

기획논문

Emotional Intelligence: An Argument for Emotionally Intelligent Employees in the Public Sector

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< Abstract >

A growing number of academics and senior managers have recently come to recognize that the importance of emotional intelligence (EI) predicts outstanding performance in the workplace. Most public organizations have considered the emotions of employees as inappropriate for organizational life, disruptive, and illogical matters. Few studies have seriously considered EI topics in relation to public organizational theory. However, many public service jobs now require interpersonal contact that is either face-to-face or voice-to-voice. All these work require emotional intelligent employees who can exercise EI skills daily. This paper focuses on the overall EI concepts and the importance of EI in public organizations.

[key words: emotional intelligence, emotional labor, public organization, public service, job performance]

I. Introduction

In any work setting, some individuals perform effectively in their assigned roles, whereas others demonstrate less effective performance. Goleman (1995) and Watkin

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(2000) advocated for the importance of Emotional Intelligence (EI), which predicts outstanding performance in the workplace. A growing body of research has examined the association among EI, organizational performance, and leadership. In the last two decades, numerous researchers have conducted empirical investigations of this concept and found that EI is an important component of organizational effectiveness.

However, a significant amount of the research on EI has focused on the private sector rather than the public organization. Few scientific studies of the public organization have been published (Berman & West, 2008; Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010; 박통희, 이현정 2011; 이현정, 박통희, 2011; Kotze & Venter, 2011). According to Ring and Perry (1985), public officials must cope with frequently changing agendas and unstable coalitions; thus, managing conflict and motivating people to work together are critical skills for leaders of public organizations. Rainey et al. (1995) argued that employees of public organizations generally have fewer opportunities to influence situations by means of informal relationships and emotionally intelligent behaviors, such as exemplary interpersonal relationships and problem-solving skills. Rather, public employees tend to focus on the implementation of rules and regulations. Thus, the abilities to encourage employees to express their ideas, to listen carefully to their concerns, and to integrate various ideas are essential for the leaders of public organizations (Kotze & Venter, 2011).

The aims of this article are Five-fold. First, I introduce various studies on emotional intelligence. Second, I review the definition and domain of the EI construct and the EI model. Third, I introduce the EI measurement instruments. Fourth, I illustrate the importance of EI in public organizations. Fifth, I provide recommendations for future studies in the field of public administration.

II. Studies of Emotional Intelligence

Recent studies of EI have focused on social interaction, leadership, EI training,

and organizational performance. Since EI and these other variables are positively related in theory, many researchers attempt to apply these theories to work settings and to assess the outcomes.

First, many studies have demonstrated positive relationships between EI and social interactions. Higher scores on EI tests have been associated with various indicators of social adaptation, including pro-social behavior among schoolchildren (Rubin, 1999) and fewer negative interactions with friends among college students (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). In a recent study by Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003), college students who scored higher on the “managing emotions” subscale of the MSCEIT reported fewer conflicts and more companionship, affection, and support from their parents. A study on EI and social interaction in 118 college students by Lopes et al. (2004) also demonstrated a positive association between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions. These findings support the argument by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) that individuals who received high scores for self-emotional management were likely to have more positive social interactions. Individuals with high EI use their ability to manage emotions to develop positive social relationships (Wong and Law, 2002). Lee (2012) conducted an empirical study on EI constructs among 738 public officials in the Korean central government and found that self-emotional management was positively and significantly related to interpersonal skills.

A number of studies with students suggest that the capacity to decode, understand, and regulate emotions is associated with social and emotional adaptation (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, & Reiser, 2000; Halberstadt, Denham, & Dunsmore, 2001).

Second, an individual with high EI has the potential to be an effective leader. Kotz and Venter (2011) conducted an empirical study among 114 middle-management level leaders in a South African public institution to examine the differences in EI between effective and ineffective leaders in the public sector. Effective leaders scored significantly higher on interpersonal factors, stress management factors,

self-actualization, problem solving, and optimism. This finding supports evidence from prior research in the private sector (Bar-On, 2006; Dasborough, 2006; Wong and Law, 2002; Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005). Although the results of Kotz and Venter's (2011) study cannot be generalized to other public sector institutions due to the specific nature and characteristics of the institution and the sample, the findings should not be ignored (p.416). Among the few studies on EI conducted in the public sector, this study emphasizes that EI is an important factor in effective leadership within public organizations.

