

T.C.

ISTANBUL COMMERCE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PHD PROGRAM

THE MEDIATOR OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION IN THE EFFECT OF WORK ENGAGEMENT ON WORK EFFORT

DOCTORAL THESIS

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD.)

Kamil TOPCU

200008029

Istanbul, January 2025



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APPROVAL PAGE

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Abstract

This quantitative doctoral dissertation explores the complex web of factors impacting employee performance by investigating the mediating role of organizational identification in the effect of work engagement on work effort. This study begins with a comprehensive literature review that syndicates current research on work engagement, organizational identification, and their combined impact on work outcomes. An extensive conceptual framework is developed using engagement models and social identity theory, laying the groundwork for empirical research. This study uses quantitative surveys and a mixed-methods research design to assess work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort. Qualitative interviews, however, provide a detailed examination of employees' individual experiences and viewpoints in many organizational contexts. The research attempts to provide a comprehensive picture of the interaction between engagement, identity, and effort by triangulating different data sources.

Furthermore, initial analyses show a significant correlation between work engagement and work effort, confirming the existing literature. Nonetheless, the research goes further on this interaction by untangling the mediator role of organizational identification. Overall, this dissertation advances the understanding of organizational behavior and human resource management. While the mediator role of organizational identification is emphasized, it creates approaches for extended research. It gives practical guidance for supporting an environment where engaged employees feel deeply connected to work and the organization’s objectives and values.

Keywords**:** *Work Engagement, Work Effort, Organizational identification, Organizational Psychology*

ÖZET

Bu nicel doktora tezi, işe bağlılığın iş çabası üzerindeki etkisinde örgütsel özdeşleşmenin aracılık rolünü araştırarak çalışan performansını etkileyen karmaşık faktörler ağını incelemektedir. Bu çalışma, işe bağlılık, örgütsel özdeşleşme ve bunların iş sonuçları üzerindeki birleşik etkisi üzerine mevcut araştırmaları bir araya getiren kapsamlı bir literatür taraması ile başlamaktadır. Bağlılık modelleri ve sosyal kimlik teorisi kullanılarak kapsamlı bir kavramsal çerçeve geliştirilmiş ve ampirik araştırma için zemin hazırlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada, işe bağlılığı, örgütsel özdeşleşmeyi ve iş çabasını değerlendirmek için nicel anketler ve karma yöntemli bir araştırma tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Nitel görüşmeler ise çalışanların bireysel deneyimlerinin ve birçok kurumsal bağlamdaki bakış açılarının detaylı bir şekilde incelenmesini sağlamaktadır. Araştırma, farklı veri kaynaklarını üçgenleyerek bağlılık, kimlik ve çaba arasındaki etkileşimin kapsamlı bir resmini sunmaya çalışmaktadır. Ayrıca, ilk analizler, mevcut literatürü teyit eder şekilde, işe bağlılık ve çalışma gayreti arasında önemli bir korelasyon olduğunu göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte, araştırma örgütsel özdeşleşmenin aracı rolünü ortaya çıkararak bu etkileşimi daha da ileri götürmektedir. Genel olarak bu tez, örgütsel davranış ve insan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışını ilerletmektedir. Örgütsel özdeşleşmenin aracı rolü vurgulanırken, genişletilmiş araştırmalar için yaklaşımlar oluşturmaktadır. Çalışanların kendilerini işlerine ve kurumun hedef ve değerlerine derinden bağlı hissettikleri bir ortamı desteklemek için pratik rehberlik sağlamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşe Bağlılık, İş Çabası, Örgütsel Özdeşleşme, Örgütsel Psikoloji

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List of Abbreviations

COR: Conservation of Resources Theory

JDR: Job Demands- Resources

WE: Work Engagement

HR: Human Resources

SIT: Social Identity Theory

OI: Organizational Identification

SCT: Self-Categorization Theory

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary organizational research, the dynamics of employee performance represent a complex yet crucial area of inquiry. Organizations must adapt as workplaces continue to evolve in response to modern demands. Therefore, factors contributing to enhanced work effort and productivity have become increasingly important. This doctoral study begins with a comprehensive examination of the relationship between organizational identification, work engagement, and their impact on employee work effort. Work engagement has gained significant attention recently due to its potential to foster employee commitment and performance. It is a positive, fulfilling, and motivational state linked to occupational satisfaction. Conversely, organizational identification refers to how individuals align with and perceive themselves as integral members of their organization.

Work engagement and organizational identification are interrelated concepts often studied in organizational psychology research. Highly engaged employees feel a stronger connection to their organization. Motivated employees are more likely to find satisfaction in their work and perceive it as meaningful, enhancing their identification with the organization. Engaged employees are also more prone to experience positive emotions and view their work as significant, reinforcing their organizational identification.

Additionally, organizational identification has significantly influenced employee behavior, becoming a crucial concept in organizational research. Despite the increasing acknowledgment of its importance, a gap persists in understanding the mediating role of organizational identification in the relationship between work effort and work engagement. This study aims to address this gap by examining the intricate connections among these variables from an organizational perspective. By exploring the mediating role of organizational identification, we seek to uncover how work engagement translates into tangible efforts within the workplace. Perceptions of fairness and recognition are essential to cultivating an environment that fosters employee engagement and channels it into productive outcomes. These factors are necessary for even the most motivated employees to direct their efforts effectively. The significance of this research extends beyond theoretical inquiry. Developing targeted organizational interventions may yield practical implications by

offering strategies to improve employee engagement, identification, and subsequent effort. Ultimately, this study adds to the field of organizational psychology by providing valuable insights for practitioners, researchers, and organizational leaders aiming to navigate the complexities of modern work environments.

Furthermore, there is a reciprocal relationship between organizational identification and work engagement. Employees are more likely to engage in their work if they identify strongly with their company. This is because organizational identification enhances engagement levels by providing motivation and dedication to one's work. Consequently, as noted earlier, these two concepts are fundamental in organizational psychology and are closely related. Thus, they connect to various positive outcomes, including organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance.

Work effort refers to the extent to which an individual or a team invests time, energy, and resources in completing a task or achieving a goal. It reflects how thoroughly and intensely someone approaches their responsibilities and can be used to assess output, effectiveness, and efficiency. Additionally, work effort can be evaluated in various ways, such as the number of hours contributed, the quantity of tasks completed, the quality achieved, and the degree of creativity and innovation demonstrated. Consequently, several factors can influence work effort, including motivation, skill, work environment, and resources provided by an organization. Employers and managers should carefully understand and evaluate work efforts. As previously mentioned, the concepts of work engagement and work effort are interconnected, though they are distinct. Engaged employees tend to exert more effort in their work because they connect deeply with their jobs and derive a sense of fulfillment and determination.

Nonetheless, it is important to note that work engagement and work effort are not interchangeable concepts. Engaged employees may demonstrate a high level of work effort. Therefore, organizations must promote work engagement and effort to achieve maximum employee productivity and satisfaction.

1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORK EFFORT

1.1 The Concept of Work Engagement

Engagement encompasses common meanings like involvement, dedication, commitment, enthusiasm, desire, absorption, and energy (Schaufeli, 2013, p.1). It remains unclear when the term engagement applies explicitly to work. However, the Gallup organization is known to have introduced the concept of engagement in the 1990s (Schaufeli, 2013, p.2). The rise of engagement at the beginning of the twenty-first century can be attributed to two related trends: (1) the increasing value of employees' human capital and psychological involvement in the workplace, and (2) the growing interest within the scientific community in positive psychological states (Schaufeli, 2013, p.4). Moreover, engaged employees positively impact organizations through enhanced productivity and motivation. Consequently, when employees are engaged, they exhibit a lower intention to quit, driven by organizational citizenship, collaboration, and a positive workplace climate. Additionally, the fact that individuals become advocates for their well-being within the organization underscores engagement as a vital characteristic. This indicates a strong propensity to work (Simbula et al., 2023). Recently, Shuck (2011) conducted a comprehensive examination of academic definitions of engagement, drawing insights from key management, psychology, and HRM sources. Analyzing 213 publications, he identified four approaches to defining engagement (Schaufeli, 2013, p.5).

- The Needs-Satisfying Approach

Kahn (1990) describes personal engagement as utilizing organizational members' identities in their work roles: through engagement, when performing roles, people use and express themselves mentally, emotionally, physically, and cognitively (Schaufeli, 2013, p.5). He defined engagement as using one's chosen self and expressing it through task actions (Schaufeli, 2013, p.5)

- The Burnout-Antithesis Approach

This strategy, rooted in occupational health psychology, sees work engagement as the opposite of burnout (Schaufeli, 2013, p.5). Maslach and Leiter (1997) describe a single continuum's positive and negative ends as engagement and burnout (Schaufeli, 2013, p.6). More specifically, the three burnout aspects of exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of accomplishment are each directly opposed by the three engagement characteristics of energy, involvement, and efficacy (Schaufeli, 2013, p.6).

The Satisfaction-Engagement Approach

Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) stated that according to the Gallup Organization which states that employee engagement relates to someone's participation, satisfaction, and excitement for work (Harter et al. (Schaufeli, 2013, p.6).

- The Multidimensional Approach

According to Saks (2006), employee engagement is a separate and distinctive construct comprising cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components of individual role performance (Schaufeli, 2013, p.6). Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) stated that work engagement was developed due to burnout research to address all aspects of employee wellbeing, from burnout to wellbeing (Schaufeli et al., 2008, p. 176). Engagement in daily life relates to dedication, passion, enthusiasm, absorption, concentrated endeavor, and energy (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 3). Employee engagement is first seen in business even though the absence of a well-defined conceptual framework poses challenges in academic discourse. Furthermore, the Gallup organization used the concept for the first time during the 1990s. Moreover, Murphy (2014:183) states that after Kahn (1990) released his study on the psychology of individual engagement and disengagement at work, the popularity of work engagement began (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 391).

Wah (1999) stated that engaging employees is one of the top five organizational issues, as stated in a global study of CEOs (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 3).

Work engagement, demonstrated by employees' energy and enthusiasm, is widely recognized and contributes to a positive and enjoyable work environment. Baumruk (2004), Richman (2006), and Shaw (2005) explain that employee engagement is typically characterized by an emotional and intellectual commitment to the organization (Kular et al., 2008, p. 3). Kahn

(1990) conducted one of the most significant studies on engagement (Kular et al., 2008, p. 4). Kahn (1960: 694) referenced the work of Goffman (1961), who proposed that “people’s attachment and detachment” to their position varies (Kular et al., 2008, p. 4). Diamond and Allcorn (1985) contended that Goffman’s work, according to Kahn, focused on brief face-to-face interactions. In contrast, organizational life is described as "ongoing, emotionally charged, and psychologically complex," necessitating a different perception (Kular et al., 2008, p. 4)

Kahn (1990) studied various disciplines to understand attachment levels to roles. Psychologists (Freud, 1922), sociologists (Goffman, 1961; Merton, 1957), and group theorists (Slater, 1966; Smith & Berg, 1987) noted that individuals are often hesitant to belong to groups. Consequently, they “seek to protect themselves from isolation and engulfment by alternating between distancing and engaging” (Kahn, 1990). Kahn describes these behaviors as ‘personal engagement’ and ‘personal disengagement,’ referring to how individuals involve or exclude themselves during work performances (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). Kahn's (1990) terms incorporate concepts from motivation theories that emphasize self-expression and self-employment in work (Alderfer, 1972; Maslow, 1954). He conducted a qualitative study exploring the psychological conditions of engagement and disengagement by interviewing summer camp counselors and architecture firm staff about their work experiences (Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane, and Truss, 2008, p 4).

