication skills				
• JB1	.73	.60	.82	.82
• JB2	.80			
• JB3	.79			
Problem-solving skills				
• JC1	.64	.47	.73	.73
• JC2	.70			
• JC3	.72			
Proactiveness				
• JD1	.87	.66	.86	.85
• JD2	.80			
• JD3	.77			
Decision-making skills				
• JE1	.57	.52	.76	.75
• JE2	.78			
• JE3	.79			
Planning skills				
• JF1	.75	.64	.84	.84
• JF2	.79			
• JF3	.85			
Leadership				
• JG1	.65	.50	.75	.74
• JG2	.81			
• JG3	.64			

The results of validity and reliability analysis of senior police officers' job competency instrument are shown in Table 3.8. Validity study was done by conducting CFA on the actual data ($n = 109$). The CFA finding shows that the standardised factor loading estimated for all the items were ranged from .57 to .87, exceeding the cut-off value

of .50 (Hair et al., 2014). AVE value for six dimensions were above the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2014), with interpersonal skills = .51, communication skills = .60, proactiveness = .66, decision-making skills = .52, planning skills = .64, and leadership = .50. CR estimated for all the seven dimensions were above the cut-off value of .60 (Hair et al., 2014) which ranged from .73 to .86. AVE value for problem-solving skills dimension was less than .50, that was .47, however, its CR was above the acceptable value. Thus, no items were deleted. Therefore, the findings signified convergent validity of senior police officers' job competency instrument.

Reliability analysis was done by calculating the internal consistency reliability of the items using Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient on the actual data ($n = 109$). The Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient yielded for job competency dimensions were ranged from .73 to .85 [interpersonal skills = .75, communication skills = .82, problem-solving skills = .73, proactiveness = .85, decision-making skills = .75, planning skills = .84, and leadership = .74], exceeding the acceptable Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient of .70 (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2003). Therefore, senior police officers' job competency instrument is highly reliable.

Table 3.9: Discriminant validity of senior police officers' job competency instrument

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Average variance extracted (AVE)
1 Interpersonal skills	.71							.51
2 Communication skills	.51	.77						.60
3 Problem-solving skills	.59	.66	.69					.47
4 Proactiveness	.50	.73	.74	.81				.66
5 Decision-making skills	.61	.51	.65	.53	.72			.52
6 Planning skills	.62	.60	.72	.64	.72	.80		.64
7 Leadership	.57	.51	.67	.52	.57	.57	.71	.50

Note. Square root value of AVE (in bold).

The results of discriminant validity analysis on dimensions of senior police officers' job competency instrument are shown in Table 3.9. The findings signified discriminant validity of the instrument as the square root values of AVE were found to be greater than the corresponding correlation between dimensions (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The respondents have to be privy and aware of the research title and research aim. In this study, the research title and aim were presented in the cover letter. The contact details of the researcher were included in the cover letter. The respondents can contact the researcher if they have any inquiries regarding the research. Secondly, the researcher has informed the respondents that their participation is voluntary; the information collected from the research will be kept confidential and only will be used for research purpose. The researcher seeks to ameliorate the respondents' informed concern. The data collected in this study is only accessible to the researcher, the supervisor, and the Royal Malaysia Police. Any personal information of the respondents such as name, address, and contact number were excluded.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

1. Approval from Bukit Aman Police Headquarters was obtained.
2. Upon the approval, the researcher then contacted Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters to get their suggestions for research location.
3. The researcher met the Psychologist in Religion and Counselling Division of Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters personally to discuss about distribution of research instruments.

4. Through Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters, the research instruments were delivered to Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.
5. The police officer-in-charge, at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, has assisted the researcher to distribute the research instruments.
6. Informed consent was obtained.
7. The respondents were given one week to respond and return the questionnaires to the researcher.
8. The research instruments were then collected by the researcher with the help of officer-in-charge.
9. Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters returned the research instruments to Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters.
10. The researcher collected the research instrument from Selangor Contingent Police Headquarters.
11. Upon completion of the data collection, the collected raw data were coded and analysed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 20.
12. Processing of data was done.
13. Final report.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data collected were coded, screened, cleaned, and analysed by using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 20. The responses were keyed into the computer using alphanumeric data entry. The data analysis section includes preliminary analysis, descriptive analysis, and inferential analysis.

3.8.1 Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary analysis is performed to check the violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and homogeneity of variance (Pallant, 2016).

3.8.1.1 Preliminary Analysis: Junior Police Officers

The data cleaning and screening were done. The missing items and outliers for each variable were checked. In this study, about four responses of junior police officers fell under outliers and were removed from data analysis. Preliminary analyses were conducted to check the violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and homogeneity of variance (Refer to Appendix D). Based on the findings, as the value of skewness and kurtosis were within -2.00 and +2.00, all the variables were normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). As the scores on the scatter plot are in a straight line, not a curve, the assumption of linearity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the scatter plot showed a cigar shape along its length, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the Levene's test significance level was greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met (Pallant, 2016).

3.8.1.2 Preliminary Analysis: Senior Police Officers

The data cleaning and screening were done. The missing items and outliers for each variable were checked. No outliers were found. Preliminary analyses were conducted to check the violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and homogeneity of variance (Refer to Appendix E). Based on the findings, as the value of skewness and kurtosis were within -2.00 and +2.00, all the variables were normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). As the scores on the scatter plot are in a straight

line, not a curve, the assumption of linearity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the scatter plot showed a cigar shape along its length, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the Levene's test significance level was greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met (Pallant, 2016).

3.8.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is used to describe the characteristics of sample and to address specific research questions (Pallant, 2016). The descriptive analyses including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation were used in this study. Frequency and percentage were used to analyse the demographic factors including age, gender, race, length of service, position, and academic qualification. The mean score was used to analyse the nature of emotional intelligence and nature of job competency, of both junior and senior police officers in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.

3.8.3 Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis is used to make conclusions regarding the population according to the results obtained from the sample (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Three (3) types of inferential analyses were used in this study.

3.8.3.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Analysis is use to measure the relationship between continuous independent and dependent variables that have met the assumption of normality (Pallant, 2016). In this study, the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers were tested by

using Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis. Table 3.10 illustrates the guidelines to determine the strength of the relationship suggested by Cohen (1988).

Table 3.10: Correlation strength

Correlation strength	Coefficient correlation range	Coefficient correlation range
Small	.10 to .29	-.10 to -.29
Medium	.30 to .49	-.30 to -.49
Large	.50 to 1.00	-.50 to -1.00

(Source: Cohen, 1988)

3.8.3.2 Independent-samples T-test

Independent-samples T-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other (Pallant, 2016). In this study, Independent-samples T-test was used to measure the difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. This test also used to measure the difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.

3.8.3.3 One-way between-groups ANOVA

One-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a parametric test to compare the scores on some continuous variable for three or more groups (Pallant, 2016). In this study, this test was used to measure the difference in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service for both junior and senior police officers.

The data analysis method used in this study based on the research objective is summarised in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Summary of data analysis used

Objectives	Research Questions/ Hypotheses	Data Analysis
To analyse the nature of emotional intelligence of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.	What is the nature of emotional intelligence of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?	Mean and Standard Deviation (all dimensions)
To analyse the nature of job competency of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters.	What is the nature of job competency of both junior and senior police officers at Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters?	Mean and Standard Deviation (all dimensions)
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers.	H_{a1} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and junior police officers' job competency dimensions including interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork.	H_{a2}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of junior police officers. H_{a3}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of junior police officers. H_{a4}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of junior police officers. H_{a5}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and teamwork of junior police officers.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis
To identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and senior police officers' job competency dimensions including interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.	H_{a6}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of senior police officers. H_{a7}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of senior police officers.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis

Table 3.11 continued

	<i>H_a8</i>: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of senior police officers. <i>H_a9</i>: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and proactiveness of senior police officers. <i>H_a10</i>: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and decision-making skills of senior police officers. <i>H_a11</i>: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and planning skills of senior police officers. <i>H_a12</i>: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership of senior police officers.	Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis
To measure the difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a13</i> : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.	Independent-samples T-test
To measure the difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a14</i> : There is a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.	Independent-samples T-test
To measure the difference in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service for both junior and senior police officers.	<i>H_a15</i>: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age for both junior and senior police officers. <i>H_a16</i>: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service for both junior and senior police officers.	One-way between-groups ANOVA

3.9 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the methodologies used in this study were explained. A combination of cross-sectional correlational and descriptive design were utilised. This study was

conducted in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters and the required sample size was determined by using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size table. Data were collected using instruments. The research instruments signified construct validity and reliability. Ethical considerations were followed. Data collection procedures involved from the beginning to the end of this study and data analyses used were described.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results and findings of data analyses yielded are presented. The demographic characteristics of respondents, the findings of descriptive analyses, and inferential analyses including Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis, Independent-samples T-test, and One-way between-groups ANOVA are presented.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of Junior Police Officers

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of the junior police officers ($n = 296$) in terms of frequency and percentage (%)

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	195	65.90
Female	101	34.10
Age (years)		
28 or less	82	27.70
29 to 33	66	22.30
34 to 40	79	26.70
41 and above	69	23.30
Ethnic		
Malay	267	90.20
Chinese	10	3.40
Indian	9	3.00
Others	10	3.40
Highest academic qualification		
Bachelor degree	5	1.70
Diploma	57	19.30
Malaysian Higher School Certificate	41	13.90
Malaysian Certificate of Education	186	62.80
Lower Secondary Assessment	7	2.30

Table 4.1 continued

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Job position		
Sub-inspector	3	1.00
Major Sergeant	5	1.70
Sergeant	69	23.30
Corporal	100	33.80
Lans Corporal	69	23.30
Constable	50	16.90
Length of service (years)		
5 or less	77	26.00
6 to 11	71	24.00
12 to 20	83	28.00
21 and above	65	22.00

Table 4.1 shows the demographic characteristics of the junior police officers in terms of frequency and percentage (%). 296 junior police officers ranked from sub-inspectors to constable were participated. 195 respondents (65.90%) were male. Majority of the respondents were less than 29 years old (27.70%). 90.20% of the respondents were Malays, followed by Chinese (3.40%), and others (3.40%). Most of the respondents had completed their secondary education (65.10%). Majority of the respondents were corporals (33.80%) and minority were sub-inspectors (1.00%). The respondent's length of service was ranged from 1 year to 38 years with a mean of 13.72 years ($SD = 1.67$). 22.00% of the respondents were in police service for more than 20 years.