Third, EI and job satisfaction are positively related. A study by Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) on emotions in 380 municipalities in Israel demonstrated a positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction and a negative relationship between EI and other work outcomes, such as burnout, exit intentions, and negligent behavior. These findings are in agreement with previous studies in the private sector (Sy, Tram, and O'Hara, 2006; Wong and Law, 2002).

Fourth, an individual with high EI exhibits more Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)²⁾. In a recent study by Lee (2011) and Lee and Park (2011) on EI and OCB in Korea's central government, public officials with high EI exhibited more Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Since OCBs are not necessarily job requirements, these behaviors are reflected by self-emotional state and intention. If a person is accurately aware of his or her emotions, he or she can identify and act upon these emotions. Mayer et al. (2000b) argued that individuals with high EI are experts at identifying and responding appropriately to the emotions of coworkers and superiors and are able to offer voluntary assistance when they sense that a coworker is frustrated. Prior research on EI and OCB by Korean researchers in the private sectors has also demonstrated a positive relationship between these variables (정현우·김창호, 2006, 2007; 류병권·조영락, 2007, 신정길 외, 2004).

2) Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is behavior "that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place." (Organ, 1997, 95). These behaviors are voluntary, and they can and should be assessed for the purposes of employee selection (Podsakoff et al, 2011, 311).

Korkmaz and Arpacı (2009) conducted an empirical study on EI and OCB with a sample of 57 managers and subordinates in the private sector. The findings showed that a leader's EI has a significant effect on the OCBs of his or her followers. This finding is attributed to the ability of emotionally intelligent leaders to monitor their behavior and understand the behavior of their followers, thus enhancing the behaviors of the other members of the organization (p.2434). The findings from many empirical studies demonstrate that EI is significantly and positively related to OCB (Wong and Law 2002, Cote & Miners, 2006, Ashkanasy and Humphrey, 2011).

The examples in the research demonstrate the importance of EI in achieving success in the work place. A longitudinal study of Ph.D. graduates indicated that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige (Cherniss, 2005). Goleman and Cherniss (1998) also demonstrated the importance of EI in workplace success.

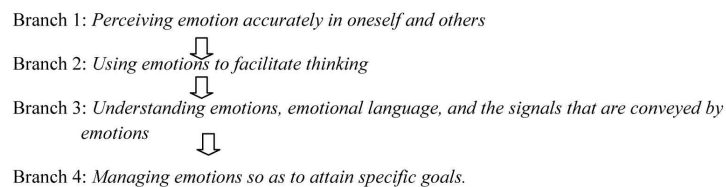
III. What Is Emotional Intelligence (EI)?

Emotional intelligence is rooted in the concept of *social intelligence*, which was first identified by Thorndike in 1920. Given the roots of EI in social intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1990, 189) were the first theorists to introduce the term *emotional intelligence*, which they defined as the subset of *social intelligence* that involves “the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.” These authors viewed EI as a group of related mental abilities, and they subsequently generated the “ability model of EI.” However, this early model encompasses an excessively broad construct that leads to difficulty in understanding the exact meaning of the concept. As Mayer et al. (2000b, 268) commented, some of “these alternative concepts of emotional intelligence include not only emotion and intelligence per se, but also motivation, non-ability dispositions and traits, and global

personal and social functioning.”

In this regard, Mayer and Salovey (1997) re-defined EI to correspond more closely with emotional ability and classified it into four distinct areas. They defined EI as “the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (p.10).” These four areas became known as the four-branch model (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Mayer et al. (2004, 2008) noted that each branch is located along a continuum from lower-level skills to more complex and sophisticated skills. Figure 1 displays the developmental progression of the four branches of skills.

Figure 1. The developmental progression of the four branches of the ability model³⁾



Subsequent researchers who followed the ability model include Davies, Stankov, and Roverts (1998), Schutte et al. (1998), and Wong and Law (2004). Although each of these researchers defines EI differently, all of the concepts involve the four EI constructs: *perceiving, understanding, regulating, and utilizing emotion* (Ciarrochi et al. 2000, 540). Table 1 depicts the constructs of the ability model from these researchers.

