The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Public Sector Employee's Affective Commitment

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Article Info

Abstract: Commitment is vital in keeping and maintaining integrity within the organization, especially in public organizations. In addition to maintaining integrity, commitment is much needed in organizational change. People with affective commitment who join the organization of their own volition will support the changes made if they feel they are good for the organization. This quantitative study used primary data collected with an online survey facility. The data collection used the non-probability sampling technique of convenience sampling. The sample involved 255 active Directorate General of Customs and Excise employees with work locations across various parts of Indonesia. The data obtained were processed with JASP v 0.16 application with simple regression techniques and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The study's results support the initial hypothesis that emotional intelligence positively affects employees' affective commitment. In addition, the study's results support the second hypothesis that public service motivation mediates the effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment.

Keywords: *affective commitment; emotional intelligence; public service motivation*

INTRODUCTION

The growth of international trade has had a major impact on the Indonesian economy. The increase in state revenues from levies of import duties, export duties, and other import taxes is offset by the increasing threat of the entry of illegal goods from abroad. The high volume of transactions also creates opportunities for Directorate General Customs and Excise's (DGCE) employees to abuse their authority to enrich themselves. Counterproductive behavior like this has violated various regulations and damaged the organization's image.

Integrity significantly reduces the level of counterproductive behavior in the workplace (Ozcan, 2006). The higher the integrity of a person, the more obedient to the rules and less personal aggression. Organizational commitment has a significant moderating role in the relationship between integrity and counterproductive behavior in the workplace. A strong commitment is needed to maintain and elevate the organization, and employee integrity has been built.

Meyer and Allen (1991) have introduced the concept of commitment as a set of thoughts or psychological conditions with three components. Each component is considered to develop as a function of different antecedents and has different implications in the workplace.

a. Affective Commitment: Employees stay in the organization because they are what they want to do. The antecedents of affective commitment can be grouped into four main categories, namely: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, and characteristics related to work and work experience.
b. Continuance Commitment: Awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. They stay with the organization because they need it. The availability of alternatives and investment are the most frequently studied antecedents of continuance commitment.
c. Normative commitment: They feel burdened to continue working because they have to stay in the organization. This feeling may arise from internalizing the normative pressures given to individuals before entering the organization.

Employees who want to join the organization are likelier to put more effort into the organization than those who need or feel obliged to (Meyer et al., 1998).

Many studies examined this commitment in its development, and Mercurio (2015) concluded that affective commitment is the main essence of organizational commitment. Affective commitment can predict organizational consequences, such as employee turnover, absenteeism, and organizational behavior.

Organizational commitment is relevant when companies face situations requiring employees to do their jobs to adapt to organizational change or overcome difficult times (Solinger et al., 2008). Many factors affect employee commitment to the organization, including emotional intelligence and public service motivation. DGCE's employees require higher levels of emotional intelligence because most of their duties involve emotionally intense work that focuses on serving the community (Lee, 2017).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as a set of social intelligence that involves recognizing, distinguishing, and using information about feelings and emotions in oneself and others to guide thinking and acting. Emotional intelligence can also be defined as the ability to recognize, understand and use emotional information relating to oneself that encourages or causes better or more effective performance (Boyatzis et al., 2009). Emotional intelligence is related to the ability to analyze emotions accurately and use emotions and emotional knowledge to increase understanding (Mayer et al., 2008). Although there are differences in the models of emotional intelligence proposed by researchers, the basic concept of all these models is the same, which refers to the ability to recognize and control emotions in oneself and others (Chernis & Goleman, 2001).

Although researchers in emotional intelligence have proposed many approaches, Kotze and Venter (2011) grouped various studies on emotional intelligence into two concepts: 1) the ability model approach and 2) the mixed model approach. Of these two approaches, the ability model is more commonly used by researchers. It is called the mixed model approach because this model targets various qualities (Mayer et al., 2008).