4.2.2 Demographic Characteristics of Senior Police Officers

Table 4.2: Demographic characteristics of the senior police officers ($n = 109$) in terms of frequency and percentage (%)

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	82	75.20
Female	27	24.80

Table 4.2 continued

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age (years)		
29 or less	31	28.40
30 to 34	26	23.90
35 to 38	25	22.90
39 and above	27	24.80
Ethnic		
Malay	89	81.70
Chinese	5	4.60
Indian	11	10.10
Others	4	3.60
Highest academic qualification		
Postgraduate degree	11	10.10
Bachelor degree	61	56.00
Diploma	27	24.80
Malaysian Higher School Certificate	7	6.40
Malaysian Certificate of Education	3	2.70
Job position		
Deputy superintendent of police	2	1.80
Assistant superintendent of police	31	28.40
Inspector	49	45.00
Probationary inspector	27	24.80
Length of service (years)		
4 or less	32	29.40
5 to 9	23	21.00
10 to 15	27	24.80
16 and above	27	24.80

Table 4.2 shows the demographic characteristics of the senior police officers in terms of frequency and percentage (%). 109 senior police officers ranked from deputy superintendent of police to probationary inspector were participated. Majority of them were males (75.20%) and less than 30 years old (28.40%). 81.70% of the respondents were Malays. More than half of the respondents had completed their bachelor degree (56.00%). Almost half of the respondents were inspectors (45.00%). The respondent's length of service was ranged from 1 year to 39 years with a mean of 11.24 years ($SD = 9.32$). 50.40% of the respondents were in police service for less than 10 years.

4.3 Nature of Emotional Intelligence

4.3.1 Nature of Emotional Intelligence of Junior Police Officers

Table 4.3: Mean and Standard Deviation of emotional intelligence of junior police officers

Emotional intelligence dimensions	Mean (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviation(<i>SD</i>)
Self-emotional appraisal	5.94	.66
Regulation of emotion	5.94	.71
Use of emotion	5.91	.70
Others' emotional appraisal	5.38	.90

The mean and standard deviation of emotional intelligence of junior police officers is shown in Table 4.3. It was found that the junior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed largely by self-emotional appraisal ($M=5.94$, $SD=.66$) and regulation of emotion ($M=5.94$, $SD=.71$), followed by use of emotion ($M=5.91$, $SD=.70$) and others' emotional appraisal ($M=5.38$, $SD=.90$).

4.3.2 Nature of Emotional Intelligence of Senior Police Officers

Table 4.4: Mean and Standard Deviation of emotional intelligence of senior police officers

Emotional intelligence dimensions	Mean (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviation(<i>SD</i>)
Use of emotion	6.17	.57
Self-emotional appraisal	6.15	.50
Regulation of emotion	6.06	.55
Others' emotional appraisal	5.72	.76

The mean and standard deviation of emotional intelligence of senior police officers is shown in Table 4.4. It was found that the senior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed largely by use of emotion ($M=6.17$, $SD=.57$), followed by self-emotional appraisal ($M=6.15$, $SD=.50$), regulation of emotion ($M=6.06$, $SD=.55$), and others' emotional appraisal ($M=5.72$, $SD=.76$).

4.4 Nature of Job Competency

4.4.1 Nature of Job Competency of Junior Police Officers

Table 4.5: Mean and Standard Deviation of job competency of junior police officers

Job competency dimensions	Mean (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviation(<i>SD</i>)
Interpersonal skills	4.20	0.55
Teamwork	4.13	0.52
Problem-solving skills	4.01	0.57
Communication skills	3.84	0.64

The mean and standard deviation of job competency of junior police officers is shown in Table 4.5. It was found that the junior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed largely by interpersonal skills ($M=4.20$, $SD=.55$) and least by communication skills ($M=3.84$, $SD=.64$).

4.4.2 Nature of Job Competency of Senior Police Officers

Table 4.6: Mean and Standard Deviation of job competency of senior police officers

Job competency dimensions	Mean (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviation(<i>SD</i>)
Interpersonal skills	4.25	0.48
Leadership	4.25	0.48
Decision-making skills	4.22	0.51
Planning skills	4.20	0.57
Proactiveness	4.18	0.63
Communication skills	4.15	0.64
Problem-solving skills	4.09	0.53

The mean and standard deviation of job competency of senior police officers is shown in Table 4.6. It was found that the senior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed largely by interpersonal skills ($M=4.25$, $SD=.48$) and leadership ($M=4.25$, $SD=.48$) however least by problem-solving skills ($M=4.09$, $SD=.53$).

4.5 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency

4.5.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of Junior Police Officers

H_{a1a}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers.

Pearson correlation coefficient analysis yielded a strong, positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency ($p < .01$, $r = .65$). So, the alternative hypothesis *H_{a1a}* is accepted.

4.5.2 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Junior Police Officers' Job Competency Dimensions

H_{a2}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of junior police officers.

H_{a3}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of junior police officers.

H_{a4}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of junior police officers.

H_{a5}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and teamwork of junior police officers.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills was found to be strong ($p < .01$, $r = .60$). Respondents with higher emotional intelligence were found to express higher concerns in teamwork ($p < .01$, $r = .56$). Emotional intelligence was

found to be strongly correlated with interpersonal skills ($p < .01$, $r = .51$). A moderate, positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and communication skills ($p < .01$, $r = .48$). So, the alternative hypotheses H_{a2} , H_{a3} , H_{a4} , and H_{a5} are accepted.

Table 4.7 shows the mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers yielded by Pearson correlation test.

Table 4.7: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers ($n=296$)

Mean	SD	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.79	.55	1 EI	1									
4.04	.47	2 JC	.65**	1								
5.94	.66	3 Self-emotional appraisal	.74**	.42**	1							
5.38	.90	4 Others' emotional appraisal	.69**	.45**	.32**	1						
5.91	.70	5 Use of emotion	.80**	.52**	.57**	.30**	1					
5.94	.71	6 Regulation of emotion	.75**	.53**	.41**	.29**	.59**	1				
4.20	.55	7 Interpersonal skills	.51**	.83**	.35**	.30**	.42**	.47**	1			
3.84	.64	8 Communication skills	.48**	.78**	.27**	.40**	.36**	.38**	.46**	1		
4.01	.57	9 Problem-solving skills	.60**	.86**	.41**	.43**	.48**	.48**	.67**	.52**	1	
4.13	.52	10 Teamwork	.56**	.85**	.40**	.36**	.48**	.43**	.65**	.54**	.68**	1

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); EI=Emotional Intelligence; JC= Job Competency

4.5.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of Senior Police Officers

H_{a1b}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of senior police officers.

Pearson correlation coefficient analysis yielded a strong, positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency ($p < .01$, $r = .92$). Alternate hypothesis *H_{a1b}* is accepted.

4.5.4 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Senior Police Officers' Job Competency Dimensions

H_{a6}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of senior police officers.

H_{a7}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of senior police officers.

H_{a8}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of senior police officers.

H_{a9}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and proactiveness of senior police officers.

H_{a10}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and decision-making skills of senior police officers.

H_{a11}: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and planning skills of senior police officers.

H_a12: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership of senior police officers.

A strong, positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills ($p < .01$, $r = .98$). Emotional intelligence strongly correlated with proactiveness ($p < .01$, $r = .85$). Respondents with higher emotional intelligence were found to express higher concerns in communication skills ($p < .01$, $r = .78$), planning skills ($p < .01$, $r = .74$), and decision-making skills ($p < .01$, $r = .65$). The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership was found to be strong ($p < .01$, $r = .65$). Emotional intelligence strongly correlated with interpersonal skills ($p < .01$, $r = .61$). Alternate hypotheses H_{a6} , H_{a7} , H_{a8} , H_{a9} , H_{a10} , H_{a11} , and H_{a12} are accepted.

Table 4.8 shows the mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence and job competency of senior police officers yielded by Pearson correlation test.

Table 4.8: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence and job competency of senior police officers ($n=109$)

Mean	SD		Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
6.02	.46	1	EI	1												
4.19	.45	2	JC	.92**	1											
6.15	.50	3	Self-emotional appraisal	.75**	.66**	1										
5.72	.76	4	Others' emotional appraisal	.80**	.73**	.45**	1									
6.17	.57	5	Use of emotion	.74**	.72**	.45**	.38**	1								
6.06	.55	6	Regulation of emotion	.78**	.70**	.49**	.48**	.49**	1							
4.25	.48	7	Interpersonal skills	.61**	.75**	.45**	.47**	.45**	.50**	1						
4.15	.64	8	Communication skills	.78**	.85**	.58**	.64**	.65**	.52**	.51**	1					
4.09	.53	9	Problem-solving skills	.98**	.91**	.74**	.78**	.73**	.75**	.59**	.66**	1				
4.18	.63	10	Proactiveness	.85**	.87**	.63**	.70**	.63**	.62**	.50**	.73**	.74**	1			
4.22	.51	11	Decision-making skills	.65**	.79**	.46**	.43**	.59**	.53**	.61**	.51**	.65**	.53**	1		
4.20	.57	12	Planning skills	.74**	.84**	.51**	.60**	.58**	.58**	.62**	.60**	.72**	.64**	.72**	1	
4.25	.48	13	Leadership	.65**	.75**	.42**	.54**	.47**	.54**	.57**	.51**	.67**	.52**	.57**	.57**	1

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); EI=Emotional Intelligence; JC= Job Competency

4.6 Difference in Emotional Intelligence between Junior and Senior Police Officers

H_a13: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.

Table 4.9: Independent-samples T-test in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i> - value
Emotional Intelligence	Junior police officers	.07	296	5.79	.55	403	-3.91	.00
	Senior police officers		109	6.02	.46	230.75		

Table 4.9 shows the findings of Independent-samples T-test in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, Independent-samples T-Test table can be read. The findings showed a significant difference in the emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers [$t(403, 230.75) = -3.91$, $p = .00$; $p < .01$]. Senior police officers' emotional intelligence ($M = 6.02$, $SD = .46$) is higher compared to the junior police officers' ($M = 5.79$, $SD = .55$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = $-.23$, 95% CI: $-.35$ to $-.12$) was very small (eta squared = $.04$). Alternate hypothesis is accepted.

4.7 Difference in Job Competency between Junior and Senior Police Officers

H_a14: There is a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.

Table 4.10: Independent-samples T-test in job competency between junior and senior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> - value
Job Competency	Junior police officers	.41	296	4.02	.49	403	-2.65	.01
	Senior police officers		109	4.16	.48	197.62		

Table 4.10 shows the findings of Independent-samples T-test in job competency between junior and senior police officers. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, Independent-samples T-Test table can be read. The finding showed a significant difference in the job competency between junior and senior police officers [$t(403, 197.62) = -2.65, p = .01$]. Senior police officers are more competent ($M = 4.16, SD = .48$) compared to junior police officers ($M = 4.02, SD = .49$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = $-.14$, 95% CI: $-.25$ to $-.04$) was very small (eta squared = $.02$). Alternate hypothesis is accepted.

4.8 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Demographic Factors of Age and Length of Service

4.8.1 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Age for both Junior and Senior Police Officers

A. Junior police officers

H_{a15a} : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers.

Table 4.11: One-way between-groups ANOVA test in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Age Groups	28 or less	.70	82	5.73	.57	3	2.17	.09
	29 to 33		66	5.72	.58	292		
	34 to 40		79	5.92	.52			
	41 and above		69	5.80	.53			
	Total		296	5.79	.55			

Table 4.11 shows the difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers yielded by one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, ANOVA table can be read. The ANOVA test does not show any significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers [$F(3, 292) = 2.17, p = .09$]. Alternate hypothesis is rejected.

B. Senior police officers

H_{a15b} : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers.

Table 4.12: One-way between-groups ANOVA test in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Age Groups	29 or less	.95	31	5.95	.46	3	1.54	.21
	30 to 34		26	5.92	.47	105		
	35 to 38		25	6.08	.46			
	39 and above		27	6.15	.43			
	Total		109	6.02	.46			

Table 4.12 shows the difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers yielded by one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, ANOVA table can be read. The ANOVA test does not show any significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers [$F(3, 105) = 1.54, p = .21$]. Alternate hypothesis is rejected.

4.8.2 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Length of Service for both Junior and Senior Police Officers

A. Junior police officers

H_{a16a} : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers.

Table 4.13: One-way between-groups ANOVA test in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	F	p-value
Length of service	5 or less	.11	77	5.75	.57	3	1.09	.35
	6 to 11		71	5.72	.55	292		
	12 to 20		83	5.84	.60			
	21 and above		65	5.86	.47			
	Total		296	5.79	.55			

Table 4.13 shows the difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers yielded by one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, ANOVA table can be read. The ANOVA test does not show any significant

difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers [$F(3, 292) = 1.09, p = .35$]. Alternate hypothesis is rejected.

B. Senior police officers

H_{a16b} : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers.

Table 4.14: One-way between-groups ANOVA test in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers

		Levene's Test Sig.	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Length of service	4 or less	.96	32	5.99	.46	3	2.07	.11
	5 to 9		23	5.85	.48	105		
	10 to 15		27	6.08	.45			
	16 and above		27	6.16	.42			
	Total		109	6.02	.46			

Table 4.14 shows the difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers yielded by one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis. The homogeneity of variance test shows $p > .05$, hence the equality in variance is not violated. Therefore, ANOVA table can be read. The ANOVA test does not show any significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers [$F(3, 105) = 2.07, p = .11$]. Alternate hypothesis is rejected.

4.9 Summary of Findings

Table 4.15 shows the summary of findings according to the hypotheses tested.

Table 4.15: Summary of findings

Hypothesis	Sub-hypotheses	Results
H_{a1} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers.	H_{a1a} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of junior police officers.	Accepted $r = .65$, $p < .01$
	H_{a1b} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of senior police officers.	Accepted $r = .92$, $p < .01$
H_{a2} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of junior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .51$, $p < .01$
H_{a3} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of junior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .48$, $p < .01$
H_{a4} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of junior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .60$, $p < .01$
H_{a5} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and teamwork of junior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .56$, $p < .01$
H_{a6} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .61$, $p < .01$
H_{a7} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and communication skills of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .78$, $p < .01$
H_{a8} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .98$, $p < .01$
H_{a9} : There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and proactiveness of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .85$, $p < .01$

Table 4.15 continued

Hypothesis	Sub-hypotheses	Results
H_a10: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and decision-making skills of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .65$, $p < .01$
H_a11: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and planning skills of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .74$, $p < .01$
H_a12: There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership of senior police officers.	-	Accepted $r = .65$, $p < .01$
H_a13: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers.	-	Accepted $t = -3.91$, $p = .00$; $p < .01$ (senior officers demonstrated higher emotional intelligence)
H_a14: There is a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers.	-	Accepted $t = -2.65$, $p = .01$ (senior officers demonstrated higher job competency)
H_a15: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age for both junior and senior police officers.	H_a15a: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers. H_a15b: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers.	Rejected $F = 2.17$, $p = .09$ Rejected $F = 1.54$, $p = .21$
H_a16: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service for both junior and senior police officers.	H_a16a: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers.	Rejected $F = 1.09$, $p = .35$

Table 4.15 continued

Hypothesis	Sub-hypotheses	Results
	<i>H_a16b</i> : There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers.	Rejected $F = 2.07$, $p = .11$

4.10 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the findings were presented. Emotional intelligence was found to be strongly correlated with job competency of both junior and senior police officers. Emotional intelligence also was found to be positively correlated with all the job competency dimensions of both junior and senior police officers. Junior police officers' emotional intelligence was contributed largely by self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion. In contrast, senior police officers highly demonstrated use of emotion. Both junior and senior police officers demonstrated lower others' emotional appraisal. Junior police officers' nature of job competency highly contributed by interpersonal skills yet least by communication skills. While, senior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed largely by interpersonal skills and leadership, yet least by problem-solving skills. The findings showed a significant difference in emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers' emotional intelligence is higher compared to junior police officers'. Findings also showed a significant difference in job competency between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers are more competent in job compared to junior police officers. No differences in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service were observed for both junior and senior police officers.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study based on research objectives.

5.2 Nature of Emotional Intelligence

5.2.1 Nature of Emotional Intelligence of Junior Police Officers

This study utilised emotional intelligence measures validated by Wong and Law (2002). The dimensions of emotional intelligence include self-emotional appraisal, others' emotional appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion.

Junior police officers demonstrated high level of self-emotional appraisal. According to Wong and Law (2002), self-emotional appraisal is defined as an individual's ability to understand, acknowledge their emotions, and to express those emotions naturally. This finding is consistent with Abdullah's (2010) findings, which reported junior police officers demonstrated high intrapersonal emotional intelligence (self-awareness). Junior police officers are in a combat zone and prone to threat as their job tasks includes managing crime activities, maintaining public safety and order, perform search, rescue, and escorting duty (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Therefore, higher expression of self-emotional appraisal would guide the police officers to understand the underlying emotional experiences precisely, and get rid of emotional demands.

Junior police officers equally demonstrated higher regulation of emotion. Regulation of emotion is defined as an individual's ability to control and regulate emotions in order to recover from psychological distress; less likely to lose temper (Wong & Law, 2002). This finding is consistent with Abdullah's (2010) findings, which reported junior police officers demonstrated high intrapersonal emotional intelligence (self-regulation). Dealing with public sometimes induces anger in police officers (Abdullah, 2010). Thus, highly expressed regulation of emotion enables junior police officers to moderate unpleasant emotions like anger while performing their duty (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Besides, police organisation follows chain of command which followed by the hierarchy of authority (Brandl, 2017). Consequently, junior police officers, as a member of supportive group have to follow orders from higher officers, regardless of their personal opinion (Yaacob, 2012). Higher regulation of emotion would enhance junior police officers' ability of being openness to both pleasant and unpleasant feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Hence, they could engage in the task given effectively regardless of generated emotions.

On the other hand, junior police officers demonstrated less others' emotional appraisal. Wong and Law (2002) defined others' emotional appraisal as the ability to recognise, be sensitive, and understand other people's emotions, as well as reading others' minds. This finding is consistent with Abdullah's (2010) which reported junior police officers demonstrated less interpersonal emotional intelligence (social skills and empathy). However, this finding is contradictory to Baker's (2010) findings which revealed police officers demonstrated higher interpersonal emotional intelligence (social awareness). Since police is a highly bureaucratic-military structured organisation (Patterson, 2009), emotions are less entertained or processed (Putnam & Mumby, 1993) and police officers limit or feel

uncomfortable to express their emotions to colleagues (Martin, 1999). Therefore, the observer could not interpret the underlying emotions in others, as the cues of external behaviours are absent which resulted in less sensitive to others' emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Secondly, the junior police officers directly deal with public (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Police officers directly deal with public tend to detach emotions in order to perform duty effectively (Martin, 1999) and hardening the emotions will reduce their vulnerability to understand public's problem, which results in less responsive behaviour (Pogrebin & Poole, 1991). Eventually, their potential to understand other's emotions will decline, as emotional intelligence is a learned principle acquired from adaptive emotional skills (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

5.2.2 Nature of Emotional Intelligence of Senior Police Officers

In this study, dimensions of emotional intelligence composed of self-emotional appraisal, others' emotional appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion were analysed (Wong & Law, 2002).

Senior police officers demonstrated higher use of emotion. Use of emotion is the ability in oneself to utilise emotions in more positive and productive way in order to encourage and direct themselves towards constructive activities or high performance (Wong & Law, 2002). This finding is supported by findings of Yaacob (2012) which reported that police officers highly use emotion. Higher demonstration of use of emotion could be explained by senior police officers' job task. Senior police officers' job requires more thinking processes as their primary job tasks include planning, making decision, organising, problem-solving, lead operations, and investigations (Public Service

Department Malaysia, 2009). Therefore, higher use of emotion would direct the senior police officers to focus on important information and utilise generated emotions to facilitate thinking process such as planning and decision-making (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Secondly, senior police officers are more susceptible to stress (Masilamani et al., 2013) and stress can affect thinking skills and emotions (Kasan et al., 2012). With higher ability to use emotion, senior police officers can utilise their emotional mood swing to think from various perspectives (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). A bad mood leads to pessimistic thoughts meanwhile, good mood leads to optimistic thoughts. As the mood shifts, thinking style will shift too. Thereby generated emotions are utilised to thinking from various dimensions and more alternative ideas are produced as the mood improved.

Similar to junior police officers, senior police officers also demonstrated less others' emotional appraisal. This finding is contradictory to Baker's (2010) findings which revealed police officers demonstrated higher interpersonal emotional intelligence (social awareness). Since police job nature associated with masculinity, the emotions are masked (Martin, 1999), therefore the observer could not interpret the underlying emotions in others as the cues of external behaviours are absent (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). As a result, the observer will be less sensitive to others' emotional appraisal. Secondly, senior police officers are the officers at higher hierarchy who categorised as professional and management group (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Police officers at higher power levels tend to be less sensitive to others' emotions (Martin, 1999). At higher level, the police officers are expected to maintain more emotional control by manipulating the emotions expressed which eventually reduce their ability of being sensitive toward others (Daus & Brown, 2012).

Equally important, senior police officers lead investigations and the inspectors are found to be the backbone of the investigation team (Masilamani et al., 2013). Majority of the respondents in this study were inspectors (45%) and Petaling Jaya district has the highest crime rate in Selangor. Generally, police officers practice “Silent Approach” during investigations (Arther & Caputo, 1959). In silent approach, police officers tend to control their facial expressions to frighten the suspects. Practising higher emotional control may eventually reduce the police officers’ vulnerability of being sensitive toward others (Daus & Brown, 2012). Therefore, senior police officers are less likely to appraise others’ emotions.

5.3 Nature of Job Competency

5.3.1 Nature of Job Competency of Junior Police Officers

In this study, junior police officers’ job competency measured were interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork.

It was found that the junior police officers demonstrated high level of interpersonal skills. In this study, interpersonal skills is defined as the ability to have a good relationship with departmental staff; public and other agencies (external relationship); within the police organisation (internal relationship). This finding is similar to findings of Alias (2014) and Haron (2006). According to Strohmeier (1992), organisational activities can help the staff to boost up their interpersonal skills. Malaysia focused on community policing which emphasised on better cooperation and collaboration between police and public in reducing crime rates (Sulaiman et al., 2012) thereby; the Omnipresence Programmes like “Stop and Talk” and “Meet and Greet” were launched. These organisation activities might have

contributed to the development of high interpersonal skills in junior police officers. Further, the findings of this study showed senior police officers also demonstrated higher interpersonal skills. Spencer and Spencer (1993) explained competency learning process by using Bandura's Social Learning Theory, which proposed that behaviour is learned by modelling. According to Spencer and Spencer (1993), competency such as interpersonal skills might be learned by observing others directly. In this sense, as senior police officers demonstrated high interpersonal skills, the junior police officers also demonstrated high interpersonal skills as the result of modelling.

However, junior police officers demonstrated lower communication skills. In this study, communication skills is defined as the ability to give a speech in public, explaining tasks to other officers, and having good communication with colleagues. Police organisation follows chain of command which followed by the hierarchy of authority (Brandl, 2017). Every police officer will have a supervisor, and the supervisor holds high level of authority. Consequently, a formal communication that follows a specific communication path from subordinate to supervisor is practiced. The hierarchy of authority reduces the potential of junior police officers to communicate as they hold less power. Besides, majority of the junior police officers in this study only obtained high school certificate (79.00%), thereby their communication skills is lacking. In fact, White and Escobar (2008) stated that police officers with a college degree exhibit higher communication skills as this skill is brushed up during college education compared to school education.

5.3.2 Nature of Job Competency of Senior Police Officers

Senior police officers' job competency measured in this study was interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership.

Senior police officers demonstrated high interpersonal skills. This finding is similar to findings of Alias (2014) and Haron (2006). Senior police officers are categorised under professional and management group (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Managers are expected to exemplify higher interpersonal skills to create a sense of belonging in their subordinates and for a project succession (Rahman et al., 2016; Strohmeier, 1992). Meisler (2014) also agreed that interpersonal relationship is the key to manage others by building network and apparent sincerity to accomplish personal or organisational goals. Therefore, senior police officers demonstrated good interpersonal skills as they hold the responsibility to manage their subordinates.

Just like interpersonal skills, senior police officers also manifest high leadership qualities. Leadership is the ability to guide, advice, and being empathetic towards subordinates. In fact, Khader et al. (2013) and Oliver (2013) rated leadership as most important competency for police officers in management group. In police organisation, senior police officers are clustered under professional and management group and serve as a leader in community safety and security programmes, in operations, and in raids (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Senior police officers need to set the direction for the organisation and provide strong leadership to ensure each member is actively involved. In addition, the Royal Malaysia Police College provides many leadership training for senior

police officers to hone and invigorate their leadership capabilities. Thereby, senior police officers demonstrated higher leadership.

On the other hand, senior police officers had demonstrated less problem-solving skills. This finding is similar to Haron's (2006) findings on senior police officers in Terengganu contingent. Problem-solving skills is the ability to identify the problem; consider options to solve a problem; draws a logical conclusion in solving the problem. Less demonstration of problem-solving skills could be explained by police job nature. As police organisation follows bureaucratic culture, written rules and policies are strictly adhered to while performing a task or an operation (Brandl, 2017). In other words, there are standard operating procedures, which outline the ways to execute a job, and the responsibility related to that particular job. In fact, police officers encountered well-structured problems compared to ill-structured problems. Well-structured problems require lower levels of cognitive processing compared to ill-structured problems (Reason, 1990). This is because well-structured problems are bounded to rules, procedures, laws, and professional codes. As the police job nature bounded by well-structured problems, police officers demonstrated less problem-solving skills. This could be explained by skill retention phenomena. According to Stothard and Nicholson (2001), overly practising a skill enhances automaticity, which leads to higher skills retention. Similarly, as police officers face more well-structured problem, their problem-solving skills retent.

5.4 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency

5.4.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of Junior Police Officers

Overall, the findings showed that emotional intelligence strongly correlated with job competency of junior police officers (including job competency dimensions: problem-solving skills, teamwork, and interpersonal skills). However, emotional intelligence moderately correlated with communication skills dimension of junior police officers' job competency.

Emotional intelligence was found to be positively correlated to job competency. This shows junior police officers who demonstrated higher emotional intelligence are more competent in their job. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence is an individual's ability to understand, use, and monitor one's own and other's emotions. Similarly, job competency reflects an individual's ability to perform given physical and mental tasks effectively (Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In this context, Bandura's self-efficacy theory, proposed that, belief held by an individual is the foundation in presenting certain abilities effectively (Bandura, 1977). In this situation, the belief held by junior police officers about their emotional intelligence ability and job competency ability could be high. Thus, the findings showed that emotional intelligence strongly correlated with job competency.

Additionally, since emotional intelligence has been reported to significantly correlate to police officers' job performance (Afolabi et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2011), it is assumed that emotional intelligence would have a similar effect on job competency, as job

competency has been proven to be related with job performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Therefore, junior police officers with higher emotional intelligence are more competent in their job.

5.4.2 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Junior Police Officers' Job Competency Dimensions

Primarily, the highest positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills (job competency dimension). Thus, higher the emotional intelligence, higher the problem-solving skills. Heidari (2014) also found that emotional intelligence positively correlated with problem-solving skills of nursing students. Heidari explained that effective problem solvers endowed with good cognitive ability, thereby the problems are analysed objectively by displaying matured emotional reactions towards the problem. According to this reasoning, emotionally intelligent individuals are better at perceiving, understanding, expressing, and regulating emotions, thereby mature emotional reactions are displayed. Therefore, displaying matured emotional reaction connects emotional intelligence with problem-solving skills.

Secondly, the findings showed a significant strong, positive correlation between emotional intelligence and teamwork. This shows that emotionally intelligent junior police officers exhibit higher teamwork. This finding is supported by previous findings (Brown et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Luca & Tarricone, 2001). Brown et al. (2017) explained that emotionally intelligent students are good at understanding one's own and others' emotions, which is essential for building and sustaining of professional relationships within team members. Similarly, Lee et al.'s (2018) study on undergraduate students, noted that

students with high teamwork skills are more collaborative and empathetic towards team members naturally, as higher emotional intelligence results in being empathetic towards others. Another indicator is, emotionally intelligent individuals understand that expressed emotions can have an impact on others, as the individuals display high teamwork skills understand that the expressed emotions affect their team members and always reflect positive comments about other members (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). To sum up, understanding own and others' emotions, empathetic nature, and knowing the impact of expressed emotions on others connects emotional intelligence and teamwork.

Following that, a positive strong correlation was found between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills, meaning to say emotionally intelligent junior police officers, were found to express higher concern in interpersonal skills. Self-reflection is a common factor that connects emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills. A good self-reflection enhances happiness (pleasant emotions) in oneself, which in return fosters good interpersonal relationship (Takano et al., 2011). According to this reasoning, emotionally intelligent individuals are good at reflecting their own emotions by enhancing pleasant emotions and moderating unpleasant emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Moreover, individuals with higher interpersonal skills, are good at expressing social skills (Strohmeier, 1992) as emotionally intelligent individuals express adaptive social skills while interacting with others as they understand others' emotions well (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). To encapsulate, "good self-reflection" and "expression of adaptive social skills" relate emotional intelligence with interpersonal skills.

Finally yet importantly, emotional intelligence positively and moderately correlated to communication skills. This means emotionally intelligent junior police officers are better communicators. Vast numbers of previous studies support this finding (Ghasemi et al., 2018; Kong et al., 2016; Marzuki et al., 2015). Kong et al. (2016) explained that emotionally intelligent nursing students use positive coping as they gain support from their colleagues, which in turn increases their communication ability. Similarly, Marzuki et al. (2015) based on their study on students explained that higher emotional intelligence cultivates positive affects among students by enhancing their motivation, knowledge, and skills while communicating. Besides, the common factor that connects emotional intelligence and communication skills is “mannerism”. Good communicators understand that their manner of communication will affect the judgments and feelings of the receiver (Gudjonsson, 2003). According to this reasoning, emotionally intelligent individuals understand that the manner, they express their emotions can have an impact on others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

5.4.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of Senior Police Officers

Overall, the findings showed that emotional intelligence strongly correlated with job competency of senior police officers (including job competency dimensions: problem-solving skills, proactiveness, communication skills, planning skills, decision-making skills, leadership, and interpersonal skills).

The findings showed that emotional intelligence was found to be strongly and positively correlated with senior police officers’ job competency. This means senior police

officers who demonstrated high emotional intelligence are more competent in their job. Ability is the fundamental key to emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and job competency (Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). According to Bandura's self-efficacy theory, a person's belief in their ability leads to better performance (Bandura, 1977). In this situation, the belief held by the police officers on their competency and emotional intelligence is expected to be high, thereby the findings showed a strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency.

According to incremental theory, ability can be enhanced by effort (Dweck et al., 1995). Since emotional intelligence and job competency are acquired through learning, those abilities can be improved (Boyatzis, 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In this situation, the senior police officers' job competency and emotional intelligence are expected to be high as they undergo more specialised training, thereby a strong positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and job competency.

5.4.4 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Senior Police Officers' Job Competency Dimensions

Highest positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and problem-solving skills, job competency dimension of senior police officers. Emotionally intelligent senior police officers are effective problem solvers. This finding is consistent with findings of Deniz (2013) and Arefnasab et al. (2012). Deniz (2013) found that teachers with good problem-solving skills are less likely to avoid the problems, meanwhile, emotional intelligence enhances teachers' ability to use emotions in facilitating their

thinking process to solve a problem. In fact, Arefnasab et al. (2012) argued that students with high emotional intelligence are better problem solvers compared to students with low emotional intelligence. Arefnasab et al. found that respondents with high emotional intelligence and high problem-solving skills seek for acquisition by using insightful problem-solving strategy and are never affected by negative feedback. Emotionally intelligent individuals are better at managing stress. Thus, emotionally intelligent respondents, tend to seek for acquisition by viewing the problem from different angles, although they failed to solve the problem. In other words, individuals with high emotional intelligence and high problem-solving skills will never ever give up.