3) Branch 1 is the lowest level EI skill and the Branch 4 is the highest level EI skill. To achieve a higher level of emotional skills, people must first satisfy the lower-level emotional skills. People must be competent in perceiving self-emotion and others' emotion, using own emotions to facilitate thinking to be able to improve their emotional management skills and ultimately achieve one's goals. The empirical study on EI construct by Lee (2012) supports these sequences of relationships among the EI constructs. Lee (2012) demonstrated that EI construct is no longer one-dimension, rather it is a multidimensional with interrelated dimensions.

Table 1. The constructs of the ability model⁴⁾

EI Constructs/ Researchers	Knowing & understanding one's emotion	Understanding the emotions of others	Managing one's emotion	Using the emotions
Mayer & Salovey (1997)	Perceive emotion	Understand emotions	Manage emotion	Use of emotion to <u>facilitate</u> <u>thought</u>
Davies et al. (1998) & Wong and Law (2004)	* Appraisal and express of emotion in oneself	* Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others	* Regulation of emotion in oneself	* Use of emotion to <u>facilitate</u> <u>performance</u>
Schutte et al. (1998)	* Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and others	Appraisal and expression of emotion in the others	* Regulation of emotion in the self and others	* Utilization of emotions in <u>solving</u> <u>problems</u>

As represented in Table 1, the ability model construct is complementary rather than contradictory. In addition, Mayer and Salovey (1997, 2004, 2008), Davies et al (1998), and Wong and Law (2002, 2004) presented empirical evidence that EI differs from personality traits and that the four constructs entail unitary abilities.

The second approach to conceptualizing EI is a trait model. This model was first advocated by Petrides and Furnham (2000), who proposed the distinction between trait EI and ability EI. The trait model focuses on emotion-related behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities that range from motives and individual traits to various learned capabilities (Petrides & Furman, 2000, p. 314). These traits are embedded in

4) All the researchers comply with the components related to (1) knowing and understanding one's own emotions, (2) understanding the emotions of others, and (3) managing one's emotions. However, when researchers select "the using the emotions" as an EI construct, they modify its term to fit the purpose of the study. Researchers who use either trait model or mixed model even neglect the term, *use of emotions*, from their studies.

four factors with 15 subscales, and the four factors include (a) well-being, (b) self-control skills, (c) emotional skills, and (d) social skills (Petrides et al, 2003).

Table 2 displays the four factors of the EI trait model.

Table 2. Factors for EI trait model and their subscales

Factors	subscales
1. Well-being	a) Self-esteem b) Trait happiness c) Trait optimism
2. Self-control skills	a) Impulsiveness (low level) b) Stress management c) Emotion regulation
3. Emotional skills	a) Emotion expression b) Relationship skills c) Trait empathy d) Emotion perception (self and others)
4. Social control skills	a) Assertiveness b) Emotion management (others) c) Social competence
Adaptability	
Self-motivation	

However, the trait model does not appear to be distinct from the ability model. First, the variables in the trait model overlap with those in the ability model. Second, the trait model does not specify why certain traits are or are not included and/or why certain emotional abilities are or are not included. Third, the measures that are based on the trait model are not highly correlated with measures of intelligence, but they are strongly correlated with personality measures (Kulkarni, Janakiram, & Kumar, 2009). Thus, the variables in the trait-model construct are not novel; rather, these variables indicate the correlation between the ability model and the trait model.

The final EI model is a mixed model. This model includes aspects of personality and the abilities to perceive and manage emotions. Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997) are the primary scholars who contributed to developing the mixed model of EI.

Goleman (1995) defined EI as the capacity to recognize one's own feelings and those of others as well as to motivate oneself and to manage emotions in oneself and in one's relationships. Subsequently, he (1998) re-defined EI in competency terms and thus implied that an emotionally intelligent individual has learned and refined his or her skills in a series of emotional competencies that form part of an awareness or regulation of emotions within the self and others. The initial model includes five clusters of emotional and social competencies: (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) adeptness in relationships (Goleman, 1995, 43). Subsequently, these five clusters were reduced to four clusters of competencies: (a) self-awareness, (b) self-management, (c) social awareness, and (d) relationship management (Goleman, et al, 2002). Table 3 displays the competencies that are included within the five constructs of Goleman's mixed model.

