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The Power of Belonging: Exploring the Impact of Organizational Identification on Job Performance

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Introduction

In the realm of organizational behavior, the relationship between an individual's feeling of belonging inside an organization and their subsequent job performance has long been a source of interest and investigation. The present work provides a thorough analysis via an experimental lens, exploring the complex dynamics of organizational identification and its ensuing influence on work performance. The study's findings, which offer empirical proof of the substantial influence organizational identity has on performance indicators, are well-positioned to add to the current conversation.

By carefully examining the idea of organizational identification, Chapter One establishes the context. It explores the several theoretical frameworks and empirical research that have been used to try to explain this phenomenon, weaving a rich picture of previous research. This chapter seeks to offer a solid basis for understanding how people internalize their identity as members of their organizations and how this identity is consistent with their self-concept, impacting their behaviors and attitudes in the workplace.

The focus of Chapter Two is on job performance and the complex role that commitment plays in the workplace – capable, according to scholars, of increasing the performance of individuals (Al Zeifeti & Mohamad, 2017; Sharma & Sinha, 2015). The chapter also analyzes the evolution of performance systems over time, providing a comprehensive picture of them and enabling an understanding of what today's concept of performance measurement is and the factors that compose it.

The study's methodological framework is presented in Chapter Three, together with information on the experimental setup, data collection techniques, and analytical approaches used to address the complicated research issue. The study and findings are presented at the end of the chapter, and they both confirm the important influence of organizational identification on work performance and provide insight into the complex interactions of commitment in this setting.

Furthermore, the discussion of the findings and an investigation of the study's possible limitations constitute the Fourth and final Chapter.

This thesis aims to provide insightful information for academics and professionals alike. It offers scholars an important empirical contribution to the corpus of knowledge on organizational behavior. The results highlight for practitioners the significance of encouraging employees to feel strongly about the organization in order to improve job performance, while also acknowledging the direct impact of commitment on work results. The pursuit of excellence and competitive advantage drives firms to prioritize awareness of these psychological characteristics in order to maximize employee performance.

Chapter 1: Organizational identification

1.1. An overview

Organizational identification has long been of great interest to organizational scholars. The reason behind this is that organizational identification is seen as a *"psychological state that reflects the underlying link or bond that exists between the employee and the organization"* and, therefore, potentially capable of explaining and predicting many important attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Edwards, 2005, p.207). Potentially, then, the study and investigation of organizational identity may be able to predict important attitudes or behaviors that are enacted in the workplace. Indeed, feeling highly identified with an organization helps members to better define themselves and their own actions (Hogg & Terry, 2001). The instilling of norms and values in members goes directly to act on their rational and irrational ways of making decisions (Simon, 1976; Tompkins & Cheney, 1983). From what has just been said, however, it can be understood that organizational identification cannot be defined as an attribute of either the individual or the organization. It arises, in fact, exclusively from their connection, as a product created by their interaction.

Over the years there have been different approaches to defining what specifically organizational identification is. Two main schools of conceptual thought are the communicative and cognitive approaches to identification. Their conceptions of what identity is are in agreement. For instance, communication expert Cheney (1983) states that "*individuals link themselves to elements in the social scene through the active process of identification, whether with organizations or anything else*". Similarly, social psychology researchers Mael and Ashforth (1992) propose that identification is a feeling of unity with the organization that results from people defining themselves in terms of belonging to the organization. When combined, identification is a process of self-definition that people use to connect with the organization. Downstream of these considerations, what the above scholars agree on is that organizational identification is based on the mutual influence that the organization has on the individual and vice versa.

In this regard, research sees scholars take sides and argue regarding what binds the individual to the organization. According to some, in fact, communication is the link between the individual and the organization (Burke,1969). Others, however, draw on social identity and social categorization theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Elsbach, 1999; Hogg & Terry, 2001) to describe the process of creating organizational identification.

1.1.1.   OI as a communication construct

The theory advanced by Burke (1973), sees identification as a necessary response for the individual to minimize the negative feelings generated by the presence of hierarchy, which causes

division in work and in the importance of tasks performed. In fact, he argues that although human beings are constantly searching for their own uniqueness and something that can make them different from others, on the other hand they have a need to belong, which drives them to want to be similar to those around them. The desire to be similar thus leads to sharing and, at the same time, the desire to stand out and deepen one's knowledge leads to the creation of interpersonal relationships and, ultimately, communication. It is on the basis of this logic that Cheney and Tompkins (1987) based their research, arguing that OI is produced within the organization through conversation and, in particular, the sharing of interests.

Therefore, talking about something afferent to the organization helps people feel identified with it. This depends not only on the need to belong to the group, but also on the messages that the organization sends to individuals. Through communicative strategies it is indeed possible to create a bond between employees and the place in which they work, so that it stops being a place of work and starts being a place where they can feel fully comfortable and best represented, especially from the point of view of values and goals. In this way, according to Cheney's theory, the identification process is fostered by the organization, but it is ultimately the individual themselves who chooses whether and how much to identify. Another relevant theory is the one by Bullis and Bach (1991), who argue that what really drives the development of a real and lasting relationship is the interaction with other members of the organization, whether they are colleagues or individuals belonging to top management. This would help, again, the sharing and exchange of perspectives.

Thus, authors who view identification as a communicative construct argue that its development is first and foremost fostered by interpersonal relationships, and that the results of the identification process are primarily manifested through communication.

1.1.2. *OI as a cognitive construct*

In contrast, the cognitive approach is mainly based on Social Identity Theory. It asserts that our social identities have a role in how we describe ourselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, if we consider ourselves to be a part of a group (a category), we also consider ourselves to have traits in common with that group. This process was then conceptualized by Hogg and Terry (2001) using social categorization theory (SCT), according to which individuals tend to choose their group based on the one that most reflects their personality. According to SCT, in fact, individual choice is based on demographic criteria or social context, and this, in turn, influences their behavior, leading them to act not only as individuals but also as members of that particular group.

Therefore, the cognitive perspective suggests the process of identification is carried out primarily through self-perception, and the product appears to be expressed primarily through behavioral action rather than through communication, in contrast to the communicative approach. For example,

people who strongly identify with the organization tend to engage in activities that align with its goals (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In addition, Ashforth also argues that it is the organization that spurs its members to develop an organizational identity through actions designed to generate greater involvement of individuals in business processes. For example, in a study carried out by the same author, it was found that promotions, recognition for goals achieved and, above all, inclusive decision-making are all actions that can increase employee identification (Ashforth, 1985).

Hence, reciprocal influence of individual and organizational activity on identity processes may be better explained by combining the communicative and cognitive approaches to OI. A mixture of the two would be, in fact, able to provide a more complete and more detailed picture about the main theme of this analysis: organizational identity development.

1.1.3.   OI as Cognitively Conceived and Communicatively Constructed

Many scholars over time have integrated the two approaches, but it is only recently that a more intentional integration of the communicative and cognitive aspects has been achieved. For instance, social identity scholar Brown (2006) claimed that personal narrative – the sharing of one's stories – is how a particular identity becomes salient, and that communication is the way by which identities are produced. As a result, even though people may cognitively imagine who they are inside an organization, identity is actually created through communication.

Therefore, when discussing what OI is, both cognitive and communicative processes are implied. Furthermore, the results previously connected to OI at the individual and organizational levels show signs of cognitive and communicative processes. Weick (1995), for example, claims that OI helps workers interact with one another and make sense of their workplace. In other words, identification processes aid in members' comprehension of the logic of the organization (Tompkins & Cheney, 1985). Weick dubbed this procedure "sensemaking," characterizing it as staff members giving organizational action context via interpersonal communication. According to social categorization theory, decisions regarding when and with whom to interact are made by implicit cognitive processes, while meaning is clearly negotiated in communication. Kogut and Zander (1996) argue, instead, that OI defines the norms and practices that people employ to regulate their behavior, which ties the cognitive and communicative parts together.

To conclude the overview of theories brought forth by scholars of the subject, Cheney (1983) argues that OI is a process of persuasion, both internal and external, wherein an individual's interests combine with an organization's interests to form an identity centered around those interests.

Thanks to previous studies and the many views collected over time, Parker and Haridakis (2008, p.109) were able to give a comprehensive definition of OI: *"Organizational identification is a self-definitional process through which individuals relationally link themselves to the organization, coming*

to understand and influence the organizational logic through discourse, inducing the integration of organizational and personal goals and values".

To better understand the concept of organizational identification, however, we must also consider its similarities and differences with the concept of organizational identity.

1.2. Identity and identification

As previously mentioned, the concepts of identification and organizational identity have become increasingly well-known among academics and professionals over the years. These ideas are being used by a growing number of researchers across organizational behavior, organizational theory, and strategic management to better understand how organizations and their people behave. Recent studies on international challenges like economic downturns, climate change, and public spending reductions have frequently linked organizational identity and identification, making these topics even more important to theorists. Despite this, there are still many important concerns that have not received enough attention in the literature, which presents prospects for further research on identity and identification. For instance, just as the definition of organizational identification, the one of organizational identity has also been the subject of study and reflection by numerous scholars because of the difficulty of giving the concept an unambiguous meaning. Regarding this, there is a growing understanding that the reason why the dynamics of identity need to be better analyzed is that *"identity is problematic—and yet so critical"* (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000, p.14).

Albert and Whetten (1985) stated in their original definition of the idea that an organization's identity was made up of a set of statements about what was fundamental, unique, and long-lasting about it. However, since they did not specify the criteria for making these claims (what constituted, for example, a central element), they recognized the existence of several complicating factors, such as the possibility that organizations may be characterized by multiple identities and that identity claims are frequently political acts that can be ambiguous, complementary, unrelated, and contradictory. Because of this, subsequent uses of the concept over the years have never been consistent, resulting in several attempts to reinterpret the term, such as *"the theory that members of an organization have about who they are"* (Stimpert, Gustafson, & Sarason, 1998, p.87) and, more recently, *"the combinative construal of firm culture, history, structure, characteristics, status, and reputation"* (Martin, Johnson, & French, 2011, p.576). It is evident that organizational identity involves questions like "who are we?" and "who do we want to become?" and is concerned with "self-referential meaning," or "an entity's attempts to define itself" (Corley et al., 2006).

The difficult attempts to solve this problem of definition, have resulted in a multiplicity of perspectives that we can summarize into four different approaches to the topic: functionalist, social constructionist, psychodynamic, and postmodern.

Functionalist perspective. The first one, which dominates the field of organizational studies, is the functionalist one. It states that identities are made up of fundamental, objective, and frequently tactile elements. It contributes to the general success and sustainability of the organization by performing a number of tasks such as integration, social order, motivation, and adaptation (Balmer & Greyser, 2006; Pratt, & Whetten, 2006).

Social constructionist perspective. The second is the social constructionist perspective, which views organizational identity (OI) as the socially constructed result of relationships between collectively held and socially structured individual cognitions about "who the organization is" (Corley et al., 2006; Dutton et al., 1994). Most definitions of organizational identity (OI) refer to broadly accepted notions of what makes an organization unique; these understandings provide context for employees' experiences at work and are the result of a complex web of interactions between various actors from various professional groups and hierarchical levels. In general, this method of conceptualizing and studying OI tends to portray it as less fixed and more flexible, less the result of decisions made by senior executives and more susceptible to political influence at various levels, and less precisely defined and vaguer than functionalist perspectives maintain.

Psychodynamic perspective. Based on Freud's theories, Brown (1997) and Brown and Starkey (2000) offered an examination of the psychodynamics of organizations, portraying them as instruments for controlling group self-esteem. Their thesis is that anxiety is attenuated at the organizational level by ego-defense mechanisms like denial and rationalization. These tendencies can be attenuated by management practices like critical self-reflexivity, discussion about potential future identities, and the development ("wise") of the desire to investigate ego-threatening issues. Organizational identity development in this case is thus seen as a tool to support employees in increasing their personal self-esteem and well-being.

Postmodern perspective. According to postmodern studies, the image of organizational identity is one of a dynamic, continuing process that is molded by auto poetic processes and coauthored by interactions between insiders and outsiders. The article essentially presents organizational identity as a socially produced, multifaceted, and dynamic phenomena.

Based on the definitions just explicated, then, organizational identity is something much more afferent to the organization than organizational identification, which takes into consideration the individual and his or her relationship with the company. When workers feel that they belong to and are a part of their employing organization, this is known as organizational identification. OI, therefore, often refers to the degree to which individuals within an organization identifies themselves in relation to that membership. According to Ashforth et al. (2008) and Riketta (2005), it has the ability to provide a variety of favorable outcomes for both the organization and the employees, including low desire to

leave, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction and well-being, and employee performance.

To consider, however, is that individuals generally possess other types of identities related to their work, such as professional identities. But what really is professional identity and what connection does it have with organizational identity?

1.3. Organizational vs professional identity

Numerous studies have defined professional identity in terms of the actions and behaviors of professionals. A person's professional identity and, oftentimes, level of job satisfaction increase with the degree of identification they have with the behaviors and actions.

In this sense, professional identity was defined by Thompson et al. (2018) as the significance ascribed to the duties and activities of the workplace. In their study about nurses in nursing homes, they highlighted how nurses experienced a feeling of isolation and exclusion from their profession because of the activities they performed, which turned out to be definitely different from those normally carried out by nurses. This, as a result, contributed to a reduction in their job satisfaction and, consequently, in their identification with nursing work. Furthermore, following the same thread, Heldal et al. (2019) discussed how a job's duties and execution define a person's professional identity. According to them, a person's professional identity changes along with work practices and knowledge, since it is context dependent. Professional identity was also discussed by Wackerhausen (2009) from both a macro and micro perspective. At the micro level, or practitioner level, a professional was someone who adopted the actions, speech patterns, and behaviors of other members of the group. He discovered that although formal education and theoretical understanding were significant, one is truly recognized as a member of a profession by shared behavior.

On the other hand, professional identity has been also defined by researchers as the knowledge professionals have: the skills and competencies applied in their work, defined sometimes on the basis of formal education and certifications obtained. For instance, Van Oeffelt et al. (2010) created a paradigm for professional identification that incorporates professional learning, a theory of knowledge, and expertise as essential elements of the professional self. According to them, these are the cornerstones of professionalism, which in turn upholds the social context and the ideals of the profession.

According to other scholars, however, the characteristics that define a profession and, consequently, serve as key tools for the development of professional identity are values, beliefs, and ethics. In reality, they claim, professionalism entails both comprehending the practice's environment and internalizing the fundamental principles and values of society. In this regard, Forouzadeh et al. (2018) described professional identity as the union of personal and professional values.

One consideration on which most scholars agree is that because the development of a professional identity presupposes the individual's entry into a work community, it cannot be separated from social identity. When viewed in this sense, then, professional identity is reinforced whenever an individual identifies with the group to which they belong (Thompson et al, 2018). As a consequence, it is mutable and changes as the work context changes, as it is influenced by the cultural, political and historical reality of reference.

Therefore, it is clear what the link is between organizational and professional identity. The latter turns out to be, in fact, a social identity exactly like the organizational one, presenting all the characteristics that would qualify it as such. Of course, being in the same category does not preclude differences between the two concepts. It is also crucial, in fact, to understand the difference between them, because professional affiliations develop independently of, and typically occur before, an individual's sense of belonging and identification with a specific organization (Aranya et al., 1981). Professionals may even have, in fact, a stronger sense of identity and commitment to their field than they do to their organization. Importantly, since individuals can identify with multiple different groups at once, they have the possibility of developing multiple identities, which can coexist as well as come into conflict if the reference groups possess conflicting goals. There are two main theories supporting the thesis of the existence of multiple identities: social identity theory and role identity theory. They admit that individuals play several roles and belong to multiple groups at the same time.

Being identified with a profession and an organization might be confusing for an individual because the two identities may offer differing standards for proper conduct at work. Therefore, when the components of two or more identities are inconsistent, it can lead to an identity conflict (Ashforth et al., 2008). Particularly, whereas research on professional identity and organizational identity suggests that each benefit organizations independently (e.g., Loi et al., 2004; Riketta, 2005), a recent study (Ostermeier et al., 2023) investigated what happens when they conflict. More specifically, they studied the effects of identity conflicts – named as OPIC[1] – on employees' wellbeing and behavioral intentions. Assuming that an individual can have as many social identities as there are groups to which they belong, we must also consider that this coexistence can easily turn into conflict. Generally, in fact, conflict situations occur when individuals fail to meet the expectations of both identities and they are obliged to give priority to one of the two (Settles, 2004). The possibility of the existence of this circumstance was first considered in the 1950s, when scholars began to feel the need to delve into how employees managed their multiple work identities. More specifically, Gouldner (1957) was the first to argue that identification can occur alternately with the organization or with one's profession, ruling out the possibility of seeing these two as a continuum. Later, however, the possibility of this happening was contemplated, while at the same time admitting that it can cause conflicts. For this reason, the recent

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[1] Organizational and professional identity conflict

study by Ostermeier et al. (2023, p. 2494) aimed to theorize OPIC, describing it as: *"the psychological conflict that individuals experience between who they feel they are supposed to be in their organization and who they feel they are supposed to be in their profession."*. The results of this research also showed that, for the individual employee, experiencing OPIC is harmful since it heightens psychological distress and emotional exhaustion, which in turn increases intents to leave due to psychological suffering.

More specifically, emotional exhaustion is a persistent condition of mental and physical exhaustion that is associated with job burnout and has significant consequences for organizations (Kilroy et al., 2017; Maslach, 1982). Scholars from diverse fields have observed that conflict, including role conflict, has a positive correlation with emotional weariness. Comparably, OPIC is probably going to cause mental exhaustion as people try to reconcile conflicting expectations from two identities they have at work. Further context for how OPIC may result in emotional exhaustion at work is provided by uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2000, 2007). When people are experiencing conflict between two identities, in fact, they are unsure of how they should act. These identities no longer serve to orient and guide the person; instead, they make them spend more time making decisions and juggling conflicting demands, which uses up resources. Furthermore, those who are experiencing OPIC could think that no matter what they do, they are falling short of one identity's expectations. These situations cause the person to become chronically emotionally and physically exhausted while working.

Furthermore, psychological distress, which is another emotional state brought on by a stressor that causes harm, is also likely to be experienced by those who are experiencing OPIC (Ridner, 2004). In addition, because of the possible incompatibility and conflict between identities, dual organizational identification has been proposed as a cause of stress (Vora et al., 2007). Uncertainty-identity theory, even in this case, may provide some light on the reasons behind this discomfort. When identities clash, in fact, people experience greater uncertainty rather than less.

Thus, the results just presented turn out to be of fundamental importance to organizations and managers. In fact, identity conflict causes, as mentioned earlier, negative consequences on the individual – such as a greater likelihood of achieving burn out status and a higher level of stress in general – and on the organization, affecting employees' willingness to leave their organization because of the repercussions on their mental well-being generated by such conflict. In order to improve organizational alignment with professional standards, expectations, and values, managers and organizations should therefore look for strategies to support individuals in managing their identities. Furthermore, companies ought to assist staff members in creating and preserving both their professional and organizational identities, in addition to assisting them in managing their identities. In actuality, this might help them in reducing the perception of conflict.

1.4. Social Identity Theory

The theorization of organizational identity as social identity comes from Social Identity theory (SIT), developed by Henri Tajfel and John Turner (1985). According to this theory, people often categorize themselves and other individuals into different social groups based on a variety of factors, including age, gender, religious affiliation, and participation in an organization. People may be categorized into multiple groups, as these examples illustrate, and different people may apply distinct classification schemas. Two purposes are served by social classification: firstly, it helps cognitively categorizing and dividing the social world in order to give the person a methodical way to define other people; then, social classification helps individuals find or define themselves in the social context. More specifically, SIT states that a person's self-concept is made up of two parts: a social identity that includes membership in specific groups and a personal identity that includes unique qualities like as abilities, hobbies, and physical aspects. Hence, it is clear that social identity offers a partial response to the question, "Who am I?" (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner, 1982). Furthermore, it is important to note that, as one defines oneself in reference to people in other categories, the definition of others and the self are essentially relational and comparative" (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Thus, one category takes on meaning only when compared with another, in relation to which it possesses different characteristics.

Additionally, the literature suggests that the concept of social identification is a derivative of the more general concept of group identification, which is based on four basic principles. Firstly, in order to identify, individuals simply need to believe that their future is psychologically linked to the group's success: no effort at all needs to be put toward the group's objectives. Behavior and affect are, in fact, only considered possible precursors or outcomes, as Foote (1951) and Gould (1975) suggest. Secondly, it is believed that social/group identification entails directly with the group's triumphs and failures (Foote, 1951; Tolman, 1943). Third, insofar as one partially defines oneself in terms of a social reference, identification with a group is comparable to identification with a person (such as one's father, football hero), or a reciprocal role connection. Lastly, social identification can be distinguished from internalization, even though this point is not adequately covered in the literature (Hogg & Turner, 1987). Internalization is the process of integrating values, attitudes, and other concepts into oneself as guiding principles, as opposed to identification, which describes oneself in terms of social categories (I am). Although members of a certain social category are often associated with particular values and attitudes, adoption of the category as a definition of self does not imply approval of those values and attitudes.

As just mentioned, research on organizational identity that has been done traditionally has not made a distinction between internalization and identification. For example, organizational identity was characterized as "*shared characteristics, loyalty, and solidarity*" by Patchen (1970, p. 200) and as "*the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated and congruent*" by Hall et al. (1970, p. 176-177). Exactly for this reason, SIT was then born,

within which organizational identification is given a new meaning, definitively separated from the concept of internalization of corporate values and goals. Furthermore, applications to role conflict, organizational socialization, and intergroup relations can demonstrate the explanatory value of SIT to organizations.

1.4.1. Application to Organizations

The literature on organizational socialization indicates that developing a situational definition is a top priority for organizational newcomers (Katz, 1980). Some claim that newcomers are anxious about their standing and unclear of their responsibilities. Thus, individuals need to get familiar with the organization's rules and procedures, as well as general role expectations and behavioral norms, power and status structures, and other details in order to comprehend and function within it (Ashforth, 1985). On the other hand, organizational beginners frequently worry about developing a self-definition, of which the social identity (or identities) is probably going to constitute for a significant portion. Social identities are in fact expected to constitute a substantial part of people's organizationally located self-definitions in complex organizations, as indicated by the widespread prevalence of social categories inside them (Fisher, 1986; Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Furthermore, Van Maanen (1979) asserted that ideas of the self, and specifically self-definitions, are acquired through analyzing other people's reactions during contextual social encounters. According to the author, social interactions are in fact the way through which new entrants into companies begin to reduce the perceived sense of ambiguity and create their own way of experiencing the corporate world. There are at least three consequences to be considered from this approach on social identification in organizations.

Initially, it implies that the widely recognized impact of organizational socialization on the internalization of organizational values and beliefs is partially made up of an indirect effect through identification; in other words, socialization influences internalization, which influences identification. As mentioned, the person who engages in self-stereotyping usually takes on traits that are seen as typical of the groups with which they identify. According to Albert and Whetten (1985), in fact, an organization's members share a common knowledge of the fundamental, unique, and persistent qualities that make it up. This understanding is what gives the organization its identity. Common values and beliefs, an organization's mission, its structures and procedures, its culture within the workplace, and other elements can all be indicators of this identity. The stronger the organizational culture, or more salient, stable, and internally consistent aspects of the organization, the higher the degree of internalization (Ashforth, 1985). In addition to this, the idea that one can absorb an organization's culture without necessarily identifying with it and vice versa suggests that socialization also has a direct impact on internalization.

The idea of reification leads to the second implication of the social identification perspective. The body of knowledge on organizational behavior that currently exists falls short in explaining how a person might identify with or feel devoted to an organization in and of itself. The implicit premise is

that respect for individuals merely flows to the group and that interpersonal connections somehow combine to form a link between an individual and an organization (Turner, 1984). The model, on the other hand, suggested by Ashforth and Mael in their study (1989) reverses this logic and suggests that identification with a group can occur even apart from social interaction. Indeed, it can be generated even if only by perceiving the group as possessing typically human characteristics, thus giving personification to what might be the characteristics of its members. When intended in this way, identification provides a mechanism by which the individual has the ability to continue to believe and trust in their organization, even when they lose trust in top management or their colleagues.

Third, the increased interest in charismatic or transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and symbolic management (Pfeffer, 1981) can also be explained by the social identification approach. According to Ashforth and Mael, in fact, symbolic management is intended to transmit this identity, or management's depiction of it, even when the coherence of a group's or organization's identity is problematic. Management can create strong visual representations of what the group or organization stands for and highlight an individual's participation by manipulating symbols like customs, myths, metaphors, rituals, sagas, heroes, and physical settings (Pondy, Frost, Morgan, & Dandridge, 1983).

Downstream of these considerations, however, it must also be considered that the development of an identity, being group-specific, is linked to the context of reference and varies greatly as the role and/or the subunit to which an individual belongs change. In the person's immediate work group, in fact, task interdependencies and interpersonal proximity are higher, indicating a stronger need for and ease of interaction. Second, it is likely that the newcomer will look first to their workgroup peers because people tend to prefer comparing their emerging beliefs with similar others and because interpersonal and task differentiation is greater between subunits than within them (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

The idea just explicated of organizational identification also has factors that are its causes, the so-called antecedents, and, likewise, effects that are its outcomes.

1.4.2. Antecedents of social identification in organizations

Four study categories can be used to categorize studies on the antecedents of OI. These categories take different antecedents of OI into consideration and have different conceptualizations of what an organization is.

The first area of research focuses on organizational traits. According to studies in this category, organizations have distinct identities with defining traits that are largely stable across time (Albert & Whetten, 1985). To put it another way, organizational identities have a set of fundamental, persistent characteristics that define them apart from those of other organizations and affect how external parties interact with them (Albert & Whetten, 1985).

Organizational reputation and prestige. Because a person's social group identity can increase their sense of self-worth, their social group status can have an impact on how they identify (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). As a result, it has been determined that important elements influencing employees' OI include external perceptions of the organization, such as its position and reputation. Starting with organizational prestige, several research have discovered that higher levels of identification are typically fostered by more prominent firms. Furthermore, among organizational newcomers, shifts in perceptions of organizational prestige have been demonstrated to impact OI changes over time (Zhu, Tatachari, & Chattopadhyay, 2017). In addition, According to Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), there is evidence to suggest that employees who perceive their organization to be well-respected, admired, and regarded may identify with it more strongly. This is because employees who identify with such organizations can satisfy their desire for self-enhancement and develop a positive self-concept. Similarly, members of the company, including the CEO, may reduce individuals OI if the organization combines with an organization that performs poorly or has a worse reputation (Bommaraju, Ahearne, Hall, Tirunillai, & Lam, 2018; Lange, Boivie, & Westphal, 2015). Employee identification is also influenced by the organization's and its leaders' reputations (Baer et al., 2018; Raghuram, 2011; Zhang, Guo, & Newman, 2017): workers are in fact more inclined to identify with an organization when senior management is seen as competent and has a strong reputation for competence. One explanation could be that employees' development of a sense of loyalty to the company is validated by the competency of senior management.

Organizational distinctiveness and stereotypes. According to Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Tajfel and Turner (1986), people identify with social groups because they need to see themselves different from others. So, in the context of the company, stereotypes (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000) and the organization's uniqueness (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) may serve as triggers for employee identification. According to Mael and Ashforth (1992), organizational distinctiveness is the extent to which an organization deviates from other similar organizations in terms of its ideals and practices. An organization that is more distinct gives its members a sharper and more salient definition and makes it easier for them to set themselves apart from other people. Furthermore, employees' OI can be enhanced by a strong organizational identity, which is defined as one that is "*widely shared and deeply held by organizational members*" (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004, p. 8). This is because employees can easily comprehend the core, enduring, and distinctive qualities of the organization and decide whether the organizational identity is consistent with their personal values or the person they aspire to be (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004).

Attractive organizational image. For a number of reasons, the attractiveness of the organizational identity and outward image is also crucial to the development of employees' OI (George & Chattopadhyay, 2005; Sarrica, Michleon, Bobbio, & Ligorio, 2014). Initially, establishing a mental bond with a company that projects a positive image can satisfy the demand for self-improvement (Dukerich et al., 2002). Second, workers can raise their social status by joining a group that is well-regarded by the

public (Dukerich et al., 2002). Ultimately, employees may be able to communicate significant values if they identify with a company that has a distinct and strong perceived identity (Cohen-Meitar, Carmeli, & Waldman, 2009; Lepisto, Crosina, & Pratt, 2015). Numerous distinct organizational images that can encourage employees to associate with the company have been identified by studies. For example, According to Lepisto et al. (2015), people want to show they possess moral and ethical values, so workers tend to identify more strongly with companies they believe to have higher standards of integrity (Lin & Leung, 2014) and with leaders who uphold these standards (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016). OI may also be encouraged by corporate social responsibility (CSR) since it gives the company a favorable external image that employees find appealing and boosts their self-esteem. To emphasize this point, several academics have proposed that workers identify with companies that practice social responsibility because it satisfies their desire to improve themselves (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007b; De Roeck & Farooq, 2018; Edwards, 2009; El Akremi, Gond, Swaen, De Roeck, & Igalens, 2018). Because it boosts their sense of pride in being an organizational member, membership in a socially conscious company may also raise employees' OI (El Akremi et al., 2018).

Fit between the individual and the organization. Employees are more likely to feel integrated into the business and define themselves in terms of their organizational membership when they feel that their own values align with those of the organization (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Furthermore, when an organization shares an individual's values, that person is able to act in a way that is consistent with their own self-definition, preserve their sense of self, and affirm their perception of themselves. According to research, person-organization fit – the congruence of an individual's values with the organizational culture (Cable & DeRue, 2002), thus, the degree to which an individual's values align with the organization's values (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) – is positively correlated with organizational identity (Anaza, 2015; Bouraoui, Bensemmane, Ohana, & Russo, 2018; Cable & DeRue, 2002). Managerial policies and practices are the subject of the second research area: the firm builds a relationship with its workers based on the understanding that effort and loyalty are exchanged for the company's acknowledgment and benefits (Blau, 1964). Norms of reciprocity ensure that this employee-organization relationship endures throughout time (Gouldner, 1960). Hence, studies have a tendency to highlight management techniques as being essential to raising workers' OI. The psychological tie between employees and the organization increases when the latter adopts methods and policies that instill a sense of value in them. To be more precise, workers identify with an organization when it upholds HR procedures and policies that demonstrate care for workers' well-being, when it interacts effectively with workers, and when it treats workers fairly and keeps its word.

Supportive management and practices. Encouragement of employees' well-being through supportive HR policies and practices shows management's concern for their welfare, which encourages employees to return the favor by developing a stronger psychological bond with the company (Frenkel, Restubog, & Bednall, 2012). According to Frenkel et al. (2012), HR practices that give workers greater confidence

in their ability to do their jobs well play a part in the development of organizational justice (OJ) because they help workers feel that the organization treats them fairly and that when they "*feel valued, they are likely to identify with the organization*" (Frenkel et al., 2012, p. 4204). In a similar vein, Fuller et al. (2006) investigated high-commitment management techniques, including giving staff members visibility within the company, chances for advancement, involvement in decision-making, and performance-based compensation. They discovered that because these actions demonstrate the organization's concern for the welfare of its employees, they are positively correlated with OI.

Job design. Because of the effects that the informational and relational structure of a job has on an employee's sense of belonging, the design of their employment can also have an impact on the development of their OI. For example, workers may feel disoriented in the company and be reluctant to identify themselves if they are unsure of what is expected of them at work, either because of inconsistent messages or inadequate knowledge about their role needs (Showail, McLean Parks, & Smith, 2013). In addition, role ambiguity can hinder organizational effectiveness by making employees feel as though they don't know where they fit in the company and "*wonder whether they belong*" (Showail et al., 2013, p. 3962).

Organizational communication. OI can also be impacted by the way companies build up and use channels of communication to engage with their workforce. Two reasons exist why formal mentoring can support OI (Chen & Wen, 2016). One strategy for offering assistance within the company is mentorship, which can help staff members feel valued and respected at work. As a result, mentoring could improve workers' feelings of community. Secondly, employees might feel more internally consistent with the organization and feel more like they belong there when mentors impart corporate values and standards to them through mentoring interactions. Employee OI can also be significantly influenced by the communication atmosphere within the company and its quality of communication. In summary, employees are more likely to increase their identification with the company when management cultivates supportive, honest, and open communication (Bartels et al., 2007).

Fair practices. Fair procedures followed by the company might also help to increase employees' OI. Employees are more likely to believe that the organization values them as members when they are treated fairly, including when it comes to fair compensation and benefits and when they are treated with respect by organizational representatives. Employees reciprocate the fair treatment with increased effort, loyalty, and psychological commitment to the company, according to rules of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The focus of the third research area is on social interactions. This category is based on Schneider's (1987, p. 437) theory that "*organizations are functions of the kinds of people they contain*" and that OI may be shaped through interpersonal experiences like having a social exchange with an employer. This category acknowledges that workers judge their suitability and belonging in the social milieu of the company based on how other employees – such as leaders and peers – treat them. Employees identify

more strongly when they perceive themselves as appreciated, respected, and accepted by others in the organization. This is because organizational membership fosters a sense of belonging (Tyler & Blader, 2003).

Leadership style and interactions with leaders. Different approaches to leadership frequently encourage workers' OI. In particular, it has been found that when an organizational leader emphasizes the strengths of their workforce and shows concern for their development and well-being (Zhang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016), even going so far as to put employees' needs ahead of their own, workers are more likely to feel a sense of belonging (Li et al., 2018). Similarly, an immediate supervisor's encouragement and gratitude can help workers develop their OI (Atzori, Lombardi, Fraccaroli, Battistelli, & Zaniboni, 2008; Reade, 2001). Leader interactions might also be crucial to the development of OI. According to research, favorable interactions between employees and supervisors and senior leaders—such as when they offer support to one another—have a positive correlation with workers' overall job satisfaction (OI) (Campbell & Im, 2015).

Interactions with peers. Workers frequently engage in contacts with peers and coworkers as well as leaders inside the company. According to Schaubroeck et al. (2013, p. 1152), these encounters "*provide a microcosm through which members experience the organization*". Peer interactions can influence organizational identity (OI) because employees utilize these experiences to determine their own sense of belonging, and when they do, they often identify themselves in part in terms of their organizational membership. Negative interactions with peers and leaders, on the other hand, tend to dissuade workers from building OI.

Team and department identification. Identifying at the level of a work group, team, or department can also have a good impact on OI below the organizational level. In a nutshell, employees develop a more general sense of belonging to the organization and, consequently, OI, when they have a sense of belonging at the group, team, or department level. Group or team identity and OI have been found to be significantly positively correlated by numerous research (e.g., Bartels et al., 2007; Christ, Van Dick, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2003; Van Dick, Van Knippenberg, Kerschreiter, Hertel, & Wieseke, 2008). The focus of the last research area is personal characteristics. This category highlights that people can differ in their wants and aspirations, while acknowledging that people can use the organization to satisfy their personal needs and goals and create a social identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Individual needs. While it's likely that everyone has a tendency to identify with social groupings, different employees may have a greater need—reflected in their "need for organizational identification"—than others to identify with their work organizations (Glynn, 1998). The need for connection, or people's "desire for social contact or belongingness," is one such need (Wiesenfeld et al., 2001). According to Wiesenfeld et al. (2001), in fact, those with higher needs for affiliation are more

likely to identify with organizations because they place a higher importance on connections and group memberships.

Orientation toward work. People perceive their work in different ways, and these varying orientations may have an impact on their OI. According to Cardador, Dane, and Pratt (2011, p. 367), some people have a strong "calling" orientation, or "*view toward work in which one expects work to be both purposeful and inherently meaningful*". Since people may see the organization as a social setting where they are pursuing highly valued objectives, they may be more likely to identify with it.

Self-evaluations and self-concept. According to research, workers who have greater core self-evaluations and particular self-concepts may be at a higher risk of developing OI. First, research indicates that employees' internal locus of control and personal control—that is, "*employees' belief that they have autonomy on the job as well as an impact on important work outcomes*" (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008, p. 1189) —are both positively related to their OI with regard to their core self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Lee, 2013; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Furthermore, research pertaining to individuals' fundamental self-evaluations indicates that workers with better levels of emotional stability (Echchakoui, 2016) and self-esteem (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) may also be more likely to identify with the company.

1.4.3. *Individual and organizational outcomes of Identification*

Now, having made an overview of the antecedents identified in the literature, it should be considered that there are also numerous outcomes generated by the development of organizational identification. Indeed, a study by Imamoglu et al. (2023), analyzed the results of organizational identification on employees and found interesting insights regarding its effect on creativity and knowledge sharing among colleagues.

Knowledge sharing. Organizational identity increases social interactions between members (Cho, 2007), helping them work together harmoniously and with great effort. In fact, it encourages people to believe that they share the same values as other members of the organization (Chang et al., 2022), making them more inclined to collaborate with others and to share ideas, expertise, and efforts (Guegan et al., 2017). In addition, identity eliminates feelings of fear and uncertainty by transforming group members into an indivisible totality, according to Rong and Xie (2021). They mentioned, in fact, how this helps them communicate information effectively, come up with creative ideas, and understand and trust each other better. Furthermore, according to Diliello et al. (2011), workers may not use their creativity to the fullest extent possible at work if they believe that their surroundings limit or discourage them, which can be viewed by businesses as a major waste of resources. Likewise, information exchange requires a conducive work atmosphere. Le and Lei (2019) observed that employees may share information at varying degrees and intensities in organizations with varying support levels, which can

result in disparities in the opportunities and resources offered. Consequently, it follows that employee support is a motivating factor for pursuing work-related activities (Choi et al., 2016).

Creativity. Social identity serves as both an inspiration and a motivation, therefore according to SIT, people who feel like they belong to the group are more likely to come up with original solutions to challenges (Steffens et al., 2016). Furthermore, people who are in the same group are cooperative (Kane et al., 2005) and, with their distinct backgrounds and experiences, collaborators are a valuable source of inspiration for one another (Zhou and Hoever, 2014). According to Chen (2011), organizational identity influences employees' behaviors and ideas, which makes it a source of motivation. Furthermore, it facilitates group interpretation, problem-solving, and proactive action against organizational issues (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). Besides, in relation to this, several academics assert that creativity is driven by motivation (Ford, 1996; Amabile, 1983; Woodman et al., 1993).

This has numerous practical implications, which emerged from the study by Imamoglu et al. (2023). First, managers should focus on helping staff members develop a stronger sense of corporate identity in order to foster innovation and information exchange. The management of the organization should foster cohesion and togetherness for this reason. Additionally, they should guarantee that workers feel more like "we" than "I." Managers should adopt a we-referencing speaking style and prioritize being seen as members of the organization. Additionally, workers' sense of belonging needs to be strengthened. Employees work harder and more creatively toward the organization's goals and achievements if they feel like they are a part of it (Allameh and Alinajimi, 2012; Steffens et al., 2016; Zhan et al., 2019). Managers should also promote communication among staff members. They ought to facilitate social interaction and mutual trust among staff members. Employee input into organizational choices may be encouraged in an effort to strengthen organizational identity.

In addition to the individual consequences of identification, there are also several outcomes that are pertinent to organizations, which have been analyzed in numerous studies that are part of the existing literature. Because identity is a social construct, in fact, it naturally connects to results at the collective level (see also Haslam & Ellemers, 2005). Cooperation, effort, participation, and organizationally beneficial decision making are among the most frequently cited organizational outcomes (Bartel, 2001; Kramer, 2006; Simon, 1976; Tompkins & Cheney, 1985). Other frequently cited outcomes include intrinsic motivation (Kogut & Zander, 1996; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000), task performance (Yurchisin, 2007). In their decision-making and other actions, "*individuals understand, accept, and employ organizational premises,*" as DiSanza and Bullis (1999, p. 349-350) explained. As a result, they effectively become a microcosm of the organization, with acting on behalf of the organization being equivalent to acting on behalf of themselves. Additionally, job satisfaction and work adjustment (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007), as well as turnover and turnover intentions (Mael & Ashforth, 1995; van Dick, Christ, et al., 2004), are outcomes that are pertinent to organizations.