May et al. (2004) argued that when a person withdraws and defends themselves during a role performance, they defined disengagement as the separation of the self from the role (Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane, and Truss, 2008, pp. 4–5). Kahn (1990) stated that disengaged employees performed their roles ineffectively and did so quickly, automatically, or robotically (Kular et al., 2008, p. 5). According to Kahn, meaningfulness, safety, and availability are three psychological factors linked to workplace engagement or disengagement. In any given role scenario, he claimed, people typically ask themselves three significant questions: Is it meaningful for me to participate in this performance? Is it safe to do so? Furthermore, am I available to do so? He discovered that employees were more engaged when they experienced greater psychological meaning and safety and were mentally open (Kular et al., 2008, p. 5).

Burnout is regarded as the direct opposite of work engagement. In contrast to those who experience burnout, engaged employees maintain a strong and meaningful connection to their work; instead of perceiving their jobs as stressful and demanding, they see them as challenging. They view their work as complex rather than merely stressful and overwhelming (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4).

Engaged employees are motivated to work diligently, even in challenging circumstances. Britt (2003) suggests that individuals are personally committed to and accountable for their work performance while engaged, viewing it as significant to them (Nowak, 2010, pp. 4-5). Moreover, work engagement and employee engagement can be seen as interchangeable concepts; however, work engagement pertains to employees' relationship with their tasks, while employee engagement may relate to the employee's relationship with the organization. Engaged employees invest tremendous effort in their work because they connect with it (Schaufeli, 2012). Although the definition of engagement at work may seem straightforward, a literature review indicates that the term could benefit from greater precision. Thus, engagement appears to be a distinct concept more closely associated with job performance, even though it is strongly linked to work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment (Schaufeli, 2013, p. 10).

1.2. Theoretical Background

Despite gaining substantial attention in the consultancy business in recent years, a clear definition of work engagement needs to be established. To create and sustain a company’s value over the long term, researchers have sought to understand the factors that influence employee effort toward achieving common goals. Several studies on work engagement have proliferated rapidly in the past few decades (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018, p. 4). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2010), work engagement is characterized by high energy, positive emotions, dedication, and focus on tasks (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018, p. 4). Bakker et al. (2014) argue that employee engagement is highly valued in modern public and commercial enterprises as it correlates with elevated levels of innovation, task performance, corporate citizenship behavior, and client satisfaction (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018, p. 4). Kahn (1990) first introduced the concept of work engagement (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392). Kahn

(1990:698) posits that by immersing themselves in their work roles, employees can become engaged and feel attentive, connected, integrated, and invested in their work environment (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392). While Andreassen et al. (2007:619) describe work engagement as a relatively stable emotional state, Saks (2006:602) defines it as a distinct and unique construct comprised of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements related to personal performance (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392).

Work engagement can be described as a motivational concept (Leiter & Bakker, 2010, p. 2). Kahn was the first researcher to conceptualize and develop this concept. Kahn (1990) initiated this theory based on Goffman's work (1961). Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008) emphasize that work engagement is the opposite of job burnout, representing a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being. Therefore, when employees are engaged, they can experience higher energy levels and perform better at work (Leiter & Bakker, 2010, p. 2). Work engagement can be viewed as a motivational concept. Employees strive to tackle challenging tasks when they are engaged in their work. According to Schaufeli et al. (2002), work engagement is a motivational state in which employees feel enthusiastic, immersed, and passionate about their tasks. Harzer and Ruch (2014, p. 187) argued that work engagement is the extra performance a person demonstrates by fully and enthusiastically executing their responsibilities in the workplace (Karatas & Aktas, n.d., p. 460). Thus, highly engaged employees tend to be success-oriented and highly motivated. Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002, p. 74) stated that work engagement can be characterized as a positive, satisfying work-related behavior based on vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, 2013, p. 6). Work engagement describes a constructive and gratifying mental state related to one's work, characterized by vigor (working with high energy), dedication (a sense of challenge and creativity), and absorption (total focus on work that makes time pass quickly without awareness) (Abidin et al., 2021, p. 410).

1.2.1. Maslach And Leiter’s Concept of Burnout

To begin with, during the 1970s, this concept began to emerge in the United States to express the professional burnout experienced by employees in the service sector. A thorough examination of burnout is essential for fully understanding work engagement, as the two are

closely linked. However, various studies propose different definitions of burnout. In 1974, Freudenberger, a psychiatrist, was one of the first to describe burnout as a job-related threat clinically. Maslach and Jackson (1981: 99) state that burnout manifests as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a low personal achievement syndrome in individuals who have intense relationships with others due to their jobs (Tatlilioglu, 2019, p. 359). Ozipek (2006) describes burnout as an internal psychological condition that includes the depletion of mental and physical energy, expectations, attitudes, and perceptions, resulting in personal weariness (Tatlilioglu, 2019, p. 359). Ergin (1992) argues that burnout can be viewed as a syndrome occurring when individuals experience emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal failure in occupations that involve significant interactions with people (Tatlilioglu, 2019, p. 359).

According to Moodley (2010:50), Maslach and Leiter (1997) focus on burnout as a response to work-related stress and diminished job engagement. They defined burnout as the depletion of engagement (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392). Moodley (2010:50) contends that Maslach and Leiter (1997) initially examined work engagement from the perspective that burnout and engagement are two extremes of the same work wellness continuum. They discovered that a few employees experience adverse reactions to work stress, leading to burnout (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392).

1.2.2. Kahn's Theory of Work Engagement

Kahn (1990) introduces the concept of work engagement as the positive emotional state employees experience during work, characterized by a favorable mood. In addition to psychological presence, he emphasized that employees represented themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally at work (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 392). According to Kahn (1990), work engagement is when individuals invest their time, energy, and emotions into their work while fulfilling their responsibilities (Topcuoglu, 2021, p. 51). Therefore, employees express themselves emotionally and energetically while performing job-related tasks. Christian et al. (2011) argue that work engagement involves actively applying resources to tasks associated with a specific job role (Topcuoglu, 2021, p. 51). Kahn

(1990), cited in Siddiqi (2015), states that work engagement relies on three aspects: 1) the meaning that each employee associates with their job, 2) the psychological safety that workers feel, ensuring no unintended consequences arise, and 3) the availability and accessibility of job resources necessary to perform required duties (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 393).

1.2.3. Broaden-And-Build Theory: Positive Emotions and Engagement

Fredrickson (1998) believes the theory is not typically associated with urgent, specific action tendencies when examining positive emotions. Conversely, it is seen as expanding mental consciousness and curiosity, which fosters skills and resources (Enete et al., 2022, p. 80). Murphy (2014) states that this theory explores the concept of positive feelings and their effects on individuals. Additionally, the theory promotes well-being by asserting that positive emotions exist and thus have a cumulative influence over time (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 393).

1.2.4. Schaufeli's Theory of Work Engagement

Schaufeli (2002) made a discovery that led to developing a second approach to managing work engagement (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 393). Schaufeli (2002) conceptualized work engagement as the opposite of burnout, positing that burnout is hypothetically distinct from work engagement. Consequently, the same tool cannot measure both (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 393). Engagement is the extent to which it adversely relates to burnout and is viewed as an independent concept. Work engagement, characterized by affirmative work-related thinking, is described by three constructs: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4).

Vigor refers to the excess energy and mental strength observed while working and the willingness to exert effort and persevere in facing challenges. In addition to a sense of passion, encouragement, and dignity, dedication reflects the extent to which one is deeply invested in one's work. Absorption pertains to being entirely focused and engaged in one's work, resulting in time passing quickly. Consequently, it becomes difficult to separate oneself from work (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4).

1.2.5. The Job-Demand-Resource (JD-R) Theory

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) state that the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model aims to clarify the extent of employees' well-being and ill health, along with their associated antecedents and outcomes (Hakanena et al., 2008). The JD-R model begins with the premise that, regardless of job type, psychosocial work characteristics can be divided into two categories (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, as cited in Hakanena, Schaufeli & Kirsi Aholaa, 2008, p. 225). Moodley (2010) emphasizes that research on work engagement has significantly utilized the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 394). Jackson et al. (2006) discuss the differences between the two components of job characteristics: job demands and job resources (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 394). The JD-R model, which differentiates between two types of resources, essentially assumes that work engagement arises from the intrinsically motivating nature of resources: 1) job resources are defined as those that help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, or foster personal development, such as performance feedback and job control; 2) personal resources refer to traits linked to resilience, including the ability to effectively influence and manage one's environment, such as optimism and emotional stability (Schaufeli, 2013, p. 16).

The JD-R model of work engagement is explicitly illustrated in Figure 1.

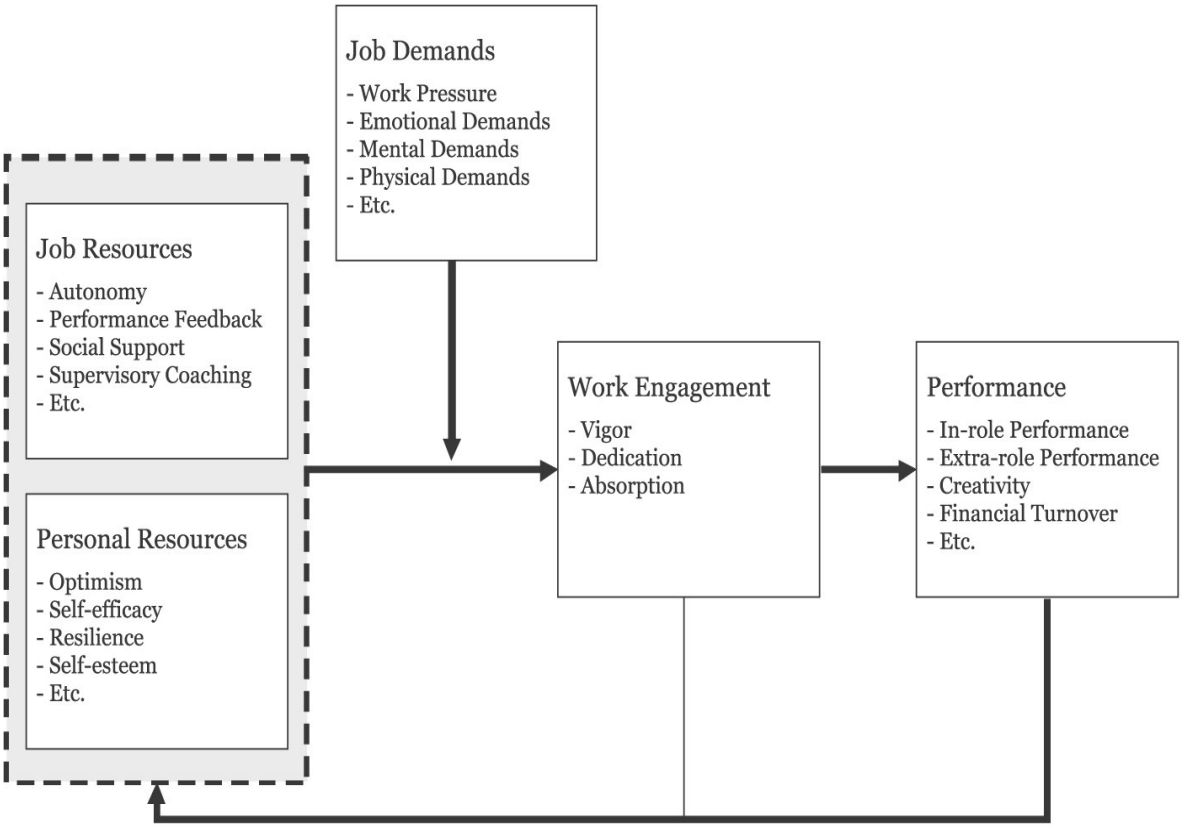


Figure- 2. The JD-R Model of Work Engagement

Source: Based on Bakker and Demerouti (2007)

As evidence shows, work engagement can be independently predicted by either job resources, personal resources, or a combination of both (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 218). Moreover, job and personal resources enhance engagement, especially when job demands are high. Additionally, engaged employees can generate resources, leading to increased engagement and a positive feedback cycle (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 218). Job resources are regarded as triggers for the motivational process, enhancing work engagement, and are linked to positive outcomes such as organizational commitment (Hakanena et al., 2008, p. 225).

1.2.6. Conservation of Resources Theory

According to COR theory, much human behavior and culture centers on acquiring and safeguarding valuable resources. The interplay of phylogenetic and ontogenetic contingencies influences the value of any specific resource. As a result, while some resources are essential for human survival and functioning, others are shaped by cultural and personal experiences, leading to variations over time among individuals and across cultures (Holgreen et al., 2017, p. 444). Murphy (2014) posits that the conservation of resources theory provides a framework for understanding stress and effectively adjusting work-related factors. It indicates that individuals who acquire and maintain the four primary resources ('objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energies') are better equipped to cope with stressors. Murphy (2014: 186) noted that these possessions reduce feelings of helplessness and diminish anxiety (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 394).

1.2.7 Social Cognitive Theory

Murphy (2014) indicates that social cognitive theory is based on individuals' ability to control their lives through their capabilities, and one's actions can produce the expected consequences if an individual's sense of self-efficacy provides motivation and drive (Amoo & Singh, 2018, p. 394).

1.3. Components of Work Engagement

Bakker and Schaufeli (2010) argue that the meaning of engagement relates to "*involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, absorption, focused effort, and energy*" (p. 11). There is no doubt that almost all key consultancy firms are keen to enhance the level of engagement. (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2010). Bakker and Schaufeli (2010) stress that these consultancy firms concluded that higher "*productivity, sales, customer satisfaction, and employee retention*" increase with work engagement. (p. 11). According to Kahn (1990), work engagement is associated with three dimensions that individuals dedicate themselves to job roles, which are physical, emotional, and cognitive (Yelgin, 2022, p. 31). However, Maslach and Leiter (2016) highlighted work engagement as the opposite of the energy, commitment, and

competence dimensions of the Maslach burnout scale through the burnout contrast approach. Furthermore, Saks (2005) suggests two dimensions of engagement: engagement to work and the organization. In this study, the Utrecht

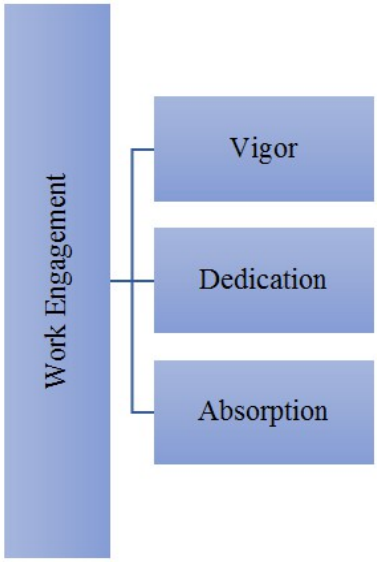


Figure- 3. Work Engagement

Source: Schaufeli and Bakker (2010)

Work engagement contains vigor, dedication, and absorption derived from the definition, a questionnaire in the three dimensions has been created (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2010 cites Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2002b, p. 16).

Employees who connect to these three elements will feel more engaged at work. Establishing social connections at work can achieve vigor. Bandura (1977) states that people pick up behavior from the social circles that they are part of. When there are enough positive employees to look up to, the contentment can spread to colleagues. When employees are provided with growth opportunities, dedication is assured. Absorption is accomplished by creating an environment at work that reflects the organization's ideals (Abidin et al., 2021, p. 414).

1.4. Motivators of Work Engagement

1.4.1. Job Resources

Albrecht (2010) and Bakker & Demerouti (2008) state that prior studies consistently demonstrate that factors within the job, such as receiving support from colleagues, getting feedback on performance, having a manageable number of tasks, enjoying independence, and being provided with learning opportunities, are consistently associated with higher levels of work engagement (Albrecht, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, as cited in Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Schaufeli & Bakker (2004) indicate that job resources encompass organizational components as well as physical and social aspects of the job that can reduce job demands and their physical and mental toll; they also contribute to achieving work aims and support personal growth, knowledge, and advancement (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Thus, job resources are necessary for managing job demands and hold intrinsic importance (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Job resources should serve either an instructional motivational purpose by fostering employees' personal growth or an extrinsic motivational function by acting as tools to achieve work goals (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). It is believed that job resources have two motivational aspects: one intrinsic, which facilitates employees' personal growth, learning, and development, and the other extrinsic, which helps achieve work objectives. First, job resources fulfill basic human needs such as competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985, as cited in Bakker, 2011, p. 266). For example, constructive feedback promotes learning, thus enhancing occupational skills. Simultaneously, having the freedom to make decisions and receiving support from others satisfies the desire for independence and social connection (Bakker, 2011, p. 266).

1.4.2. Personal Resources

Personal resources refer to positive self-assessments related to resilience, reflecting individuals' belief in their ability to influence and cope with their surroundings effectively (Hobfoll et al., 2003, as cited in Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Individuals with self-coherence demonstrate motivation in pursuing their goals, which leads to improved performance levels and greater fulfillment (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Many researchers have explored the links

between personal resources and work engagement. For example, Albrecht (2010) posits that studies highlight the importance of self-regard and self-confidence. Locus of control, emotional awareness, and regulation skills predict work engagement positively (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Engaged employees are inclined towards optimism, perceiving positive life outcomes and believing in their ability to meet personal needs through active involvement in organizational roles, thereby showing a sense of self-esteem (Bakker, 2011, p. 267).

1.5. Importance of Work Engagement

To begin with, it can be inferred that engaged employees demonstrate increased effort and commitment when facing challenges. Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 76) note that work engagement has been explicitly defined in the literature on numerous occasions. The central idea of these definitions conceptualizes work engagement as organizational purpose, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, and focused effort, which consequently includes additional behavioral components (Goksal, 2020). Anitha (2014, p. 309) argues that engagement is valuable for any business seeking a competitive advantage. People are a resource that competitors cannot easily replicate or imitate, making them the most critical asset if effectively managed and engaged (Goksel, 2020).

According to Robinson et al. (2004, p. 9), engaged employees exhibit several traits in the workplace, including a desire to improve their work quality, an understanding of the business context, and the ability to see the bigger picture. Furthermore, engaged employees demonstrate behaviors such as being respectful and helpful toward their colleagues, seeking self-improvement in their roles, and keeping their knowledge current regarding work-related issues (Yelgin, 2020, p. 32). Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter (2011, p. 5) note that engaged employees can create business resources, perform better, and maintain high levels of psychological capital; thus, they find happiness and enjoyment in their work (Yelgin, 2020, p. 32).

Saks (2006: 606) asserts that work engagement has gained popularity due to its positive effects on organizations. Engagement is an individual-level concept, and if it can influence work outcomes, it must first impact individual results. From a business standpoint, it

influences the organization's performance, including growth and productivity (Goksel, 2020). The distinction between engaged and disengaged employees is that engaged employees demonstrate more significant commitment to the organization, have minimal absenteeism, and are not inclined to leave the company (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). Long-term employee retention, enhanced performance, superior work quality, and organizational success are linked to engaged employees. Additionally, compared to workaholics, engaged employees enjoy significantly better mental and psychosomatic health and positive emotions. Moreover, they demonstrate initiative independently and a strong desire to learn (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). Engaged employees perform tasks more effectively at work, which, as their customers recognize, can lead to superior service quality. Furthermore, they make fewer mistakes and experience fewer workplace injuries. Compared to disengaged colleagues, they display more creative work behaviors and receive higher ratings from their managers for effectiveness and job performance (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), engaged employees perform better than those who are not involved. Engaged employees who actively participate in their work are likelier to feel positive emotions such as “happiness, joy, and enthusiasm” (p. 215). Schaufeli and Van Rhenen (2006) argue that engaged employees typically experience positive feelings, while Cropanzano and Wright (2001) suggest that this may be a reason for their productivity. Cheerful individuals are more open to opportunities at work; they tend to be more sociable, help others genuinely, and exhibit self-assurance and positivity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 215). Research indicates that engagement is linked to health, showing that engaged employees can improve their performance capabilities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 215). Schaufeli et al. (n.d.) have shown that engaged employees tend to experience fewer psychosomatic complaints than their disengaged counterparts (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 216).

Work engagement is a crucial indicator of work-related health for employees and organizations. HR managers can promote work engagement among their employees through various initiatives. A significant step for any proactive policy involves assessing engagement levels and the factors influencing them across all employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 219). Engaged employees demonstrate a comprehensive relationship with their work responsibilities on physical, cognitive, and emotional levels. They exhibit remarkable energy

and dedication towards achieving their work-related goals and regularly immerse themselves fully in their tasks. Job and personal resources are predictors of work engagement, which leads to enhanced job performance. Thus, work engagement is a vital marker of work-related happiness for organizations and employees. Human resource managers can facilitate work engagement among employees by implementing specific strategies. The initial examination of engagement and its drivers across all employees is a crucial first step for any proactive policy (Bakker, 2011, p. 268). The degree to which employees are engaged in their work has significant implications for their overall performance. The energy and focus derived from work engagement enable employees to utilize their performance capabilities in their roles fully. Consequently, such dedicated focus enhances the quality of primary job duties. Employees possess the ability and motivation to concentrate entirely on their tasks (Leither & Bakker, 2009, pp. 3-4).

Additionally, extra-role performance is bolstered by work engagement. The complexities of modern work environments make it challenging to define an employee's expectations. In addition to a position's primary responsibilities, employers anticipate that individuals will exceed the formal boundaries of their roles by demonstrating initiative. Taking the initiative involves gaining new insights, seizing unique opportunities, and exhibiting exceptional commitment to supporting the company's community through mentoring, observing, or being aware of colleagues. Employees engage with new professional developments and strive to be leaders by demonstrating initiative in their fields. They go beyond the confines of their job descriptions through proactive efforts, transforming their roles into dynamic entities that adapt to the continually evolving work landscape, which has become the new norm. (Leither & Bakker, 2009, pp. 3-4). In conclusion, work engagement is effective and personally rewarding (Leather & Bakker, 2009, p. 5).

1.6. Connection Between Engagement and Performance

A few studies indicate that work engagement positively affects job performance (Demerouti & Bakker, 2006). The results appear promising. Bakker et al. (2004)

demonstrated that engaged employees received higher ratings from their colleagues for in-role and extra-role performance, suggesting they perform well and are willing to go the extra mile. Additionally, in their survey of Dutch employees across various occupations, Schaufeli et al. (2006) found that work engagement positively correlates with in-role performance (b = 0.37), whereas workaholism does not. These findings were further investigated in a study involving 327 secretaries. Gierveld and Bakker (2005) revealed that engaged secretaries exhibited higher in-role and extra-role performance than their non-engaged counterparts. Engaged secretaries greatly impacted daily business, often tasked with challenging responsibilities such as personnel pre-selection, organizing trade exhibitions, and maintaining websites. Bakker et al. (2006) examined the engagement and performance of 105 school principals and 232 teachers. They discovered positive associations between principals' work engagement and the teachers' ratings of their performance and leadership. Engaged principals scored higher in in- and extra-role performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, pp. 214-215).

Engaged employees display constructive behaviors that foster team collaboration and help achieve organizational goals. Their capacity to express emotions enhances performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Research demonstrates that work engagement is a strong predictor of employee performance. Cesário and Chambel (2017) examined 274 Portuguese respondents and found a significant relationship between work engagement and organizational commitment. Obuobisa-Darko (2020) established that work engagement positively impacts task performance at the Electricity Company of Ghana, based on data from 411 employees analyzed using structural equation modeling. Hendrik et al. (2021) concluded in their Indonesian study that increased work engagement results in higher employee performance and vice versa, based on SPSS analysis of survey data (Kaleem, 2024, p. 75).

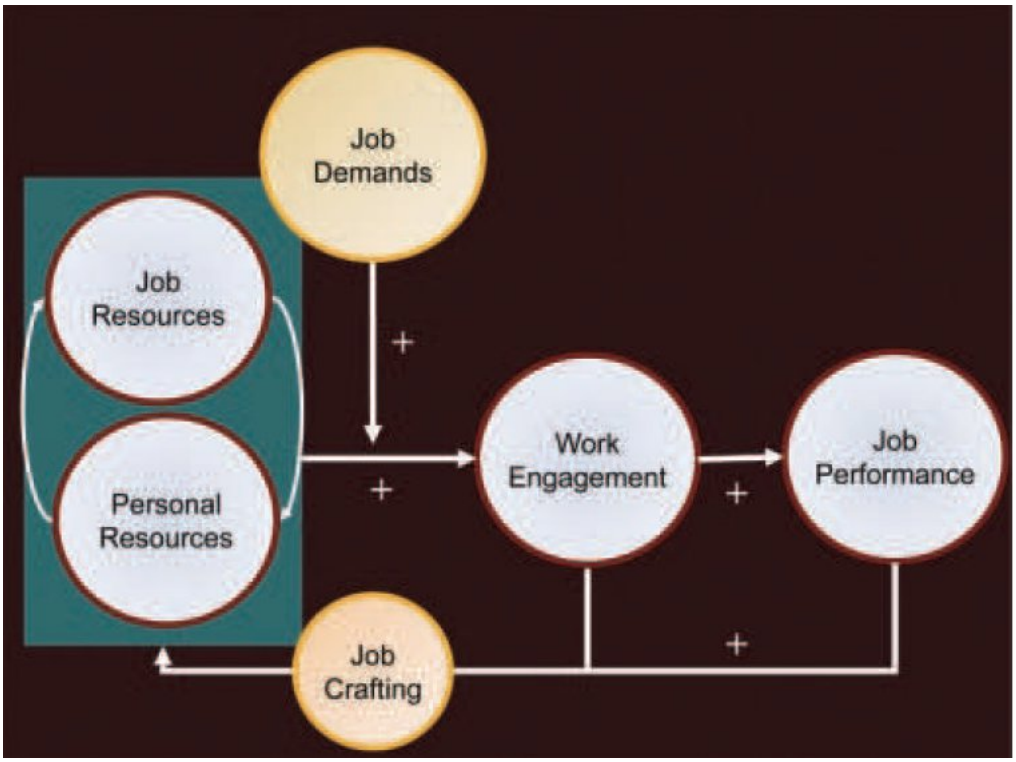


Figure 4. The model of Work Engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008)

Fredrickson (2001) states that the reasons engaged employees perform better than those who do not can be categorized into several aspects. Firstly, engaged employees typically have positive feelings, such as appreciation, happiness, and enthusiasm. These positive emotions enhance individuals' cognitive and behavioral capacities, suggesting ongoing development of their assets (Bakker, 2011, p. 267). The second reason engaged employees perform better is that they experience improved health, which allows them to focus and invest all their abilities and energy into their work. When employees are engaged, they can craft their jobs and personal resources (Bakker, 2011, p. 267). Ultimately, engaged employees extend their commitment to their immediate colleagues (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009, as cited in Bakker, 2011, p. 267)

Demerouti et al. (2001) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) believe that people tend to exhibit positive behaviors such as job satisfaction and commitment to their jobs and organizations when engaged, and they rarely change jobs. According to Salanova et al. (2003), Sonnentag (2003), and Schaufeli et al. (2006), those who are highly engaged at work show high levels

of learning motivation and positive behaviors (Sierra et al., 2015, p. 2). Schaufeli & Salanova (2008) argue that they can work hard due to the joy they derive from their work, even when exhausted; tiredness is perceived as enjoyable when linked to positive accomplishments (Sierra et al., 2015, p. 2). Engagement describes how job performance relates to financial benefits, customer loyalty, and adaptability. According to Schaufeli & Salanova (2007), Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), and Halbesleben (2010), higher levels of engagement are associated with improved job performance, which can result in financial benefits, greater client loyalty, and enhanced adaptability to the work environment (Sierra et al., 2015, p. 2). Borman and Motowildo (1993; 1997) emphasize that job performance has two components: task performance and contextual performance (Demircioglu, 2019). Task performance relates to a job's technical skills, while contextual performance enhances an organization's effectiveness but does not focus on technical skills (Demircioglu, 2019).

To begin with, work engagement refers to the degree of positive feelings experienced in the workplace. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) assert that extensive research has been conducted, providing preliminary evidence for the motivating process of the JDR-WE model (Reijseger et al., 2013). For instance, work engagement is correlated with attitudinal measures such as organizational commitment (Hakanen et al., 2006; Hakanen et al., 2008) and turnover intentions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Additionally, research examining whether engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and job performance found that increased job resources resulted in higher work engagement and reduced subsequent absenteeism (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Other studies explored various performance indicators using the JDR-WE model. For example, self-reported medical errors were negatively correlated with physicians' engagement (Prins et al., 2009), while supervisors and coworkers rated highly engaged employees higher on in-role performance than others (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Wang and Chen (2020) argue that to exhibit good qualities and behaviors, employees must be engaged in their work and passionate about accomplishing their tasks (Tifinny et al., 2023, p.53). Kartal (2018) states that positive relationships exist between work engagement and employee performance due to a strong connection to work. There is no tendency to disregard the work completed during that time (Tifinny et al., 2023, p. 53).

1.7. Antecedents of Work Engagement

According to Christian et al. (2011), Halbesleben (2010), Mauno, Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, and Feldt (2010), previous research has consistently demonstrated that work engagement is positively correlated with both job resources and personal resources (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). Bakker and Demerouti (2008) reported that job resources encompass elements within a job that can have physical, social, or organizational aspects. These resources serve various functions, including reducing job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, achieving work-related goals, and promoting personal growth, learning, and development (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson (2003) state that personal resources are characterized by positive self-evaluations linked to resilience. These resources relate to an individual's belief in their ability to control and positively influence their environment (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). The job resources that predict work engagement can differ based on the organization. Some crucial resources include opportunities for personal and professional growth, feedback on job performance, the ability to exercise autonomy, diverse job tasks that utilize different skills, transformational leadership, a sense of fairness, and social support from colleagues and supervisors (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5). Bakker and Demerouti (2008) note that the JD-R model is widely recognized as a framework for understanding work engagement (Schaufeli, p. 5). According to the JD-R model, job and personal resources gain motivational potential when employees face high job demands. This is particularly evident in dynamic jobs, where employees are driven to learn and develop their skills. Research indicates that job resources, such as opportunities to apply various professional skills and colleague recognition, significantly predict work engagement in high-demand work environments (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 5).

1.8. Limitations of Work Engagement

Holbeche & Matthews (2012). Odhong & Omolo (2014). Today, to enhance organizational growth and performance, organizations must cultivate and maintain a healthy and harmonious atmosphere for employee relationships (Shabane et al., 2002, p. 2). Ali et al. (2018) assert that creating a culture that prioritizes employees and fosters a social environment encouraging deep employee involvement is essential (Shabane et al., 2002, p. 2). Sequeira and Dhriti (2015) contend that improving employee performance and, consequently, organizational productivity and job satisfaction can be achieved by strengthening employee relations processes (Shabane et al., 2002, p. 2). Carmeli & Freund (2004) state that satisfied employees can be both productive and happy (Shabane et al., 2002, p. 2). In recent years, organizations have concentrated on fostering employee work engagement. The aim is to achieve organizational objectives related to customer needs by providing high-quality services (Shabane et al., 2002, p. 2, citing Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Top, Akdere & Tarcan, 2015). According to Li & Ling (2007) and Aldabbas et al. (2021), work engagement is an excellent comprehensive emotional and cognitive state connected to work, associated with determination and dispersal (Yao et al., 2022, p. 2). The ongoing discussion surrounding the relationship between job involvement and performance continues (Yao et al., 2022, p. 2). Wang and Chen (2020) argue that many researchers expect that "work engagement, employee emotional, cognitive, forward-looking behaviors" will increase as work engagement rises, subsequently enhancing job performance (Yao et al., 2022, p. 2). However, Bouckenooghe et al. (2021) point out that some academics believe there may be an inverse relationship between job performance and work engagement, suggesting that increases in work engagement do not necessarily guarantee continued job performance growth (Yao et al., 2022, p. 2). Failing to evaluate whether job satisfaction directly or indirectly affects employee relations and work engagement could prevent management from recognizing opportunities to implement interventions that may mitigate negative outcomes (Yao et al., 2022, p. 2).

1.9. Related Studies

The existing literature thoroughly investigates various dimensions, including work engagement, leader-member interaction, innovative work behavior, organizational

identification, job performance, job satisfaction, turnover intention, procedural justice, perceived organizational support, task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and work-family enrichment. It also covers goal orientations such as mastery, patterning, and avoidance. Numerous studies examine the interrelationships among positive organizational behavior variables, including hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. Furthermore, intrapreneurship, perceived organizational support, managerial support, paternalistic leadership behavior, ethical leadership, and structural empowerment are also explored.

Research shows a positive connection between various factors and work engagement. Specifically, work engagement positively correlates with leader-member exchange (LMX) (Agarwal et al., 2012; Gutermann et al., 2017; Li et al., 2012). The literature indicates a positive correlation between work engagement and corporate social responsibility (Esmaeelinezhad et al., 2015), job satisfaction (Karanika-Murray et al., 2015), organizational support, and organizational citizenship behavior (Rich et al., 2010). Additionally, job resources—including support from coworkers and managers, performance feedback, a diverse skill set, autonomy, and opportunities for learning—and individual resources like positive self-evaluations, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-confidence- are essential antecedents of work engagement (Bakker, 2011). Bakker (2014) further explains that daily fluctuations impact daily work engagement variations related to work and individual resources. Studies in Turkey underline the significance of work engagement, job autonomy (Turgut, 2013), positive organizational behavior (Çalışkan, 2015), intrapreneurship (Bostancı & Ekiyor, 2015), organizational support (Işık & Kama, 2018; İnce, 2016), paternalistic leadership (Korkmaz et al., 2018), ethical leadership and trust (Taşlıyan et al., 2016), structural empowerment, organizational identification, and goal internalization (Özarallı, 2017) (Ercan, 2019, pp. 55-56).

Research on work engagement reveals a positive relationship with job commitment, feedback, job control, structural empowerment, and job-role fit, as well as a negative relationship with role conflict. Moreover, development opportunities, job enrichment, role clarity, job quality, job intensity, job satisfaction, the joy of work, task-specific agreements,

job control, and active coping positively correlate with work engagement (Bailey et al., 2017, p. 38, as cited in Ancin, 2024, p. 61).

1.10. Measuring Work Engagement

Harter, Schmidt, Killham, and Asplund (2006) argue that short report questionnaires can measure work engagement. It is undeniable that the most commonly used in the business context is Gallup's Q12, which has been regarded as an instrument for management (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002) is the most frequently used tool to assess engagement as a distinct psychological state, divided into three subscales: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Numerous confirmatory factor analyses demonstrate that the recommended three-factor structure fits the data better than alternative factor models (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4). Several measures of work engagement have been identified that resonate with individuals' experiences while performing their jobs. For instance, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) refers to work experience; Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakov, and Kantas (2003) developed a scale that pertains to work tasks; and May et al. (2004) created a scale associated with employees' attachment to their work roles (Christian & Slaughter, 2011, p. 91). Below are some scales for measuring engagement. Consequently, the Utrecht scale will collect data for this research.

Table 1. Measure of Work Engagement

Measure	**Original Source**	**Description of measure**	**Key components of definitions**
Utrecht Work Engagement Scale	Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002)	9-17 items	*Positive, satisfying state of mind * Persistent and pervasive emotional-cognitive state * Energy and mental flexibility while working *Enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge *Fully concentrated and involved in work, time passes quickly and has difficulty leaving work
Disengagement (subscale of OLBI)	Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2003)	Measures differ in length, usually 8	*Emotions to the work task *Connection employees and their job, especially pertaining to their engagement, identification,

		items	eagerness to carry on in the same job
Shirom-Melamed Vigor Measure (SMVM)	Shirom (2004)	14 items	*efficient response in the sphere of work organizations. *
Psychological engagement	May, Gilson, and Harter (2004)	13 items based on Kahn (1990)	*Performing individuals' roles *Recruiting and expressing themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance
Job engagement	Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010)	18 items based on Kahn (1990)	*Investment of cognitive, emotional, and physical energies in one's role performance
Job engagement	Saks (2006)	6 items based on Kahn (1990)	* The level to which an individual is mentally engaged or involved in a specific role in an organization. *All consuming

Source: (Cristian & Slaughter, 2011, pp. 92-93).

1.11. WORK EFFORT

1.11.1. The Concept of Work Effort

Work effort has been a fundamental concept in management theories and research for over a century. Managers continually struggle to maintain and enhance employee effort. Work effort refers to the extent to which an employee exerts mental and physical energy to complete a task or achieve a goal at work. Münsterberg (1913), Scott (1911), and Taylor (1911) indicate that early literature on management and related disciplines often centered on strategies to boost productivity by increasing various forms of work effort (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 126). A century later, work effort continues to be a foundational concept across different theories and fields related to management (Iddekinge, Arnold, Aguinis, Lang, and Lievens, 2023, p. 126). Bandura (1977), Locke & Latham (1990), and Vroom (1964) highlight that effort is a vital component in theories about work motivation (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 126).

Dewey (1913: 46) was likely one of the first to describe effort from a psychological perspective as the ability to persist, maintain continuity of activity, persevere in the face of challenges, and overcome obstacles (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 127). Ryan (1947: 22) is among the early researchers in organizational psychology who defined effort as the relationship between an individual's actual performance rate and capacity at a particular moment (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 127).

Some researchers have equated work effort with motivation; however, Van Iddekinge et al. (2023, p. 6) argue and provide empirical evidence that work effort should be viewed as a direct result of motivation. They define work effort as the degree to which workers strive to perform their jobs, encompassing direction (where effort is directed), intensity (the amount of effort), and persistence (the duration for which they continue their effort). Van Iddekinge et al. (2023, p. 20) also identify work effort as a direct precursor to employee performance. They clarify that while effort is crucial, it is insufficient for achieving high performance; workers must not only exert effort but also do so efficiently and concentrate on the right behaviors (Velghe et al., 2022, p. 7).

1.11.2. Theoretical Background

Work effort encompasses employees' physical, mental, and emotional energy to complete tasks within their work environment (Tezcan, 2023, p. 13). Examining various strategies to enhance organizational outcomes is critical. Furthermore, organizations must acknowledge individual differences to attract and retain employees and improve work performance. Many researchers have defined effort in several forms, leading to a lack of uniformity and clarity regarding its conceptualization (De Cooman et al., 2009, as cited in Prundeanu & Popusoi, 2022, p. 69).

An organization's performance is crucial for success; efficient, engaged, and motivated employees achieve objectives more effectively. Engaged employees are passionate about their work and exhibit proactive behaviors that enhance their reputation. Work effort is the energy an employee exerts or the effort necessary to complete the job effectively (Geh, 2022, p. e351). Blau (1993) describes effort direction as the specific actions an individual concentrates on to achieve a goal, underscoring the decisions involved in reaching that

objective. Intensity is characterized by the amount of effort invested in executing these actions. Persistence denotes the continuous application of directed effort over a specified period (Geh, 2022, p. e355).

According to Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 14), understanding and describing effort has been challenging. Behling and Starke (1971, p. 375) describe effort as the observable action of an individual; employees' willingness to work motivates or drives these actions (Karger & Bayha, 1987, p. 18). Trendowicz and Jeffery (2014, p. 428) define work effort in terms of person-hour, person-month, or person-year, illustrating the workforce needed to complete a job, measured in units (Bilginoglu & Yozgat, 2020, p. 2596). De Cooman et al. (2009, p. 302) and Merino-Tejedor et al. (2015, p. 106) note that work effort is a vital concept in human life; thus, it impacts job performance, as individuals who invest more effort are likely to achieve outstanding results (Bilginoglu & Yozgat, 2020, p. 2596). Hodson (2002, pp. 64-65) argues that employees must enhance their physical and mental effort levels to boost productivity. According to Brockner et al. (1992) and Mulki et al. (2015), work effort reflects an individual's commitment to completing a task. Consequently, it is critical to employee performance (Bilginoglu & Yozgat, 2020, p. 2596). Edwards (1979) emphasized that managers and employees have long sought to gain some control over employees' efforts. Kmec and Gorman (2010) noted that as managerial skills develop, there is a noticeable trend among managers to seek new strategies to promote voluntary effort from their employees (Bilginoglu & Yozgat, 2020, p. 2596). Work effort has been a significant topic in management and literature for nearly a century. Managers consistently aim to enhance and maintain their employees' efforts (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 1).

Aguinis, Ramani, and Alabduljader (2018) argue that since researchers have described effort in various ways, areas, and situations, it is essential to establish some standards for review (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 126). According to Behling and Starke (1973), work effort refers to the intentional actions of an employee (Nartgun et al., 2020, p. 142).

1.11.2. Motivation

1.11.3. Performance

The effort invested is a key indicator of performance (Byrne, Stoner, Thompson, & Hochwarter, 2005). Numerous studies have identified a positive correlation between performance and work effort (Mulki, Caemmerer, & Heggde, 2015). Performance consists of work effort and job quality. Job quality is more closely linked to individual skills and knowledge (Kuvaas et al., 2014).

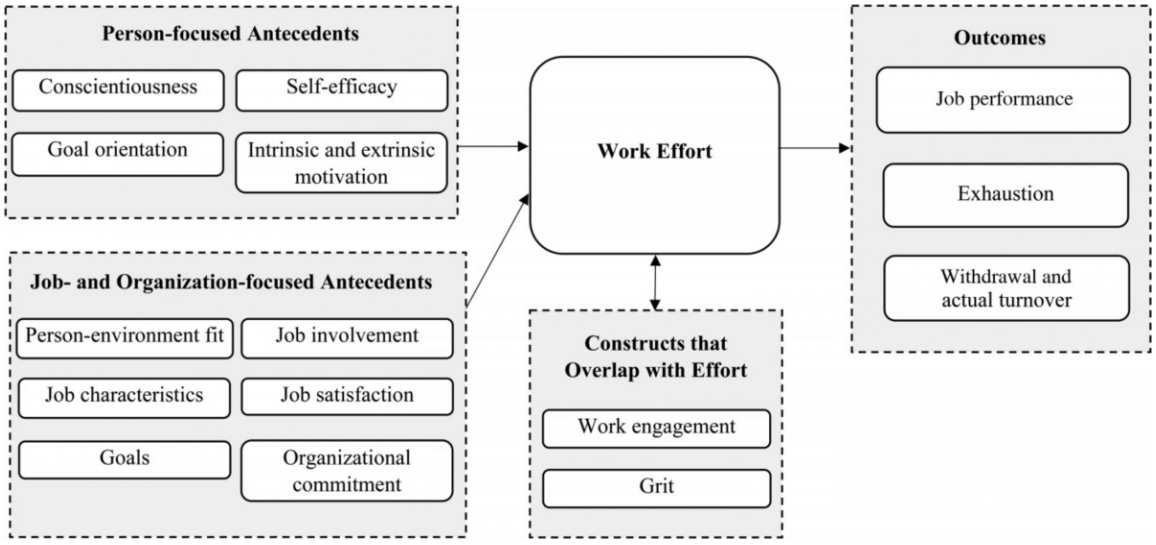
1.11.4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

1.11.5. Components of Work Effort

Green (2001) emphasized that the literature on work effort consists of two dimensions: extensive work effort refers to the number of hours employees work, while intensive work effort pertains to the mental and physical effort employees exert in the workplace (Avgoustaki, 2015). Furthermore, according to Green (2001) and Kristensen, Bjorner, Christensen, and Borg (2004), work effort includes two distinct elements (Avgoustaki & Frankort, 2019). The first element is extensive work effort or work duration. The widespread aspect of work effort involves working extra hours, meaning an employee dedicates more time than required. Working extra hours can be stressful for both full-time and part-time employees. Green (2001, p.56) noted that the second element of work effort is work intensity, also called intensive work effort. This refers to how physical or mental input is applied to work tasks throughout the workday (Avgoustaki & Frankort, 2019). Work intensity measures the effort exerted per unit of working time, in contrast to work duration. Numerous studies have explored work intensity and the implications of working extra hours. The central theme connecting both concepts through various channels is associated with reduced well-being

(Avgoustaki & Frankort, 2019). Sanchez (2017) suggested that when employees work extra hours, it is likely that their exposure to workplace stressors increases, which diminishes their ability to recover between workdays by limiting their time off from work (Avgoustaki & Frankort, 2019).

Nomological Network of Work Effort



1.11.6. Antecedes of Effort

The factors have been divided into two broad groups. The first group consists of person-focused factors that evaluate individual characteristics that could influence or relate to employees' efforts. The second group comprises job- and organization-focused factors, which assess the elements of the job or organization that may impact individuals' efforts (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133).

1.11.6.1. Person-Focused Antecedes

1.11.6.1.1. Continuousness

According to Schmidt and Hunter (1992), the personality trait most strongly correlated with work effort is conscientiousness (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133). Barrick, Mount, and Strauss (1993) argue that highly conscientious individuals are typically focused on achieving their goals, exhibit a strong work ethic, and maintain high self-expectations (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133). They also suggest that conscientious people usually set objectives and invest the necessary effort to achieve them (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133). Therefore, discussions about conscientiousness tend to emphasize effort-related concepts, such as being hardworking (Iddekinge, Arnold, Aguinis, Lang, and Lievens, 2023, p. 133).

1.11.6.1.2. Self-Efficiency

Bandura (1997) suggests that self-efficacy is related to an individual's belief in their ability to perform tasks within a specific domain (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133). Chen, Gully, and Eden (2004) argue that, generally, an individual's perception of their capacity to succeed in different situations is represented by general self-efficacy, while specific self-efficacy reflects an individual's beliefs about their ability to complete a particular task (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133).

1.11.6.1.3. Goal Orientation

Dweck (1986) describes this as the area of study that examines the factors motivating employees. Individuals with a mastery or learning goal orientation (LGO) are driven to improve their skills and knowledge by acquiring new information. Conversely, those with a performance goal orientation (PGO) are motivated to demonstrate their abilities in comparison to others (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133).

1.11.4.1.4. Intrinsic Motivation

As Deci and Ryan (2000) noted, intrinsic motivation is the tendency to invest energy into a task because one is fascinated by and enjoys the work. In contrast, extrinsic motivation reflects a desire to obtain external rewards or recognition, such as prizes or accolades (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 133).

1.11.7. Job and Organization-Focused Antecedes

1.11.7.1 Person-Environment Fit

Arthur et al. (2006) propose that the relationship between person-environment fit and job performance is influenced by job attitudes, particularly job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In other words, when an individual's skills, values, and personality align well with the demands and culture of their job, it can lead to positive job attitudes, which may enhance job performance (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134). Person-organization fit refers to the compatibility between employees and the organization, considering factors such as how closely workers' values align with those of the organization. It explores whether a good "fit" exists between the individual and the broader workplace context (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134).

1.11.7.2. Job Characteristics

According to Oldham (1976), certain job qualities can positively impact workers, enhancing the job's stimulation, significance, and independence (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134). The model suggests that specific job characteristics contribute to a more profound sense of meaning for workers. These characteristics include the opportunity to use diverse skills while performing a job (skill variety), observing the results of one's work (task identity), understanding the importance of one's job for the organization or society (task significance), having autonomy in decision-making regarding how to perform the job, and receiving feedback on one's performance (Iddekinge, Arnold, Aguinis, Lang, and Lievens, 2023, p. 134).

1.11.7.3. Job Involvement

Kanungo (1981: 7) defines work commitment as the degree to which an individual perceives work as important in their life or identifies with it psychologically (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134). According to Kanungo (1982), employees with high levels of job involvement tend to deeply identify with their work and continue to think about it even when they are off the clock (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134).

1.11.7.4. Job Satisfaction

It is also linked to work effort (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134). Some studies (e.g., Riketta, 2008) suggest that job satisfaction is a precursor to the effort employees invest in their work and serves as a mediator in the connection between satisfaction and performance (e.g., Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2009 as cited in Iddekinge, Arnold, Aguinis, Lang, and Lievens, 2023, p. 134). In other words, employees with higher satisfaction will likely exert more effort, leading to improved performance outcomes (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134).

1.11.7.5. Organizational Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), a model of organizational commitment consists of three dimensions that measure employees' commitment to their current employer (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134). Affective commitment relates to employees' emotional connection, identification, and organizational involvement. Continuance commitment focuses on the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization. Lastly, normative commitment embodies a sense of duty or responsibility to remain connected to an organization (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 134).

1.11.8. Importance of Work Effort

While organizational researchers have examined work effort for over a century, managers are still seeking ways to enhance and maintain employees' performance at optimal levels. When considering effort as a key facilitator of performance, specific aspects of individual personality traits warrant emphasis (Prundeanu & Popusoi, 2022, p. 70). For example, self-esteem and belief in one's potential for success can elevate the effort of individuals with narcissistic traits, thereby boosting their performance (Roberts et al., 2019, as cited in Prundeanu & Popusoi, 2022, p. 70).

Work effort is a critical element that needs to be highlighted from the organization's perspective. Enhancing employee performance is essential for success in the competitive business environment. Consequently, a clear understanding of effort and performance moving forward is necessary, as managers often intervene in efforts when performance is evaluated (Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 126). Iddekinge, Arnold, Aguinis, Lang, and Lievens (2023, p. 126) cite various studies (e.g., Bandura, 1977; Locke & Latham, 1990; Vroom, 1964). It has been found (Weiner et al. (1972, cited by Iddekinge et al., 2023, p. 126) that effort is generally seen as more manageable than traits such as psychological capability. Therefore, managers should prioritize efforts when making staffing decisions and reward those who strive to exert more effort, even if their performance does not match that of others.

1.11.9. Limitations of Work Effort

Researchers in economics and management have shown significant interest in examining employee effort in the workplace. This interest is demonstrated by studies such as those conducted by Bell & Freeman (2001), Burchell & Fagan (2004), and Kelliher & Anderson (2010). The evidence indicates that increased work effort may negatively impact employees' physical and mental health and work-life balance. This notion is supported by studies carried out by Fairris & Brenner (2001), White et al. (2003), Burke (2007), Burke, Singh & Fikrenbaum (2010), and Boxall & Macky (2014) (Avgoustaki, 2017). Effort can be quantified as a behavioral action influenced by motivation (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Locke et al., 1981, as cited in Awang, 2017, p. 274). Therefore, researchers consider it a separate concept (De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans, Jegers, & Van Acker, 2009, as cited in Awang, 2017, p. 274). According to Green & Mcintosh (2001), work effort

must be acknowledged in practical work (Awang, 2017, p. 247). Due to the difficulties in measuring it (Awang, 2017, p. 247), De Cooman et al. (2009) describe work effort as the observable expression of "work motivation, encompassing the intensity (force), persistence (duration), and direction (relevance)" of the effort exerted in the workplace (Awang, 2017, p. 247).

1.11.10. Related Studies

Literature reviews indicate substantial discussion surrounding the operationalization of work efforts. Researchers often apply their unique criteria instead of encompassing all aspects of work effort outlined in widely recognized conceptual definitions (e.g., Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Kanfer, 1991, as cited in Yilmaz, 2019, p. 29).

Kim and Beehr (2020) conducted a study with 346 full-time employees in the United States. They discovered a positive relationship between work effort, psychological empowerment, and organization-based self-esteem. Rupietta and Beckmann (2018) investigated how working from home affects employees' commitment. Their research indicated a notable positive correlation between remote work and job effort. Furthermore, they emphasized that remote work is crucial, finding that a greater frequency of working from home leads to enhanced work effort (Geh, p. e355).

In a study of 240 employees from Turkey and Azerbaijan, Türkmen (2016) found that workplace ostracism adversely affects work effort, causing a decline. In a study involving 1,179 employees from two organizations in the southwestern United States, Kacmar (2007) discovered that those who view their relationship with their supervisor negatively tend to exert the most effort under decentralized decision-making. In contrast, their effort significantly diminishes under highly centralized decision-making processes.

Brockner et al. (1992) examined how job uncertainty caused by layoffs affects the work effort of remaining employees. Their research revealed that work effort peaked at moderate levels of job insecurity, especially when perceived risk and control were either high or low, contrasting sharply with very high or low levels of job insecurity (Geh, p. e356).

1.11.11. Measuring Work Effort

A thorough examination of current studies reveals a significant lack of a widely recognized tool for evaluating work effort. This tool must consider various aspects of effort while distinguishing it from performance. This deficiency emphasizes the need for further research to improve the conceptualization and assessment of work effort in diverse contexts (De Cooman et al., 2009).

Locke et al. (1981) defined work effort through three subdimensions: direction, intensity (amplitude), and duration. These describe the selected actions, the vigor applied, and the time spent. Building on this, Campbell (1990) identified three critical employee decisions: the level of effort to invest, how long to maintain it, and the resulting outcomes (De Cooman et al., 2009). Kanfer (1990) stressed these dimensions as crucial to motivation: direction (chosen actions), intensity (effort level), and persistence (duration of effort). These dimensions contribute to measurable performance outcomes. Meanwhile, Campbell and Pritchard (1983) emphasized two main aspects of work effort: the time spent on tasks and activity intensity, reflecting evolving perspectives on effort's role in performance (De Cooman et al., 2009, p. 267).

Campbell (1990) refined his framework to identify three key elements of effort: direction (the chosen task), intensity (the energy exerted), and persistence (consistency over time). This aligns with Kanfer (1990) and Locke and Latham (1990), who also discuss direction, intensity, and persistence as crucial to motivation and performance. These views underscore the effort's complex, dynamic, and multidimensional nature (De Cooman et al., 2009, p. 267).

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION, ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1. The Concepts of Organizational Identification, Organizational Identity, and Organizational Commitment

While identification has been academically recognized for decades, its first significant exploration was attributed to Sigmund Freud in 1922. Freud describes this idea as an individual's emotional connection with another person. Although Freud is credited with the initial articulation of this concept, it can be argued that Taylor (1911), who emphasized the alignment of personal and organizational interests between management and employees, underscores its importance. As a result, this idea extended to organizations, introducing the notion of organizational identification in the literature (Gautam et al., 2004: 302; Ashforth et al., 2008: 326, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 50)

Harold Lasswell (1935) was one of the first to investigate and examine the concept of identification within psychological, sociological, and linguistic sciences. He suggested that this concept arises from the idea of similarity, where individuals form connections with others who share common traits, exhibit resemblances to themselves, and gain significance and strength in these relationships (Silva, 2007: 7, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 50).

Kelman (1958: 53) emphasizes the importance of social influence on human behavior and attitudes, suggesting that it can lead to numerous individual changes. He identifies three different processes involved in social influence: adaptation, identification, and internalization. Identification occurs as individuals strive to establish a self-defining connection with others or groups. Consequently, individuals can fully engage in the identification process when this relationship becomes more precise or more tangible than other relationships. In this context, Kelman's (1958) most significant contribution to the literature on identification is his assertion that a specific type of relationship exists between employees and the organizations they work for. This relationship entails self-determination and self-awareness in shaping employee identification (Edwards, 2005: 209, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 50-51).

Identification happens when a person connects with another individual or community, perceiving actions directed at them as personal and forming a strong emotional bond. Organizational identification refers to the degree to which an individual's identity aligns with

the organization's. Consequently, individuals tend to perceive both positive and negative organizational events as personal successes or failures, assuming responsibility for these occurrences (Kocel, 2005: 534, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 51).

It is noted that employees who identify with their organizations exhibit a positive attitude toward the organization and demonstrate higher work performance compared to their colleagues (Cheney, 1983: 146-147, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 51). Furthermore, these individuals see themselves as representatives of the organization beyond its boundaries. As a result, they prioritize the organization's interests over their own, guiding strategic decisions in alignment with the organization's best interests (Miller et al., 2000: 628, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 51).

In the existing literature, organizational identification is somewhat compared to organizational commitment, with scholars noting their similarities (Riketta, 2005: 365; Ashforth and Mael, 1989: 24, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 51). However, when examined closely, it is clear that organizational identification fundamentally differs from organizational commitment. The primary distinction between these two concepts lies in the theories that underpin them, as organizational identification is tied to social identity theory. It focuses on an individual's alignment with the organization and deep sense of belonging (Ashforth and Mael, 1989: 25-26, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 51). Another contrasting aspect involves the formation of these behaviors. Organizational identification stems from a subconscious process in which individuals compare their identities with those of the organization and ultimately perceive a connection between the two identities upon reflection. This subconscious evaluation significantly affects an individual's attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. Furthermore, after comparing the two identities, a greater sense of harmony and a stronger identification with the organization is observed (Foreman, Whetten, 2002: 619, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 51).

Organizational theorists concentrate on illustrating the relationship between individuals and the organization. The alignment of individual and organizational interests, along with its indirect influence on employee motivation and performance, underscores the significance of

organizational identification, which reflects the feeling of being one with the organization. Embracing organizational values as part of their identity leads individuals to display positive behaviors and attitudes toward the organization. Beyond fulfilling the need for belonging, identified individuals demonstrate behaviors and attitudes that enhance the organization's effectiveness and efficiency. (Alkan, 2016, p. 73).

According to Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994), organizations can be described as social systems shaped by individual behavior through roles, norms, and values. When employees identify with the organization, their productivity and self-esteem increase, creating a sense of attachment. This positive relationship connects their identity with the organization's sustainability. Therefore, it is essential to recognize the significance of organizational identification in organizational behavior studies. The concept of identification at various levels of analysis—organization, profession, individual, and group—stems from the inherent intrinsic drive for affiliation with a social class within the individual. In other words, organizational identification reflects an individual's sense of self and, when combined with the organization, aligns personal purposes, going beyond mere loyalty to signify a more profound phenomenon (Alkan, 2016, p. 74).

The tendency of individuals to identify with their work becomes more pronounced as societies and organizations experience greater instability. In contrast, the relationships between individuals and organizations grow increasingly uncertain (Ashforth et al., 2008, as cited in He & Brown, 2013, p. 14). The application of social identity theory has been thorough in clarifying the distinctions between employees and organizations (Ashforth et al., 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Hogg & Terry, 2001, as cited in He & Brown, 2013, p. 14). Ashforth & Mael (1989) and Hogg & Terry (2000) argue that individuals can identify with organizations due to their roles as potentially salient social categories (He & Brown, 2013, p. 14). Employees who experience a sense of belonging and unity with their organization demonstrate organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, as cited in He & Brown, 2013, p. 14). Organizational identification reflects how employees connect with the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, as cited in Li & Brown, 2013, p. 14).

Tajfel and Turner (1985) state that organizational identification theory is closely related to social identity (Erden, p. 20). The assumptions of social identity theory are based on categorizing individuals into social classes, such as work, age, gender, occupation, and religion (Erden, 2015, p. 20). For individuals, organizations can be viewed as social classes. Organizational identification is described as belonging to the group, sharing a common identity, forming a strong emotional bond with the group, and taking responsibility for the group's successes and failures (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992, as cited in Erden, 2015, p. 21). Organizational identification involves aligning personal values with the organization's goals, relevant to organizational objectives and individual needs (Hall et al., 1970, as cited in Erden, 2015, p. 21).

The study of organizational identification is a well-established field within organizational behavior (Thang, 2022, p. 1). An increasing number of academic works support the processes related to organizational identification (OI), which is crucial for ensuring that employees focus their efforts on achieving the organization's objectives. However, several issues arise regarding how organizational identification (OI) has been defined and applied in current academic literature (Edwards, 2005, p. 207). Organizational identification is a composite concept that incorporates both social identification—an individual's recognition of their membership in an organization, appreciation of its values, and emotional connection to it—and cultural identification, which refers to an individual's sense of belonging and commitment to an organization's culture and values (Thang, 2022, p.1). March from Stanford University and Simon from Carnegie Mellon University were the first to introduce and develop the concept of organizational identification in 1958. Despite being established over 20 years ago, it has garnered limited scholarly attention from researchers (Thang, 2022, p.1). According to Ashforth (2016), organizational identification gained new recognition as an independent variable in organizational behavior and social psychology when Ashforth and Mael (1989) bridged the gap between social psychology theory and organizational behavior research. They introduced social identification theory to explain organizational identification, which led to renewed interest and focus. Since then, it has gradually evolved into a significant area of research (Thang, 2022, p.1).

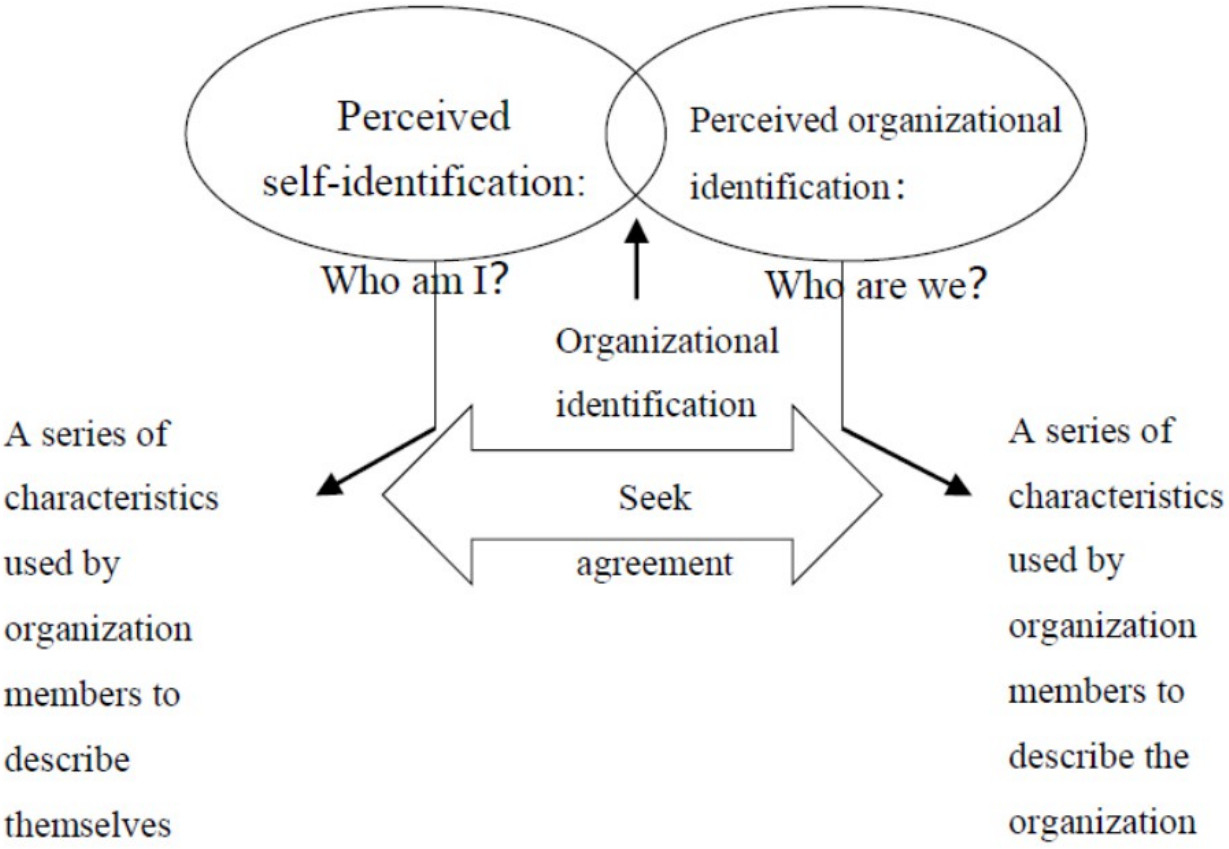


Figure 1. Formation process of organizational identification (Source: Xi (2008) [15]. (Thang, 2022, p.3).

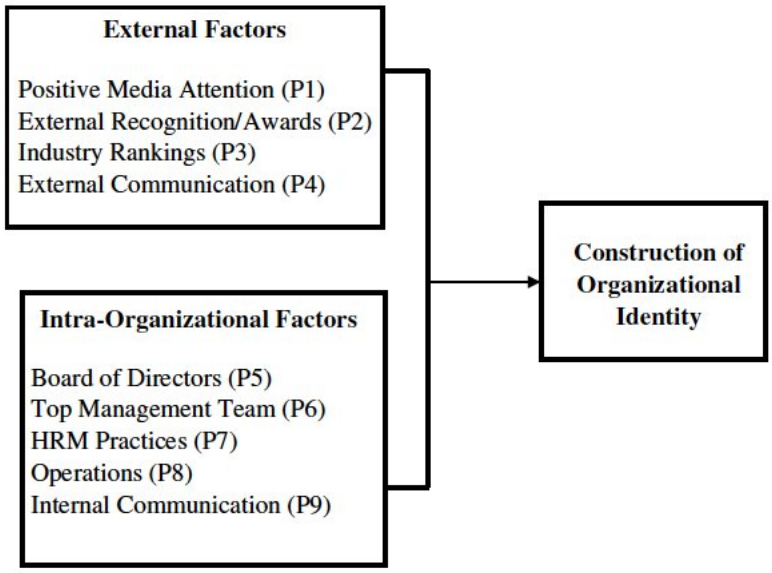
The concept of organizational identity emerged from studying identity at the individual level. Albert and Whetten were the pioneers who introduced this idea in 1985. It is suggested that organizational identity includes the characteristics of an organization that its members view as central, distinctive, enduring, or continuous, reflecting on past, present, and future perspectives (Puusa, 2006, p. 24). Organizations play a crucial role in defining identities, both individually and collectively. They serve as environments where tasks are

carried out, contributing to this definition. The distinctive identities of organizations arise from the interplay between individual and group dynamics.

Furthermore, organizations are entities focused on tasks. Nevertheless, they also have structured frameworks in which employees with unique personal identities operate within networks of various member roles (Jenkins, 2008:45, as cited in Celebi, 2019, p. 33). Organizational identity is used to collectively understand an organization's members' fundamental and relatively stable traits. It differentiates the organization from others by highlighting its unique characteristics (Albert & Whetten, 1985; cited in Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000:64, as cited in Celebi, 2019, p. 33).

Organizational identity encompasses members' perceptions, emotions, and thoughts about their organization's past, present, and future. Organizational identity significantly influences the adjustment of behavioral norms among organizational members (Akbari et al., 2014). According to Rahmanseresht and Farhadinejad (2010), managers employ symbolic mechanisms to create and confirm a distinctive organizational identity. This unique identity fosters self-regulation among members, helping them achieve performance goals, attract and retain talent, gain recognition, ensure stability, and adapt to changing conditions more easily (Akbari et al., 2014, p. 42). Researchers and practitioners have recently shown substantial interest in organizational identity as a critical competitive advantage for organizations. Therefore, it represents a unique characteristic that sets an organization apart. Managers should understand, cultivate, and reinforce organizational identity because when employees strongly identify with the organization, it reduces turnover rates and enhances organizational behavior that aligns with the organization's goals, ultimately helping employees meet the organization's objectives (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996, as cited in Akbari, Kashani, Nikookar & Javad Ghaemi, 2014, p. 42). Job involvement is one of the most critical factors contributing to the formation of organizational identity (Akbari et al., 2014, p. 42). It plays a mediating role, especially in societies where servant leadership is viewed as effective for promoting job involvement, where individuals become emotionally, cognitively, and psychologically engaged in their work, showing significant interest in their tasks (Paullay et al., 1994), as cited in Akbari et al., 2014, pp. 42-43). Albert and Whetten introduced the concept in 1985, stating that organizational identity reflects the traits within a company that its members consider vital, exceptional, and lasting. It addresses an organization's identity by thoroughly

describing it (Sillince, 2006, as cited in Akbari, Kashani, Nikookar & Javad Ghaemi, 2014, p. 43). Organizational identity represents the degree to which it defines the connection between individuals and the organization they are associated with. Scholars specializing in organizational identity define it as the extent to which members feel integrated into their organization, where individuals shape their self-concept based on the attributes of their organization (Hall & Schneider, 1972, as cited in Akbari, Kashani, Nikookar & Javad Ghaemi, 2014, p. 43).



The Construction of Organizational Identity: Key Contributing External and Intra-Organizational Factors

The concepts of organizational identity and identification are receiving increasing interest from scholars and practitioners. Researchers often turn to these concepts for a better understanding of organizational dynamics. Traditional organizational structures are being dismantled globally, leading firms to depend on a geographically dispersed workforce. This trend results in diverse skills, social and cultural fragmentation, and a heightened focus on

virtual connections (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000, as cited in Kocoglu, Erat & Imamoglu, 2019, p. 8). The two concepts are traditionally seen as inseparable. Over more than twenty years, this close union has led to numerous misunderstandings regarding their descriptions and distinct effects on organizational outcomes (He & Brown, 2013, as cited in Kocoglu, Erat & Imamoglu, 2019, p. 8).

Research on the two concepts indicates that while there is a need for organizational identity and organizational identification to invest substantial effort in redefining, reconceptualizing, and operationalizing these concepts to more accurately reflect their distinctiveness, only a limited number of studies have effectively distinguished between organizational identity and organizational identification. Furthermore, they have systematically examined how these factors influence outcomes at both the organizational and individual levels through empirical assessment (Kocoglu et al., 2019, p. 8). Organizational identity is a significant concept that holds influence across various management fields, including strategic management, organizational behavior, and marketing (Balmer & Greyser, 2006; Brickson, 2005; Brown et al., 2006; Corley, 2004; Cornelissen et al., 2007; He, Li, & Harris, 2012; Jo Hatch & Schultz, 1997, as cited in Kocoglu, Erat & Imamoglu, 2019, p. 9). Initially introduced in the seminal work by Albert and Whetten in 1985, organizational identity clarifies the characteristics perceived as central, distinctive, and stable by members of a particular organization (Albert & Whetten, 1985, as cited in Kocoglu, Erat & Imamoglu, 2019, p. 9). Despite numerous definitions of organizational identity over the past three decades, scholars indicate that it represents the self-referential meaning that arises from each member's effort to define their organization based on their self-perception. It is suggested that linking one's self-definition with one's sense of self as an organizational member is motivated by cognitive and emotional factors. Therefore, organizational identity is formed by combining the perceived self-concept of the organization's members with that of the organization, resulting in a shared understanding of how the organization's culture, history, structure, and characteristics are interpreted (Haslam, Postmes, & Ellemers, 2003; Martin, Johnson, & French, 2011, as cited in Kocoglu, Erat & Imamoglu, 2019, p. 9).

Recently, organizations have encountered a more competitive global business environment. This situation forces them to adopt policies that enhance workplace commitment while encouraging managers to develop conflict management skills (Balay, 2007, p. 312).

The growing interest in organizational commitment and job satisfaction has resulted in numerous studies on these subjects. The relationships between these concepts and their links to other organizational factors enrich the research landscape and produce varied findings across different sectors (Yenihan, 2014, as cited in Avunduk, 2021, p. 147). In this context, organizational commitment refers to the psychological bond between employees and their organization. It involves embracing the organization's goals and objectives and the individual's willingness to remain with the organization (Gül et al., 2008; Çarıkçı & Çelikkol, 2009, as cited in Avunduk, 2021, p. 147).

Organizational commitment is widely discussed within organizational behavior and has received academic research attention for many years. Scholars generally agree that organizational commitment represents a psychological state reflecting the relationship between employees and their organization (Güçlü, 2006, p. 8 & Varol, 2010, p. 3, as cited in Aksoy, 2017, p. 22). Organizational commitment is a prevalent work attitude studied for its significant impact on outcomes such as work performance (Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1982; Dirani, 2009; Yousef, 2000, as cited in Al Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2017, p. 152).

Organizational commitment significantly impacts an organization's success. Consequently, some organizations require commitment as a qualification for positions (Agung & Lussy, 2012). Steers and Porter (1991) indicate that dedicated employees will likely boost productivity. Organizational commitment refers to the degree to which employees support and wish to remain with their organization (Blau & Boal, 1987). Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) state that it reflects an individual's connection to the organization and its goals. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) found that organizational commitment is crucial for assessing employee trends and individual involvement, helping to understand members' desires to stay and their willingness to pursue organizational goals and norms (Hadi & Tentama, 2020, pp. 148-149).

Organizational commitment emerges as a crucial factor influencing various outcome variables. Employees committed to their organization exhibit increased happiness and are

likelier to engage in activities that enhance the organization's image than its competitors. Additionally, absenteeism rates and employee turnover intentions are notably low among these individuals, as they are deeply engaged with organizational tasks and strive to reach their full potential (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Somers, 1995, as cited in Z, Khan, S. Khan & Shahzad, 2013, p 848).

2.2 Theoretical Background

Identification is continuous, as individuals often align with a specific social group. Employees adopt the values and norms of the organization once they thoroughly associate with it (Enes, 2018, p. 31). In recent years, there has been a significant shift influenced by external factors, leading to employees frequently changing jobs. Organizational identity (OI) describes how employees form a sense of self and connect with the organization, a concept rooted in social identity theory. The transfer of organizational identity refers to the extent to which employees embrace and practice the organization's values (Enes, 2018, p. 32). Freud (1922, as cited in Enes, 2018, p. 32) suggests that identification constitutes an "emotional tie with another person." Patchen (1970) contends that this perspective was later applied to organizational identification (Enes, 2018, p. 32). Miller, Allen, Casey, and Johnson (2000) argue that employees grasp organizational goals and domains through identification, where their values correspond and influence organizational objectives and activities while reducing ambiguity by embracing organizational aims and values (Yildiz, 2013, p. 265). Shamir and Kark (2004) maintain that organizational identification represents a strong and essential connection that illustrates the psychological link between an employee and the organization. Moreover, it can describe numerous crucial organizational attitudes and behaviors (Yildiz, 2013, p. 265). Eroglu (2008) and Riketta (2005) note that organizational identification is essential for organizations to thrive and effectively achieve their goals (Yildiz, 2013, p. 265). Since its inception, organizational identification has contributed to positive employee outcomes (Tarakci et al., 2018, as cited in Burki & Bashir, 2020, p. 1).

Organizational identification is a frequently described concept grounded in the organization's context. Researchers have usually turned to Tajfel's social identity theory (1974), which is based on the significance of membership in a specific social group and the emotional and

calculating importance connected with that sense of belonging (Freire et al., 2022, p. 4). