
Addressing emotions in police selection and initial training: a European study

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Abstract

Police officers have a strong need to control their personal emotions. Research that is focused on emotions is scarce but greatly needed regarding core institutional practices such as police selection and initial training. The purpose of this exploratory study is to uncover the extent to which police selection and training comprehends and addresses emotional issues across Europe. We examined European police forces via CEPOL, surveying the selection and initial training career police personnel. Data were collected at country level with cross validation to ensure institutional representativeness. Data analysis made use of the MCA technique complemented by hierarchical clustering to identify patterns and emerging typologies. Transcripts from open-response questions concerning future trends in police selection and training were analysed for content. Findings show differing axes for official and officer selection practices and initial training, as well as dissimilar training hours in psychological subjects. No discernible pattern emerged for either career regarding selection dimensions or psychology subjects in initial courses. These findings rule out a strategic alignment between selection and training and do not allow one to foresee a common policy across countries and careers. An organisational research framework must emerge in order to tackle these issues.

Keywords:

Police, emotion, recruitment and selection, training

Emotions in police organisations

Emotions in law enforcement is an under-researched subject despite the central role emotions play in the daily life of policemen (Daus and Brown, 2012). The nature of police work and constant exposure to risk may result in negative physical, psychological, and behavioural outputs (Slate, Johnson and Colbert, 2007), which often translate into burnout and use of violence (Kop and Euwema, 2001). Many other health problems and deviant behaviours such as abuse of alcohol or drugs, and suicidal tendencies have been reported in policemen (Adams and Buck 2010, Violanti et al. 2015). These problems are important not only for individuals, but also for society at large due to their potential for impairing police work by decreasing work quality and raising absenteeism and police violence, thereby compromising public safety (Basinska et al. 2014).

Policemen must guard their emotions during moments of tension, and may experience emotional dissonance and distress as a result (van Gelderen, Bakker, Konijn and Demerouti, 2011). This has been found to predict burnout, especially when related to depersonalisation (Schaible and Gecas, 2010) with police exhibiting significantly rates significantly higher than other occupations. This is not surprising considering the inherent dangers and challenges police face in the course of their duties. However, police are also subject to a host of institutional and cultural forces that are likely to contribute to burnout. This study examines the variety of ways self-processes, societal and institutional policing values, and demands for emotional presentation on police officers interact to produce burnout. Using data collected from a survey of police officers in the Pacific Northwest (N = 109). Although some authors treat dissonance as a predictor of burnout and psychological strain, more recently it was found to fully mediate between deliberative dissonance acts of policemen and experienced psychological strain (van Gelderen, Bakker, Konijn and Binnewies, 2014).

Police officers are routinely exposed to situations that trigger intense negative emotions. These situations are typically characterised by unpredictability, risk, stress, anger, and anxiety, and officers have a strong need for effective methods to control their emotions (Berking, Meier and Wupperman, 2010). However, the literature on models for managing emotions in organisational contexts is still at an early stage, proposing either typologies (Bolton and Boyd, 2003) or models that lack empirical support (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002). Moreover, research is mostly focused on generic organisational contexts, especially of a business nature, overlooking the context of specific organisations such as police.

A noteworthy exception is Shipman et al. (2011), who produced a report for the US Army targeting a management model of emotions for leaders, which may be appropriate for police institutions due to the similarity of their underlying culture (Tuckey et al. 2012).

The state of the art made by both Gooty et al. (2009) and Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) indicates that despite the considerable collection of research there is still much to be done

to build cumulative knowledge and systematise sound and useful theoretical models. The problems identified (and challenges posed) by Gooty et al. (2009) were: 1) inconsistent definitions, 2) absence of affective dimensions (a result of the inability to aggregate discrete emotions), 3) absence of a longitudinal view of emotions, and 4) disregard for the context. Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) add to this list the focus on multilevel research. All in all, there seems to be a consensus that this is a field that deserves further attention.

At the HR practices level, emotions are especially addressed by focusing on recruitment and selection as well as initial training. However police selection research has received due attention only about two decades ago (Perez and Shtull, 2002) and Chenoweth's (1961) lamenting that police selection procedures replicated those in use in 1829 echoed still by the turn of the millennium (Decker and Huckabee, 1999). Literature on this topic is still very scarce (Landon and Arvey, 2007) and needed, especially in Europe (Beckman et al. 2003). Likewise, police initial training received criticism regarding the lack of attention to soft skills (e.g. Chappell, 2008) and especially those related with emotions, although they play a critical role in police daily life (Bar-On, Brown, Kirkcaldy and Thome, 2000). Because of this situation we opted to place a special focus on emotions regarding police HR practices driven by recruitment and selection practices and initial training. Both domains converge in increasing the chances of building a future police force suited for the institutional purpose. The remainder of the literature review will cover both domains, seeking to determine the state of the art, with the ultimate goal of analysing the centrality of emotions and psychological-related issues in this context.

Recruitment and selection in police organisations

The police recruitment process has the long standing purpose of providing law enforcement agencies with the best practices to attract and select well-qualified applicants (TCOLE, 1977), especially considering their role in dealing with global security challenges (Kilcullen, 2005). The need for a high standard in selection (Hogarty and Bromley 1996) makes it a very costly and time-consuming process (Decker and Huckabee, 1999), which due to its complexity and lack of a clear job description has difficulties in attracting candidates (Orrik, 2008).

By the end of the 1980s police selection research was not a strong subject in Academia (Pynes and Bernardin, 1988) and has only been the subject of analysis and discussion in early 2000 (Perez and Shtull, 2002). Currently, it is a worldwide research subject (e.g. Chan 2006, Weitzer and Hasisi 2008) and a conflictual topic that is far from a consensual level of consistency, as noticeable by Detrick's (2012) and Dantzker's (2012) heated debate. On the basis of the theory-practice bridging process of scientific knowledge development (Van de Ven and Johnson, 2006) and within the realm of selection research, five issues should be covered (Salgado, Viswesvaran and Ones, 2001): prevalence of use, measurement and con-

struct validity, criterion-related validity, incremental validity issues, and group differences. The subsequent review addresses these issues.

A US survey on selection procedures showed a widely shared core of police selection tests and procedures such as cognitive screening or MMPI (Ash et al. 1990). The preceding four decades witnessed a sharp increase in the use of personality and psychiatric tests as well as situational and assessment centres (cf. Hogarty and Bromley 1996) with the corresponding decrease of cognitive, aptitude, and ability tests. Authors converge with Yuille's (1986) findings that the growing employment of psychologists and psychological techniques co-occurs with the degree of professionalisation of police selection.

Ho (1999) concluded that several police departments employed several psychometric and behavioral measures to select officers. The process was not unique, but generally includes some common techniques such as written test, psychological test, oral interview, agility test, medical examination, and background check. Psychological testing was considered a positive trend by Cochrane et al. (2003).

Regarding measurement and construct validity, Arvey et al. (1992) found physical ability test events were based on two latent variables, namely strength and endurance (taken as proxies of the job performance). This suggests an underlying construct in use to rate applicants. However, Lonsway (2003) found evidence that physical ability tests may have validity problems due to gender differences. The stigma about construct validation in personnel selection may explain the considerable scarcity of literature on this subject regarding police selection (Landon and Arvey, 2007).

Concerning criterion-related validity, Koper et al. (2001) report to the US National Institute of Justice suggests a proxy of police officer selection effectiveness judged by the rate of hired applicants who went through all the training until being ready for field work.

Weiss et al. (2000) approached the validity of several scales used in police selection, discussing their ability to predict the expected behaviour. Later, Weiss et al. (2003) detailed the MMPI-2 L scale as a tool in police selection.

Personality tests in police selection are addressed by Barrett et al. (2003), who point out that conscientiousness scales should not be considered as reliable evidence for police selection. Salgado et al. (2003) found that cognitive ability tests are more widely used in selection processes in Europe than in the United States.

Sellbom et al. (2007) examined the validity of scores on pre-hire administration of the MMPI2 RC and substance abuse scales in predicting behavioural misconduct in police officers. They conclude that MMPI-2 may validly predict behaviours and attitudes in police candidates being RC scale the best predictor of misconduct. However Caillouet et al. (2010)

found otherwise. They also found that PSY-5 does add value for predicting police officer performance. MMPI-2-Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF) was found to be a defensible solution for police selection (Tarescavage et al., 2014) but may be plagued by positive response distortion (Detrick and Chibnall (2014) advising for additional investigation is needed about its validity).

Regarding incremental validity, following a controversy on the impact of intelligence tests on police candidates, personality tests were suggested by Bartol (1996) as a common alternative. NEO PI-R was found to explain police officer performance over and above MMPI-2 and IPI (Chibnall and Detrick, 2003). Likewise, Sellbom et al. (2007) found that the MMPI-2 and RC scale have incremental validity over and above clinical scales. Krause et al. (2006) also found that assessment centre ratings predicted training performance beyond cognitive ability tests. Lievens and Patterson (2011) sustain that high-fidelity simulations (assessment centres), low-fidelity simulations (situational judgement tests), and knowledge tests were all valid predictors of job performance. Incremental validity was higher for assessment centres, followed by situational judgement tests, and knowledge tests, in this order.

Finally, concerning group differences, TCOLE (1977) acknowledges the need to consider all the community groups in the selection process but fails to state how this translates as test norms. The minority group selection issue is ever since under scrutiny (Gray 2011). Perez and Shtull (2002) found negative issues linked with prejudice and bias in police selection procedures. Likewise Ben-Porat et al. (2012) concluded that to better deal with communities, police must improve its ability to hire with diversity and overcome preconceptions. Also, Waters et al. (2007) offer strategies to attract candidates from local ethnic minority communities: involving families and the minority applicants, plus their distinct levels of skill and human capital in the selection procedures. Cashmore (2002) found such diversity policies to be counterproductive but most authors assume the intrinsic added value of a diversity policy in action.

Diversity management in police institutions is an understudied subject (Ewijk, 2011) especially regarding the technical issues underlying police selection and minorities. To achieve a varied ethnic work environment it is important to use both cognitive and non-cognitive ability tests in the police selection process (Meijer et al., 2008). Police organisations use several recruitment and selection tools and processes to find the best candidate for the job. These methods are performed to reject applicants with 'psychopathology or problematic personality characteristics that could interfere with their performance as a law enforcement officer' (Weiss et al., 2013, p. 123).

Overall, despite the advancements, Beckman et al. (2003) concluded that more can be done in police recruitment, and that the selection research topic remains open, especially regarding European police forces.

Initial training in police organisations

Behavioural outcomes that police training should attain today differs from those in which training was semi-military and strict-discipline based (Foley, 2014). Gravelle and Rogers (2011) emphasise the unarmed, courteous, patient, and restrained when confronted behavioural guidelines that policing by consent implied.

Providing an initial training course is the common solution among police organisations to provide technical and interpersonal skills from the basis of all police work (McDermott and Hulse, 2012).

According with Mather (2012) British efforts to standardise training faces issues because more so than cognitive development, attitudinal change consolidation is critical for police work. Additionally, informal police culture and field experience may prevail over formal training (Haarr, 2001).

Along with the development of policing ethos, training faces major challenges such as greater accountability and professionalism, adopting new technologies, and a relentless change in police culture (Foley, 2014).

Mather (2012) found that initial training syllabi were perceived as being overly focused on the criminal law with a lessened (but needed) attention to equipment, the role of police in society, and problem solving. The traditional focus on technical and task related training endures as the dominant subject areas overshadow soft skills, which are critical for community policing (Chappell, 2008). Additionally, the format of training delivery, mostly based on didactic/instruction methods, is doubtfully trainee-centered, and hinders a developmental approach (Foley, 2014).

Literature is rich in discussions on training evolution, methods, and implications for police practice. Notwithstanding, it falls short on issues concerning emotional training in a profession that has been labelled as the most suppressive of emotional display (Denkers, 1986). Policemen with greater emotional stability and positive affect experience fewer negative psychological outcomes (Bar-On et al., 2000) and law enforcement agencies seek to filter out applicants with emotional instability (Marzella, 2000). Emotions are even more central when the institutional culture sees emotional display as a weakness countering the police identity and valued behaviour (Tuckey et al., 2012).

Overall, the lack of research targeting emotion-related issues in police recruitment, selection, and training is surprising considering the inability of personality and other non-clinical psychological evaluation methods to determine a candidate's emotional stability (Oliver, 2014). The ultimate goal of this study is to help fill that gap.

Method

Sample and procedure

According to Bayley (1999), comparative international studies are essential to understand the characteristics of police forces, but still more than a decade has elapsed since that and the call for comparative studies, and it has yet to be answered (Ewijk, 2011). We opted to target European police forces via the European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Training — CEPOL, because the specificity of the subject required participants to be knowledgeable, and institutionally representative of their country (or police institution) in a transversal European entity. Besides, CEPOL is formally a European agency which supports research on policing and is intended to facilitate knowledge sharing. The study covered both official and officer careers. All national contact points were invited to answer an online survey or to readdress the invitation to the appropriate contact person.

The required institutional guarantees that all responses would be anonymous, and that no country or police force would be identified were given. A preview of the sections of the survey was also provided in order to allow the informed consent. A name, affiliation, and institutional email address were provided to assure the legitimacy of the inquiry.

From these invitations we received 15 answers of which 14 are partially usable (due to missing data) but only nine are fully usable for police official items and 10 for police officer items, thus corresponding to an initial response rate of 54 % that turned into 36 % to 32 % valid response rate range, which matches the usual figures (35.7%, $sd = 18.8$) seen in empirical studies targeting organisational representatives (Baruch and Holtom, 2008). This response rate fell short from expected possible due to the sensibility of the subject and the fact that recruitment and selection processes as well as syllabi training tend to be treated with discretion to prevent misuse.

Measures

The survey had four sections. The first covered characterisation variables of the police forces such as legal designation and nature, which are not a subject of further analysis due to the confidentiality commitment. These data were collected to check source legitimacy and prevent double entries. The second section included questions about recruitment and selection practices for both official and officer careers. The third had questions about the initial training course, also for both careers. The survey finished with two open-ended questions about selection practices and initial course syllabi trends in the police force. Emotion-related questions were scattered throughout the four sections.

Selection practices included techniques, dimensions, and instruments and were identified by crossing Cochrane et al.'s (2003) and Koper et al.'s (2001) lists of practices, adjusted for European terminology. The resulting list comprised the following nine selection techniques: written aptitude testing, personal interview, physical agility test, polygraph exam, voice

stress analyser, psychological evaluation, drug testing, medical exam, and background check. Respondents were requested to freely select which among these were in use in their respective police forces posteriorly coded as a 'yes' or 'no' variable.

To theoretically consolidate the selection dimensions we followed the competence architectural model (Bartram and Roe, 2005, 2008; Roe, 2002) comprising personality, intelligence, knowledge, skills, and attitudes to which we added motivation as used by Cochrane et al. (2003) as well as the instruments that measure these constructs. These instruments comprised commonly used tools such as MMPI-2, 16PF, Situational and Clinical interview scripts as well as Group dynamics scripts or Rorschach/Inkblot. Respondents were requested to freely select which among these were in use in their respective police forces posteriorly coded as a 'yes' or 'no' variable.

The third section of the questionnaire targeted the extension of emotion-related training provided to officers and officials. In order to avoid framing answers, instead of a direct question about training in emotions, we opted to ask for training in Psychology, which would unavoidably cover emotion-related topics. Beforehand, the respondents were requested to answer if there was any course or module in Psychology included in initial police training. Whenever positive, they were asked to indicate how many teaching hours and which syllabi contents were in use.

The last section comprised two open-ended questions covering future organisational trends in recruitment and selection processes and in initial police training.

Data analysis

The data analysis strategy was a twofold procedure that adhered to the exploratory nature of the study via a data mining approach (Hand, Manilla and Smith, 2001). We conducted a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) in order to identify topographic spaces and characteristic associations between the variables, namely the selection practices (Greenacre and Blazius, 2006). To complement the MCA (Lebart, Morineau and Piron, 2006) we conducted a hierarchical cluster analysis to search for patterns, with the aim of identifying a possible typology of these selection practices. Due to the nature of data we opted to use Ward as a linkage method and Euclidean distances for binary variables (dummy coded for 1 = yes and 2 = no). Considering the explorative nature of the study as well as the small sample size we take 0.60 as a valid threshold for Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al. 1998, Robinson et al. 1991, Schmitt, 1996).

The same procedure was applied with specific psychology-related syllabi (in the cases where there is at least one module in Psychology taught) and finally, text transcripts from open answered questions concerning future trends in police selection and training in Europe were content analysed and resulting data treated with a final MCA.

Results

Findings are reported separately for officials and officers. Likewise, selection techniques are reported separately from initial training features with the exception of 'future trends', where they are treated jointly due to the organisational level of the focus.

Selection techniques

Having been requested to report the use of several techniques for descriptive purposes, respondents showed that for officials four techniques are always in use: personal interview, psychological evaluation, medical exam, and physical agility tests. Other techniques tend to be used by the majority (77.8 %) of selection services, namely written aptitude testing and background check. About one third of selection services test for drug use and all services reported *not* using polygraph and voice stress analyser. The MCA indicates a two-dimensional solution that explains only 27.6 % variance but incorporates two key theoretical dimensions in selection policies (Figure 1) and shows good average reliability (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.71$; competencies focused $\alpha = 0.77$, and clinical focused $\alpha = 0.61$).

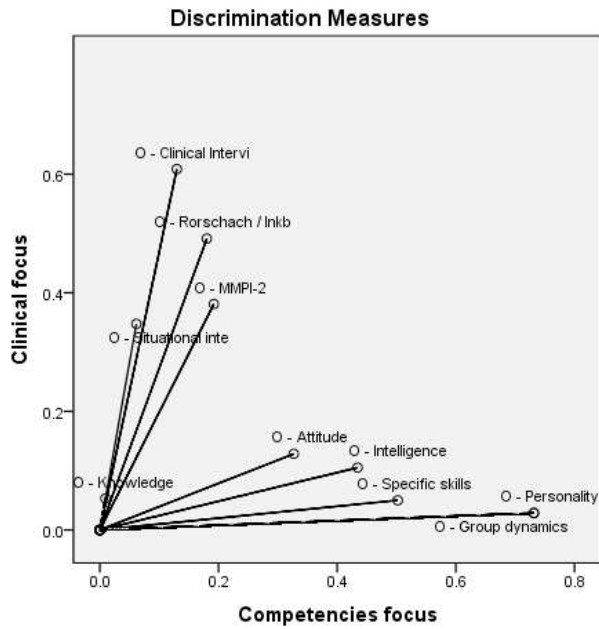
Joining the MCA results with the hierarchical cluster analysis we obtain the following mapping (object points labelled by number of identification, for anonymity sake, Figure 2):

Regarding officials (see Table 1), three European countries fall into the first cluster characterised by a focus on evaluating personality and motivation, using clinical instruments such as the clinical interview, the personal history questionnaire, or Rorschach. The second cluster, with two countries, shares the clinical focus but uses MMPI as the favoured instrument for clinical personality assessment, under a more comprehensive framework taking into consideration personality, intelligence, and motivation, as well as using a situational interview. The third cluster is a single country case showing a full KSA focus counting (also) on group dynamics and no clinical assessment. The fourth cluster is composed of three countries and expresses the most comprehensive competency-focused approach, covering both KSA and APOs.

Table 1
Official psychological instruments

| | Clusters (Ward) | | | | Total |
|-------------------------|---|----------------------------|--|--|---------|
| | Cluster 1 APOs and clinical focus N = 3 | Cluster 2 APOs N = 2 | Cluster 3 Competencies focused N = 1 | Cluster 4 Comprehensive evaluation N = 3 | |
| Personality | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 100.0 % | 88.9 % |
| Intelligence | 66.7 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 100.0 % | 77.8 % |
| Motivation | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % |
| Attitude | 66.7 % | 50.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 77.8 % |
| Specific skills | 0 % | 0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 44.4 % |
| Knowledge | 33.3 % | 50.0% | 0 % | 66.7 % | 44.4 % |
| MMPI-2 | 0 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 22.2 % |
| Personal History Quest. | 66.7 % | 0 % | 0% | 66.7 % | 44.4 % |
| Clinical Interview | 100.0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 33.3 % |
| Rorschach/Inkblot | 33.3 % | 0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 11.1 % |
| Group dynamics | 0 % | 0 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 11.1 % |
| Situational interview | 0 % | 50.0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 11.1 % |

Figure 1 — Dimensions



All instruments never reported omitted for simplicity sake. These were: 16 PF, California Psy. Inventory, Eysenck Pers. Questionnaire, Inwald Pers. Inventory, Hilson Safety/Security Risk Inventory, and Mental Status Exam.

As for officers, having been requested to report the use of several techniques for descriptive purposes, respondents showed that all selection services use personal interview. Most selection services test for physical agility (90 %), psychological evaluation (80 %), written aptitude (60 %), and medical exam (60 %). Half of the services conduct a background check of candidates and about 20 % test for drug use. All selection services reported not using polygraph or voice stress analyser.

The MCA indicated a two-dimensional solution that explains only 29.5 % but incorporates two theoretical dimensions (Figure 3) that have face validity and a good average reliability (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.76$, competencies focused dimension $\alpha = 0.79$, and cognitive focused dimension, $\alpha = 0.71$).

Figure 2 — Cluster Mapping

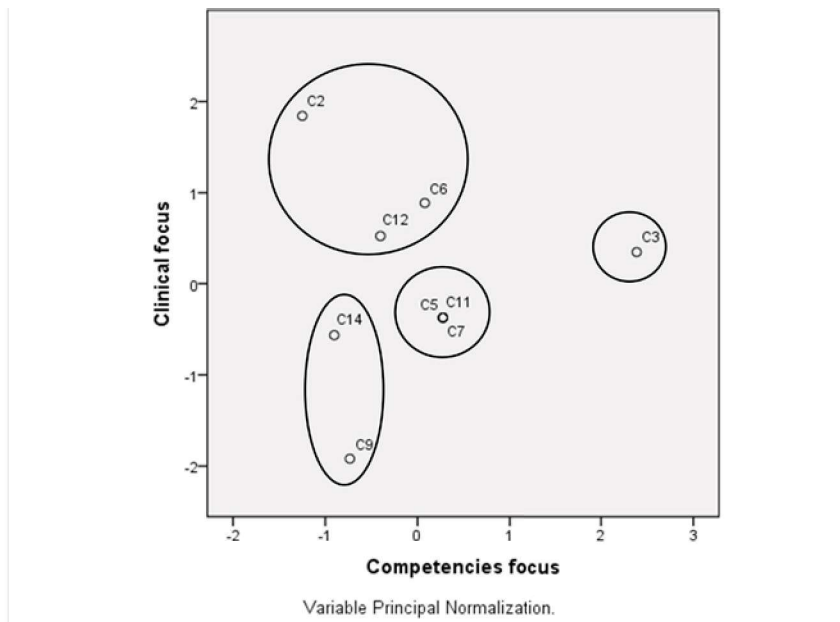


Figure 3 — Dimensions

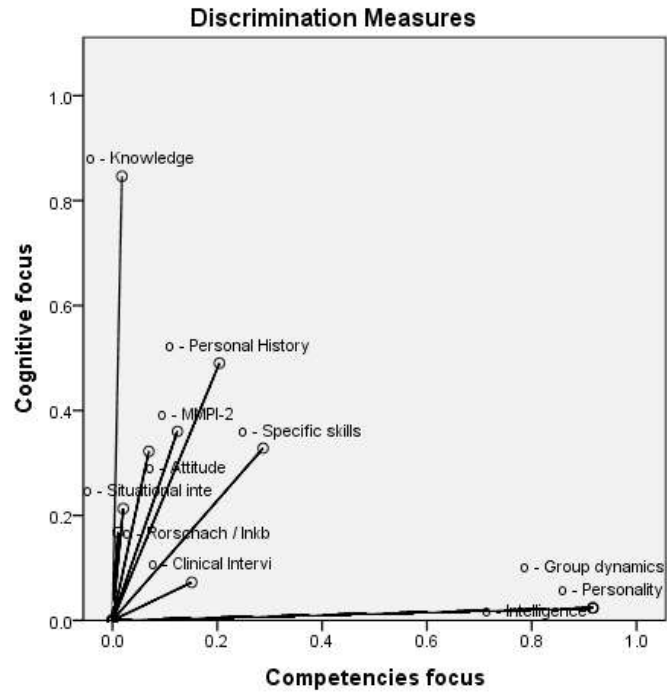


Figure 4 — Cluster Mapping

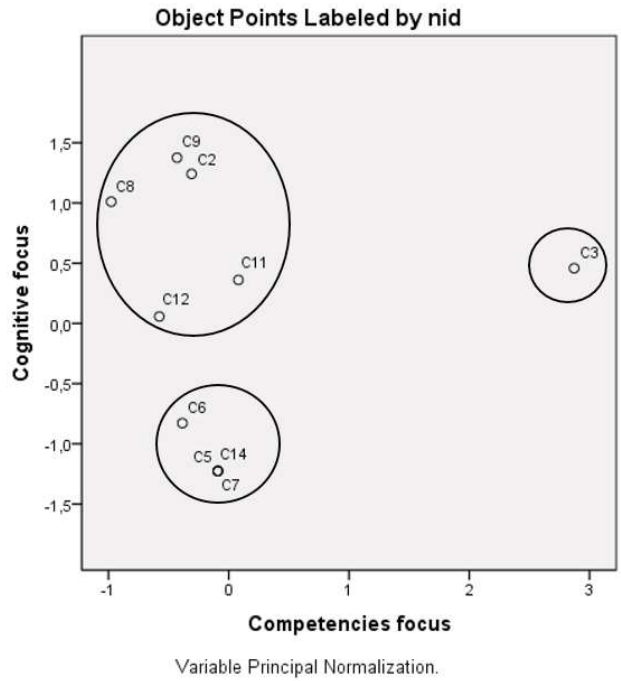


Figure 4 shows the cluster mapping. The first cluster is composed of four countries that have a more comprehensive coverage of KSAs and APOs. The second cluster is composed of five countries in which officer candidates are assessed with a focus on APOs and motivation without any focus on knowledge assessment, while a minority of the countries consider clinical issues. The third cluster is composed of a single country characterised by a focus on skills, attitudes, motivation, and using group dynamics (see Table 2).

Table 2
Officers' psychological instruments

| | Clusters (Ward) | | | Total |
|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------|---|---------|
| | Cluster 1 Comprehensive evaluation N = 4 | Cluster 2 APO N = 5 | Cluster 3 Competencies focused N = 1 | |
| Personality | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 90.0 % |
| Intelligence | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 0 % | 90.0 % |
| Motivation | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % |
| Attitude | 100.0 % | 40.0 % | 100.0 % | 70.0 % |
| Specific skills | 75.0 % | 20.0 % | 100.0 % | 50.0 % |
| Knowledge | 100.0 % | 0 % | 0 % | 40.0 % |
| MMPI-2 | 0 % | 40.0 % | 0 % | 20.0 % |
| Personal history questionnaire | 100.0 % | 40.0 % | 0 % | 60.0 % |
| Clinical interview | 0 % | 40.0 % | 0% | 20.0 % |
| Rorschach/Inkblot | 0 % | 20.0 % | 0 % | 10.0 % |
| Group dynamics | 0 % | 0 % | 100.0 % | 10.0 % |
| Situational interview | 0 % | 20.0 % | 0 % | 10.0 % |

Instruments never reported were omitted for simplicity sake and are precisely the same as found for officials.

Extent of Psychology training

Crossing officials' selection clusters with the extent of Psychology in initial courses (see Table 3) reveals no discernible pattern of association between clinical focus or competencies focus and exposure to psychology subject matter in initial training for officials.

Table 3

Extent of Psychology training in officials' initial course

| | | Clusters | | | |
|--|---------------|---|----------------------------|---|--------|
| | | Cluster 1 APOs and clinical focus N = 3 | Cluster 2 APOs N = 2 | Cluster 3 Competencies focused N = 1 | |
| Extent of Psychology training in officials' initial course | Yes, a course | 66.7 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 33.3 % |
| | Yes, a module | 33.3 % | | | 33.3 % |
| | No, nothing | | | | 33.3 % |

A required complementary analysis for a full comprehension of psychology training in use in European police concerns the number of hours in all cases in which at least one module in Psychology has been reported (Table 4). Cluster 3 is suppressed, as it is a single case.

Table 4

Number of hours of officials' psychology training

| Officials' psychology training contact hours per cluster | Mean (h) | Std. Error |
|--|----------|------------|
| Cluster 1 — APOs and clinical focus | 33.33 | 6.7 |
| Cluster 2 — APOs | 116.00 | 92.0 |
| Cluster 4 — Comprehensive evaluation | 94.50 | 85.5 |

Individual cases analysis (not shown due to anonymity restriction) indicates that contact hours with Psychology varies considerably, ranging from 9 to 208 hours, with clusters showing variable levels of heterogeneity (Cluster 1 = 33h/se = 6.7 while Cluster 4 = 94.5h/se = 85.5). This strengthens the belief that clusters are not sufficiently homogeneous to suggest any noticeable pattern.

Crossing officer selection clusters with the extent of Psychology in initial training (Table 5) shows no discernible pattern of association between cognitive focus or competencies focus and exposure to psychology subject matter in initial training for officers.

Table 5

Extent of Psychology training in officers' initial course

| | | Clusters | | |
|--|---------------|--|---------------------------|---|
| | | Cluster 1 Comprehensive evaluation N = 4 | Cluster 2 APO N = 5 | Cluster 3 Competencies focused N = 1 |
| Extent of Psychology taught in officers' initial course | Yes, a course | 75.0 % | 80.0 % | |
| | Yes, a module | | 20.0 % | |
| | No, nothing | 25.0 % | | 100.0 % |

The complementary analysis applied earlier shows (Table 6) that for officers contact hours with Psychology varies considerably, ranging from 6 to 52 hours, with clusters showing variable levels of heterogeneity (Cluster 1 = 13h/se = 5.6 while Cluster 4 = 36.8h/se = 6.4). This again strengthens the belief that clusters are not sufficiently homogeneous to suggest any sort of pattern.

Table 6
Number of hours of officers' psychology training

| Officers' psychology training contact hours per cluster | Mean (h) | Std. error |
|---|----------|------------|
| Cluster 1 — Comprehensive evaluation | 13.00 | 5.6 |
| Cluster 2 — APO | 36.80 | 6.4 |

Future trends

Counting on respondents' expertise in recruitment and selection and on official and officer training, we asked about future trends and found the following (Tables 7 and 8):

Table 7
Selection trends

| Category | Stated selection trends |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Technical-scientific foundation | 'We have started to create competency profiles for several positions' |
| Selection criteria | 'Likely to be more emphasis on written communication skills such as statement writing' |
| | 'Enhance performances and competencies to select better police officers' |
| Regularity of use | 'A more targeted recruitment' |
| | 'Selections procedures will be used for more cases' |
| General policy | 'More psychological testing for specific areas' |
| | 'Increase the number of women and focus on diversity' |
| Process modernisation | 'e-recruitment' |

Statement analysis indicates five categories that organise the vocabulary employed by respondents: technical-scientific foundation, selection criteria, regularity of use, general policy, and process modernisation. Statements suggest that competency profiling is seen to be at an early stage regarding technical-scientific foundation. Selection criteria and its regularity of use are seen as needed in order to raise the bar regarding both procedures and

skills. Likewise, an equal opportunity concern is addressed as a future issue. Lastly, efficiency concerns translate into process modernisation.

Table 8
Training trends

| Category | Stated training trends |
|---------------------------|---|
| Training needs assessment | 'Check if psychological contents meets daily police work' |
| Social focused subjects | 'Social competence' 'Improvement of "human" formation' 'Human rights' |
| Technical subjects | 'Technological skills' |
| Learning methods | 'Less theory and more practice (pragmatic approach)' 'Case-based learning methods with progression as a function of time' 'More written work in the basic training' 'More integrated cross-subject teaching performed by teams of teachers with different professional backgrounds' '"one shot" didactic modules focused on issues' |
| Evaluation methods | 'A probationary initial training' |

Five categories emerged: training needs assessment, social focused subjects, technical subjects, learning methods, and evaluation methods. Statements suggest that respondents acknowledge room for improvement due to a mismatch between needs and offer, a still suboptimal focus on social and technical issues, and especially, unsuitable learning and evaluation methods in use.

Overall, the trends (in selection and training) analysed with MCA, show a two-dimensional space in which selection trends prevail in discriminating between the axes (Figure 5). Both axes explain on average 27 % variance with acceptable Cronbach's alphas (Routine use $\alpha = .73$, Policy fulfilment $\alpha = .66$).

Business sector

Future trends fall upon these dimensions more than on content and criteria. Taking into consideration that the broad-range issues such as the routine use of procedures and the fulfilment of overall HR policy are the critical ones in estimated future trends (instead of selection criteria or training contents) we must conclude that the current situation is still one of endeavouring to set the fundamentals for critical HR areas in officials' and officers' careers.

Discussion and Conclusions

It is generally accepted that the requirements of police work imply certain personal features that translate into greater person-job fit. Desirable candidates for this profession are those who are assertive and decisive, yet compassionate and empathic (Roland, Greene, Hampton and Wihera, 2014), and represent the community they serve (Sanders, Hughes and Langworthy, 1995). Most of these features seem to be linked with emotions at work, which according to Thomas (2014) is one of the topics that should be addressed in research, adding to many topics traditionally studied such as policing strategies, organisation, and evidence-based policing.

Amongst the HRM practices, those that have received more attention from researchers focused on police matters are training and hiring (Mazeika et al., 2010). These are two of the HRM practices in which emotions play a central role, namely in selection process and specific psychological training. It is thus worthwhile to conduct research crossing emotions and these HRM practices within the context of police workforce.

Findings from this study should be interpreted while acknowledging its limitations. Although the geographical origins of respondents cover much of Europe, the small response rate prevents any generalisation to all of the European police forces. Likewise, a single organisational respondent poses a threat regarding biases, and requires further triangulation to check for representativeness. Notwithstanding, the subject under examination is not prone to social desirability responses and findings largely converge.

Overcoming these limitations is a challenge per se considering the institutional heterogeneity and policies. However, further research on emotions in police work is much needed and may bring novelty to research techniques and methods in the field. For example, Slaski (2002) defended the heuristic value of an organisational approach to understanding organisational dynamics and promoting opportunities for new techniques and research methods.

A first conclusion concerns the differing axes that structure the official and officer dimensions in selection. Although one can find similar cluster profiles from crossing these axes, it is important to keep in mind that the axes themselves are not coincident and that the clusters do not comprise the same countries. It is also worth stressing that no methods of selection are perfect (Decker and Huckabee, 1999), but one should recommend that the ideal instrument would be a test that is specifically built for police selection, rather than a test that has been adapted for use in the police environment (Lough and Von Treuer, 2013). It is also worth emphasising that a successful recruitment campaign must use a fine-tuned mixture of components to ensure strong informational output (Wilson, Wilson, Luthar and Bridges, 2013).

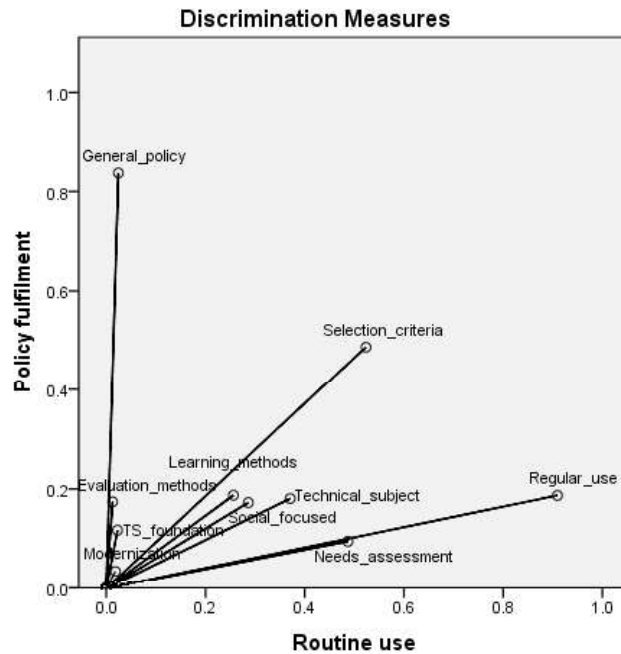
The varying number of training hours in psychology subjects (a 1:23 difference in officials' training and 1:9 in officers') is adding to the belief that practices taken together do not reveal a trend toward a common policy (Winterton, 2009).

All in all, a pattern between selection dimensions and psychology subjects in initial courses could indicate a strategic alignment between selection and training regarding psychological focus. No such pattern is discernible from findings in this study for either official or officer careers. We may therefore state that such a phenomenon might be an organisational-wide product and not simply a professional group feature. If this is true, the source of such invariance might reside in institutional culture assumptions or simply that there is not yet an explicit strategy to favour such alignment.

As for future trends in police selection and training in all categories found, there is a recurring tacit acknowledgement of a long way to go for improvement in the overall process. Also potential differences in Europe should be further understood and systematised.

Considering the literature and this study's findings, we cannot but repeat Daus and Brown's (2012) call for more research on emotion in police work. With this call it is worth remembering Denkers' (1986) caveat on the false belief that through selection and training one can guarantee higher police workforce quality. Structure, culture, policy, and leadership play

Figure 5 — Dimensions



the major roles in shaping police behaviour and therefore, an organisational embedded research framework must emerge in order to tackle these issues.

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