Goleman in Alavi et al. (2012) believe that a person's emotional intelligence is assessed by self-awareness, self-management, motivation, empathy, and relationship management. Boyatzis et al. (2009) identified several emotional intelligence competencies: planning, self-confidence, orientation to efficiency, attention to detail, and self-control. This emotional intelligence competency is vital in leading and managing oneself (Boyatzis et al., 2018).

Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. In line with these findings, Brunetto et al. (2012) also found that emotional intelligence leads to job satisfaction and well-being and has a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Tjahjono et al. (2015; 2019) confirmed in their study that individual aspects are an important predictor of affective commitment research. Mayfield (2019) also found a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and affective and normative commitment to information and communication technology managers in the United States.

Thus it can be concluded that the higher the level of emotional intelligence of a person, the higher the commitment to the organization. The increasing commitment of employees to the organization makes them want to continue to be in their organization. It will do various positive things that they feel will perpetuate the existence of their organization. People who already feel part of their organization will then view the problems faced by the organization as their problems. H1: Emotional intelligence has a positive effect on Affective Commitment

People with public service motivation will be oriented to provide services to do the best for others (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). They will have a greater sense of mission and responsibility in their workplace (Pattakos, 2004). With a greater sense of mission and responsibility, employees will provide greater energy in carrying out their work. This issue, of course, will lead to increased performance and encourage an increase in welfare. The various impacts of this work are expected to increase employees' affective commitment.

Public service motivation is a person's tendency to respond to motives primarily or uniquely based on public institutions or organizations (Perry & Wise, 1990). Another definition was also introduced by Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) as motivation for self-sacrifice to serve the interests of a group, society, state, or humanity. This public service motivation tends to be more visible in government and private sector employees. Like Rainey and Steinbauer (1999), Perry and Hondeghem (2008) defined public service motivation as the orientation of a person to provide services to do good for others and society. Public service motivation can be influenced by structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and work experience (Brewer & Selden, 1998).

These motives by Perry and Wise (1990) are grouped into three different categories analytically:
1. Rational motives: actions based on maximizing individual utility.
2. Norm-based motives: behavior produced by efforts to conform to norms.
3. Affective motives: trigger behavior based on emotional responses to various contexts.

Furthermore, Perry (1996) identified six dimensions to measure the level of PSM, namely: a) Interest in policy-making; b) Commitment to the public interest; c) Social justice; d) Civil duties; e) Mercy; and f) Self-sacrifice. This dimension is then narrowed down into four dimensions by eliminating the dimension of social justice and combining a commitment to the public interest with civic duty (Perry, 1997).

The conception of public service motivation will differ depending on the region or country, including the institution (Vandenabeele et al., 2006). When studying the motivation of public services, the structures and systems must apply to the organization. People with a high level of public service motivation have a greater sense of mission and responsibility at work (Pattakos, 2004), so they will have a sense of commitment to public service, human characteristics, hope to serve others, and a strong determination to serve the community (Houston, 2006).

In addition, public service motivation in public sector organizations positively influences individual performance (Perry & Wise, 1990). People with a high level of public service motivation are also expected to provide higher performance.

Crewson (1998) found a positive relationship between public service motivation and employees' organizational commitment in the federal sector. Hansen and Kjeldsen (2017) revealed that employees' public service motivation and perceived management involvement have a positive relationship with affective commitment, especially among office workers in the public sector. These findings emphasized the importance of public service motivation for affective commitment, and managers can support this commitment by adopting a more participatory leadership style.

People with high public service motivation and work in government agencies will feel the harmony between their motivation and organizational goals. This harmony encourages an emotional bond between himself and his organization. Perry and Wise (1990) assumed that public service motivation might positively relate to individual and organizational commitment. Potipiroon and Ford's research (2017) also supported this assumption that public service motivation had a positive relationship with organizational commitment if balanced with high intrinsic motivation and ethical leadership.

Budiyanti et al. (2019) stated that public sector employees consider it important to help others, serve the community and the public interest, and do work that benefits the community. They also perceive higher intrinsic rewards as a source of motivation compared to private workers. Individuals who have a high level of public service motivation have an orientation to do good for others and the community and have a better orientation to help people who take advantage of public services (Palma et al., 2020). A person can provide a more sincere service to the customer/community if he better understands the emotions felt by others.

People with high levels of public service motivation have a greater sense of mission and responsibility in the workplace (Pattakos, 2004). Public workers interacting with the community and making rapid decisions may significantly impact the community's physical and psychological well-being (Brunetto et al., 2012). Influenced by work service motivation, public employees have a sense of commitment to public service, human characteristics, hope to serve others, and a strong determination to serve the community (Houston & Cartwright, 2007). People whose work experience is under their disposition (in this case serving the public) will have more positive work behavior than those less suitable (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, it can be concluded that people with high public service motivation will have a strong commitment to public organizations because of the common goal of serving the community's interests (Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017).

Levitats and Vigoda-Gadot (2017) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and work outcomes, including affective commitment. The research was conducted by looking at the direct relationship, mediation relationship, and moderating the relationship between variables. One of the results of this research is the finding that public service motivation mediates emotional intelligence's effect on nurses' affective commitment in hospitals in Israel. Ekermans (2009) concluded that research related to emotional intelligence must pay attention to cultural differences.

The emotionally intense nature of work and a focus on public service makes emotional intelligence very important (Lee, 2017) for public employees. Emotionally intelligent employees will better understand the emotions of those who need their services. They will make more effort to carry out their duties to serve the community because they have a greater sense of mission and responsibility (Pattakos, 2014). This motivation will then bring out a commitment from within the employee to provide services to the community. This harmony of goals between personal motivation to serve the community and organizational goals will increase employee commitment to the organization (Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017)

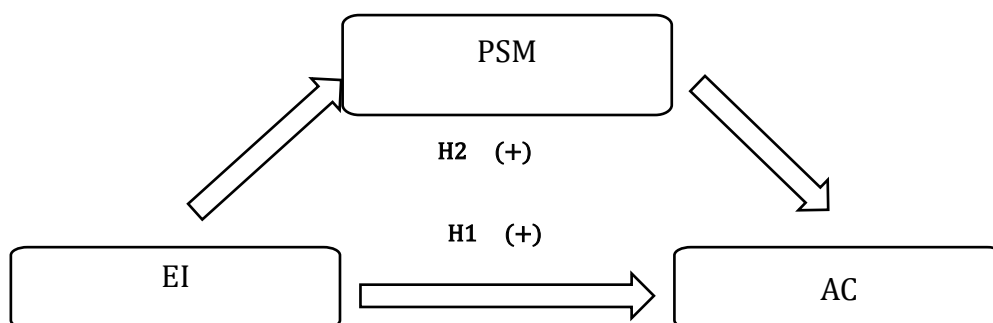H2: Public service motivation mediates the effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment

Figure 1. Research Hypothesis Framework
Source: Data Analysis

RESEARCH METHOD

The quantitative research aims to measure the effect of emotional intelligence on employees' affective commitment in the context of the public sector, with public service motivation as a mediator. The model used in this study refers to research conducted by Levitats and Vigoda-Gadot (2017). The data used in this study is primary data from the authors directly from the research respondents. Research data processing used JASP v0.16 software.

The population in this study were all employees (officials and implementers) with the status of civil servants and civil servants candidate in the DGCE, as many as 16,375 employees. The composition of DGCE's employees by gender is 13,460 (82.2%) male and 2,915 (17.8%) female. The 16,375 employees are spread across various regions of Indonesia with various office

typologies and various main tasks. Based on location, the number of employees working on Java island is 8,820 (53.86%), and the remaining 7,555 people (46.14%) are outside Java island.

The target research respondents are 370 DGCE employees from all existing office typologies, including the DGCE Head Office (KPDJBC), DGCE Regional Office (Kanwil BC), Primary Customs and Excise Service Office (KPU BC), Customs and Excise Supervision and Service Office (KPPBC), Customs and Excise Laboratory Center (BLBC) and Customs and Excise Operations Facility Base (PSO BC) spread across various parts of Indonesia. The selection of research respondents used the convenience sampling method by utilizing the help of the author's colleagues scattered in various parts of Indonesia. Data collection uses online survey techniques by utilizing the Google Forms service.

To measure the public service motivation in DGCE, the authors used a research instrument that Kim (2009) developed with 12 questions. This instrument is a revision and development of 24 research instruments that Perry (1996) developed. Although Kim developed fewer research instruments, they still provided valid and reliable results. The research instrument was subsequently translated into Indonesian from English with the help of an official translator. The scale used for measuring public service motivation is a Likert scale with an interval of 1 to 5 values from strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree.

To measure emotional intelligence in DGCE, we use research instruments Wong and Law (2002). This instrument is also simpler than other measurement instruments. It shows good convergence with several previous measures of emotional intelligence, even better predicting standard external variables such as life satisfaction (Wong & Law, 2002). Levitats and Vigoda Gadot (2017) explained that this measurement instrument is in line with the ability-based emotional intelligence model introduced by Mayer and Salovey (1997), which consists of 4 dimensions:
a. Self-emotional appraisal (SEA)
b. Other's emotional appraisal (OEA)
c. Regulation of emotion (ROE)
d. Use of emotion (UOE)

The research instrument in English was then translated into Indonesian using the help of an official translator. The measurement used for measuring emotional intelligence is a Likert scale with an interval of 1 to 5 values: strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree.

To measure affective commitment to DGCE, we use a research instrument developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), evaluated and re-validated by Mugizi et al. (2016). This instrument was also translated using the help of an official translator. The measurement used for measuring affective commitment is a Likert scale with an interval of 1 to 5 values: strongly disagree, disagree, hesitate, agree, and strongly agree.

Reliability testing was carried out using Cronbach's alpha (α) analysis, and validity testing using Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis by comparing the scores of each question item with the total variable score. Heteroscedasticity testing was done using Levene's equality of variance method test. Hypothesis 1 was tested using simple regression analysis (OLS), while the mediation analysis was performed using SEM (Structural Equation Modeling).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Data was collected for 11 days from December 06 -16, 2021. Respondents' answers were collected as many as 263, and the data analyzed were 255 consisting of 35 (13.73%) female respondents and 220 (86.27%) male respondents. The age of the respondents varied from 20 years to more than 50 years, with a working period of 1 to more than 25 years. The education level of the respondents was dominated by the bachelor's degree / Diploma IV level of 138 (54.12%) respondents and 49 (19.22%) Diploma III respondents.

Table 1. Respondent's Backgrounds

No	Classification	Groups	Respondent	%
1	Gender	Male	220	86,27%
		Female	35	13,73%
		Total	**255**	**100%**
2	Education	High School	9	3,53%
		D I	38	14,90%
		D III	49	19,22%
		S1 / D IV	138	54,12%
		S2 – S3	21	8,24%
		Total	**255**	**100%**
3	Age	up to 30 year	88	34,51%
		31 - 40 year	134	52,55%
		41 - 50 year	26	10,20%
		> 50 year	7	2,75%
		Total	**255**	**100%**
4	Service Period	0 - 5 year	42	16,47%
		6 - 10 year	58	22,75%
		11 - 15 year	92	36,08%
		16 - 20 year	44	17,25%
		21 - 25 year	13	5,10%
		> 25 year	6	2,35%
		Total	**255**	**100%**
5	Office Typologies	KPDJBC	41	16,08%
		Kanwil BC	16	6,27%
		KPU BC	13	5,10%
		KPPBC	179	70,20%
		PSO BC	3	1,18%
		BLBC	3	1,18%
		Total	**255**	**100%**
6	Office Location	Java Island	185	72,55%
		Others	70	27,45%
		Total	**255**	**100%**

Source: Data Analysis

Based on age, the composition of respondents is dominated by employees aged between 20 and 40 years, 86.06%, consisting of the millennial generation (born between 1980 – 1995) and generation Z (born between 1995 – 2015). Assuming that half of the respondents with a service period of fewer than five years are generation Z, the number of respondents from the millennial generation is 77.83%. This composition is the same as the population dominated by millennial employees, with a composition of 77.33% compared to non-millennial employees at 22.67%. The sample also represents the population characteristics based on the service period. Survey respondents come from new employees to employees who have worked at DGCE for a very long time (>25 years). Based on gender, the number of male respondents far exceeded that of female respondents. This result corresponds to the actual composition of the DGCE employees, where the male employees are much more (13,460 – 82.2%) than the female employees (2,915 – 17.8%).

The difference in composition between the sample and the population is seen when the data are grouped by education and work location. Based on education, the sample is dominated by employees with a bachelor's degree or diploma IV, with a percentage of 54.12%. Of the population of employees, the most are diploma I graduate at 38.16%. The work locations of survey respondents are mostly located on Java Island at 72.55% compared to those outside the island of Java at 27.45%. The population has a comparison of 53.86% on Java Island, and the remaining 46.16% is outside Java.

The authors then conducted a different test using the One-way Anova method to test whether there were significant differences in the responses given by the respondents when viewed from the level of education and work location. One-way ANOVA testing utilizes the help of JASP v0.16 software. Based on the One-way ANOVA test results, all significance values show a

number greater than 0.05, so differences in education level and work location do not significantly affect the value of emotional intelligence, public service motivation, and employee affective commitment. Based on this, the differences in the sample's composition and population regarding education level and work location can be ignored.

Table 2. Research Data Descriptive Statistics

Description	EI	PSM	AC
Valid	255	255	255
Missing	0	0	0
Mode	80	60	35
Mean	68,310	53,557	28,651
Std, Deviation	8,004	5,121	4,440
Variance	64,065	26,224	19,716
Skewness	-0,496	-0,580	-0,317
Std, Error of Skewness	0,153	0,153	0,153
Kurtosis	0,403	-0,290	-0,834
Std, Error of Kurtosis	0,304	0,304	0,304
Minimum	35	37	18
Maximum	80	60	35

Sources: Data Analysis

The skewness value shows a negative value for all variables: emotional intelligence, public service motivation, and affective commitment. Thus, it is concluded that the distribution of research data is not symmetrical and tends to have more data below the average value of the variable.

Reliability testing to find the alpha (α) Cronbach value for emotional intelligence is 0,929, public service motivation of 0.85, and affective commitment is 0,782. Testing the validity of Pearson's Product-Moment correlation method compares each question item's score with the variable's total score. The value of r obtained in this analysis ranges from 0.539 to 0.796, with a total significance value below 0.01. Heteroscedasticity testing using Levene's test of equality of variance method found that the significance value of all variables was above 0.05, so it was assumed that there was equality of variance.

Table 3. Hypothesis Testing Results

No	relation	β	Sig	R^2
1	EI – AC	0,268	**< ,001**	0,234
2	EI – AC (direct)	0,160	**< ,001**	0,293
	EI – PSM – AC (indirect)	0,109	**< ,001**	0,395
	EI – AC (total effect)	0,268	**< ,001**	

Source: Data Analysis

Simple regression analysis using the ordinary least square method between emotional intelligence variables with affective commitment gives the estimated value of 0.268 with a significance value less than 0.01 and R2 of 0.234. These results support hypothesis 1, that emotional intelligence positively affects affective commitment. This finding corroborates previous studies by Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) and Mayfield (2019). Based on this result, it can be concluded that the higher the level of emotional intelligence, the higher the level of affective commitment of DGCE's employees. This model has an R^2 value of 0.234 means that emotional intelligence has a 23.4% contribution to changes in the level of employee affective commitment. In contrast, the remaining 76.6% is influenced by other factors not analyzed in this study.

SEM mediation analysis was then carried out with the dependent variable of affective commitment, the independent variable of emotional intelligence, and public service motivation as the mediating variable. The mediation analysis results obtained the estimated direct effect value of 0.160, an indirect effect of 0.109, and a total effect of 0.268 with a total significance value of less than 0.01. This finding corroborates previous research by Levitats and Vigoda-Gadot (2017).

The direct effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment also has a value of 0.160 and a significance of less than 0.01, so the mediating relationship is partial mediation. Hence, other variables mediate the effect of emotional intelligence on the affective commitment that this research model did not examine.

Thus, emotional intelligence is important in increasing employee motivation to keep working and serving the public interest. Employee management should not only carry out what is stated in the regulations but must also pay attention to the emotional side of employees. Employees who have an emotional attachment to their organization will give more effort into their organization's progress. They will also support and promote changes in the organization if it is felt to bring it in a better direction.

The mediation of public service motivation on the influence of emotional intelligence on affective commitment means that the higher the emotional intelligence, the higher the motivation for public services, thereby increasing employees' affective commitment.

DGCE, as a public organization, carries out the task of providing services to the public in customs and excise. DGCE has a major role in supervising and servicing the flow of goods into and out of the territory of Indonesia. Conceptions of service motivation will differ greatly between institutions (Vandenabeele et al., 2006). DGCE's employees with a service function and supervision have different characteristics from other public organizations with only a service function. Employees must manage emotions when harsh and gentle in carrying out their duties. This situation, of course, requires a higher level of emotional intelligence.

According to Pattakos (2004), people with high public service motivation will have a greater sense of responsibility at work because they work with the motivation to serve the community and not just abort obligations. They will give more effort into solving various problems that occur in the workplace so that they will have better performance as well (Perry & Wise, 1990). With better performance, they will get better welfare and job satisfaction, so the desire to remain in the organization is stronger.

Seeing how emotional intelligence positively influences public service motivation and affective commitment, efforts to improve employee emotional intelligence are the right steps. However, increasing emotional intelligence is not as easy as turning the palm. In contrast to work skills and applied science that can be learned in several meetings and practices, emotional intelligence takes a long time and lots of practice to improve its quality.

Everyone can develop themselves into a more competent person emotionally and socially, but the principle of self-development differs greatly from the concept of integrated training. Developing emotional competence requires us to brainwash feelings and actions that have been deeply rooted for so long and grow new ones. It takes a lot of motivation, time, effort, money, support, and ongoing practice to grow it. What is often overlooked but no less important is related to the training process's preparation, transfer, and maintenance phases (Chernis et al., 1998).

CONCLUSION

This study aims to measure the effect of emotional intelligence on employees' affective commitment in the public sector, with public service motivation as a mediator. Based on the results of the study, emotional intelligence had a positive effect on affective commitment. The higher the level of emotional intelligence of DGCE's employees, the higher the affective commitment to the organization. The results of this study also supported the statement that public service motivation mediated the effect of emotional intelligence on affective commitment. DGCE's employees with high emotional intelligence had a higher public service motivation, so affective commitment to the organization would also be higher. This research aligned with previous research by Levitats and Vigoda-Gadot (2017).

This study's limitations are that the convenience sampling method may lead to sampling bias even though the authors have tried to anticipate by selecting multiple samples from different locations. Self-reported data may give rise to common method bias. This study only measured emotional intelligence, public service motivation, and affective commitment without examining the behavior and causality between variables. However, conclusions cannot be generalized to civil servants in other public organizations without considering the organization's characteristics and demographics.

It is suggested that future researchers include other mediating variables related to emotional intelligence and affective commitment, such as job satisfaction or well-being.

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