1.5. Relationship between Organizational Identification and Commitment

The idea of organizational commitment is crucial to the success and survival of organizations. Since the 1950s, a great deal of research has been done on organizational commitment and its various aspects. However, the model created by Allen & Meyer (1990) is the most frequently mentioned and generally preferred in the literature on organizational commitment. The psychological condition that defines an employee's relationship with the organization and influences their decision to stay or leave the business is known as organizational commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991). More specifically, they argue that are three dimensions that make up this variable: normative commitment, continuance commitment, and affective commitment. The term affective commitment describes a person's dedication to and integration into the organization. As a result, attitude is the emotive component of organizational commitment. In the continuance component of commitment, instead, the person weighs the consequences of leaving and makes logical choices by taking into account additional wagers like career chances and working hours within the company. Since it would be expensive to leave the company, the person will choose to stay. When someone is in the normative commitment dimension, they believe that their dedication to the organization is right and see it as a duty. Normative commitment stems from the individual's perception of duty towards the company and their sense of obligation to continue working there. The foundation of this kind of commitment is morality and virtue (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Aranki et al., 2019).

In addition to being studied extensively as an important concept in studies concerning the management of organizations, commitment is often associated and sometimes confused with the concept of organizational identification. However, even though commitment and OI seem to be redundant, neither Allen and Meyer (1990) nor Mowday[2] – the second most important theorist of organizational commitment – believe that the two concepts can be assimilated. A favorable attitude toward the organization is in fact represented by commitment: the organization and the person continue to exist as distinct entities. On the other hand, instead, the definition of OI given here is a sense of unity with the organization, which inherently involves one's self-concept. Furthermore, whereas commitment can be more easily transferred to other organizations that foster a similar positive attitude, OI is organization specific. Moreover, studies indicate a stronger correlation between dedication and attitudinal factors like job satisfaction (Riketta, 2005; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). On the other hand, OI ought to be more closely associated with factors that imply an appealing, unique, and internally consistent organizational identity, a shared destiny with the organization, prominent rival organizations, and selflessness on the part of the organization. In this regard, since OI entails defining oneself in terms of the organization's identity, an individual's success is directly correlated with the organization's success;

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[2] Mowday defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.
Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. 1979. The measurement of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14: 224-247.

in contrast, commitment lacks this deeply ingrained relationship, perhaps shielding the individual from the organization's destiny.

1.6. Recent trends

As mentioned earlier, organizational identification has long been an important concept for scholars of the subject. Nowadays, however, it takes on even different importance and usefulness due to issues that have recently become central within organizations. First, in fact, it becomes a key tool for the creation of inclusive workplaces, and it further shows its positive effects in the way employees react to change, helping them to adapt to it. Finally, OI turns out to be a tool that can ensure greater loyalty of the individual to his or her organization, thus pushing him or her away from possible threats that might come from outside.

1.6.1. *Organizational identity as a key element to promote diversity, equity, inclusion and belonging*

Over the past few decades, numerous organizations have taken steps to diversify their workforce in terms of demographics, socioeconomic status, and other factors; to promote equity among employees from different backgrounds; and to establish inclusive work environments and cultures that foster a sense of belonging for all employees, irrespective of their social standing (Leslie 2019; Nkomo et al. 2019). In this regard, according to Freeman and Koçak (2023), organizational identity is a crucial design tool in the goal of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB). According to their definition, in fact, inclusive organizational identity is the conviction (held by internal or external stakeholders) that diversity is one of an organization's defining traits and that it integrates a range of people—including those with historically marginalized social identities — into its operations, governance, and results. The advancement of DEIB can be impacted by inclusivity of identities since organizational identities mediate the relationships between internal and external stakeholders and organizations (Brickson 2005).

At the internal level, what can be said is that inclusive organizational identities support a sense of community. Workers evaluate their sense of belonging in companies in part based on how well their personal and organizational identities align (Brickson 2013). Members of low-status or stigmatized social categories are more prone to experience stereotype threat (Chaney et al. 2016; Steele et al. 2002) and a sense of unease about their place in society (Walton and Cohen 2007). An inclusive corporate identity that communicates and affirms that minorities can have a voice and feel accepted despite their differences may mitigate this. Demonstrated inclusiveness is also beginning to be seen favorably by external stakeholders as a source of differentiation and potential advantage for firms. For example, workplace rankings such as DEI ratings and specialist employee review sites provide external stakeholders and job seekers with information that can influence how they perceive and make decisions

about companies. Therefore, inclusive identities have the potential to draw in a wider range of talent and workers who share the DEIB objectives, assisting in the development of an inclusive culture.

In conclusion, creating inclusive organizational identities helps lay the groundwork for creating long-lasting inclusive organizations. In order to do this, leaders and organizational designers must deliberately negotiate the quirks and complexities of "who we are today" and take into account the trade-offs and design decisions outlined above in order to ascertain "who we will be tomorrow." As a result, in order to genuinely achieve an inclusive identity, leaders and designers must carefully consider every facet of their brand, offerings, and business practices to make sure they do not discriminate against individuals based solely on their social identities. They should also encourage members, who might have different cultural backgrounds, to follow suit. In order to attain inclusive identities, it is imperative for leaders and designers to establish a respectful environment for everybody. In this way, it is expected that inclusive organizational identities would draw and keep diverse people who can relate to and succeed in their organization (Freeman and Koçak, 2023).

1.6.2. *Effects of identification on employee reactions to change*

Companies acknowledge the need for organizational changes to gain competitive advantages and survive in a highly competitive business environment. These changes include managerial innovation, mergers and acquisitions, structural changes, and departmental unit restructuring (Kim & Park, 2008; Terry, Carey, & Callan, 2012). In relation to this, organizational researchers have observed that assisting employees in navigating the change process is essential to the success of organizations, so it is crucial to look at both the psychological experiences of employees as well as the processes and business outcomes involved in organizational change (Bennett & Durkin, 2000). Negative consequences including dissatisfaction, uncertainty, alienation, and decreased productivity are frequently linked, both at the individual and organizational levels, to inadequate change adaptation (Ashford, 1988; Burke, 2002). Furthermore, because job roles, positions, and occupational skills can change and employees may feel uncertain about their future when attempts to adjust are unsuccessful, organizational change is a major contributor to stress related to the job (Ashford, 1988; Roney & Cooper, 1997; Schabracq & Cooper, 1998). In this scenario, we have contrasting perspectives about the role that organizational identification has.

On the one hand, since organizational characteristics are (at least somewhat) connected to the self-concept of highly identified personnel (Dutton et al., 1994), the latter may become unclear if these traits change. As such, it is expected that highly identifiable personnel will oppose organizational change.

In contrast, organizational identification, according to Dutton et al. (1994), *"aligns individual interests and behaviors with interests and behaviors that benefit the organization."* In a similar vein, Rousseau (1998) contends that in a high-identity work environment, *"the short-term losses associated with organizational change may be made more tolerable by future anticipated benefits, since employees*

are more likely to anticipate resource changes" (Rousseau, 1998, p. 228). According to this viewpoint, highly recognized workers ought to exhibit a high degree of change readiness, if they see the change as beneficial to the company. Furthermore, since social identity theory is the foundation of organizational identification theories, the social identity theorists should be considered when analyzing this position: in this regard, Hogg and colleagues (Grant & Hogg, 2012; Hogg & Mullin, 1999) contend that people are incentivized to forge stronger, more definitive social identities as their surroundings shift. They contend that the ambiguity that arises in unclear circumstances may encourage people to form close bonds with one another when they disagree and also serve as a foundation group for seeking adaptable solutions for decisions about procedures and policies. Highly identified workers may also react to change in a particularly positive way. Van Knippenberg, Martin, and Tyler (2006) discovered, in fact, that highly identified group members tend to emphasize the change process, whereas less identified group members are primarily interested in change outcomes. This finding is consistent with Rousseau's (1998) claim that highly identified employees are less affected by short-term losses. Therefore, if highly identified employees believe that processes are fairly managed, they might even consent to significant process changes. Also supporting this view is the study by Madsen, Miller, and John (2005). who found that organizational identification appears to be positively correlated with preparedness for change.

There is clearly no absolute truth about the role that organizational identification plays within the organization prior to change since, as mentioned earlier, the literature is conflicting in this regard. However, it has been shown to play a positive role within a changed organization: common ingroup identity, performance, job satisfaction, adaptive intentions, and lower turnover intentions are just a few examples of the positive work outcomes that can be predicted by this variable (Jetten, O'Brien, and Trindall; Jimmieson and White, 2011; Lipponen, Olkkonen, and Moilanen, 2004; van Dick, Ullrich, and Tissington, 2006; van Dick, Wagner, and Lemmer, 2004).

1.6.3. *Employees' responses to organizational identity threats*

In the contemporary business landscape, which is marked by the blending of internal and external organizational boundaries, digitization, and increasingly adaptable work schedules, employees require a deeper understanding than in the past of the goals and intentions of their organization (e.g., Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Workers are in fact vulnerable to a variety of external threats to their organizational identity (Petriglieri, 2015; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). For instance, the media and other external stakeholders closely monitor organizational actions, aims, and values, highlighting negative occurrences, such organizational crises and scandals (Bednar, 2012; Durand & Vergne, 2015; Jensen, 2006). Therefore, workers encounter a significant quantity of diverse information about their company from mass and social media sources, which may not align with their personal ideas of the organization's identity and, as a result, pushing them to reconsider their idea of the organization's identity (Hatch & Schultz, 2002; Kjaergaard, Morsing, & Ravasi, 2011).

Significant attention has been paid to the idea of identity threat in a variety of fields, such as psychology, social psychology, and organization theory, as well as at the personal, relational, and collective levels of an individual's self-concept (Bartel & Wiesenfeld, 2013; Branscombe et al., 1999; Meister, Jehn, & Thatcher, 2014). According to earlier studies, situations that challenge members' beliefs about the essential and distinguishing characteristics of an organization and that potentially endanger members' personal identities are considered organizational identity threats (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Petriglieri & Devine, 2016; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Identity literature generally distinguishes between personal and social identity risks based on the self-concept that is endangered by certain events or experiences. More specifically, when someone's personality traits, values, abilities, or status are diminished, it is referred to as a personal identity threat (Kyratsis, Atun, Phillips, Tracey, & George, 2017; Stewart, Astrove, Reeves, Crawford, & Solimeo, 2017). Personal identity threats in organizational settings include things like job loss (Shepherd & Williams, 2018), advancements rejected (Vough & Caza, 2017), and public humiliation at work (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). On the other hand, organizational and other social identity risks, such as gender discrimination and occupational stigma, cast doubt on the identity of the social group, which in turn has an indirect impact on the self-concept of individual group members (Ellemers et al., 2002; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Social identity threats can occur when people are forced into a group against their will, – that is, when others attribute stereotypical group traits to them – when a group's uniqueness or worth is undervalued, or when someone questions their place within the group, according to Branscombe et al. (1999). Examples belonging to this category can be, for instance, corporate scandals (Eury, Kreiner, Treviño, & Gioia, 2018; Grandey, Krannitz, & Slezak, 2013).

Social identity theory explains why individual members' self-concepts may be threatened by events that jeopardize the organization's identity (Dutton et al., 1994; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996). According to Branscombe et al. (1999), Ellemers et al. (2002), Petriglieri & Devine (2016), and other internal and external events that cast doubt on the organization's identity, employees may come to feel that their organization no longer aligns with their personal identity and performs poorly in comparison to others.

In order to understand what employee responses are to events that may represent identity threats, Piening developed a model called "The Identity Threat Response Process" (Piening et al., 2020). It consists of three basic phases: (1) threat recognition, (2) threat attribution, (3) threat response. The threat recognition stage ascertains whether a particular employee considers certain events—like a bad public image of the company in the media or on social media—to be concerning in any way. It is expected that people will look for solutions to the root causes of organizational identity issues if the perceived threat level is higher than a predetermined threshold. In relation to this, according to Petriglieri and Devine (2016, p. 243), a "*strong organizational identity threat occurs either when the potential harm to the organization's identity is great or when the threatening experience is encountered frequently*".

Furthermore, the model's underlying premise – that organizational identity risks must seriously jeopardize an employee's identity before a differentiated response is elicited – is consistent with research on social identity and attribution. In the next stage, which is the stage concerning threat attribution, the individual goes in search of the causes of the threat and tries to understand where the threat may come from. It analyzes, therefore, both the organization's social media profile and the degree to which the organization has received similar negative feedback in the past. Finally, the last phase is the one where the individual tries to find strategies to deal with social identity threats. In relation to this, several strategies have been identified in the literature, and the main ones appear to be (1) social distancing, (2) social creativity, and (3) social change responses.

First, members may physically or psychologically distance themselves from the organization in response to threats to the group's identity. According to more current identity research, people frequently actively (cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally) distance themselves from the organization without ever really going (Eury et al., 2018; Petriglieri, 2015): it is therefore a phenomenon called social distancing, as it does not involve physical departure from the organization but psychological and social distancing.

Second, as described by Ashforth & Kreiner (1999; Ashforth et al., 2007), the term "social creativity" refers to a broad range of behavioral and cognitive strategies that aim to preserve a positive impression of the organization. These strategies include reframing, recalibrating, and refocusing. Finally, actions meant to actively alter the group's social status are included in the third category of reaction patterns: social change. In an organizational context, social change may appear through actions aimed at enhancing an organization's public image and operational efficiency.
Based on the empirical evidence and literature on the subject, however, it should be noted that social creativity turns out to be the dominant strategy if employees perceive received threats as external. Thus, this also highlights how the individual, in most cases, remains firmly attached to his or her organizational identity and provides insight into how important this variable is and how much it is able to influence the employee's behavior and view of their organization.

Chapter 2: Employees' individual performance

2.1 An overview

One pertinent and frequently used outcome measure for research conducted in the workplace is individual work performance (IWP). Finding the causes and predictors of IWP has been the focus of extensive research in the last few decades in disciplines like management, occupational health, and industrial-organizational psychology. Determining the notion of IWP and understanding its underlying structure only came into focus later (e.g. Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Dalal, 2005).

As a result, IWP places more emphasis on employees' behaviors and actions than on the outcomes of these activities. Furthermore, according to Rotundo and Sackett (2002), actions should be controlled by the individual, excluding those that are influenced by their surroundings. Understanding IWP's fundamental structure is crucial for measuring it. While the multidimensional nature of IWP has long been acknowledged (Campbell, 1990; Austin and Villanova, 1992), employee behaviors beyond task performance have only recently been given full consideration (e.g., Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Dalal, 2005; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance has been identified as a crucial component of individual work performance in almost all frameworks. It refers to the ability (or competency) with which a person completes essential job responsibilities. Notwithstanding, it is now widely accepted that contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), in addition to task performance, comprise the IWP domain (e.g., Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000). Behaviors supporting the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technological core must operate are referred to as contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73). Contextual performance is characterized by behaviors that tend to support the organizational and social environment, such as exerting effort, promoting team and peer performance, cooperating, and communicating (Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Campbell, 1990). Furthermore, in recent years, there has been a greater focus on counterproductive work behavior (CWB), which is defined as a behavior that jeopardizes the organization's well-being (Rotundo and Sackett, 2022). It covers actions like stealing, arriving late to work, and being absent from work. Approximately half of the general individual work performance frameworks included one or more aspects of work conduct that is unproductive. Murphy (1989) employed the concepts of down-time behaviors (work-avoidance behaviors) and destructive/hazardous behaviors (behaviors posing a clear danger of productivity losses, damage, or other setbacks) to characterize actions that negatively impact the organization.

In addition, the new and incoming dimension of adaptive performance in IWP frameworks (e.g., Pulakos et al., 2000; Sinclair and Tucker, 2006; Griffin et al., 2007) has been noted by Koopmans et al. (2011) in a recent review. This dimension focuses on how work systems are becoming more interdependent and uncertain, and how this has changed how IWP is defined. The degree to which a

person adjusts to changes in their job role or environment is known as adaptive performance (Griffin et al., 2007).

2.1.1. Historical evolution of Performance Measurement

Performance management (PM) has generated more discussion, controversy, and emotion than any other talent management system. To maximize the usefulness of PM procedures, a variety of tactics have been tried, from straightforward modifications to rating scales, to intricate behavior modification programs. While many of these initially appeared promising, the results have been unsatisfactory, leading to a considerable level of discontent with PM procedures within firms. Due to the difficulties that come with PM and the numerous failed attempts to address these issues, new performance management techniques have emerged and have garnered a reputation as the weakest aspect of talent management (Pulakos et al. 2012). Hence, the complexity, diversity, and multilevel of PM make it difficult to understand. It, in fact, incorporates ideas and findings from a wide range of fields, such as organizational development, cognitive, clinical, social, and behavioral psychology, neuroscience, measurement theory, and motivation theory. Due to what has just been said, it has grown more complicated over time, taking countless hours of management and staff time, and costing businesses millions of dollars every year. According to CEB (2012), in fact, the average manager and employee are expected to devote 210 and 40 hours, respectively, to PM activities. This translates into annual costs of $30 million USD for a company with 10,000 employees. Thus, to understand how we arrived at the performance measurement method used today and these huge costs faced by companies with respect to PM, it is necessary to retrace the steps by going back in time.

In this regard, in the early days of performance management, accurate ratings of individual performance were the aim of performance evaluation. Ratings were initially used extensively in the workplace in the late 1800s, when the US Federal Civil Service used efficiency ratings (Lopez, 1968) and when officers' performance during World War I was assessed based on traits like assertiveness and timeliness (Scott et al., 1941). Verbal and numerical anchors were employed by Patterson (1922) in the Graphic Rating Scale, the first rating scale, to increase the accuracy of trait assessments.
Then, early in the 20th century, scientific management ideas began to take shape (Taylor, 1911), which resulted in a greater emphasis on productivity and the use of ratings to regulate and promote improved performance (Grote 1996, Murphy & Cleveland 1995). Furthermore, racial disparities were highlighted by the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 60s, which also led to stricter assessment procedures in businesses. Due to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and other laws that forbade discrimination in employment practices, a great deal of work was done in the field of rating format design to guarantee that ratings were based on variables relevant to the task at hand and to reduce bias (Dunnette 1963, Guion 1961). To assist managers in matching their observations of employee performance to an appropriate rating level, one concept that gained traction was to tie different rating levels with work

behaviors (Smith & Kendall 1963, Blanz & Ghiselli 1972, Latham & Wexley 1977). Early in the new millennium, a novel forced choice rating format was implemented, and studies conducted since then have demonstrated its capacity to increase rating validity, accuracy, and reliability (Borman et al. 2001, Bartram 2007, Schneider et al. 2003). In this approach, managers are asked to select from a list of equally desirable behaviors, the one that best describes each employee's job performance, either fully or partially. The rating of raters is translated into an interval scale using item response theory (IRT) data for each item; in particular, selecting one behavioral statement above the others yields information about the employee's placement. Studies have indicated that this format produces superior quality ratings; yet practical implementation of this format has been scarce.

In the 1970s and 1980s, growing worries about discrimination and legal challenges led to the adoption of more formalized evaluation procedures. For instance, management by objectives (MBO; Drucker 1954) offered a means of defining, disseminating, and assessing workers in relation to performance goals pertinent to their jobs. Despite being widely used, MBO systems were later dropped because they proved to be cumbersome and administratively demanding, even though some people still saw value in them (Jamieson 1973, Strauss 1972). Nonetheless, concepts from MBO, such as goal-setting and outcome-tracking, are still widely used in PM procedures today. Jack Welch, the former CEO of General Electric, popularized the forced distribution rating approach in the early 1980s. Under what was referred to as GE's *rank and yank* system, workers were categorized according to how their performance compared to that of other workers, with 20% of workers placed in the middle and the remaining 80% designated as top and lowest performers. Those to be separated and promoted were frequently defined by the lower and upper groups, respectively. The practical issue forced distributions raise is that, if the groups are mixed blindly, the top 10% in a low-performing group might be operating as effectively as the lowest 10% in a high-performing group, raising questions about accuracy and fairness. Usually, calibration meetings are used to address this problem, discussing and reclassifying workers to make sure that the top and bottom 10% are correctly identified across all employees. Nevertheless, as calibration moves up through higher organizational levels and individual employee performance at lower levels becomes less widely recognized, this is a time-consuming process that becomes less informed. Despite being widely used for almost thirty years, forced rankings are currently becoming less common; from 49% in 2009 to 14% in 2011, GE was one of the companies that gave up on this rating system. Collecting multisource or 360-degree ratings from peers, customers, or direct reports in addition to management originated around the same time as another rating approach. According to the theory, those who have distinct roles from an employee see different parts of their work (Borman, 1974). Customers, for instance, might offer distinct perspectives on how well a manager is providing customer service, while direct reports are better suited to assess a manager's performance in providing feedback and mentoring. After that, the 1980s saw the rise in popularity of 360-degree ratings, which are still in use today (Bracken et al. 2001, Smither et al. 2005). Although their main

purpose is to provide developmental feedback, they can also aid in decision-making provided that the manager or coach of the individual properly integrates and interprets the rating data from the various sources (Bracken et al. 2001).

Nowadays, performance evaluation has progressed into more comprehensive PM processes with a wider range of performance-driving activities, including expectation setting, cascading goals, and interim feedback reviews (Smither & London 2009, London & Mone 2014). This is because organizations are becoming flatter and leaner and there is pressure to do more with less. Over the past fifteen to twenty years, these procedures have mostly become conventional, especially when businesses started obtaining automated project management systems to increase productivity (Aguinis 2013, London & Mone 2014). According to Pulakos (2009), these systems often evaluate employees based on their actions and output. Employee performance is seen to include both *what* they produce (results) and *how* they perform (behaviors).

Setting goals and objectives for each employee is the first step in most of the recent PM processes. This approach is based on goal-setting research, which indicates that people work better when given clear goals (e.g., Locke et al. 1981, Locke & Latham 1990). To connect each employee with the organization's strategic goals, cascading goals are frequently utilized (Rodgers & Hunter, 1991). The theory behind these connections is that they will make it easier for workers to comprehend how their efforts fit into the organization's overall objectives and strategy (Hillgren & Cheatham 2000, Schneier et al. 1991). Using MBO principles, objectives specify the results that each employee is expected to attain in enough detail to determine if the goal has been accomplished. As part of this process, managers and employees are frequently taught in setting SMART (Specific, Measurable, Aligned, Realistic, and Time-Bound) goals. While it makes sense to link corporate and individual goals, Pulakos & O'Leary (2010) pointed out the following practical difficulties:

(i) For managers who are not used to connecting goals across levels, cascading goals can be challenging and require some time to implement.

(ii) As objectives cascade, they frequently become muddled and disassociated from corporate objectives. This is similar to the game of telephone, where recounting a narrative can change its meaning unintentionally.

(iii) Even with training, managers' objectives differ significantly in quality, and similar employees' objectives are rarely identical (Pulakos & O'Leary 2010).

(iv) Goals set at the start of the year cannot take into account unexpected events that may occur during the year, particularly in cases where jobs are predictable. This problem is even more difficult in circumstances that are unstable and when objectives shift regularly (Cascio 1998, Pulakos & O'Leary 2010).

(v) When employees' goals are not equal, it might be challenging to evaluate the relative contributions that each person makes (Pulakos 2009).

(vi) Lastly, achieving a goal is frequently dependent on metrics that are available rather than ideal ones, which can compromise crucial standards like assessing quantity rather than quality.

The aforementioned elements make it unclear how beneficial goal-setting is for promoting high performance in a PM environment as it is currently done.

Another among the main features of PM procedures is the use of competency models as the foundation for behavioral ratings. Although there has been much discussion about what competencies actually are and how best to measure them, with some critical viewpoints, competency-based talent management practices have grown quickly since David McClelland is credited with coining the concept of competency (Dubois 1993). A competency, according to Boyatzis (1996), is any individual quality that is connected to successful job performance. It can also be defined as a combination of a motivation, trait, skill, attribute, or body of pertinent knowledge. Competencies are connected, observable activities that convey common themes that distinguish effective performance from poor performance, according to Klein's viewpoint (1996), who distinguished them from psychological notions. According to this author's approach, competency models nowadays usually comprise multiple behaviorally determined performance variables. A helpful tool for outlining an organization's strategy, values, culture, and priorities is the use of competency models. With a job-analytic foundation, more rigorous techniques to competency modeling have developed throughout time to better support their application in assessment and decision-making (Schippmann 1999). However, despite significant investments in the design and automation of PM processes, automation failed to improve PM quality, effectiveness, or impact. As a result, implementation activities such as gaining employee buy-in and support from leadership and developing efficient communication, training, and change management strategies received more attention (Rodgers et al. 1993).

2.1.2 New approaches to Performance Management

Innovative approaches that deviate from conventional methods have been proposed in the last five years to increase the value of performance management. An overwhelming majority of businesses have started de-stripping their formal procedures and concentrating more on the informal, unplanned behaviors that have been found to contribute most to boosting performance, as opposed to adding more formal PM steps and processes (CEB 2004, Bryant 2011). There is a lot of discussion over which improvements will provide the most value, since so many organizations are working on PM reform at the same time. This has led to the development of two main approaches. One strategy is to modify certain parts of the formal system in order to cut down on low-value, needless stages and processes that result in high expenses and unclear returns on investment. This approach to improving PM is consistent

with broader movements to simplify the talent management process, which, according to Effron & Ott (2010), has grown too complicated, time-consuming, and expensive for its benefits.

The second main strategy to enhance PM focuses on the daily manager and staff behaviors that have been demonstrated to enhance performance, such as giving employees real-time feedback to help them perform better or overcome obstacles and putting in place agile goals that are more attainable and easier to modify when circumstances change. While some firms have concentrated on the first strategy – streamlining the process – others have concentrated on the second strategy – encouraging more productive PM behavior – and still others have implemented improvements that combine the two strategies.

Both strategies, however, have in common the long-standing recognition and validation from decades of research of the impact that management conduct and the interpersonal ties between managers and employees have on attitude and performance. For example, research has indicated that perceptions of procedural justice and fairness, as well as improved performance, are linked to effective relationships and open communication (Beer 1981, DeCotiis & Petit 1978, Wexley & Klimoski 1984, Daniels 2000, Beer 1981). A comparable emphasis on strong manager-employee connections and efficient communication as levers for engagement and good performance has been demonstrated by best practice survey research (CEB 2004, Harter et al. 2002). The research literature has consistently emphasized the significance of feedback (Bernardin & Beatty 1984, Ilgen et al. 1979, Maier 1958), due to its potential to positively impact job attitudes (Ilgen et al. 1981, Pearson 1991) and performance (Ilgen et al. 1979, Kluger & DeNisi 1996). While a great deal of research has gone into figuring out how best to run formal performance feedback sessions (e.g., Burke et al. 1978, Cederblom 1982, Pearce & Porter 1986, Nathan et al. 1991), what authors today agree upon is that real-time informal feedback has the greatest influence on performance and engagement (e.g., Aguinis 2013, CEB 2004, Kirkland & Manoogian 2007, Gregory et al. 2008). However, informal feedback is only one aspect of effective PM behavior. According to CEB (2004), a number of critical manager behaviors – such as establishing clear expectations, giving frequent informal feedback, and assisting staff members in growing and succeeding at work – are linked to improved performance and engagement. CEB's findings were corroborated by eight habits of highly effective managers found by Google's Project Oxygen (Bryant, 2011). These included having one-on-one meetings with staff members, offering problem-solving assistance, and providing coaching and development. Teams led by Google managers who exhibited these traits outperformed others, remained longer, and had more positive views toward work. Therefore, Google started incorporating the eight habits into its training curricula.

When combined, these studies show how managers' actions have a significant impact on worker productivity, morale, and financial outcomes.

Furthermore, while manager behaviors have been the main focus of research, it is vital to remember that performance management is an interactive process involving managers and employees, where employees also have responsibilities for enabling performance. The goal of PM behavior

transformation is to radically alter the way it is perceived and executed. In order to change performance management from a formal HR system of prescribed steps that are cued by an automated system to managers and employees engaging with each other on a continuous basis to drive high performance and achieve important business outcomes, managers and employees must make both behavioral and mental changes. **Figure 1** illustrates the desired change suggested by Pulakos et al. (2019), which is rooted in developing productive working relationships that are characterized by open communication and trust, which in turn enable openness to real-time feedback, coaching, continuous learning, and development to occur naturally as part of daily work.
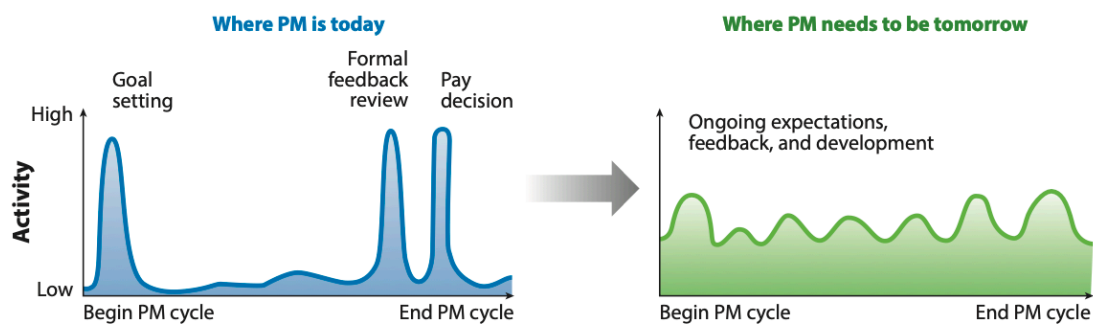
Figure 1: *Performance management transformation to improve its effectiveness and value.*
Source: *Pulakos, E. D., Mueller-Hanson, R., & Arad, S. (2019).*

In essence, a new mindset and climate need to be created about how PM is enacted on a regular cadence through key manager and employee behaviors (Bryant 2011, CEB 2004, Pulakos et al. 2015).

However, it is important to remember that performance management transformation is a significant organizational change endeavor, and well-established change management models offer guidance on how to successfully orchestrate change (Kotter 2007, Bridges & Bridges 2016, Heath & Heath 2010, Cohen 2005). Engaging stakeholders, getting support and buy-in, communicating clearly, empowering, and equipping the workforce to embed the change, and managing expectations are all necessary for any change initiative to be successful. Furthermore, making sure the PM technique is appropriate for the organization's strategy and culture and that it can be successfully applied in the given context is a crucial part of implementation. Performance management, in addition, is distinguished from other talent management systems more than any other by its nearly blind adoption of novel trends that often fall short of expectations (Pulakos & O'Leary 2011). This occurs because the true fit between new practices and the organization's strategy, culture, appetite, and resources appears not being sufficiently taken into account. Mueller-Hanson & Pulakos (2018) show that Bock (2015) explains in *Work Rules* how Google's practice of rating and compensating high and low performers in very different ways aligns with the company's culture, which is highly data-driven, rewards big wins, and tolerates longer processing times needed to make more subtle pay distinctions (Bock 2015). On the other hand, pay-for-

performance initiatives have shown to be disastrous at other companies where there is a more egalitarian culture, little variable pay, and a lack of performance differentiation in the past. The main idea is that, in order for a PM process to be successful, each component must properly suit the unique organizational context in which it is implemented. Process modification that necessitates a shift in thought and behavior takes longer to implement than process mechanic changes. While the latter can frequently be completed in weeks, the former can take years. Long-term change is more likely to be achieved through gradual behavior and culture change—beginning small, proving the idea, and exploiting success to create momentum (Mueller-Hanson & Pulakos 2018). To develop the incentive to experiment with and employ new habits, employees must actively participate in developing a vision for their personal improvement (Boyatzis et al. 2015).

When it comes to changing attitudes, behaviors, and cultures, patience, repetition, and reinforcement are crucial. It is critical to be realistic about the results that can be obtained in a particular setting and the context-specific elements that influence what can and should be attempted. This entails evaluating the political, social, and motivational elements that will support or thwart change realistically because they are frequently overlooked. Before making any changes, very important obstacles to success must be removed.

2.1.3   *How Human Resources Affect Organizational Performance*

The economic landscape is shifting quickly, driven by factors including globalization, shifting investor and customer demands, and fiercer competition in the product market. In order to thrive in this competitive landscape, companies must consistently enhance their operational efficiency through cost reduction, product and process innovation, and improvements in quality, productivity, and time to market. Human resources, or the people who comprise an organization, are regarded as one of the most crucial resources for modern businesses. Because many other drivers of competitive success are no longer as potent as they once were, people and the way they are managed are becoming increasingly crucial. It is imperative to acknowledge that the foundation for competitive advantage has shifted, in order to formulate an alternative framework for analyzing strategy and human resource management concerns (Pfeffer,1994). Even though protected markets, economies of scale, product and process technology, and other traditional drivers of success can still give an organization a competitive advantage, an organization's human resources are more important to its long-term viability. The function of human resource management is scaling up the organizational hierarchy in tandem with the realization that human resources are essential to a business. The goal of human resource management is to guarantee that the company hires and keeps the knowledgeable, devoted, and highly motivated personnel it requires. This entails taking actions to identify and meet the needs of future generations of workers as well as to strengthen and develop people's innate abilities, including their potential, contributions, and employability, by offering chances for learning and ongoing growth. It entails the execution of hiring

and selection processes, management development, and business-related training initiatives (Armstrong, 2008).

The field of HRM has seen significant transformation in recent years. These adjustments signify two significant shifts. The first is that human resource management has replaced personnel management, while the second is represented by the shift from the field of human resource management to the field of strategic human resource management (SHRM; Schuler, 2007). The understanding that people are a valuable resource in companies and can be methodically handled was aided by the first transformation that was implemented, while the discipline's prior knowledge base served as the foundation for the second metamorphosis. This transformation is predicated on the understanding that human resource policies and practices must be connected to the needs of the organization, in addition to collaborating with one another. Several advantages could be obtained by the company via strategic human resource management (Brewster, 2000), like helping the organization to achieve its objectives and survive, aiding in the development and effective execution of the company's business strategies, generating and preserving a competitive advantage, enhancing the company's capacity for innovation and responsiveness, expanding the pool of workable strategic options, engaging in strategic planning and shaping the company's strategic direction as a duly recognized member of upper management. Furthermore, it can be helpful in enhancing communication and collaboration between line managers and the HRM department.

The field of SHRM is, therefore, focused on how human resource management systems affect a company's performance, with a special emphasis on how aligning human resources can provide a competitive edge. Businesses are in fact realizing that effective HR policies and procedures may improve performance, from a financial, quality, and productivity point of view. To explain the potential that strategic human resource management has relative to corporate performance, many scholars have drawn on the resource-based view (Collins et al., 2003)

In the last years of the 20th century, management has come to understand that the key differentiators of a company enterprise are people, not markets, goods, money, buildings, or equipment. This line of thought is based on the resource-based view, which holds that a firm's competitive edge is mostly derived from how well it applies the collection of priceless resources at its disposal (Wernerfelt, 1984). Consequently, it implies that by supporting the development of firm-specific competencies, human resource systems can help maintain a competitive advantage (Lado et al., 1994). Except for its personnel, therefore, all an organization's assets are inactive. They are passive resources that need to be used by people in order to produce value. The productivity of the workforce is essential for maintaining a profitable business or a strong economy (Fitz-enz, 2000). In this context, it is crucial to understand why using human resources can lead to success that is enduring and difficult for rivals to copy. The reason for this, is that the results of good people management are frequently less obvious or evident than

their origins. Culture, personnel management, and the impact these factors have on employees' abilities and conduct are commonly written off as the "soft" side of business (Pfeffer,1994). Even when they are not disregarded, the way people are managed frequently fits together in a system that makes it difficult to understand the dynamics of a specific firm and how it functions. One item is simple to imitate, but multiple things are far more challenging. In order for the business to acquire and maintain a competitive advantage, HRM must accomplish the following strategic objectives (Armstrong et al., 2003):

- to invest in individuals by introducing and supporting learning procedures meant to boost capacity and match competencies with needs of the business.
- to make sure the company determines the knowledge needed to fulfill its objectives and please its clients and moves to build and acquire its intellectual capital.
- to specify the actions necessary for an organization to succeed and make sure that these actions are praised, rewarded, and supported.
- to win individuals over to the organization's mission and values.
- to inspire people to put their all into the work they accomplish for the organization.

Understanding the connection between HRM and corporate strategy is essential to achieving these objectives. To reach this goal and to obtain understanding of the value that their human resources contribute, an increasing number of organizations are depending on measuring techniques, including workforce scorecards,

Furthermore, an increasing amount of research demonstrating a favorable correlation between organizational performance and human resource management is fueling the increased interest in measuring (Voorde et al., 2010; Cappelli et al., 1996). As before mentioned, the key principle of human resource management (HRM) is that people are an organization's most valuable asset and that their performance is heavily dependent upon them. HR will therefore have a significant impact on business performance if a suitable variety of HR policies and procedures are created and successfully implemented. The relationship between HRM and performance was modeled by Guest et al. (2011), as **Figure 2** illustrates. Any business' primary strategic objective is to maximize wealth for its shareholders or achieve superior financial performance, notwithstanding the presence of diverse stakeholders within the firm (Paul et al., 2003). Effective operational performance is a major factor in an organization's financial performance. People, procedure, and technology all affect an organization's operational performance. People in the company must be sufficiently competent, with the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities, for people to interact with technology and processes in an efficient manner. Individual competency plays a significant role in determining operational performance in terms of producing high-quality goods and services quickly. HRM procedures like hiring, training, workspace design, and performance reviews can improve workers' competency for improved output.
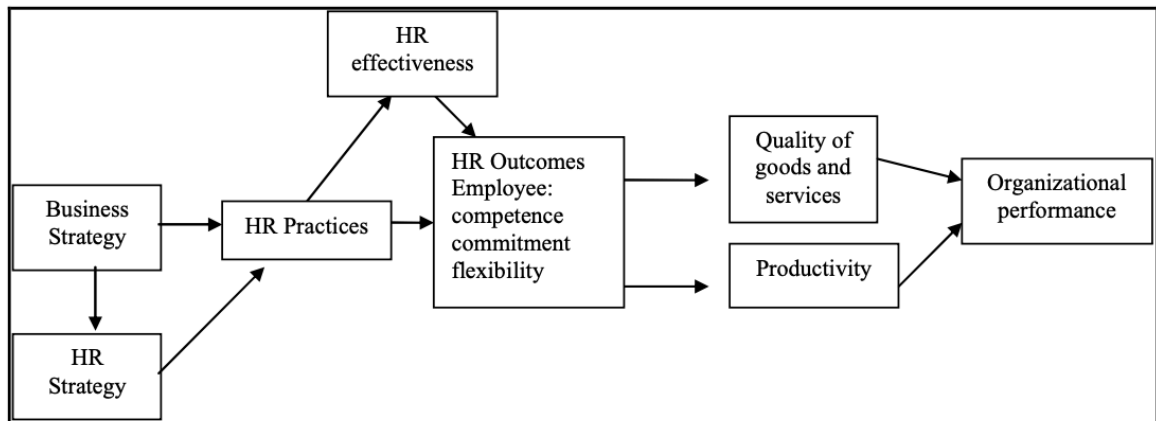
Figure 2: *The Relationship Between HRM and Performance.*
Source: *Michael Armstrong (2006). Strategic Human Resource Management:*
A Guide to Action. Kogan Page. London. p. 75.

Evidently, the performance of a company is rarely directly impacted by human resources, but it has an indirect effect. This is especially true when the effective implementation of a strategy is what drives firm performance, as required by the business logic of HR's effect. Effective strategy execution is a system of intermediate outcomes, and HR professionals (and line managers) need to understand this. Effective strategy execution is the foundation of shareholder value. Understanding the causal links between HR actions and these intermediate outcomes – which are ultimately what propel strategic success in organizations – is essential to thinking like a strategy manager (Huselid et al., 2005).

2.2 Organizational alignment and Individual Performance

In the realm of strategic management, the idea of fit or alignment is fundamental (Venkatraman and Camillus, 1984; Venkatraman, 1989; Tan and Tan, 2005). According to Ansoff (1965) and Andrews (1971), researchers have stressed the significance of matching or aligning an organization's strategy with an internal assessment of the firm and an external assessment of environmental possibilities and risks when establishing corporate strategy. When developing and putting into practice tactics, alignment is crucial. In the strategy literature, fit has been pushed from a number of angles.

For example, the 1982 best-selling book "In Search of Excellence" by Peters and Waterman (1982) suggested that companies tend to become higher performing or excellent firms when they achieve an integrated harmony among three "hard" "Ss" of strategy, structure, and systems, and four "soft" "Ss" of skills, staff, style, and super-ordinate goals.

For alignment to exist, managers at different levels and within different organizational hierarchy units must have a common knowledge of the aims and objectives of the organization. The capacity of an organization to obtain and allocate resources in a way that aligns with its competitive requirements is the foundation for the pursuit and sustenance of a competitive advantage (Porter, 1996). Nonetheless, a number of scholars studying strategy have contended that excessive alignment could leave businesses

with extremely closely related components, making it difficult for them to adjust to a changing external environment. For example, fit should be taken into account in light of the interaction costs that a firm face, according to Hagel and Singer (1999).

In the same vein, Miller (1996) contends that configurations (via fit) can only provide competitive advantage if they are dynamic and flexible, which helps to resolve this conflict between fit and flexibility.

Furthermore, the literature distinguished between different forms of alignment in the organization: horizontal (or lateral) and vertical. The arrangement of plans, goals, strategies, and choices at different organizational levels is referred to as *vertical alignment*. Vertical alignment depends on coordination at a fourth level, the decision areas inside each function, in addition to coordinating activities and priorities across these three levels (Kathuria and Porth, 2003). This hierarchy of relationships is depicted in **Figure 3**: vertical alignment is accomplished when this constancy is attained.

Coordinating activities across the organization is known as *horizontal alignment*, and it mostly relates to the strategy hierarchy's lowest tiers. Integration between and within functions can be used to characterize horizontal alignment. The term *cross-functional integration* refers to the alignment of choices made by marketing, operations, HR, and other departments with one another, ensuring that their actions and choices reinforce and support one another. Cooperation and communication between diverse functional activities are necessary for the horizontal alignment process.
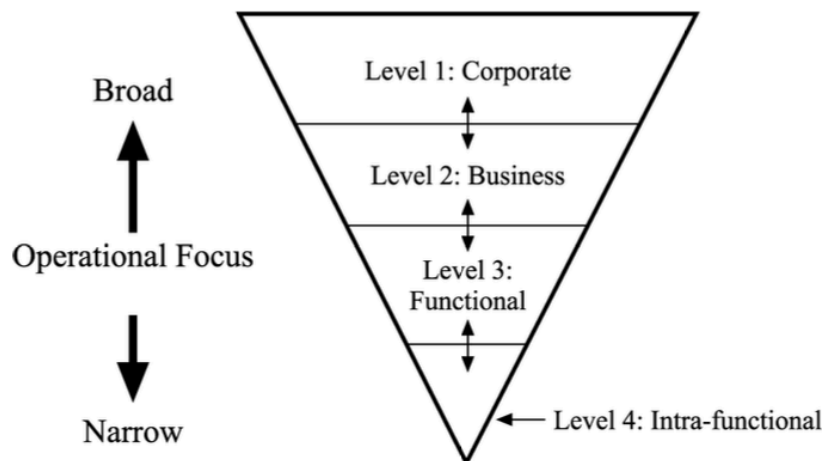
Figure 3: Levels of strategies.
Source: Kathuria, R., Joshi, M. P., & Porth, S. J. (2007). Organizational alignment and performance: past, present and future.

The impact of coherence or vertical alignment on performance has been studied by strategic management researchers. It emerges that successful organizations have more "visible" congruence between their strategy and operational characteristics, according to research by Whipp et al. (1989). This is in line with Day's (1984) suggestion that, in order to create a lasting competitive advantage, business

strategy and functional strategies should be combined. These studies support the idea that an organization performs better when its different strategic levels and strategic priorities are integrated, consistent, and mutually supportive.

When it comes to horizontal alignment, some research has been done to connect two functional domains: marketing management and operations management. For example, Alegre and Chiva (2004) looked at two case studies to investigate the horizontal alignment between marketing and manufacturing and came to the conclusion that a successful firm needed a fit between manufacturing competitive priorities and product innovation.

Thus, as seen above, organizational alignment has a positive effect on performance and leads companies to the development of a more sustainable and long-lasting competitive advantage. Likewise, it is interesting to analyze the effect that organizational identification, understood as the alignment of the individual to the target company, has on the performance of the individuals themselves.

In this context, Likert (1967) and McGregor (1967) asserted that OI in companies results in a variety of favorable outcomes, including the accomplishment of objectives, the caliber of performance, and job satisfaction. McGregor (1967) saw the organizationally identified individual as one who embodies the organization's values and goals, which motivates them to focus their efforts on achieving the organization's goals and finding fulfillment and satisfaction in the process. Furthermore, the fundamental premise of a study conducted by Efraty et al. (1988) is that, in an organizational setting where interactions with clients are required, the more congruence there is between the goals of the organization and the member of the organization providing the service to the client, the more likely it is that the focal person will be involved in his or her work, put effort into it, and perform successfully. This is predicated on the dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), which postulates that an organizationally identified person's self-concept will be at odds with their lack of participation in the work. On the other hand, completion of the work gives the organizationally identified individual a purpose and a source of meaning that is connected to the organization's overall goals and mission. The second premise of Efraty's research is that an individual who has a strong feeling of consonance with the organization that employs them is likely to experience favorable affective responses (Festinger, 1957). It follows that a positive relationship between OI and job satisfaction is hypothesized. The results of this study appear to be consistent with the hypotheses, as the correlation between OI and the variables examined is positive and significant. In contrast, however, a negative correlation emerges from the study with the variable *alienation*, which indicates worker dissatisfaction and a feeling of not belonging to the work performed. Therefore, it can be said that the study returns satisfactory results, with the only limitation of being carried out by analyzing a specific and geographically isolated sample (215 workers in the Midwest).

In keeping with this similar idea, Meyer, Becker, and Van Dick (2006) state that workers, who identify with the organization they work for, will incorporate organizational membership into their self-

concept. Rather than an outside force uniting the workers and the company, such inclusion fosters a natural sense of we-ness. Research has demonstrated that organizational identification significantly affects behavioral outcomes like in-role and extra-role performance as well as work attitudes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to quit (Riketta 2005). According to Edwards (2009, p. 91), these are the kinds of results that "any modern HR function would hope to foster among its workforce". For this reason, ongoing study on organizational identity is essential to putting HR management into practice.

In this regard, the study by Liu et al. (2011) argues that employees who maintain a high level of identification with the business, place a high value on being a member of the organization. As members of the organization, individuals have an inclination to follow rules and behave in the group's best interests. When employees engage in-role behavior, it is a requirement of the business and should convey to them that doing so is in the best interests of the company. They also need to put in a lot of effort to do the duties at hand since the more they do, the more probable it is that the organization will differentiate itself from competitors and preserve the unique qualities that make their participation in it. As a result, a worker who exhibits a strong sense of organizational identity will be eager to carry out the duties assigned by the company. This argument finds support in the body of current literature. Van Knippenberg (2000), for instance, put forth the idea that organizational identification and in-role performance are related, contending that a strongly identified worker is focused on the group identity and acts in the organization's best interests. According to earlier research (e.g., James and Greenberg 1989; Worchel et al., 1998), excellent performance was seen as serving the organization's interests, which led to organizational identification producing motivation on the job.

From a psychological perspective as well, research indicates that attitudes and behaviors within organizations are influenced by organizational identification. According to Haslam and Ellemers (2005), people who have a strong sense of organizational identity are more inclined to act in ways that advance the organization as a whole in order to further collective goals, or organizational goals. Successfully enacting in-role actions mandated by official job descriptions and directly supporting organizational goals is one method of reifying behavioral responses to organizational identification (Foote, 1951; van Knippenberg, 2000). To put it another way, strong identifiers are more inclined to make significant personal sacrifices in order to further organizational objectives. As a result, they are naturally motivated to do well in their respective roles, which leads to improved job performance (Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; van Knippenberg, 2000; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). According to research, strong identifiers, for example, are more likely to communicate and share information with colleagues (Grice, Gallois, Jones, Paulsen, & Callan, 2006) and make decisions that advance the strategic goals of the company (Bartel, 2001; Tompkins & Cheney, 1985). Strong identity holders also have a higher propensity to participate in customer-focused activities, which are vital to the efficacy of organizations (Farrell & Oczkowski, 2012; Homburg, Wieseke, & Hoyer, 2009).

Furthermore, extra-role performance, or discretionary actions that go beyond formal job descriptions and are not explicitly acknowledged by an organization's formal reward system (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), is another noteworthy behavioral outcome of organizational identification. Examples of these behaviors include employee voice behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Organ, 1997). For strong identifiers, it is important to willingly assist the organization in achieving its purpose (e.g., by abiding by unofficial business rules or attending optional company meetings) because the organization's goal is also their own. Furthermore, other organizational members who make up a sizable portion of strong identifiers' conceptions of the organization give their self-definitions considerable meanings (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008). Therefore, strong identifiers are likely to believe that helping others through extra-role behaviors (e.g., lending a helping hand to others who are having work-related issues, volunteering their time to assist newcomers) is similar to helping oneself (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002; van Dick, Gro-jean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). Overall, they develop into excellent organizational citizens as a result of their organizational identification (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; van Dick et al., 2006).

According to these theoretical and empirical theories, organizational identification influences behaviors without always influencing attitudes. This is seen in the relationship between organizational identity and in-role/extra-role performance. Certain scholars have specifically argued that identity and identification constitute relatively long-term or fundamental motivators of behavior, in contrast to attitudes that primarily capture relatively instrumental, ephemeral, or short-term motivators of behavior (Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Sparks, 2000). As a result, in organizational settings, people who identify with the organization are more likely to display behaviors that are preferred in the particular organizational context when they do so because they are acting as the "agent or cause of behavior" (Burke & Reitzes, 1981, p. 83) and conforming to the identity standard (Stets & Burke, 2000) of a prototypical organizational member (Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999).

Based on the claims of the existing literature, an initial hypothesis was therefore formulated to test the influence of organizational identification on individual performance:

H1: *Employees' performances will be positively correlated with their individual level of organizational identification: the higher the identification, the higher the performance.*

2.3 The role of commitment

One's performance within the company can be enhanced by commitment to a reputable organization (Khan et al., 2010). Organizational commitment, according to Mohammed & Eleswd (2013), is the extent to which people accept organizational principles and objectives and identify with them in carrying out their job responsibilities. Employees can be inspired to work more if they have a strong commitment to the organization's values and objectives, are willing to put in a lot of effort on its behalf and are eager to remain a part of it (Azeem, 2010; Al Zeifeti & Mohamad, 2017). According to Ling & Bhatti (2014), an employee's accomplishments and output, which are acknowledged by the company where they work and are defined by their abilities, effort, and working conditions, are combined to convey a portion of their job performance. Employees that have a strong psychological attachment to the firm and a strong dedication to it, will produce high-quality work (Al Zeifeti & Mohamad, 2017; Sharma & Sinha, 2015). In this regard, according to Jayaweera (2015) and Platis et al. (2014), attachment to the social relation personality system can be self-expression, which can boost employees' morale and behavior to perform better and generate their work achievement. Work success is seen as a crucial organizational metric and is acknowledged as a profession that seeks out novel approaches to advance the organization (Aboazoum et al., 2015).

Furthermore, as seen earlier, Allen and Mayer (1991) classify commitment by dividing it into 3 dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Each of them has its antecedents, i.e., the variables that contribute to the development of each dimension, and its consequences, which will be analyzed in detail below.

2.3.1 Antecedents of Commitment

Antecedents of Affective Commitment. Meyer & Allen (1991) found a correlation between commitment and personal traits like affiliation, work ethics, locus of control, and life interest in the workplace. They proposed that an employee's engagement with external circumstances could influence their predisposition towards commitment. Furthermore, the fulfillment of an employee's wants or values is what leads to the growth of commitment. (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to Herzberg's (1966) theory of hygiene/motivator, work can be further classified into two categories: comfortable work environments and employee perceptions of their competitive roles in the workplace. According to Meyer & Allen (1991), some modifiable elements in the console group that were identified as being associated with commitment were incentive distribution fairness, organizational loyalty, organizational hold, and position simplicity, as well as freedom from conflict and administrator reflection. They went on to discuss other aspects of competence-related experience, including autonomy, decision-making involvement, job scope, chance for growth, and fairness of performance-based reward.

Antecedents of Continuance Commitment. The most frequently examined antecedents include side bets, investments, and the presence of substitutes (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Hellman (1997), younger people tend to have greater job mobility because they have less invested in their careers. The elderly prefer to remain in the organization and do not wish to forfeit their investment. Employees may still be able to obtain a better opportunity in another organization later on because of their experience relative to their juniors if their dedication grows and deepens with time and their knowledge and abilities become more polished (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998).

Antecedents of Normative Commitment. According to Weiner (1982), normative commitment can be formed prior to joining an organization as a kind of organizational or cultural socialization. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), normative commitment can arise from any institution that offers a reward in advance or bears significant expenses in the provision of employment, such as on-the-job training.

2.3.2   Consequences of Commitment

Katz (1964) proposed that maintaining a steady workforce alone would not address an organization's effectiveness; instead, employees must consistently perform their assigned tasks and be willing to go beyond the scope of their current roles. Additionally, Weiner and Vardi (1980) came to the conclusion that attempts and normative commitment are positively correlated. In fact, the one with turnover is the most researched correlation in relation to commitment. However, if turnover is the primary source of concern, then the various conceptions of commitment become inappropriate, and any aspect of commitment can be just as good as any other. Remaining in the organization is insufficient in this case. The aforementioned findings make it abundantly clear that there are specific blend repercussions associated with the relationship between different levels of commitment and on-the-job behavior.

Positive Consequences of Low Level of Commitment. In a conflict – and uncertainty – filled atmosphere, a less devoted individual can contribute innovation (Thompson, 1965). People with low levels of commitment might look for other jobs (Angle & Perry, 1981). This might enhance their ability to think and function in the new company. One way to explain the positive effects on the organization is that underachievers will depart; while this may result in high employee turnover and absenteeism, the harm they could cause would be repaired. A candidate with more potential and challenging skills may be hired by the company when an employee resigns (Mowday et al, 1982).

Negative Consequences of Low Level of Commitment. Gouldner (1957) discovered that a low level of commitment might lead to serious issues for the organization. People who are more metropolitan oriented and who do not belong to a referent group may be harder to manage. Low commitment workers either quit or misuse their skills to undermine company objectives (Schein, 1968). According to Kanter

(1977), managers select and terminate personnel who exhibit trustworthiness and commitment. Similarly, Hacker (1978) discovered that it is impossible to get promoted to a top position without demonstrating a high degree of devotion. However, if managers don't put in enough effort, individual performance won't improve and the organization as a whole may suffer (Mowday et al., 1982).

Positive Consequences of Moderate Level of Commitment. A moderate level of commitment does not imply boundless dedication on the part of the individual, but it does mean that they are unwilling to readily embrace the system and become part of it. In a similar vein, a moderate level of commitment limits one's ability to fully or partially accept organizational values (Katz & Khan, 1966). A person with a moderate level of commitment, according to Schein (1968), rejects secondary values while simultaneously accepting central and cardinal norms and values. Workers uphold integrity while meeting the requirement. Increased job satisfaction may also be included in the group of benefits that the company offers (Hall & Schneider, 1972). Additionally, Steers (1977) discovered that a moderate level of commitment reduces the likelihood of leaving the organization.

Negative Consequences of Moderate Level of Commitment. Negative effects on the organization could include the individuals exhibiting their partial dedication being unable to carry out additional tasks on top of their parent responsibilities and duties (Katz, 1964). Individuals with a moderate level of dedication may have to make uncomfortable compromises for the organization, according to Kantz & Kahn (1966). When an individual with a moderate level of commitment is faced with a conflict between their obligations to uphold the organization's loyalty and their responsibility to the public, they are more likely to prioritize the social component above their loyalty to the organization (Randall, 1987).

Positive Consequences of High Level of Commitment. Whyte (1956) stated that an individual's commitment and loyalty to the organization will result in the organization's loyalty to the individual. High and productive performance as well as goal achievement are assured for the organization (Mowday, Porter & Dubin, 1974). Moreover, Eztioni (1975) clarified that people understand and accept the need for increased output within the company. Steers (1977) asserts that workers who are highly committed can produce work that is both rapid and strong. According to Ermann & Lundman (1982), a high level of devotion might pave the way for career advancement. When an employee demonstrates a high level of devotion, the organization typically rewards them with increased authority (Biggart & Hamilton, 1984).

Negative Consequences of High Level of Commitment. If a person has a strong commitment to the standards and principles of the organization, resistance to change may be seen (Merton, 1938). In actuality, it might make an organization less flexible (Salancik, 1977). According to Thompson (1965), innovation and creativity can be stifled. Those with a strong organizational commitment might not be able to work at another place (Coser, 1974).

Commitment, therefore, is a variable with high potential to influence an individuals' behavior in the company. In order to understand whether this variable can mediate the relationship between organizational identification and commitment, a second hypothesis was formulated. Specifically, it was divided into three sections in order to reflect the threefold essence of commitment:

H2a: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by increased affective commitment.

H2b: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by increased normative commitment.

H2c: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by decreased continuance commitment.

2.4 Trends in Performance Management

Performance management design was hotly debated after several well-known businesses announced drastic redesigns of their performance management systems and processes (PMSPs) (Baldassarre and Finken, 2015; Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; George and Holbein, 2016; Margolis et al., 2015; Morris, 2016; Nisen, 2015a; Ritchie, 2016; Zillman, 2016). Among these are the overt criticism of the "conventional wisdom" and the growing number of businesses attempting to enhance their PMSPs by embracing the "performance management revolution" (Chowdhury et al., 2018; Sloan et al., 2017). As we await empirical evidence regarding the announced PMSP redesign, which offers significant improvement potential, the debate is still very much alive and is expected to continue (Ahmed, 2021; Bersin, 2019; ClearReview, 2021).

The study by Schrøder-Hansen and Hansen (2023) focuses on nine companies: Netflix, Adobe, Accenture, Gap Inc., Deloitte, IBM, Microsoft, and Cardinal Health. These companies were among the first to announce radical redesigns, and it is frequently argued that they represent a performance management trend (Adler et al., 2016; Cappelli and Travis, 2016; Hearn, 2016; Ledford and Lawler, 2015; Murphy, 2020). In fact, discussion participants continue to bring up these businesses and the tale of their performance management strategies to this day (Fuhl, 2020; Greenwood, 2021; Kiron and Spindel, 2019; PerformYard, 2019; Sam, 2020). Thus, the previously described study offers a summary of the particular modifications that the nine companies have announced together with an explanation of their reasoning.

2.4.1 The challenges of people PMSPs

There are five organizational challenges that the nine organizations identify as key factors for the criticism of their previous PMSPs: adaptation, development, cooperation, trustworthiness, and cost-

effectiveness. In addition, the study taken into consideration (Schrøder-Hansen, 2023) identifies specific design elements - referred to as people PMSPs (Hansen, 2021) accused of being unable of managing the issues and hence needing to be redesigned.

Adaptation. Companies believe that in order to stay successful, they must continually change. As a result, each company's PMSP should support flexibility and enable employees to handle the strain of innovation and unpredictability that they face (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016). However, people PMSPs are frequently criticized for using procedures that are too complex, heavy-duty, and mechanical to satisfy these requirements. The discussion, for instance, made clear that the previous human resource supply chain partners (PMSPs) at Accenture, Adobe, General Electric, IBM, Gap Inc., and Microsoft were too slow and time-consuming to make the kind of flexibility, creativity, and adaptation that was needed. The systems, which include annual and centralized top-down goal setting and performance appraisal processes, are specifically accused of being overly formalized (Baldassarre and Finken, 2015; Cunningham, 2015a; Margolis et al., 2015; Morris, 2016; Ritchie, 2016; Zillman, 2016). Furthermore, Zillman (2016) contends that annual goals pose a challenge to IBM's goal-setting process because they are out of step with the company's actual business pace and the timeframe in which employees organize their work. This has consequences for the top-down cascade of overarching company objectives as well. Similar to the long-term planning horizon found in annual objectives, goal cascade leads to rigidity when businesses need to adjust and change. Furthermore, because goal cascading does not make use of the company's decentralized knowledge, it becomes laborious and ineffective (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Ritchie, 2016; Zillman, 2016).

Comparably, the discussion centers on the annual format of performance appraisal systems, which is criticized for requiring employees to obtain formal performance feedback just once a year. The claim is that as the feedback is too disconnected from the employees' real performance, it fails to have a meaningful and timely influence on their decisions and behavior (Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; Goler et al., 2016). This problem is supported by Patty McCord (2014), a former chief talent officer of Netflix, who claims that formal annual appraisals are meaningless since they don't happen often enough and just feel like rituals rather than processes with meaningful content.

Employee development. Constant staff development is another difficulty that businesses face (Baldassarre and Finken, 2015; Margolis et al., 2015). This challenge departs from previous conversations about the temporal orientation and frequency of performance information.
According to Donna Morris (2016), a former senior vice president of customer and employee experience at Adobe, among others, employees may not receive performance information for several months or even a year due to its rarity, which reduces their ability to use it for growth and improvement. Furthermore, Ritchie (2016), a former corporate vice president of overall incentives at Microsoft,

contended that the annual structure fails to address employees' specific feedback needs, which are critical to their professional growth. In addition, employees at Adobe even claimed in a survey that yearly performance reviews had a detrimental effect on their dedication and professional growth. One of the theories is that because they had not received any unfavorable feedback from their manager over the year, the employees were frequently taken aback by their evaluations (Morris, 2016).

Cooperation. People PMSPs' failure to encourage staff collaboration is another issue brought up in the discussion. According to reports, Adobe, Gap Inc., and Microsoft felt the need for cooperation grow to the point where their prior PMSPs were no longer sufficient (Buckingham, 2013a; Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Margolis et al., 2015; Morris, 2016). Ritchie (2016), for instance, gave an example of how Microsoft, as a cross-platform service provider, found that there was an increased requirement for integration and cooperation across their multiple product and service teams. This led Microsoft to realize that its previous people PMSPs were insufficient to meet the company's growing need to highlight each employee's contribution to the success of their team, other teams, and the business as a whole.
Because individual employee rewards and growth are at the center, individuals PMSPs generally focus too much on individual performance, which serves as a design feature demonstrating the collaboration challenge. Furthermore, some businesses incorporate employee rating into the assessment process, which erodes or even destroys the incentives for employees to collaborate and fosters internal competitiveness (Baldassarre and Finken, 2015; Buckingham, 2013a; Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Impraise, 2016b). According to reports, many of Microsoft's "superstars" have tried their hardest to avoid collaborating with the company's top developers out of concern that it would lower their own status (Eichenwald, 2012), which lends credence to this problematization.

Trustworthiness. Performance management literature has been debating the role of managers' subjective judgment in performance ratings, rankings, and assessments for decades (e.g., Adler et al., 2016). Thus, it should come as no surprise that a number of businesses, such as Deloitte, Cardinal Health, General Electric, and Microsoft, have called attention to yet another challenge: the reliability of performance evaluations in people PMSPs (Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; George and Holbein, 2016; Impraise, 2016a, b; Ritchie, 2016).

This difficulty is further demonstrated by a CEB study that found that over 90% of HR managers surveyed do not think that the performance information provided by their organization's appraisal process is accurate and trustworthy (Rock et al., 2014; Cunningham, 2015b). It is frequently emphasized that managers' decisions in performance reviews are crucial in this regard and that they should not be criticized for producing incomplete and biased representations of employees' work (Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Goler et al., 2016). The rating is said to show more about the

manager's (i.e., the rater's) personal opinion and assumptions than the evaluated employee's actual performance, using Deloitte's previous rating process as an example (Buckingham and Goodall, 2015).

Cost-effectiveness. The last issue is the cost-effectiveness for people PMSPs, which has drawn attention from businesses including Accenture, Adobe, Cardinal Health, Deloitte, and Netflix. Their prior procedures have drawn criticism for taking too long and being too expensive to set up and maintain. According to Rock et al. (2014), there are HR departments that are required to devote entire quarters to managing their employees' PMSPs, which is deemed excessive. In particular, it is said that the resources used in the review process for grading and ranking are excessively expensive. For instance, according to Buckingham and Goodall (2015), Deloitte devoted around two million hours annually to the administrative work involved in assessing its 65,000á employees. Additionally, there is a contention that these assignments consume an excessive amount of managers' time in comparison to their true impact on worker performance (Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; Cunningham, 2015b; George and Holbein, 2016).

2.4.2 Redesigns as a possible solution

The discussion also centers on how businesses address the aforementioned difficulties by creating innovative personnel PMSPs (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Deloitte Consulting, 2014).

Meeting the adaptation challenge. The discussion reveals a trend in which businesses are attempting to address the constraints of adaptability by exchanging performance data more frequently and formalizing fewer procedures overall—particularly those related to goals and feedback. Gap Inc. and General Electric modified their annual goal-setting process with a shorter review time, usually lasting three months, in order to address the difficulty (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Margolis et al., 2015). On the other hand, Adobe and IBM set yearly targets, but they have changed the process's architecture by raising the frequency of (possible) goal adjustments during the year (Hassell, 2016; Impraise, 2016a; Zillman, 2016). Goal revisions occur at least once every quarter and are typically tailored to the duration of the projects or tasks they address (Ledford et al., 2016a, b). Thus, the new goal-setting procedures are less formalized and take place locally in collaboration between the worker and their immediate boss (Hassell, 2016; Morris, 2016). Therefore, it seems that there is less commitment to an annual, top-down goal cascade process and more decentralization of responsibility for assuring coherence between the company's strategic goals and the individual goals of its people. This could lead to greater adaptation and flexibility in the use of goals.

In addition, more frequent feedback systems have been used by IBM, Microsoft, Deloitte, Accenture, Gap Inc., Adobe, and General Electric. In general, these are intended to be weekly or monthly discussions concerning performance between the manager and the employee (Baldassarre and Finken,

2015; Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Cunningham, 2015b; Margolis et al., 2015; Morris, 2016; Ritchie, 2016; Zillman, 2016).

Lastly, the discussion highlights the use of mobile applications (apps) to provide crowdsourcing feedback as a means of boosting the quantity of pertinent comments. These applications, which have been developed and implemented by Accenture, General Electric, and IBM, are expected to facilitate the continuous provision and interchange of performance information at any time and location (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Hassell, 2016; Nisen, 2015b).

Meeting the employee development challenge. The organizations also want to lessen the difficulty of staff development by redesigning their processes for feedback and evaluation. For instance, the discussion suggests that developing evaluation and feedback procedures that support a growth mindset as opposed to a fixed mindset should receive more attention. It's suggested that businesses should work to foster a growth mindset by supplementing or replacing the traditional backwards-oriented approach to employee appraisal and feedback, which emphasizes the employee's shortcomings, with a more forward-looking and coaching approach that focuses on the employee's potential, development, and future actions (Baldassarre and Finken, 2015; Buckingham, 2013b; Morris, 2016; Ritchie, 2016). It is asserted, with reference to General Electric, that the new feedback applications are pertinent to businesses' attempts to address the problem of employee development (Nisen, 2015b). The app's name – "Performance Development at General Electric" – is, for instance, one way that General Electric emphasizes its commitment to enhancing staff development through technology. As part of their efforts to promote employee development, Accenture, Gap Inc., General Electric, IBM, and Microsoft are said to have replaced rankings—a relative performance evaluation—with more absolute performance evaluations, according to the debate (Buckingham, 2013a; Cappelli and Travis, 2016; Cunningham, 2015a; Margolis et al., 2015; Nisen, 2015b; Zillman, 2016).

Meeting the cooperation challenge. Rankings have been removed from Accenture and Microsoft's evaluation process, in part to foster peer collaboration internally and prevent situations where staff members view one another as rivals vying for a small number of top rankings (Impraise, 2016a; Ritchie, 2016; Rock et al., 2014). Accenture, for instance, emphasizes that rather than focusing on relative comparisons and rankings among peers, employers should prioritize their workers' absolute performance and contribution to the value creation of both their team and the organization as a whole (Cunningham, 2015b). Generally speaking, it is maintained that organizations choose to deselect rankings in a number of situations in order to convey to their staff that the importance of their own work is not reliant on the fact that their peers do worse than they do – quite the contrary. Furthermore, the discussion specifies that a strategy to improve collaboration is to place greater emphasis on group (team-, department-, or division-based) performance than individual success. For instance, Microsoft has modified its definition of employee performance to include, in contrast to the previous report, an

emphasis on the contribution of the employee to the performance of coworkers and the company as a whole, as well as the individual's isolated performance (Ritchie, 2016).

Meeting the trustworthiness challenge. Various methods have been proposed by the companies to address the difficulty of trustworthiness. When combined, the two general tactics that the corporations appear to employ can be distinguished. Eliminating yearly performance assessments and ratings is the first tactic. The second tactic is to keep the rating and evaluation procedures in place but with a modified structure. Annual performance reviews and ratings have been completely abandoned by several companies. The businesses resolved the portion of the trustworthiness issue that these procedures contributed to by stopping them. One could counter that decisions about pay raises, promotions, competency development, and terminations—decisions about management that these processes inform—do not go away.

Some businesses, like Netflix, contend that because their previous formal review and rating procedures were so expensive, they chose to reduce them and instead rely on managers' judgment to make these choices informally (McCord, 2014). Others, like Facebook, have made the financial decision to maintain their formal review and grading procedures in order to increase transparency and equity around important choices (Goler et al., 2016). However, the choice to do away with official evaluations and reviews does not lessen the importance of the task of building manager-employee trust. Multiple redesign initiatives are part of the second strategy, which focuses on fixing the procedures involved in performance evaluation and rating. The most crucial ones are as follows: (1) substituting more action-oriented performance dimensions for abstract and general ones; (2) simplifying the individual performance evaluation by using fewer and more objective performance dimensions; (3) offering additional information on the employees' performance through apps or from various sources/raters (e.g., 360° feedback); and (4) relabeling the processes (Bracken et al., 2016; Buckingham and Goodall, 2015; DeNisi and Kluger, 2000; Murphy, 2020). Naturally, the suggested fixes are merely band-aids that, when applied correctly, can steer businesses in the right path (for critical viewpoints, see Murphy, 2020).

Meeting the cost-effectiveness challenge. The corporations prioritize the simplicity of their people PMSPs in order to optimize resource consumption. All aspects of PMSPs, including goal-setting and revision, appraisal, feedback, and reward systems, are showing signs of simplicity. One important factor is the trend toward replacing highly defined, centrally defined processes with looser, more generic standards that managers and staff can work within with a fair amount of flexibility.

One way that simplification manifests itself in the process of defining personal objectives is by lowering the total number of goals (Cunningham, 2015a; Margolis et al., 2015). According to a Gap Inc. representative, goals are no longer used as a "to do" list of things that need to be completed. Rather, they employ a method that centers on establishing fewer goals—a maximum of eight for each individual—and making sure that these goals are demanding and result-oriented as opposed to just task-oriented

(Margolis et al., 2015). Lastly, the design of reward systems is also affected by the trend toward simplification. Rather than employing a formal, fixed distribution formula, Adobe and Deloitte have opted to decentralize decision-making over reward allocation. Because they are increasingly dependent on management evaluations rather than a centrally specified formula, decisions on incentive distribution in these organizations have become more informal (Impraise, 2016a; Morris, 2016).

Ultimately, considering the ideas put forward above, it is best to view the redesigns as a collection of redesigned approaches to performance evaluation, goal-setting, and reward that have been widely discussed in performance management groups and supported by numerous well-known businesses. The redesigns are indicative of trends in this regard. Nevertheless, evaluating the particular costs and benefits associated with the aspects in the particular, organizational environment under consideration should be the foundation for deciding whether to incorporate any of the suggested design elements in a given organization. Every component of the design, both new and classic, has a unique value proposition. The specific conditions (i.e., context) in individual and organizational settings determine the kinds of benefits and costs that are incurred as well as their extent (Roberts, 2004).

Chapter 3: The empirical study

The purpose of this research is to assess the potential impact of organizational identification on individual performance. In fact, as anticipated in the previous chapters, OI is a variable of particular relevance in the literature, as it has numerous effects on the individual's behavior in the company and provides insight into how closely employees feel aligned with their home organization.

Data were collected to observe (1) the level of Organizational Identification that individuals feel toward their organization, evaluated asking respondents how they perceive the work environment, in terms of values and goals, but also of interpersonal relationship with colleagues and (2) the potential impact of Organizational Identification on Job Performance (3) the level of Organizational Commitment that each person feels they have toward the organization.

Therefore, the role of the variables just mentioned within the present study emerges as follows: Organizational Identification constitutes the independent variable of the study, which is useful for assessing the effect on the dependent variable, represented instead by job performance. Furthermore, an additional variable has been investigated for its potential role in promoting the link between Organizational Identification and Job performance.

3.1 Hypotheses

Before delving into the methodological approach of the research, a reminder of the hypotheses tested in the current study is provided.

According to the literature, organizational identification can be defined as a psychological state that represents the fundamental connection or bond between the worker and the organization; literature has suggested that it may be able to explain and predict a wide range of significant attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Edwards, 2005). Therefore, in the current study, we aim at testing the following hypothesis:

> **H1:** *Employees' performances will be positively correlated with their individual level of organizational identification: the higher the identification, the higher the performance.*

Hypothesis 1 is the backbone of this research, as it aims to investigate the relationship between organizational identification and performance. Indeed, as suggested by the preexisting literature, alignment with corporate values and goals, as well as feeling part of an organization, are factors that can increase individual performance. According to this hypothesis, a person's performance inside an organization is correlated with how strongly they identify with it. To be more precise, it implies that workers who have a strong sense of organizational identity—that is, who experience a sense of shared

values, dedication, and belonging—will probably perform better on an individual basis than those who don't. According to this theory, an employee's psychological relationship with their employer has a big impact on how they behave, how they think, and how well they do their jobs.

Furthermore, literature indicates that commitment to a respectable corporation can improve an individual's performance within the company (Khan et al., 2010). Organizational commitment, defined as the extent to which individuals accept the goals and values of the organization and identify with them when doing their duties, can in fact inspire individuals to put in a lot of effort on its behalf, they will be motivated to work harder. Nonetheless, previous work has distinguished across three sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, namely, affective, continuance and normative (Mayer & Allen, 1991). While affective and normative commitment are theorized o have a positive impact upon the organization, as people feel a sense of emotional attachment (affective) or a sense of duty (normative) toward the organization, in the case of continuance commitment, literature has shown that it is motivated by a sense of lack of alternatives that makes the employees constrained to their organization. As such, this latter may unconsciously create negative behaviors that may even end up damaging the organization (Mayer & Alle, 1991). This, therefore, brings to the formulation of the second set of hypotheses:

H2a: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by increased affective commitment.

H2b: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by increased normative commitment.

H2c: The relationship between organizational identification and individual performance is mediated by decreased continuance commitment.

According to hypothesis *H2*, organizational commitment acts as a mediator in the relationship between individual performance and organizational identification. It basically suggests that workers' level of commitment to their organization is influenced by how much they identify with it, and that commitment, in turn, effects each worker's performance on an individual basis. According to this theory, a person's level of identification with the company plays a role in fostering commitment, which in turn leads to improved performance outcomes. In essence, it emphasizes how crucial it is to support the organization's objectives and basic values in addition to simply identifying with it, as this influences individual performance inside the framework of the organization.

Thus, it may be argued that *H2* offers a plausible explanation for the process by which *H1* functions. In other words, the second hypothesis indicates that organizational commitment plays a mediating role in explaining some of the association between organizational identification and individual performance, even though *H1* finds a direct correlation between the two.

Consequently, *H2* establishes a link between the two hypotheses by supporting *H1*: it offers insights into the underlying mechanism or process via which organizational identity affects individual performance.

3.2 Sample Description

A total of 126 participants took part in the study, nonetheless, after filtering the data for incomplete answers, the final dataset comprised 80. They were recruited through various channels, including social media (i.e., Facebook, WhatsApp, etc.) and direct and indirect contact.

After informing participants that their data would be processed in aggregate and preserving complete anonymity in compliance with EU Regulation 2016/679 of the European Parliament and of the Council of April 27, 2016, about the protection of personal data, participants were also informed of their right to discontinue participation at any time.

The sample is quite large in terms of age distribution, as it covers the age range of 22 to 67, that is to say the age at which people first enter the world of work and the age at which they generally retire, respectively (**Table 1**). The average age of respondents is also found to be about 44 years old (m= 43,49 ± 15,95 s.d.), with a fairly uniform distribution, with no particular peaks.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Age	80	22	67	43,488	15,950

Table 1: Age- Descriptive statistics

Regarding gender distribution, of the 80 respondents, 21 were male (26.3%), 57 were female (71.3%) and the remaining 2 preferred not to specify (0.03%). **Figure 4** gives a graphical representation of this distribution, which is shown to be composed of women by about three-quarters.
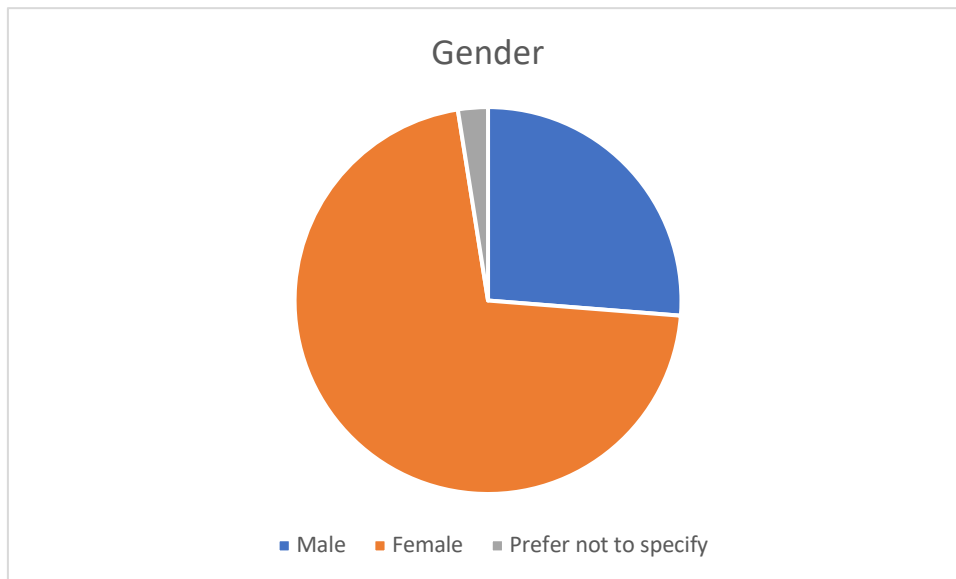
Figure 4: Participants' gender distribution

Next, the different job positions held by the study participants were analyzed. The graph below (**Figure 5**) shows how job roles are distributed in the sample analyzed.

As emerges from the Figure below, five of the respondents to the study held executive roles, which denotes leadership positions involving responsibilities for making strategic decisions. 17 participants are categorized as managers, with responsibility to supervise different teams or divisions in their companies, making sure that things run well and that objectives are met, giving therefore a clear and precise idea of the organization in which they work. With 50 regular employees, the major portion of the sample is made up of workers who are actively involved in achieving organizational goals and doing daily activities. Additionally, having 8 interns could help this study to understand the perception even people who have recently joined the organization have of it. From this point of view then, as well as for gender, the sample is quite large and allows to have an almost complete picture of the different roles that can be played within organizations.

Further, participants asked to indicate the number of years they had worked in the organization where they are currently employed (tenure). From the data analysis, the average tenure was found to be about 12 years, with a minimum of 1 month – reflecting the presence of interns – and a maximum value of 42 years (m = 12,22 ± 13,11 s.d.).
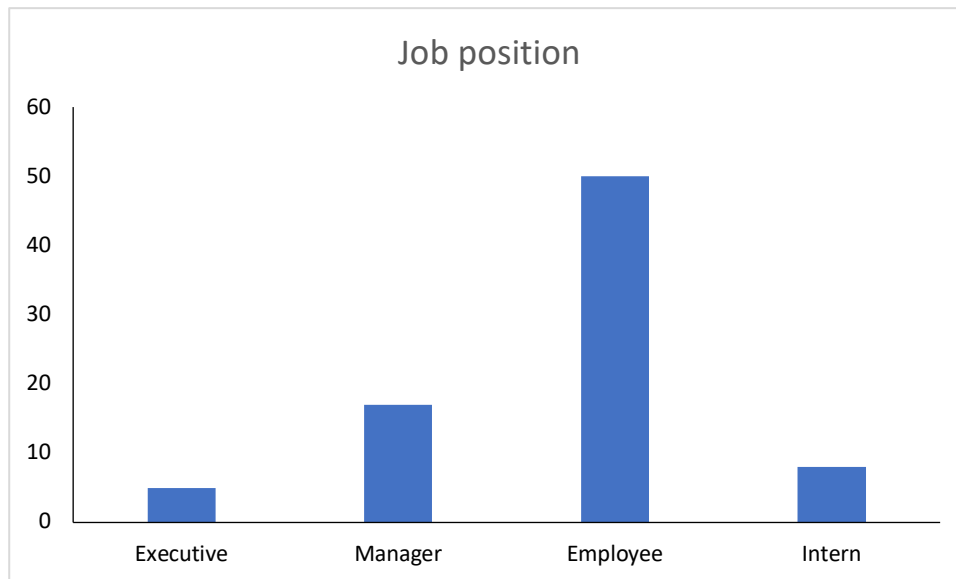
Figure 5: Participants' job position

3.3 Questionnaire

The survey was structured with the objective of being distributed randomly, in order to obtain as diverse a distribution of the sample as possible, both in terms of job position, age, gender, and company sector. The questionnaire has therefore been distributed randomly to a convenience sample of 126 respondents (reduced to 80 valid responses, as previously explained). No requirements have been asked for respondents to participate (aside being workers), however, being the questionnaire in Italian, it was administered to the Italian population.

3.3.1 General characteristics of the survey

Data were collected through the administration of a questionnaire carried out between January and April 2024. It consisted of closed-ended questions, including both multiple-choice questions and five-point and seven-point Likert scales. Therefore, as can be deduced from the above, the research was carried out using a quantitative approach.

The questionnaire was created via the Qualtrics XM platform and administered through the sharing of a link. The questions posed to the analyzed sample were divided into different sections in order to ensure a more orderly and precise handling of the data.

The first section concerned questions aimed at investigating the level of Organizational Identification, measured on a scale of 1-5 (1 = "Completely disagree"; 5 = "Completely agree").

Then, the second section included items aimed at measuring Individual Job Performance, using questions on a 1-5 scale (1 = "Never"; 5 = "Always"). In this case, it was a self-report assessment of performance, in which each worker entered the responses to mainly behavioral questions regarding their daily work.

Once this section was completed, the questionnaire went on with a section dedicated to the measurement of the level of Organizational Commitment. The first set of questions belonging to this last part was

dedicated to Affective commitment, with questions measuring the participant's dedication to his or her organization and emotional connection to it. The second part, on the other hand, aimed to understand the level of Continuance commitment and included questions aimed at investigating the reason for the participant's presence in the organization and, specifically, whether this depended on the absence of additional work alternatives. In addition, the last set of questions belonging to this section of the questionnaire included questions useful for measuring the level of Normative Commitment, or membership in the organization due to the presence of a sense of obligation to the organization, generated by devotion and gratitude.

The last section consisted of general questions, mainly concerning the age, gender and information about respondents' current job (i.e. Job Position and Tenure).

To conclude, the clear structure of the survey, divided into sets of questions for each topic and focusing on one topic at a time, was specifically chosen in order to avoid a decrease in attention of the respondent, hence reliability, of the questionnaire.

3.3.2 Evaluation of employees perceived Organizational Identification

The independent variable chosen for the study was organizational identification. It was measured with an 18-item scale developed and empirically validated by Parker and Haridakis (2008). Response endpoints were "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Coefficient alpha, computed summing and averaging responses to all 18 items of the scale, was 0.87. This scale was chosen as measurement because it is a recently developed scale that takes into consideration the connection that individuals have with their company, analyzing it from different perspectives. In fact, the questionnaire consists of items that can be grouped into four identification factors: management connection, invested self-concept, integrated goals and values and coworker connection.

Factor 1: Management connection mainly represented the communication-related parts of OI. Getting good advice from one's boss, feeling respected and not ignored by the organization, agreement with upper management's ideas, and infrequent criticism of the company were all reflected in this 5-item factor (Cronbach alpha = 0.77). It included items like "My colleagues and I frequently criticize management" and "Upper management has a different idea about the organization than I do".

Factor 2, Invested self-concept, reflected more cognitive aspects of OI. The sentiments expressed in this 6-item factor included the following: feeling defensive when others criticize the organization, feeling that it would be difficult to leave, feeling that one would feel a sense of loss if they left the company and that one would fail personally if the organization failed. (Cronbach alpha = 0.75).

Factor 3 – Integrated objectives and values – represented communicative as well as cognitive elements of OI. It contained five items that represented feeling like impacting things at work, acting upon messages from organizational leaders, sharing the organization's aims and values, and taking pride in the organization's product or service (Cronbach alpha = 0.81).

Factor 4 – Coworker relationship – represented both cognitive and communicative elements. Two statements that expressed similarities with coworkers were included in it: "people I work with are a lot like me" and "my coworkers help me make sense of what's happening at work" (Cronbach alpha = 0.80).

3.3.3 Evaluation of Individual Work Performance

The dependent variable in this study was individual work performance, measured with the *"Individual Work Performance Questionnaire"*, developed by Koopmans. It is a brief 18-item self-report scale, measuring the main dimensions of job performance (task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive behaviors).

The first one is *task performance*, which refers to "behaviors that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 67) (Cronbach alpha = 0.82).

The second dimension is *contextual performance*, which can be defined as "behavior that contributes to the goals of the organization by contributing to its social and psychological environment" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pp. 67-68) (Cronbach alpha = 0.80).

The third dimension is *counterproductive work behavior*, which is defined as "voluntary behavior that harms the well- being of the organization" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69). Every item has a 5-point rating system ((0 = seldom to 4 = always for task and contextual performance; and 0 = never to 4 = often for counterproductive work behavior) (Cronbach alpha = 0.73).

The operationalization of the questionnaire took time and was based on the literature review and a study by Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, De Vet, and van der Beek (2013). The authors of this latter study used existing surveys, expert interviews, and literature to identify every potential predictor of work performance aspects. They identified 317 possible items from the four domains of job performance: task performance, contextual performance, counterproductive behaviors, and adaptive performance. After excluding indicators that overlapped between dimensions and variables – such as motivation – that were factors influencing work performance rather than performance itself, the number of items was reduced to 128. The IWPQ was first developed as a result of this study (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, van Buuren et al., 2013), with the intention of being utilized on a general working population. To achieve this, researchers and workers were asked, respectively, if they believed the questionnaire accurately measured individual job performance, whether any questions were redundant, and whether any crucial questions were missing.

As a result, the task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive behaviors were the three dimensions that emerged, including the items associated with adaptive performance in the contextual dimension. Based on these studies, the IWPQ's content validity was found to be satisfactory, and this resulted in the shorter version, containing 18 items.

3.3.4 Evaluation of the degree of Commitment

In order to measure the third variable in this study, namely the level of Organizational Commitment, the 18-item version of the scale developed by Meyer et al. (1993) was used: this scale is in fact composed of 6 items for each dimension of commitment. In this regard, we recall that, according to Allen and Meyer's model (1990), commitment is divided into 3 types: affective, normative and continuance commitment. They contend that an employee experiences several organizational commitments at the same time.

The first one is *affective commitment*, based on emotional attachment. Therefore, items that aim to measure this dimension include statements such as "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization" and also "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" (Cronbach alpha = 0.78).

Normative commitment is, instead, based on a feeling of obligation that individuals have to the organization. For this reason, measuring this dimension includes items like "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to" and "One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here" (Cronbach alpha = 0.83).

The last dimension, *continuance commitment*, reflects the perception of the costs of leaving the organization. Therefore, items in this category include "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now" and "I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it" (Cronbach alpha = 0.70).

3.4 Analyses

Measures of organizational identity, work performance, and organizational commitment were determined for each participant based on the scores obtained from the questionnaires. Prior to statistical testing, the scores for each scale and sub-scale were then z-transformed. The program SPSS was used for all of the analysis (IBM SPSS, 2020).

The main type of analysis carried out to test the first hypothesis was linear regression. Several regression analyses were conducted, following a rationale from more general variables to the more specific ones. All models, as predicted by the hypothesis and formulation of the study, considered job performance as the dependent variable.

Specifically, in the first regression model the total score of the *Organizational Identification scale* was used as a predictor, that is, summing the scores obtained from the 4 different subcategories. Additional predictors used in the first model were then the 3 dimensions of Organizational Commitment, in order to assess, also for this last variable, the effect on job performance. Further, some demographic and occupational variables, such as *Age*, *Gender*, *Job Position*, *Tenure*, *Type of Company* (private vs. Public) and *Role* were used as covariates.

The second statistical model looks at the link between a set of independent variables that are thought to affect the dependent variable – namely Job Performance. The following are classified as independent variables: *Organizational Identification* divided in its 4 components – Management Connection, Invested Self Concept, Integrated Goals and Values and Coworker Connection – *Organizational Commitment* divided in its 3 dimensions; finally, some demographic and occupational variables, such as *Age*, *Gender*, *Job Position*, *Tenure*, *Type of Company* (private vs. Public) and *Role* were used as covariates.

The next three regression models conducted take into consideration, as dependent variable, each of the components of Job Performance identified by the scale used to measure that variable: *Task Performance*, *Contextual Performance* and *Counterproductive Behaviors*, respectively. Such an approach is useful to delve more deeply into the effect that each component of the analyzed variables has on the different attributes of job performance. Indeed, it is possible to assume that organizational identification and commitment may have differential effects on the different sub-components of the job performance. Hence, three regressions were performed using the sub-scales of *Organizational Identification* and *Organizational Commitment* as regressors, along with the control variables *Age*, *Gender*, *Job Position*, *Tenure*, *Type of Company* (private vs. Public) and *Role*, and the three sub-scales of the Job performance variable – i.e., *Task Performance, Contextual Performance*, and *Counterproductive Work Behavior* – as dependent variables, respectively.

Next, in order to test the second set of hypotheses, that is, whether Organizational Commitment mediates the effect of organizational identification on individual performance, 3 models were constructed, taking performance as the dependent variable, organizational identification as independent variable, and each of the commitment dimensions as mediators. Further, the control variables *Age*, *Gender*, *Job Position*, *Tenure*, *Type of Company* (private vs. Public) and *Role* were used as covariates. Once the models were developed, the validity of the hypothesis was tested by assessing the presence and intensity of the indirect effect exerted by commitment on the dependent variable of the model.

3.5 Results

Firstly, a linear regression analysis was conducted to determine the variables that significantly influenced the dependent variable, *Job Performance* (**Table 2**). The variable O*rganizational Identification* was added to the model as an independent variable. In addition, the three dimensions of commitment and the demographic and professional variables obtained from the questionnaire constituted other independent variables. With an R^2 of 0.198, the model including every variable can account for about 20% of the variance in the dependent variable, according to the results. The model was overall marginally significant ($R^2 = 0.20$, $F_{9, 70} = 1.92$, $p = 0.06$). However, analyzing it in more detail, it is possible to see a significant effect in some of the variables considered within the model (**Table 2**).

Table 2: *First regression model*

	β	SE	t	p
Organizational Identification (Total Score)	0,341	0,171	1,998	0,050*
Affective Commitment	0,045	0,164	0,276	0,783
Continuance Commitment	-0,233	0,119	-1,947	0,056
Normative Commitment	-0,003	0,163	-0,018	0,986
Age	0,024	0,014	1,751	0,084
Gender	0,098	0,197	0,497	0,621
Tenure	-0,006	0,015	-0,395	0,694
Type of Company (Private vs. Public)	0,260	0,270	0,963	0,339
Role	0,034	0,181	0,186	0,853
R^2	0.20			
$F_{9,70}$	1.92			0.06

Note: N = 80. * p ≤ .05

Specifically, *Organizational Identification* is the only factor demonstrating a statistically significant impact (β = 0.34, t = 1.99, p = 0.05). Nevertheless, the p-value for *Continuance Commitment* was marginally significant (β = -0.23, t = -1.95, p = 0.056), indicating a probable but tenuous relationship with job performance. In this case, the relationship is negative, reflecting the nature of continuance commitment, i.e., the individual's willingness to remain with the company only in the absence of better alternatives. From the data just shown, therefore, it appears that by increasing the feeling of constraint given by the feeling of lack of other possibilities, the worker's willingness to commit to their job and, consequently, their performance, decreases. Similarly, the Age control variable is also close to significance (β = 0.024, t = 1.75, p = 0.08), indicating that age and, consequently positively affect performance, probably due to better overall job experience.

These findings led to the execution of a second linear regression – as shown in **Table 3** – with the same dependent variable, Job Performance, in order to analyze whether the individual components of organizational identification have a statistical impact on it. Regression analysis results showed an overall statistically significant model (p = 0.02) indicating that the independent variables together account for a considerable amount of the variance in the dependent variable (R^2 = 0.29).

More specifically, with a Beta coefficient of 0.464 for *Organizational Identification* in its component *Integrated Goals and Values*, it is now possible to infer a positive correlation between an employee's job performance rating and their identification with the organization's objectives and values.

Furthermore, the impact is statistically significant (p = 0.002), confirming the validity of the data obtained.

In addition, we also have a slight effect of continuance commitment (p = 0.055), which again shows a negative relationship with job performance. Finally, there is evidence of a marginally significant effect of age ($\beta = 0.025$, t = 1.90, p = 0.062), which sees an increase in the statistical validity of its effect on performance in this model, compared to the previous one.

Table 3: *Second regression model*

	β	SE	t	p
Organizational Identification (Management Connection)	-0,131	0,132	-0,997	0,322
Organizational Identification (Invested self-concept)	0,173	0,159	1,093	0,278
Organizational Identification (Integrated goals and values)	0,464	0,147	3,152	0,002*
Organizational Identification (Co-workers connection)	-0,058	0,121	-0,479	0,634
Affective Commitment	-0,060	0,163	-0,371	0,712
Continuance Commitment	-0,253	0,130	-1,954	0,055
Normative Commitment	0,084	0,163	0,517	0,607
Age	0,025	0,013	1,897	0,062
Gender	0,000	0,193	0,001	0,999
Tenure	-0,009	0,014	-0,613	0,542
Type of Company (Private vs. Public)	0,332	0,265	1,249	0,216
Role	0,039	0,175	0,223	0,825
R^2	0.29			
$F_{12,67}$	2.26			0.02

Note: N = 80. * p ≤ .05

The next three regression models developed included as independent variables the same as the model shown above. What changes, in this case, is the dependent variable, which becomes – for each of the next three models – one of the components of Job Performance.

As for the model that takes *Task Performance* as the dependent variable (**Figure 6** A), the interesting finding relates, once again, to the effect exerted by identification with corporate values and goals. It is, in fact, statistically significant and shows a positive relationship between the two variables ($\beta = 0.42$, t = 2.64, p = 0.01). According to the findings of the analysis, therefore, feeling aligned with

what are the company's key values and strategies helps individuals accomplish their tasks better and more carefully and, as a result, perform better.

The peculiarity of the next model, which, on the other hand, takes *Contextual Performance* as the dependent variable (**Figure 6**, B), is the data that emerges with reference to the variable related to management connection (*Organizational Identification - Management Connection*). In this case, we note a negative relationship between the two variables, although marginally significant ($\beta = -0.27$, $t = -1.89$, $p = 0.06$). Management connection might be associated with a stronger emphasis on individual performance metrics; employees may, therefore, prioritize activities that are directly related to those measures as a result of this focus, possibly ignoring contextual behaviors that enhance the team or workplace culture (such as supporting coworkers or adhering to safety procedures). This might be a possible explanation for this finding.

Among others, the last model, which takes the Counterproductive Behaviors dimension as the dependent variable (**Figure 6**, C), is certainly the one that shows the greatest statistical significance. Overall, the model is indeed highly significant ($R^2 = 0.36$, $F_{12, 67} = 0.001$) and able to explain 36% of the variance of the dependent variable. In detail, we also have a statistically significant effect of identification with corporate values and goals. Contrary to what was seen previously, the correlation between the two variables is negative, precisely indicating that alignment with values decreases the tendency to enact counterproductive behaviors ($\beta = -0.28$, $t = -2.01$, $p = 0.05$).
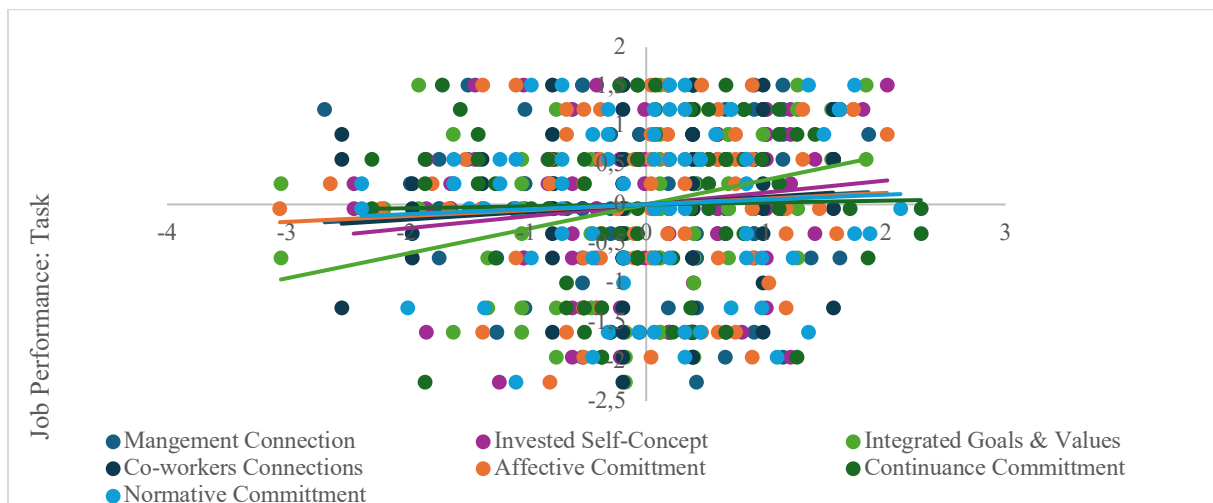

Figure 6A. Results of the regression analysis conducted using the variable Job Performance, in its sub-dimension Task Performance as dependent variable.
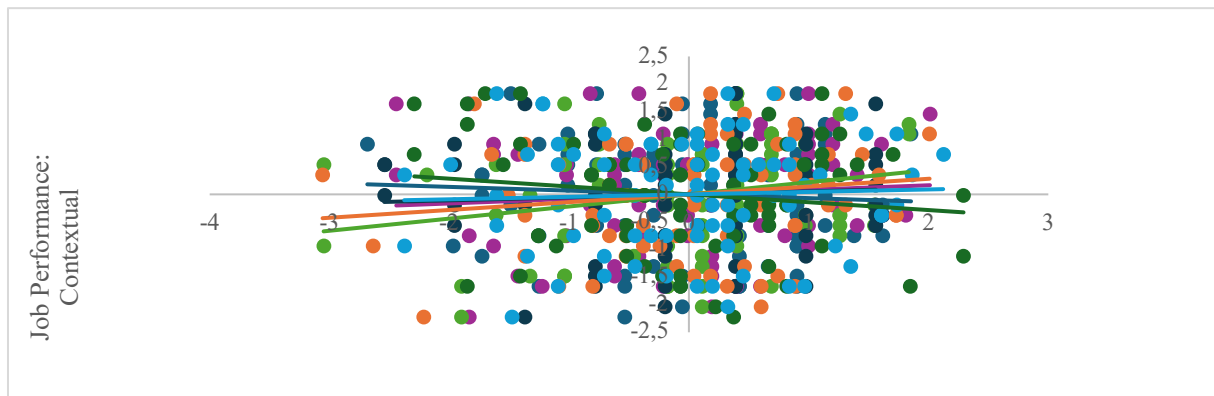
Figure 6B. Results of the regression analysis conducted using the variable Job Performance, in its sub-dimension Contextual Performance as dependent variable.
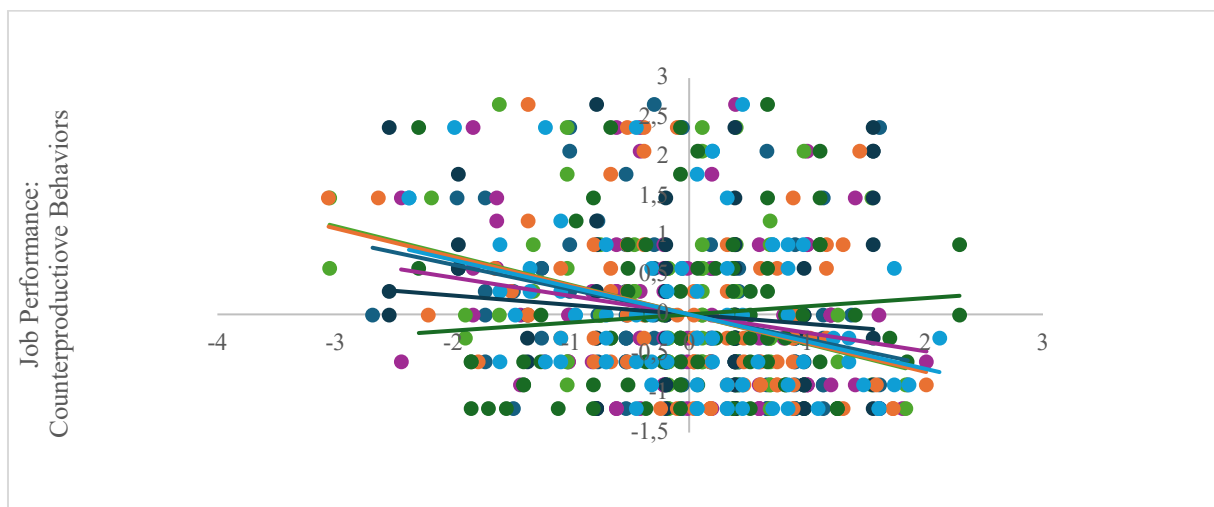

Figure 6C. Results of the regression analysis conducted using the variable Job Performance, in its sub-dimension Counterproductive Work Behaviors as dependent variable.

Downstream of what has just been said, therefore, the first hypothesis (*H1*) can be considered verified.

To test the second hypothesis, three separate mediation models were used to investigate whether organizational commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between organizational identification and job performance. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment were the specific mediators that were tested.

Regarding the first model, conducted using *Affective Commitment* as mediator, the model appeared to be overall non-significant ($R = 0.39$, $R^2 = 0.15$, $F_{7,72} = 1.82$, $p = 0.10$). In particular, the direct effect of Organizational Identification was marginally significant ($\beta = 0.29$, $p = 0.07$), while the direct effect of Affective Commitment ($\beta = 0.06$, $p = 70$), as well as the indirect effect ($\beta = 0.04$, LLCI = -0.16, ULCI = 0.27) were found non-significant. See **Table 4** for the detailed results.

The overall mediation effect did not produce meaningful results. However, it is remarkable that commitment showed a strong independent effect on the dependent variable across a number of its

dimensions. This suggests that each kind of commitment is important in directly influencing the results even when the mediation pathways were not supported.

Table 4: Mediation model conducted using Affective Commitment ad mediator.

	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Organizational Identification (Total Score)	0.29	0.16	1.82	0.07	-0.03	0.61
Affective Commitment	0.06	0.16	0.39	0.70	-0.25	0.38
Age	0.02	0.01	1.39	0.17	-0.01	0.05
Gender	0.10	0.20	0.49	0.62	-0.30	0.50
Tenure	0.00	0.02	-0.22	0.82	-0.03	0.03
Type of Company (Private vs. Public)	0.32	0.27	1.19	0.24	-0.22	0.87
Job	0.01	0.18	0.08	0.94	-0.35	0.37
Indirect Effect	0.04	0.11	-	-	-0.16	0.27
R^2	0.39					
$F_{7,72}$	1.82					0.10

Note: N = 80.

With respect to the second mediation model, as can be seen from the table below (**Table 5**) – which shows the model carried out using *Continuance Commitment* as mediator – despite the indirect effect cannot be considered statistically significant (because the confidence interval includes 0), the independent direct effect of commitment on the dependent variable – *Job performance* – was found statistically significant ($\beta = -0.24$, $p = 0.04$).

Table 5: Mediation model conducted using Continuance Commitment ad mediator.

	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Organizational Identification (Total Score)	0,37	0,11	3,37	0,00	0,15	0,59
Continuance Commitment	-0,24	0,11	-2,09	0,04	-0,46	-0,01
Age	0,03	0,01	1,96	0,05	0,00	0,05
Gender	0,09	0,19	0,48	0,63	-0,29	0,48
Tenure	-0,01	0,01	-0,47	0,64	-0,04	0,02
Type of Company (Private vs. Public)	0,26	0,27	0,97	0,33	-0,27	0,79
Job	0,04	0,18	0,21	0,84	-0,31	0,39
Indirect Effect	-0,04	0,03	-	-	-0,12	0,01
R^2	0.20					
$F_{7,72}$	2.53			0.02		

Note: N = 80.

Finally, with respect to the third model conducted using the variable *Normative Commitment* as mediator, the results revealed that only the direct effect of Organizational Identification was significant ($\beta = 0.38$, $p = 0.01$). The detailed results are reported in **Table 6**.

Table 6: Mediation model conducted using Normative Commitment ad mediator.

	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Organizational Identification (Total Score)	0.38	0.15	2.58	0.01	0.09	0.68
Normative Commitment	-0.07	0.15	-0.48	0.63	-0.37	0.23
Age	0.02	0.01	1.64	0.11	-0.01	0.05
Gender	0.08	0.20	0.40	0.69	-0.32	0.48
Tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.35	0.73	-0.03	0.02
Type of Company (Private vs. Public)	0.32	0.27	1.18	0.24	-0.22	0.86
Job	0.04	0.18	0.19	0.85	-0.22	0.14
Indirect Effect	-0.05	0.09	-	-	-0.22	0.14
R^2	0.15					
$F_{7,72}$	1.83					

Note: N = 80. * p ≤ .05

Chapter 4: Discussion

The current study has highlighted a series of results.

First, the level of organizational identification – in its total score – has been found to be positively correlated with the level of job performance, hence indicating that performance increases when alignment with corporate goals, values, and environment in general increases. So, in a situation in which the work environment is unfavorable from the point of view of collaboration and cooperation with colleagues, where individuals do not feel aligned with the company's goals and cornerstones, and in a workplace to which they do not feel connected to, work performance is tends to decrease.

Job performance can be severely impacted by low organizational identity for a variety of interrelated reasons. Employee motivation and commitment, for instance, may drop when they do not have a strong sense of connection to the organization's values, objectives, and identity. Furthermore, employee engagement tends to decline in the absence of a feeling of alignment and connection with the company, which can have a negative impact on the output of work produced. Disengagement from work is also linked to decreased job satisfaction, which can lead to increased absenteeism and turnover rates, which can impair the workflow and badly affect team chemistry.

In addition, when organizational identification is poor, the cohesiveness and sense of togetherness that it fosters are jeopardized. Teams may find it difficult to encourage one another, share information, and work together effectively—all of which are essential for achieving peak performance. Employee resistance to change can also be a sign that they don't feel like they belong in their company, which makes it harder for the latter to innovate and adjust to shifting market conditions. Employees that have low organizational identification are also less likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior, which is voluntary acts that advance the organization. The performance of the organization as a whole may suffer as a result. Low identification can also raise tensions between staff members and management, resulting in a hostile work atmosphere that hinders productivity.

Any organization's ability to function effectively depends on its employees' sense of belonging, and weak employee identification can hinder communication. Performance-impairing misconceptions and inefficiencies may arise from this. Employees who have low organizational identification may also be less likely to take on difficult initiatives or seek out opportunities for professional development, which could limit both their ability to advance in their careers and the organization's potential for success.

Finally, adhering to company policies and procedures and fostering ethical behavior might be facilitated by a strong feeling of organizational affiliation. Without it, workers might not be as concerned with maintaining these norms, which could result in moral failings and noncompliance.

In summary, low organizational identification has wide-ranging consequences that impact not only specific employees but also the organization as a whole. Organizations must understand, therefore, how critical it is to build a strong sense of identity in order to guarantee excellent work output and overall success.

In addition, the results of the analyses conducted to test the first hypothesis showed a negative impact of Continuance Commitment on Job Performance, indicating that the sense of compulsion to remain within the work environment not only has no positive effect on performance but, rather, negatively affects it. This is understandable in that, by not feeling motivated to stay within the company, employees may pay less attention to the performance of their work and to implementing useful actions to benefit the work environment.

Furthermore, the research shows that employee conduct is influenced by a shared sense of purpose and commitment, and that there is a negative link between the occurrence of counterproductive activities and identification with business aims and values. Employees are more likely to match their activities with the organization's interests when they have a strong sense of identification with the organization's goals and values. This alignment deters behavior that might be harmful to the organization by fostering a sense of loyalty and accountability. Acts that are counterproductive, such as sabotage, theft, and rudeness in the workplace, usually cause harm to the organization or its members. Workers who strongly identify with the objectives and values of their company are less inclined to participate in such activities because they see such acts as directly contradicting both their personal values and the organization's overall well-being.

Additionally, a desire to positively impact the organization and a higher adherence to organizational rules are typically the results of identification with the goals and values of the firm. Enhancing organizational citizenship activities that go above and beyond the call of duty can come from this. These behaviors are voluntary. Instead of engaging in actions that might compromise the effectiveness of the organization, employees are therefore more likely to engage in ways that benefit it and their coworkers.

Fundamentally, the negative relationship between counterproductive behaviors and identification with organizational goals and values stems from the alignment of an employee's personal values with the organization's pillars, which inherently dissuades actions that would be against the organization's best interests.

Regarding the analyses conducted to test the second hypothesis, although there is nothing statistically significant and although it cannot be said that there is an indirect effect of commitment on performance, it is still related to performance through direct effects. Although there was no statistically significant result from our mediation research, suggesting that the hypothesized mediator does not

significantly transfer the effect of the independent variable to the dependent variable, we did find that the mediator had a direct impact on the dependent variable. This implies that the mediator has an independent effect on the dependent variable under investigation. Consequently, the mediator is relevant as a factor that can influence the desired outcome even though it might not act as a conduit for the particular relationship that we looked into.

Owing to its complex nature, which includes aspects like affective, continuation, and normative commitment, commitment may interact with job performance in several ways. For example, normative commitment – which involves a sense of obligation – may have a different effect on performance measures than affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment and may have a stronger influence on discretionary behaviors. This complexity has the potential to impede the mediation analysis. Furthermore, although commitment may not always act as a mediator, organizational identity may directly influence particular job behaviors and performance results, as previously shown. Regardless of their level of commitment, workers who have a strong sense of identity with their company may exhibit actions that directly improve work performance, such as more collaboration, inventiveness, and proactive problem-solving.

Despite not mediating the relationship between organizational identification and job performance, commitment remains relevant. It has the potential to reinforce the connection between employees and their organization, fostering loyalty, reducing turnover intentions, and enhancing overall workplace morale. The positive relationship between organizational identification and commitment implies that, even in cases where it does not directly influence job performance, employees' sense of commitment increases as they feel more a part of their organization. This can have positive effects on a variety of organizational outcomes. This emphasizes how complex organizational dynamics are and how different processes contribute to the development of employee attitudes and actions.

4.1 Limitations

The use of self-report measures to evaluate work performance is one of the study's shortcomings. Self-reported data can be skewed by a number of factors, including social desirability bias, which occurs when people overestimate their own performance in an effort to project a positive image of themselves. Furthermore, the study's conclusions are limited by the comparatively small sample size of 80 legitimate responses, which might not offer enough data to support generalization to a wider population. There's also a greater chance that noteworthy effects that could be found in a bigger sample could be missed due to the small sample size. The problem of social compliance also poses a dilemma since, under pressure to live up to social norms and expectations, participants may be more likely to judge their job performance favorably than they actually do. All of these aspects point to the need for care in interpreting the results, as they might not fully capture the subtleties of the underlying dynamics under study or

genuine job performance levels. Future research could try to increase the sample size for more statistical power and generalizability in order to improve upon the current study. In addition, the integration of objective performance indicators with self-report measures should yield a more equitable evaluation of job performance and potentially mitigate the biases present in self-reported information. Future studies could add to the body of knowledge and provide more conclusive answers about the variables influencing work success by tackling these areas.

Conclusion

By focusing on the effect of organizational identification on work performance, this master's thesis has, in the end, the potential to offer insightful information about the dynamics of organizational behavior. The answer to the central research question of this thesis, which is about investigating the impact that organizational identification has on job performance is therefore unambiguous: job performance is significantly and favorably affected by organizational identification.

This study's conclusions are supported by a thorough literature evaluation, a strong methodological framework, and in-depth analysis. Setting the scene, the first chapter examined the idea of OI, its different aspects, and the ways in which it interacts with a person's sense of self in the workplace. Building on this foundation, the second chapter examined commitment's role in an individual's professional life and the evolution of performance management systems, along with the evolution of the concept of performance.

The methodology, analysis, and findings were presented in the third chapter, which supported the notion that organizational identity is a reliable indicator of job performance. The degree to which workers align with company objectives and values is a particularly strong indicator of this relationship, which in turn promotes a more peaceful and effective work environment. Strong organizational identification also has the notable effect of reducing counterproductive work behaviors, which highlights its importance even more.

To test the second hypothesis, commitment acted as mediator and, as a mediator, commitment did not produce noteworthy outcomes. However, it turned out to be a direct influencer on work performance, highlighting its significance as a stand-alone variable. This shows that commitment alone leads to better job outcomes even while it might not mediate the impact of organizational identity on performance.

The theory basically states that improving job performance requires organizational identity. It not only helps workers identify with the organization's strategic objectives, but it also reduces workplace-damaging behaviors. In this scenario, despite the fact that commitment did not mediate this relationship, its direct impact on performance cannot be ignored because it still appears to be a crucial component of the success of a work in general.

These findings have significant ramifications for theory and practice. They recommend that companies work to foster a strong sense of identity among staff members in order to benefit from increased productivity and a decrease in unproductive conduct. This could be accomplished in a number of ways, including by highlighting and rewarding actions that support corporate objectives, promoting a sense of community, and reaffirming the organization's values. In conclusion, organizational

identification has a major and diverse impact on job performance. It also makes a significant addition to the field of organizational behavior and offers helpful advice for improving performance at work.

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Appendix

A) Survey

<u>**Part 1**</u>

Benvenut*!
Sta per prendere parte a uno studio che non presenta rischi. In ottemperanza al Regolamento UE
2016/679 del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio del 27 aprile 2016 relativo alla protezione dei dati
personali, si ricorda che i dati forniti verranno trattati solo per finalità di ricerca scientifica, finalità
non commerciali ed in maniera aggregata garantendo il più completo anonimato.
Possono partecipare tutti i maggiori di 18 anni. Il depositario del trattamento dei dati è il Dipartimento
di Impresa e Management, LUISS Guido Carli di Roma.
Per qualsiasi informazione sulla ricerca si prega di contattare l'indirizzo e-mail: ccalluso@luiss.it
oppure margherita.balbi@studenti.luiss.it.
Si prega di fornire TUTTE le informazioni richieste.
Non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate. Può fermarsi in qualsiasi momento nel caso in cui si senta a
disagio.

Per procedere, prema il pulsante "Avanti".

Premendo il pulsante "Avanti" acconsente al trattamento dei suoi dati.

<u>**Part 2 – Organizational identification**</u>

Indichi su una scala da 1 ("Per niente d'accordo") a 5 ("Pienamente d'accordo") il suo grado di
accordo con ognuna delle seguenti affermazioni:

	1	2	3	4	5
Io e i miei colleghi critichiamo frequentemente il management della nostra azienda					
L'alta dirigenza ha un'idea dell'organizzazione diversa da quella che ho io					
Le mie idee vengono ignorate					
Non mi sento rispettat* dall'organizzazione					
Ricevo buoni consigli dal mio capo					
Proverei un senso di perdita se lasciassi l'organizzazione					
Se l'organizzazione fallisse, mi sentirei come se avessi fallito io					
Sarebbe difficile lasciare questa organizzazione anche se per un lavoro migliore					
La percezione di me stesso è influenzata dall'immagine dell'organizzazione					
Proverei un senso di perdita se un'altra azienda rilevasse questa organizzazione					

Mi metto sulla difensiva quando gli altri criticano la mia organizzazione					
Condivido gli obiettivi dell'organizzazione					
Agisco sulla base delle comunicazioni che provengono dai leader dell'organizzazione					
Condivido i valori dell'organizzazione					
Sono molto orgoglioso dei prodotti/servizi dell'organizzazione					
Sento di influenzare le cose al lavoro					
I miei colleghi mi aiutano a dare un senso a ciò che accade sul lavoro					
Le persone con cui lavoro sono molto simili a me					

Part 3 – Job performance

Indichi su una scala da 1 ("Mai") a 5 ("Sempre") la frequenza con cui ha svolto le azioni indicate dalle seguenti affermazioni:

	1	2	3	4	5
Riesco a pianificare il mio lavoro in modo da portarlo a termine in tempo					
Ho sempre a mente il risultato di lavoro che devo raggiungere					
Sono in grado di stabilire le priorità					
Sono in grado di svolgere il mio lavoro in modo efficiente					
Riesco a gestire bene il mio tempo					
Di mia iniziativa, inizio un nuovo compito quando i miei vecchi compiti sono completati					
Accetto compiti impegnativi quando sono disponibili					
Mi impegno a mantenere aggiornate le mie conoscenze sul lavoro					
Lavoro per mantenere aggiornate le mie competenze					
Trovo soluzioni creative per nuovi problemi					
Mi assumo responsabilità extra					
Cerco continuamente nuove sfide nel mio lavoro					
Partecipo attivamente a riunioni e/o consultazioni					
Mi lamento di piccoli problemi legati al lavoro sul posto di lavoro					
Tendo a rendere i problemi sul lavoro più grandi di quanto non siano					
Tendo a concentrarmi sugli aspetti negativi della situazione lavorativa invece che sugli aspetti positivi					
Parlo con i colleghi degli aspetti negativi del mio lavoro					
Parlo con persone esterne all'organizzazione degli aspetti negativi del mio lavoro					

Part 4 – Commitment

Indici su una scala da 1 ("Per niente d'accordo") a 7 ("Pienamente d'accordo") il suo grado di accordo con ognuna delle seguenti affermazioni:

Affective

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarei molto felice di trascorrere il resto della mia carriera in questa organizzazione							
Mi sento come se i problemi dell'organizzazione fossero miei							
Non mi sento parte della famiglia della mia organizzazione							
Non mi sento emotivamente legato a questa organizzazione							
Questa organizzazione ha un grande significato personale per me							
Non sento un forte senso di appartenenza alla mia organizzazione							

Continuance

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Per me sarebbe estremamente difficile lasciare la mia organizzazione, anche se volessi							
Se decidessi di volermene andare da questa organizzazione, gran parte della mia vita verrebbe sconvolta							
In questo momento restare nella mia organizzazione è una questione di necessità tanto quanto di desiderio							
Sento di avere troppo poche opzioni per considerare di lasciare questa organizzazione.							
Una delle poche conseguenze negative dell'abbandono di questa organizzazione sarebbe la scarsità di alternative disponibili							
Uno dei motivi principali per cui continuo a lavorare per questa organizzazione è che andarsene richiederebbe un notevole sacrificio personale; un'altra organizzazione potrebbe non eguagliare i vantaggi complessivi che ho qui							

Normative

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Non sento alcun obbligo di restare con il mio attuale datore di lavoro.							
Anche se fosse a mio vantaggio, non credo che sarebbe giusto lasciare la mia organizzazione adesso.							
Mi sentirei in colpa se lasciassi la mia organizzazione adesso.							
Questa organizzazione merita la mia lealtà.							
Non lascerei la mia organizzazione in questo momento perché ho un senso di obbligo nei confronti delle persone che ne fanno parte.							
Devo molto alla mia organizzazione.							

Part 5 – Informazioni demografiche/professionali

1. Per favore indica la tua età:

    (risposta aperta)

2. In che genere ti identifichi?

    - Uomo
    - Donna
    - Non binario/Terzo genere
    - Preferisco non specificare

Nelle domande successive, le chiediamo di fornirci alcune informazioni in merito alla sua posizione lavorativa. Le ricordiamo che tali informazioni sono completamente anonime e non verranno in nessun caso divulgate nella ricerca, ma sono necessarie ad ottenere una descrizione del campione di riferimento nella sua forma aggregata.

1. Da quanto tempo lavora nell'organizzazione in cui è attualmente impiegato?

(risposta aperta)

2. Per favore, indichi il suo ruolo all'interno dell'organizzazione:

(risposta aperta)

3. A che settore appartiene l'azienda per cui lavora?

(risposta aperta)

4. L'azienda per cui lavora è:

- Pubblica
- Privata