Secondly, a strong positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and proactiveness. This means with higher emotional intelligence, proactiveness level in senior police officers is high. This finding is supported in several past findings (Bande & Fernandez-Ferrin, 2015; Jafri et al., 2016; Zampetakis et al., 2009). Zampetakis et al. (2009) revealed that proactive students tend to be initiative as the belief in their capability to perform particular tasks is high, meanwhile emotionally intelligent students shows high self-efficacy, which in turn, encourages them to emanate initiative. Similarly, Jafri et al. (2016) explained that higher tendency to initiate and explore new things in proactive employees encourage them to utilise their emotions in facilitating thinking and actions. Bande and Fernandez-Ferrin (2015) concluded that self-efficacy is the underlying factor that connects emotional intelligence and proactivity. Besides, Fritz and Sonnentag (2009) explained that acknowledging an experience positively induces positive emotions, which determines proactive behaviour. In this aspect, an emotionally intelligent individual is

better at enhancing positive emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Therefore, higher emotional intelligence exudes higher proactiveness due to positive emotions.

Thirdly, findings showed a strong, positive correlation between emotional intelligence and communication skills. This explains that higher the emotional intelligence, higher the communication skills. Similar result was reported by Jorfi et al. (2014) who studied bank managers' emotional intelligence and communication skills. Jorfi et al. explained emotionally intelligent managers have the ability to understand and relate others' emotions, as good communicators have the ability to understand and relate others' messages by adopting proper knowledge and skills while communicating. Another point is, emotionally intelligent individuals are good at regulating emotions by enhancing positive emotions to maintain good mood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). On the other hand, good communicators understand that their mood affects communication (Jorfi et al., 2014). Therefore, good communicators will actively explore ways to maintain good mood, in order to exhibit effective communication. To sum up, understand and relate others'; maintaining good mood could be the common factors that connect emotional intelligence and communication skills.

Following that, emotional intelligence was found to be positively correlated to planning skills, which means higher emotional intelligence related to higher planning skills. This finding is consistent with Beauvais et al.'s (2010) findings. Beauvais et al. reported that emotionally intelligent nursing students possessed high planning skills. The existing relationship between emotional intelligence and planning skills could be due to utilisation of emotional experience. Maglio et al. (2014) found that inherent emotional

experience are used and influence plan formation. In relation to this, Mayer and Salovey (1997) explained that emotionally intelligent individuals tend to utilise their emotions to formulate plans. Additionally, effective planners are flexible while constructing a plan by frequently revising and considering the possible alternatives in order to achieve the goal (Pea & Kurland, 1984). According to this reasoning, emotionally intelligent persons tend to be more flexible while constructing a plan as they use emotional mood swing ability to think from various perspective (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Clearly, it shows flexibility connects emotional intelligence and planning skills. Besides, Ferreira (2013) argued that effective planners could monitor their thinking processes by having a good control over emotional drives. Similarly, emotionally intelligent individuals have good control over their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Admittedly, control over emotions connects emotional intelligence and planning skills.

Emotional intelligence positively correlated to decision-making skills, which means higher the emotional intelligence, higher the decision-making skills. The finding of this study is supported by several past findings (Fallon et al., 2013; Miranda, 2016; Rahman et al., 2016). Fallon et al. (2013) expounded that students with higher emotional intelligence and decision-making skills involved in greater information-search activity. Effective decision-makers engaged in greater information-search activity by retrieving their memory, meanwhile emotionally intelligent individuals engaged in greater information-search activity by moderating negative emotions. Rahman et al. (2016) found that emotionally intelligent managers are capable of making correct decisions despite uncertainties and demands as they can think with clarity and remained focused under pressure by utilising their emotions. Likewise, Miranda (2016) explained that emotionally intelligent army

officers are able to evaluate their own feelings better, thereby able to make better decisions even under stress. Mayer and Salovey (1997) agreed that anticipating a feeling influence decision-making as bad mood leads to pessimistic thoughts and good mood leads to optimistic thoughts. Emotionally intelligent individual has the ability to recognise the reasoning induced by the underlying emotions and make decision accordingly.

Similar to decision-making skills, leadership also found to be positively correlated to emotional intelligence. This means emotionally intelligent senior police officers are good leaders. A vast body of research support this finding (Anand & Udayasuriyan, 2010; Batool, 2013; Cote et al., 2010). Cote et al. (2010) studied 138 undergraduate and proposed that “influencing others” connects emotional intelligence and leadership as emotionally intelligent students can influence others’ emotions, meanwhile effective leaders have the ability to influence their followers in initiating particular courses of action. Anand and Udayasuriyan (2010) agreed to Cote et al. (2010) by stating that executives who possess high emotional intelligence and leadership are good at managing others and others’ emotions. Additionally, Batool (2013) studied how manager’s emotional intelligence is related to leadership and revealed that “understanding others” connects emotional intelligence and leadership, as effective leaders have the ability to understand others by putting themselves in other’s shoes, meanwhile emotionally intelligent managers are better at understanding other’s emotions.

Lastly, the lowest positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills. This means senior police officers who demonstrated higher emotional intelligence also demonstrated higher interpersonal skills. Current finding shows

some similarities with past findings (Rahman et al., 2016; Sunindijo & Zou, 2013). Rahman et al. (2016) strongly emphasised that emotionally intelligent managers understand that their mood will have an impact on their relationship with others, therefore they display good social skills while interacting with others. Similarly, individuals with higher interpersonal skills are good at displaying social skills (Strohmeier, 1992). Admittedly, displaying social skills connects emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills. Besides, Sunindijo and Zou (2013) noted that understanding others is a prerequisite of interpersonal skills and emotionally intelligent individual has the ability to understand others' emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Sunindijo & Zou, 2013). Therefore, the common factor that connects emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills is understanding others.

5.5 Difference in Emotional Intelligence between Junior and Senior Police Officers

The findings showed a significant difference in the emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers' emotional intelligence is higher compared to the junior police officers'. Previous studies supported that emotional intelligence varied by position level (Maamari & Shouweiry, 2016; Stein et al., 2009; Sy & Cote, 2004). Stein et al. (2009) acknowledged that executives would have significantly higher emotional intelligence compared to general population as executives hold leadership position, which often requires emotional skills. Since senior police officers lead community safety and security programs, operations, raids, and departments (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009), their emotional intelligence is significantly higher compared to the junior police officers', who function as supportive group.

Additionally, senior police officers utilise their emotions highly compared to junior police officers who demonstrated high self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion. This could be explained by the nature of their job. Senior police officers' tasks involve more thinking process compared to junior police officers' (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2009). Thereby, senior police officers utilise their emotions to moderate their thinking process. Junior police officers on the other hand, as a supportive group and at the low hierarchy level, they have to follow the command from higher officers (Brandl, 2017; Yaacob, 2012). Hence, by accurately appraising and regulating their emotions, junior police officers could perform well.

5.6 Difference in Job Competency between Junior and Senior Police Officers

The findings showed a significant difference in the job competency between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers are more competent compared to junior police officers. This finding is supported by previous studies, which concluded that job competency varied by position level, and employees at higher rank are highly competent (Dai et al., 2011; Raja & Rose, 2010). Skills competency can be boosted up by training (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In the Royal Malaysia Police, the junior police officers have to complete competency courses of up to the fourth level (Public Service Department Malaysia, 2002). Meanwhile, the senior police officers have to complete competency training of up to the sixth level. Therefore, senior police officers exhibit higher skills set compared to junior police officers.

Moreover, majority of the senior police officers (90.90%) have completed their college education compared to the junior police officers (21.00%). Thereby, senior police

officers exhibit higher interpersonal, communication, and problem-solving skills, where these skills are developed and enhanced via college education (White & Escobar, 2008).

Senior police officers demonstrated higher communication skills compared to junior police officers. Police organisation follows chain of command which followed by a hierarchy of authority (Brandl, 2017). Senior police officers are the key authorised officers who give instructions or commands. Undoubtedly, this shows that communication skills is crucial for senior police officers in order to convey the information effectively within the department. Therefore, senior police officers are better communicators compared to junior police officers.

5.7 Difference in Emotional Intelligence by Demographic Factors of Age and Length of Service for both Junior and Senior Police Officers

Findings showed no difference in emotional intelligence by age for both junior and senior police officers. A vast body of research support these findings (Abdullah, 2010; Brunetto et al., 2012; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014). However, the findings of this study are contradictory to Lokesh et al.'s (2016) findings, which stated younger and oldest police officers exhibit better emotional intelligence.

It was also found that no difference in emotional intelligence by length of service for both junior and senior police officers. Previous findings of Abdullah (2010) support these findings. However, the findings of this study are contradictory to previous findings, which stated police officers longer in service possessed better emotional intelligence (Lokesh et al., 2016; Mohanraj & Natesan, 2014).

Three possible phenomena could have accounted for the similarity in emotional intelligence regardless of age and length of service among police officers. Hofstede, a social psychologist explained a phenomenon called process in collectivist community, which stated that employees in a collectivist community give priority for good relationship, loyalty, and conformity (Hofstede, 1980). In other words, employees in collectivist community values unity and peace, therefore, individualism is prohibited. In fact, those employees who deviated from the social norm will be stigmatised and faced prejudice. Hence, all the police officers process emotions in a standard way as they belong to collectivist community, usually by suppressing their emotions.

Similarly, Durkheim's theory of collective representation stated that society influences humans' actions, behaviours, and customs in order to increase their survival need and to be a functioning member of their society (Durkheim, 1912). Thereby, police officers' emotional intelligence does not vary by age or length of service as the members maintain their actions and behaviours coherent with bureaucratic culture in order to be a functioning member of the police organisation.

Such a collective nature of Malaysian community and police job nature is also relevant to Cooley's theory of looking-glass self (Cooley, 1902). Looking-glass self theory proposed that individuals tend to shapes and confirm their actions based on their interpersonal interaction and others' perception. Individual seeks for others' approval. In this perceptive, as police officers are expected to practice higher emotional control (Daus & Brown, 2012), they limit or feel uncomfortable to express their emotions to colleagues (Martin, 1999). Thereby, the emotional intelligence of the police officers is same

regardless of their age or length of service, although emotional intelligence is expected to increase with age or experience (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

5.8 Summary of the Chapter

The findings of the study were discussed.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, summary of the study, summary of the findings, contribution of the study, limitations, and recommendations for future research are presented.

6.2 Summary of the Study

The nature of police occupations become more complex, challenging, and demanding as the crime rate is high. Emotional intelligence is pragmatically easy to apply in some human resource development areas such as training and development, thus using emotional intelligence as recruitment and selection criterion needs more in-depth analysis. Therefore, by analysing the direct link between emotional intelligence and required job competency, inclusion of emotional intelligence in the selection process can be justified and legal.

This study was aimed to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency of both junior and senior police officers. This study was also aimed to find the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency dimensions of both junior and senior police officers. This study seeks to analyse the nature of emotional intelligence and nature of job competency of both junior and senior police officers. This study was also attempted to measure the difference in emotional intelligence and in job competency between junior and senior police officers. This study also contemplated to

measure the difference in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service for both junior and senior police officers.

The study was conducted in Petaling Jaya District Police Headquarters, Selangor Contingent. 296 junior and 109 senior police officers have participated. This was a combination of cross-sectional correlational and descriptive designed study, thus self-administered instruments were used. This study utilised Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version developed by Sulaiman and Noor (2015). The measures of emotional intelligence were self-emotional appraisal, others' emotional appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion. Junior police officers' job competency instrument measured interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork. On the other hand, senior police officers' job competency instrument measured interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership. The job competency items were adopted and adapted from Haron (2006). The instruments used in this study were found to be highly reliable and valid.

The collected raw data were coded and analysed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 20. The descriptive analyses were carried out to answer the research questions. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis, Independent-samples T-test, and one-way between-groups ANOVA were carried out to test the hypotheses developed for this particular study.

6.3 Summary of Findings

This study concluded that junior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed largely by self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion, followed by use of emotion and others' emotional appraisal. Meanwhile, senior police officers' nature of emotional intelligence was contributed mainly by use of emotion, followed by self-emotional appraisal, regulation of emotion, and others' emotional appraisal.

Junior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed largely by interpersonal skills and least by communication skills. On the other hand, senior police officers' nature of job competency was contributed chiefly by interpersonal skills and leadership, yet least by problem-solving skills.

Pearson correlation coefficient analysis yielded a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency (including the dimensions of job competency: interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and teamwork) of junior police officers. Similarly, the findings showed a strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency (including the dimensions of job competency: interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, proactiveness, decision-making skills, planning skills, and leadership) of senior police officers.

The findings of Independent-samples T-test showed a significant difference in the emotional intelligence between junior and senior police officers. Specifically, senior police officers demonstrated higher emotional intelligence compared to junior police officers. The

senior police officers demonstrated higher use of emotion, whereas the junior police officers demonstrated higher self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion.

The findings of Independent-samples T-test showed a significant difference in the job competency between junior and senior police officers. Senior police officers demonstrated higher job competency compared to junior police officers. Senior police officers possessed better communication skills compared to junior police officers.

The differences in emotional intelligence by demographic factors of age and length of service for both junior and senior police officers were analysed by one-way between-groups ANOVA analysis. The findings showed no difference in emotional intelligence by age for both junior and senior police officers. It was also found that no difference in emotional intelligence by length of service for both junior and senior police officers.

Emotional intelligence was found to be strongly and positively correlated with job competency. The findings provide insight into the importance of emotional intelligence in police officers based on their job competency, which might be helpful in enhancing performance and achieving world-class policing. Moreover, emotional intelligence is acquired via learning (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) meanwhile, job competency also can be taught and learned (Boyatzis, 2008; Mirabile, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Therefore, it is our hope and aspiration that the finding of this study will create awareness among the management department of the Royal Malaysia Police to incorporate emotional intelligence skills into job competency-based training programmes.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

This section discusses the contribution of this study to the existing literature, theory, research methodology, and to the Royal Malaysia Police organisation.

6.4.1 Contribution to the Literature on Emotional Intelligence

This study contributed to the limited corpus of literature on emotional intelligence and job competency, as there were significantly fewer studies on this subject matter conducted in Malaysia, especially in the police sector. Previous studies of emotional intelligence in Malaysian police officers mostly focused on job stress, job commitment, job satisfaction, psychological well-being, and work-life balance. Emotional intelligence and job competency are the keys for better performance. Required skills for an employee to be competent in his/her job can be enhanced by integrating adaptive emotional skills into competency-based training. Therefore, this is timely and also calls for other similar studies to be conducted in Malaysia in order to provide more empirical evidence on emotional intelligence and job competency.

6.4.2 Contribution to the Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Interestingly, this study also found that emotional intelligence of junior and senior police officers are similar regardless of age and length of service. However, the founders of emotional intelligence Mayer and Salovey (1997) argued that emotional intelligence would increase with age or experience. This could be due to collective nature of Malaysian community and police job nature. Collectivist community theory stated that employees in a collectivist community give priority for a good relationship, loyalty, and conformity

(Hofstede, 1980). In other words, individualism is prohibited. Hence, all the police officers process emotions in a standard way as they belong to collective community.

6.4.3 Contribution to the Robustness of Research Methodology

As this study treated junior and senior police separately, the actual nature of their emotional intelligence was discovered. In fact, a significant difference in emotional intelligence was found between junior and senior police officers. Previous studies on emotional intelligence treated junior and senior police officers under the same population. Usually, in previous studies, junior police officers' sample size will always dominate senior police officers' sample size. Therefore, the variance in their nature of emotional intelligence was not discovered wholesomely. However, in this study the true nature of emotional intelligence demonstrated by junior and senior police officers was discovered. This study found that junior police officers demonstrated high level of self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion. This is consistent with junior police officers' job nature as they belong to supportive group who follow orders and execute tasks. In other words, junior police officers are action-oriented. Meanwhile, senior police officers demonstrated higher use of emotion. This is coherent to the job nature of senior police officers, which includes more thinking process as they are clustered under professional and management group. It is strongly recommended to treat both junior and senior police officers separately in future studies.

Additionally, this study also contributed to the validity and reliability of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version, especially in police sector. Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version has found to be highly reliable and valid.

Therefore, this finding adds to the credibility of using Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay version in Malaysia's context. In fact, future researchers who intend to study on the reliability and validity of this instrument are encouraged to look up these findings as a reference too.

6.4.4 Contribution to the Organisation

The study is expected to strengthen the recruitment processes in the police services. Since emotional intelligence is reported to be crucial to higher job competency among the police officers, incorporating emotional intelligence as one of the hiring criteria would be significant in empowering job competency and organisational capacity of the police.

The findings of this study may also provide an important insight in designing emotional intelligence training for the police force. With adaptive emotional intelligence skills, police officers will be able to cope with the adverse effect of stress and develop their subjective well-being. This would significantly increase their job satisfaction, job commitment, and job performance.

Specifically, the findings of this study would be helpful for the police department to understand the welfare and current state of their police officers' emotional intelligence and job competency. The findings of the study would provide an invaluable revelation, especially to psychology officers working in police departments on the importance of cultivating emotional intelligence among police, particularly on the aspect of emotional intelligence that is lacking. Based on the findings obtained, others' emotional appraisal dimension was the least contributor to emotional intelligence of police officers.

Interpersonal emotional intelligence is essential to sustain a good network with colleagues and public in order to be more empathetic and deliver their duty well. Interpersonal emotional intelligence among the colleagues and peers would create a supportive environment too. Additionally, police officers should be trained to express and manage their emotions rather than suppressing their emotions.

6.5 Limitations and Recommendations

The limitations of this study were discussed and a few recommendations were provided for future researchers who intend to replicate or conduct a similar study.

This study was conducted in a particular research location in Selangor Contingent. Therefore, future researchers who intend to conduct homogeneous study are advised to include police officers from other contingents including East Malaysia. Therefore, the findings can be cross-examined between rural and urban areas, and also high and low crime rate areas.

The senior police officers under the professional and management group comprised senior assistant commissioner of police, assistant commissioner of police, and superintendent of police, were excluded in this study. Recommendation for further research is to include all the senior police officers from the professional and management group. The study has to be done in all district police headquarters and in contingent police headquarters in order to obtain sufficient sample size for senior police officers. Most of the senior police officers are available at contingent police headquarters compared to district police headquarters.

The findings of this study rely on the sincerity of the respondents as this study used self-administered instruments, there are possibilities for the respondents to be biased. Since this study employed a quantitative method, in-depth information for a better understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency could not be gathered. Therefore, it is proposed that future researchers include qualitative data collection methods like interviews or using open-ended questions for better understanding of the phenomenon underlying the findings.

Besides, this study only focused on the correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency in the Royal Malaysia Police as the highest complaint was made to the Public Complaint Bureau regarding their service. Future researchers are suggested to conduct a similar study focusing on different sectors with reports of higher complaints such as state health department and state education department. Thereby, the findings can be cross-examined, evaluated, and results of the findings can aid the respective departments to develop training modules, which may enhance their staff' performance.

This study only focused on the correlation between emotional intelligence and job competency in police sector as it is one of the high-risk, stressful, and challenging profession. Future researchers are encouraged to conduct a similar study focusing on other high-risk, stressful, and challenging professions like doctors, construction workers, and so on. Thereby, the findings can be cross-examined, evaluated, and results of the findings can aid the respective departments to develop training modules, which may enhance their staff' subjective well-being.

Finally, an in-depth investigation has to be done on the role of organisational leadership and work autonomy in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency in police environment.

6.6 Summary of the Chapter

Summary of the study, summary of findings, contributions of the study, limitations, and recommendations were explained in the preceding chapters.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Sample Size Table of Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

TABLE 1
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size.

S is sample size.

Appendix B: Instrument Measuring Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of Junior Police Officers



Pegawai Rendah Polis

UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SARAWAK FAKULTI SAINS KOGNITIF DAN PEMBANGUNAN MANUSIA

Borang Soal Selidik

Saya **Pavitra Kanesan** pelajar **Sarjana Sains Psikologi Kognitif (penyelidikan)** di Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS) sedang menjalankan kajian tentang kecerdasan emosi dan kompetensi kerja dalam kalangan Pegawai Polis. Tajuk kajian saya adalah:

“Kecerdasan Emosi dan Kompetensi Kerja Pegawai Rendah dan Pegawai Kanan Polis”

Tujuan:

Tujuan utama kajian ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti hubungan antara kecerdasan emosi dan beberapa aspek kompetensi kerja seperti kemahiran interpersonal, kemahiran komunikasi, kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah, dan kerja berpasukan.

Saya terlebih dahulu mengucapkan terima kasih atas kerjasama yang diberikan untuk menjawab semua soalan dan melengkapkan borang yang disertakan ini. Selepas anda selesai menjawab soalan, sila serahkannya kepada saya.

Panduan:

1. Soal selidik ini mengandungi tiga bahagian iaitu **bahagian A, B dan C**. Ianya merangkumi enam (6) muka surat sahaja dan akan mengambil masa selama sepuluh (10) hingga lima belas (15) minit untuk menjawab semua soalan. Bahagian A berkaitan dengan maklumat peribadi anda, bahagian B adalah mengenai kecerdasan emosi dan bahagian C mengenai aspek kompetensi kerja polis.
2. Tiada jawapan yang semestinya betul dan salah dalam soal selidik ini. Oleh itu anda bebas memberikan jawapan bagi setiap kenyataan dalam soal selidik ini. Kerjasama anda adalah dihargai untuk memberi respons kepada semua butiran dengan jujur dan ikhlas.
3. Sila jangan ragu-ragu untuk menghubungi saya sekiranya anda mempunyai masalah atau persoalan. Nombor telefon bimbit saya **016-5504846** dan e-mail ialah **pavitrakanesan91@gmail.com**.

BORANG KEIZINAN RESPONDEN

Saya sedang menjalankan satu kajian soal selidik berkaitan kecerdasan emosi dan kompetensi kerja dalam kalangan pegawai polis.

Segala data yang diperolehi akan disimpan dan dianalisa. Maklumat yang diperolehi akan dirahsiakan dan hanya digunakan untuk tujuan kajian sahaja. Ia juga tidak akan didedahkan kepada umum kecuali jika diperlukan oleh undang-undang.

Penyertaan anda dalam kajian ini adalah secara sukarela.

Dengan menandatangani borang persetujuan ini, anda membenarkan proses analisa dan penyimpanan data seperti yang dinyatakan diatas.

Tandatangan Responden:

Tarikh: _____

SECTION A: Demographic Information of the Respondent

BAHAGIAN A: MAKLUMAT PERIBADI RESPONDEN

Sila isikan tempat kosong dan bulatkan (O) jawapan anda pada pernyataan yang sesuai.

1. Umur: _____ tahun.
2. Jantina:
 - i. Lelaki
 - ii. Perempuan
3. Bangsa:
 - i. Melayu
 - ii. Cina
 - iii. India
 - iv. lain-lain (nyatakan): _____
4. Tempoh berkhidmat: _____ tahun.
5. Pangkat dalam pasukan:
 - i. Sub Inspektor Polis
 - ii. Sarjan Mejar
 - iii. Sarjan
 - iv. Koperal
 - v. Lans Koperal
 - vi. Konstabel
6. Kelulusan akademik tertinggi anda:
 - i. Ijazah Sarjana
 - ii. Ijazah Sarjana Muda
 - iii. Diploma
 - iv. STPM
 - v. SPM
 - vi. SRP/PMR
 - vii. Lain-lain (nyatakan)_____

SECTION B: Emotional Intelligence Instrument: Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay Version (Sulaiman & Noor, 2015)

BAHAGIAN B: KECERDASAN EMOSI

Arahan:

Sila bulatkan nombor yang paling menggambarkan diri anda untuk setiap kenyataan di bawah. Gunakan skala berikut untuk menunjukkan sejauh mana anda bersetuju dengan setiap kenyataan.

Sangat Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju	Sedikit Tidak Setuju	Tidak Pasti	Sedikit Setuju	Setuju	Sangat Setuju
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Kenyataan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Penilaian Emosi Kendiri (Self-emotional appraisal)								
EA1	Saya mempunyai kesedaran tentang mengapa saya mempunyai perasaan tertentu pada kebanyakan masa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EA2	Saya mempunyai pemahaman yang baik terhadap emosi saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EA3	Saya sangat memahami apa yang saya rasakan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EA4	Saya sentiasa tahu sama ada saya gembira atau tidak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Penilaian Emosi Orang Lain (Others' emotional appraisal)								
EB1	Saya sentiasa mengetahui emosi kawan-kawan saya melalui tingkah laku mereka.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EB2	Saya seorang pemerhati yang baik terhadap emosi orang lain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EB3	Saya peka terhadap perasaan dan emosi orang lain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EB4	Saya mempunyai pemahaman yang baik terhadap emosi orang di sekeliling saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Penggunaan Emosi (Use of emotion)								
EC1	Saya selalu menetapkan matlamat untuk diri sendiri dan kemudiannya berusaha dengan sebaik-baiknya untuk mencapai matlamat tersebut.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EC2	Saya selalu mengingatkan diri sendiri bahawa saya seorang yang cekap.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EC3	Saya seorang yang bermotivasi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EC4	Saya akan sentiasa mendorong diri sendiri untuk melakukan yang terbaik.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mengawal Emosi (Regulation of emotion)								
ED1	Saya mampu untuk mengawal perasaan marah dan menangani kesulitan secara rasional.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED2	Saya mampu mengawal emosi sendiri.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED3	Saya sentiasa dapat menenangkan diri dengan cepat apabila saya sangat marah.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED4	Saya boleh mengawal emosi saya dengan baik.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: Junior Police Officers' Job Competency Instrument (Haron, 2006)

BAHAGIAN C: KOMPETENSI KERJA

Arahan:

Sila bulatkan nombor yang paling menggambarkan diri anda untuk setiap kenyataan di bawah. Gunakan skala berikut untuk menunjukkan sejauh mana anda bersetuju dengan setiap kenyataan.

Tidak Cepak	Kurang Cepak	Sederhana	Cepak	Sangat Cepak
1	2	3	4	5

No	Kenyataan	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran interpersonal (Interpersonal skills)						
JA1	Saya mempunyai hubungan kerja yang baik dengan anggota jabatan.	1	2	3	4	5
JA2	Saya dapat berunding dengan pelanggan dalaman dengan berkesan.	1	2	3	4	5
JA3	Saya dapat berunding dengan pelanggan luaran dengan berkesan.	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran komunikasi (Communication skills)						
JB1	Saya boleh menyampaikan ucapan yang baik di khalayak ramai.	1	2	3	4	5
JB2	Saya dapat menerangkan sesuatu tugas kepada pegawai lain dengan jelas.	1	2	3	4	5
JB3	Saya mampu berkomunikasi dengan semua anggota jabatan dengan baik.	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah (Problem-solving skills)						
JC1	Saya berupaya mengenalpasti punca masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
JC2	Saya dapat menilai cadangan yang dikemukakan bagi menyelesaikan sesuatu masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
JC3	Saya boleh mengenalpasti tindakan sesuai bagi menyelesaikan masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
Kerja berpasukan (Teamwork)						
JD1	Saya boleh bekerjasama dengan ahli kumpulan apabila melaksanakan tugas.	1	2	3	4	5
JD2	Saya memberi galakan kepada ahli kumpulan bagi menjalankan tugas.	1	2	3	4	5
JD3	Saya boleh membentuk identiti pasukan.	1	2	3	4	5

-Sekian, terima kasih.-

**Appendix C: Instrument Measuring Emotional Intelligence and Job Competency of
Senior Police Officers**



Pegawai Kanan Polis

**UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SARAWAK
FAKULTI SAINS KOGNITIF DAN PEMBANGUNAN MANUSIA**

Borang Soal Selidik

Saya **Pavitra Kanesan** pelajar **Sarjana Sains Psikologi Kognitif (penyelidikan)** di Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS) sedang menjalankan kajian tentang kecerdasan emosi dan kompetensi kerja dalam kalangan Pegawai Polis. Tajuk kajian saya adalah:

“Kecerdasan Emosi dan Kompetensi Kerja Pegawai Rendah dan Pegawai Kanan Polis”.

Tujuan:

Tujuan utama kajian ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti hubungan antara kecerdasan emosi dan beberapa aspek kompetensi kerja seperti kemahiran interpersonal, kemahiran komunikasi, kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah, proaktif, kemahiran membuat keputusan, kemahiran merancang, dan kepimpinan.

Saya terlebih dahulu mengucapkan terima kasih atas kerjasama yang diberikan untuk menjawab semua soalan dan melengkapkan borang yang disertakan ini. Selepas anda selesai menjawab soalan, sila serahkannya kepada saya.

Panduan:

1. Soal selidik ini mengandungi tiga bahagian iaitu **bahagian A, B dan C**. Ianya merangkumi enam (6) muka surat sahaja dan akan mengambil masa selama sepuluh (10) hingga lima belas (15) minit untuk menjawab semua soalan. Bahagian A berkaitan dengan maklumat peribadi anda, bahagian B adalah mengenai kecerdasan emosi dan bahagian C mengenai aspek kompetensi kerja polis.
2. Tiada jawapan yang semestinya betul dan salah dalam soal selidik ini. Oleh itu anda bebas memberikan jawapan bagi setiap kenyataan dalam soal selidik ini. Kerjasama anda adalah dihargai untuk memberi respons kepada semua butiran dengan jujur dan ikhlas.
3. Sila jangan ragu-ragu untuk menghubungi saya sekiranya anda mempunyai masalah atau persoalan. Nombor telefon bimbit saya **016-5504846** dan e-mail ialah **pavitrakanesan91@gmail.com**.

BORANG KEIZINAN RESPONDEN

Saya sedang menjalankan satu kajian soal selidik berkaitan kecerdasan emosi dan kompetensi kerja dalam kalangan pegawai polis.

Segala data yang diperolehi akan disimpan dan dianalisa. Maklumat yang diperolehi akan dirahsiakan dan hanya digunakan untuk tujuan kajian sahaja. Ia juga tidak akan didedahkan kepada umum kecuali jika diperlukan oleh undang-undang.

Penyertaan anda dalam kajian ini adalah secara sukarela.

Dengan menandatangani borang persetujuan ini, anda membenarkan proses analisa dan penyimpanan data seperti yang dinyatakan diatas.

Tandatangan Responden:

=====

Tarikh: _____

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2. Jantina:

i. Lelaki

ii. Perempuan

3. Bangsa:

i. Melayu

ii. Cina

iii. India

iv. lain-lain (nyatakan): _____

4. Tempoh berkhidmat: _____ tahun.

5. Pangkat dalam pasukan:

i. DSP

ii. ASP

iii. Inspektor

iv. Inspektor Percubaan

6. Kelulusan akademik tertinggi anda:

i. Ijazah Sarjana

ii. Ijazah Sarjana Muda

iii. Diploma

iv. STPM

v. SPM

vi. PMR/SRP

vii. Lain-lain (nyatakan)_____

SECTION B: Emotional Intelligence Instrument: Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale-Malay Version (Sulaiman & Noor, 2015)

BAHAGIAN B: KECERDASAN EMOSI

Arahan:

Sila bulatkan nombor yang paling menggambarkan diri anda untuk setiap kenyataan di bawah. Gunakan skala berikut untuk menunjukkan sejauh mana anda bersetuju dengan setiap kenyataan.

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EC3	Saya seorang yang bermotivasi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EC4	Saya akan sentiasa mendorong diri sendiri untuk melakukan yang terbaik.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mengawal Emosi (Regulation of emotion)								
ED1	Saya mampu untuk mengawal perasaan marah dan menangani kesulitan secara rasional.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED2	Saya mampu mengawal emosi sendiri.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED3	Saya sentiasa dapat menenangkan diri dengan cepat apabila saya sangat marah.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ED4	Saya boleh mengawal emosi saya dengan baik.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: Senior Police Officers' Job Competency Instrument (Haron, 2006)

BAHAGIAN C: KOMPETENSI KERJA

Arahan:

Sila bulatkan nombor yang paling menggambarkan diri anda untuk setiap kenyataan di bawah. Gunakan skala berikut untuk menunjukkan sejauh mana anda bersetuju dengan setiap kenyataan.

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1	2	3	4	5

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JA3	Saya dapat berunding dengan pelanggan luaran dengan berkesan.	1	2	3	4	5
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JB1	Saya boleh menyampaikan ucapan yang baik di khalayak ramai.	1	2	3	4	5
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JB3	Saya mampu berkomunikasi dengan semua anggota jabatan dengan baik.	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran menyelesaikan masalah (Problem-solving skills)						
JC1	Saya berupaya mengenalpasti punca masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
JC2	Saya dapat menilai cadangan yang dikemukakan bagi menyelesaikan sesuatu masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
JC3	Saya boleh mengenalpasti tindakan sesuai bagi menyelesaikan masalah.	1	2	3	4	5
Proaktif (Proactiveness)						
JD1	Saya dapat menerima sesuatu tugas secara positif.	1	2	3	4	5
JD2	Saya mempunyai keinginan untuk mencuba dengan lebih tekun yang tinggi.	1	2	3	4	5
JD3	Saya boleh memulakan sesuatu perubahan di tempat kerja.	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran membuat keputusan (Decision-making skills)						
JE1	Saya dapat membuat keputusan dengan cepat berhubung dengan bidang tugas.	1	2	3	4	5
JE2	Saya mampu menjelaskan secara rasional tentang keputusan yang dibuat.	1	2	3	4	5
JE3	Saya dapat membuat keputusan tanpa melibatkan kepentingan peribadi.	1	2	3	4	5
Kemahiran merancang (Planning skills)						
JF1	Saya mampu menentukan tindakan lain sebagai alternatif bagi sesuatu perkara.	1	2	3	4	5
JF2	Saya dapat menentukan cara yang sesuai bagi mencapai matlamat.	1	2	3	4	5
JF3	Saya mampu melahirkan plan kontingensi bagi sesuatu masalah.	1	2	3	4	5

Kepimpinan (Leadership)					
JG1	Saya mempunyai pemahaman yang tinggi terhadap anggota bawahan.	1	2	3	4 5
JG2	Saya boleh membimbing anggota bawahan untuk meningkatkan prestasi kerja mereka.	1	2	3	4 5
JG3	Saya mampu memberi nasihat mengenai tugas kepada anggota bawahan.	1	2	3	4 5

-Sekian, terima kasih.-

Appendix D: Preliminary Analysis for Junior Police Officers

Normality Analysis

The normality assumption should meet in order to carry our parametric tests such as Pearson Correlation, one-way between-groups ANOVA, and independent-samples T-test analysis (Pallant, 2016). In this study, the normality was checked by skewness and kurtosis. Based on the tests conducted, as the value of skewness and kurtosis falls between -2.00 and +2.00, all the variables were normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). Therefore, parametric tests can be carried out. Table A shows the summary of results of normality test based on skewness and kurtosis.

Table A: Results of normality test based on skewness and kurtosis

	N Valid	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistics	Std. Error	Statistics	Std. Error
Emotional intelligence	296	-.118	.142	-.353	.282
Self-emotional appraisal	296	-.458	.142	-.178	.282
Others' emotional appraisal	296	-.246	.142	-.711	.282
Use of emotion	296	-.594	.142	.133	.282
Regulation of emotion	296	-.405	.142	-.329	.282
Job competency	296	.037	.142	-.376	.282
Interpersonal skills	296	-.174	.142	-.580	.282
Communication skills	296	-.074	.142	-.239	.282
Problem-solving skills	296	.091	.142	-.567	.282
Teamwork	296	-.095	.142	-.395	.282

Linearity and homoscedasticity

The linearity and homoscedasticity test are important as this study aimed to investigate the relationship between independent and dependent variable (Pallant, 2016). This assumption has to meet in order to conduct Pearson Product Moment Correlation

Coefficient Analysis. Therefore, scatter plot of scores were illustrated. As the scores on the scatter plot are in a straight line, not a curve, the assumption of linearity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the scatter plot showed a cigar shape along its length, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met (Pallant, 2016). The scatter plot of relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency for junior police officers is shown in Figure A.

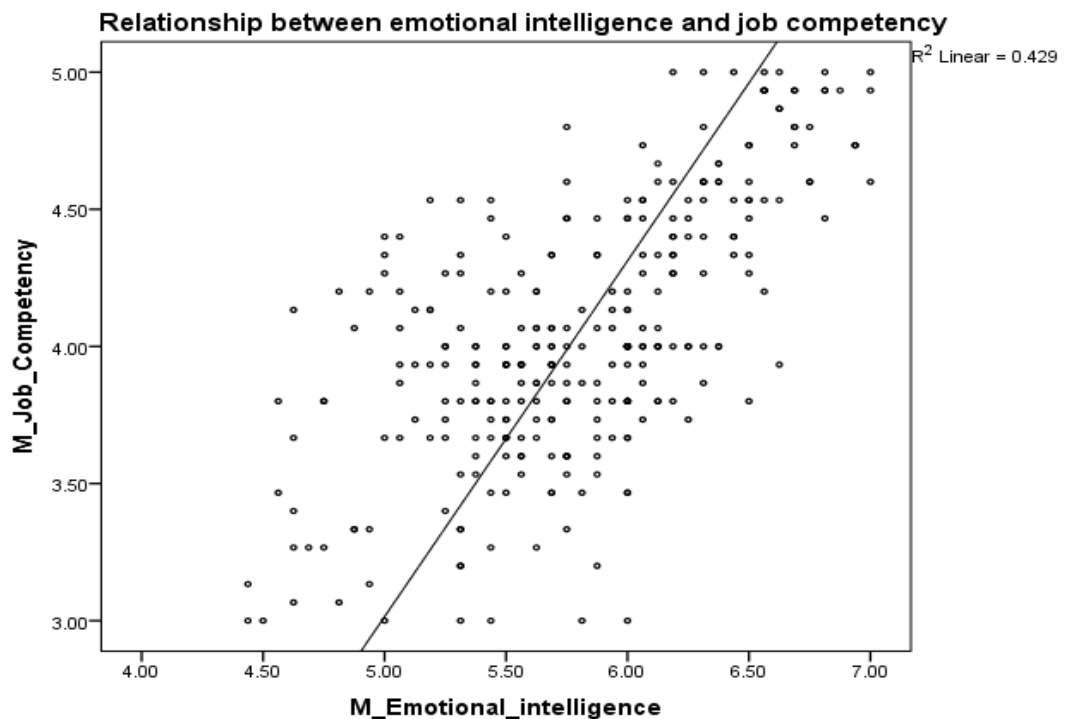


Figure A: Scatter plot of relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency for junior police officers

Homogeneity of variance

The homogeneity of variance is important to check the similarity in the variability of scores for each of the groups (Pallant, 2016). The homogeneity of variance is an assumption for one-way between-groups ANOVA and is tested by performing the Levene's test. In this study, one-way between-groups ANOVA is used to compare the mean difference in emotional intelligence by age groups and length of service groups. As

the Levene's test significance level was greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met and one-way between-groups ANOVA can be performed (Pallant, 2016). Table B and Table C show the result of homogeneity for mean difference in emotional intelligence by age groups and length of service groups of junior police officers respectively.

Table B: Homogeneity of variance for difference in emotional intelligence by age of junior police officers

Emotional intelligence	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	.473	3	292	.702

Note. Levene's test significance level was greater than .05

Table C: Homogeneity of variance for difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of junior police officers

Emotional intelligence	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	2.004	3	292	.114

Note. Levene's test significance level was greater than .05

Appendix E: Preliminary Analysis for Senior Police Officers

Normality Analysis

The normality assumption should meet in order to carry our parametric tests such as Pearson Correlation, one-way between-groups ANOVA, and independent-samples T-test analysis (Pallant, 2016). In this study, the normality was checked by skewness and kurtosis. Based on the tests conducted, as the value of skewness and kurtosis falls between -2.00 and +2.00, all the variables were normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). Therefore, parametric test can be carried out. Table D shows the summary of results of normality test based on skewness and kurtosis.

Table D: Results of normality test based on skewness and kurtosis

	N Statistic	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Emotional intelligence	109	-.170	.231	-.667	.459
Self-emotional appraisal	109	-.310	.231	-.487	.459
Others' emotional appraisal	109	-.430	.231	-.357	.459
Use of emotion	109	-.426	.231	-.384	.459
Regulation of emotion	109	-.223	.231	-.385	.459
Job competency	109	-.247	.231	-1.142	.459
Interpersonal skills	109	-.292	.231	-.214	.459
Communication skills	109	-.520	.231	-.655	.459
Problem-solving skills	109	.001	.231	-.920	.459
Proactiveness	109	-.437	.231	-.756	.459
Decision-making skills	109	-.282	.231	-.558	.459
Planning skills	109	-.141	.231	-.772	.459
Leadership	109	.041	.231	-.488	.459

Linearity and homoscedasticity

The linearity and homoscedasticity test are important as this study aimed to investigate the relationship between independent and dependent variable (Pallant, 2016).

This assumption has to meet in order to conduct Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Analysis. Therefore, scatter plot of scores were illustrated. As the scores on the scatter plot are in a straight line, not a curve, the assumption of linearity was met (Pallant, 2016). As the scatter plot showed a cigar shape along its length, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met (Pallant, 2016). The scatter plot of relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency for senior police officers is shown in Figure B.



Figure B: Scatter plot of relationship between emotional intelligence and job competency for senior police officers

Homogeneity of variance

The homogeneity of variance is important to check the similarity in the variability of scores for each of the groups (Pallant, 2016). The homogeneity of variance is an assumption for one-way between-groups ANOVA and is tested by performing the Levene's test. In this study, one-way between-groups ANOVA is used to compare the

mean difference in emotional intelligence by age groups and length of service groups. As the Levene's test significance level was greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met and one-way between-groups ANOVA can be performed (Pallant, 2016). Table E and Table F show the result of homogeneity for mean difference in emotional intelligence by age groups and length of service groups of senior police officers respectively.

Table E: Homogeneity of variance for difference in emotional intelligence by age of senior police officers

Emotional intelligence	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	.124	3	105	.946

Note. Levene's test significance level was greater than .05

Table F: Homogeneity of variance for difference in emotional intelligence by length of service of senior police officers

Emotional intelligence	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	.099	3	105	.961

Note. Levene's test significance level was greater than .05