Table 3. the five constructs of Goleman's mixed model

<u>Self-awareness</u> a) Emotional self-awareness b) Accurate self-assessment c) Self-confidence	<u>Social awareness</u> a) Empathy b) Organizational awareness c) Service
<u>Self-management</u> a) Self-control b) Transparency: an authentic openness to others about one's feelings, beliefs, and actions c) Adaptability: flexible in adapting to new challenges d) Achievement e) Initiative f) optimism	<u>Relationship management</u> a) inspiration b) influence c) developing others d) change catalyst e) conflict management f) teamwork and collaboration

However, Mayer et al. (2000) argued that the variables in the mixed model describe personality rather than intelligence, are not scientific, and contributes no new information to the literature. Lock (2005) also criticized certain competencies—including transparency, adaptability, team and collaboration, and initiative—as being

“preposterously all encompassing”. Thus far, there has been no clear explanation of why unrelated emotional competencies should be included in an EI model.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) further developed the EI construct based on an extensive review of the literature rather than on competency data. Their work was completed following the introduction of Goleman’s model. Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) enumerated seven EI factors: (a) self-awareness, (b) emotional resilience, (c) motivation, (d) interpersonal sensitivity, (e) influence, (f) intuitiveness, and (g) conscientiousness (p. 196).⁵⁾

Bar-On (1997) defines EI as “an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. He introduced five EI constructs: (a) intrapersonal intelligence, (b) interpersonal intelligence, (c) adaptability, (d) stress management, and (e) general mood (p. 44-47). Bar-On (2005) noted that EI is an important factor in determining one’s ability to succeed in life and directly influences a person’s general well-being.

Despite the differences among the three EI models, they share certain commonalities. First, all of the models include the criterion of *being able to perceive and understand one’s own emotions*. Emotional self-awareness is a crucial component of EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al, 2008; 이현정·박통희, 2011), and the emotions that a person experiences at a given moment influence virtually all of his or her actions in his or her daily life (Izard, 1991). Second, a component related to *empathy, or the ability to understand the feelings that others experience*, is included in most of the models. Emotional intelligence may contribute to workplace success and organizational performance. Most work settings require teamwork, and workers are currently more dependent on one another. Thus,

5) emotional resilience: being able to maintain one’s performance in great pressure and criticized situation

Interpersonal sensitivity: showing sensitivity and empathy towards others.

Intuitiveness: the ability to make decision, using reason and intuition when faced with incomplete or questionable information

Conscientiousness: being consistent in one’s words and action.

understanding the emotions of others may be vital competencies to ensure success in modern organizations. Third, all of the models include self-management factor. Self-management is the highest-level skill that is included in EI (Mayer et al, 2004, 2008). People who are able to control their emotions can engage in positive interpersonal relationships (Abraham, 199), satisfy the complex demands of society (Gross, 1998), and accomplish personal goals (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Davies et al, 1998; Goleman et al, 2002; Wong and Law, 2004). Thus, conflict management skills enable leaders to motivate their employees to work together, and this skill is required in modern organizations. Fourth, a component related to the *use of emotion* may be reclassified or omitted depending on the specific focus of study, such as interpersonal skills, motivation or adaptability.

Based on the above argument, we claim that the components related to (1) knowing and understanding one's own emotions, (2) understanding the emotions of others, and (3) managing one's emotions form the key constructs of emotional intelligence.

IV. Emotional Intelligence Measurement Instruments

1. Ability model of EI

The most prominent measure of the ability model is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2002). Each ability area of the four constructs is operationalized as a set of problems to be solved, and the responses of test takers are scored (Mayer, et al, 2008, p. 507). Because the MSCEIT represents the actual abilities of subjects to solve emotional problems, the MSCEIT scores are relatively unaffected by self-conception. In terms of validity, the MSCEIT demonstrates good face validity, content validity, and incremental validity for predicting socially relevant outcomes (Mayer et al, 2008).

MSCEIT also circumvents the limitations of commonly used self-report and peer-report measures. Despite these positive attributes, the test has limitations. First, the number of performance scale items is excessively long (141 questions). Second, the MSCEIT cannot be objectively scored because there are no clear criteria for what constitutes a correct response (Perez et al, 2005). Third, the MSCEIT test may not reflect exactly how people process emotional information in real-life social interactions (Matthew, Zeidner, and Roberts, 2002).

The Hong Kong scholars Wong and Law (2002) attempted to bypass the weaknesses of the MSCEIT by developing a short measure of EI for use in organizational research (WLEIS; Wong and Law, 2002). The WLEIS comprises 16 items and measures four dimensions using self-reported responses: *appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, regulation of emotion in oneself, and the use of emotion to facilitate performance*. The WLEIS demonstrates good internal consistency in predicting job performance and job satisfaction (Wong & Law, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song 2004); however, its incremental validity has not yet been determined. Because most WLEIS items are based on Chinese respondents in Hong Kong and mainland China, there is a lack of scientifically valid measures for this instrument in other countries. Thus, the question of whether the WLEIS can be used in other countries is important for theoretical researchers and human resource practitioners.

Despite all the positivity of the ability model, Goleman (1996) and Martinez (1997) once argued that feedback from bosses and subordinates may be a more appropriate means of assessment of the construct of EI than pencil-and paper tests. Appendix 1 displays some of the items from the MSCEIT and the WLEIS.

2. Trait model of EI

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, Perez, & Furnham, 2003) is the only tool that measures the trait

model. The questionnaire comprises 153 items with 15 subscales and four factors. The TEIQue demonstrates convergent validity, discriminant validity, and good internal consistency (Petrides and Furnham, 2001). The questionnaire predicts the behavior of various measures, including mental health, job stress, job performance, and organizational commitment. The greatest weakness of the TEIQue is that the dimensionality of the questionnaire is currently under investigation, and only a few researchers have utilized this test.

3. Mixed model of EI

There are two well-known measurement instruments of the mixed model: Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI; Boyatzis et al, 1999) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997)⁶.

The ECI measures "emotional competencies" that are broadly related to EI (Goleman, 1998) and consists of 20 competencies that are organized into four clusters: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. This inventory has proven to be popular in the field of human resources management, but scientific journals contain scarce information regarding the psychometric properties of this inventory (Perez et al, 2005). In terms of validity, the samples that are used for the ECI model are excessively miniscule as to render its convergent validity and discriminant validity as unclear, and its incremental validity has not yet been reported. However, the ECI demonstrates good internal consistency.

The EQ-I is one of the most widely used measures of the EI mixed model in the literature (Perez et al, 2005). This 133-item self-reported inventory employs 15 subscales within five higher-order factors⁷: *intrapersonal intelligence*, *interpersonal*

6) An additional measurement instrument of the mixed model exists: the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire by Dulewicz and Higgs (DHEIQ; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2001). This questionnaire was designed for use in organizational settings, but it has not been used frequently in the scientific literature, and there exists little information concerning its reliability and validity.

7) From lowest to highest, the factor order is as follows: intrapersonal intelligence<interpersonal

intelligence, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Dawda & Hart, 2000, 799). However, Petrides and Furnham (2000) criticized the ordering of these factors. By empirically testing this format, these authors found no evidence of higher-order factors and concluded that the questionnaire appears to be unifactorial (2001). Another limitation of the EQ-I is the factors that are employed in this inventory. The EQ-I includes several irrelevant emotional factors, such as “problem solving”, “reality testing” and “independence”, whereas it neglects numerous relevant factors pertaining to emotions, such as “emotional perception”, “emotional expression” and “emotional regulation” (Perez et al, 2005, 129). Despite its weaknesses, the EQ-I demonstrates good internal consistency and is positively correlated with depression, normal personality, and somatic symptomatology (Dawda & Hart, 2000).

Schutte et al (1998) noted the EI scale may have value in assessing individuals who want a valid appraisal of their EI. Specifically individuals who (1) wish to understand one’s important characteristics to set better goals and work toward these goals; (2) experience problems in areas related to EI, such as difficulties in impulse control; (3) are considering entering careers in which EI is important (p.176).

V. Why do public organizations need emotionally intelligent employees?

Most studies of EI have focused on what EI actually predicts. The results of such studies reveal that EI is positively correlated with a variety of factors, such as *academic performance* (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003; Barchard, 2003; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Lam & Kirby, 2002), *leadership* (Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Goleman, 1995; Bass, 1999; Wendelin & Jurgens, 2005; Kotze & Venter, 2011), *organizational behavior* (Cote & Miners, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002; Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002; Cote, Lopes, & Salovey, 2003), *deviant behavior* (Rubin, 1999; Trinidad & Johnson,

intelligence< adaptability<stress management<general mood.

2002; Swift, 2002), and *organizational citizenship behavior* (이현정, 2011; 이현정·박통희, 2011; Korkmaz & Arpaci, 2009). These characteristics clearly indicate that emotional intelligence is a critical factor for successful performance in any organizational setting.

However, most of the extant research has been conducted in private sector settings in which customer responsiveness in sales relationships is the goal. Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010, 82) state that public administration theories and publications contain little serious discourse regarding emotions and emotional intelligence. As indicated by the major scientific publication search engines, few studies—except for the works of Berman and West (2008), Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010), Guy and Newman (2004), and Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008)—have seriously considered emotional intelligence or emotional labor topics in relation to public organizational theory. In South Korea, only 이현정·박통희 (2011) have empirically examined the EI of public officials in public organizations. Since 1990, general management and organizational psychology journals have published more than 1,000 articles on the topics of emotions and emotional intelligence (Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler, 2010, 82).

Why public service jobs require emotionally intelligent employees? Because many public service jobs require interpersonal contact that is either face-to-face or voice-to-voice (Guy, Newman, and Mastracci, 2008). Those who staff the counter at *동사무소* are expected to greet more than 100 people of the day with the same sincerity as they greeted the first. They need good interpersonal skills as well as self-emotional management skills. Police dispatchers and those who staff the phone lines for 119 must manage their own emotions to calm down citizens who are in serious conditions. Those who staff the phone lines for the Social Security Administration are expected to be “nicer than nice” (Guy, et al. 2008, 3). All these work require emotional labor and emotionally intelligent employees. Public organization employees exercise EI skills daily.

The conventional public organizations are generally large bureaucracy structure to

perform their core tasks with stability and consistency, often resisting change or disruption of these tasks (Borins, 2002; Prince, 1996). The emotions of employees have traditionally been viewed as inappropriate for organizational life, disruptive, and illogical and thus has received relatively little attention by the workplace and organizational researchers (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Fineman, 1993). However, researchers began to recognize that emotions are not the antithesis of the rationality that traditionally valued in work settings (Putman and Mumby, 1993). People frame emotions and learning within an organizational context, and the organizational change is frequently associated with emotional or interpretative conflict (Dowing, 1997). Comparing to the previous public organizations, a vertical interpersonal relations are replaced by a horizontal interpersonal relations. In addition, recent emphasizes on expression of care boost public confidence (Guy, et al, 2008). *Care* may relate to assisting, supporting, or enabling activities that focus on the needs of other (Guy, et al, 2008, 11). Thus, public workers are start to express their emotions and want to be respected as a valued person in the work places and at the same time, they care for others to lessen the interpersonal conflict. Due to the openness, the public organizations have facing greater numbers of challenges, forcing it to become more innovative. They also need to deliver services to societies and communities characterized by an increased level of diversity in terms of culture, language, regulation, and educational level (Kotze and Venter, 2011). Subsequently, leaders of the public organizations require being socially and emotionally competent persons who have the ability to regulate their own and others' behavior according to such situational changes.

A number of female public workers are currently increasing in Korean public organizations. This trend is also required deep understanding of their emotions by the superior and coworkers in the work settings. Cooper (1997, 31) quotes Nick Zenuik, former leader of an executive team at Ford Motor Company: “emotional intelligence is the hidden competitive advantage. If you take care of the soft stuff , the hard stuff takes care of itself.”

Public organizations must cope with frequently changing agendas, unstable coalitions, and changing organizational cultures. Managing conflicts and motivating people to work together have become critical leadership skills (Ring & Perry, 1985). With the pressure of reduced budgets and an increasing demand for services, employees with emotional intelligence competencies are necessary. A study that was conducted by Bar-On et al. (2003) demonstrated that poor personal decision-making judgment resulted from lower levels of EI, even though the research subjects possessed average to above-average cognitive intelligence. Thus, the ability to encourage people to express their ideas, to listen carefully to their concerns, and to integrate differing but complementary ideas are critical skills for leaders of public organizations (Kotze & Venter, 2011).

VI. Future directions

We know that high EI can contribute to organizational performance in many positive ways. Thus, how do we increase the emotional intelligence of public employees? First, the provision of EI training to public workers could increase their EI levels. Recommendations for EI training have recently become commonplace in many professional and private sectors, but few of these training programs have been implemented in public organizations. However, many EI programs are marketed based on positive testimonials and insubstantial anecdotes without any substantive empirical data (Clarke, 2006) and are often advertised on Web sites or in popular bookstores. Many people overuse the term “emotional intelligence” without knowing its exact meaning and assume that EI is the opposite of rational thinking. People tend to believe that women have higher EI than men because women are more emotionally oriented. However, these assumptions are biased because there are ongoing debates in the literature regarding what constitutes EI, the terminology that are used to describe its constructs, and the methods that are used to measure it. Thus, one should be

cautious when adopting widespread EI training programs in any workplace. The first goal of an organization should be to identify the specific norms and rules in the workplace that govern emotional displays and emotional management. A uniformly “correct” or “optimal” EI training program does not exist. As a result of differences in organizational cultures, training programs for the private sector may not be identical to those that are designed for public organizations. Thus, each training program should be specifically tailored to each individual organization. For example, EI training programs could include coaching on managing one’s own emotions, developing team-based learning approaches to evaluating the emotions of others, or practicing role-playing to assist in recognizing one’s own emotions.

Another method of fostering EI in employees is to administer an EI test to prospective employees. Research on EI indicates that people with high EI tend to be more socially competent and to have better-quality relationships than those with lower EI (Brackett et al., 2006; Brackett, Warner, & Bosco, 2005; Lopes et al., 2004; Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003). Managers with high EI are more likely to engage in behaviors that support the goals of their organizations (Cote & Miners, 2006). People with high EI demonstrate better job performance (Cote & Miners, 2006; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Sutton, 1991; Law, Wong and Song, 2004). In this respect, screening prospective employees for high EI may contribute to promoting better initial work performance for such individuals.

In conclusion, the most important challenges that are encountered by public administrators involve increasing the efficiency of the work of their employees and making this work more humane. For a leader with high EI, recognizing his or her own emotions and those of others is the optimal manner in which to achieve this goal.

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Appendix 1. MSCEIT & WLEIS measurement scales.

1. Example MSCEIT items

1) Identifying Emotions

Indicate how much of each emotion is present in this picture.



Emotion	Not Much				Very
Happiness	1	2	3	4	5
Fear	1	2	3	4	5
Sadness	1	2	3	4	5
Surprise	1	2	3	4	5

2) Using Emotions

What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when meeting in-laws for the very first time?

Mood	Not Useful				Useful
Tension	1	2	3	4	5
Surprise	1	2	3	4	5
Joy	1	2	3	4	5

3) Understanding Emotions

Tom felt anxious, and became a bit stressed when he thought about all the work he needed to do. When his supervisor brought him an additional project, he felt _____. (Select the best choice.)

- a) Overwhelmed
- b) Depressed
- c) Ashamed
- d) Self Conscious
- e) Jittery

4) Managing Emotions

Debbie just came back from vacation. She was feeling peaceful and content. How well would *each* action preserve her mood?

Action 1: She started to make a list of things at home that she needed to do.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 2: She began thinking about where and when she would go on her next vacation.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 3: She decided it was best to ignore the feeling since it wouldn't last anyway.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

2. Example of WLEIS items

1) Self-emotions appraisal

- a) I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of time.

2) Other-emotions appraisal

- a) I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior

3) Use of emotion

- a) I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them

4) Regulation of emotion

- a) I am able to control my temper so that I can handle difficulties rationally.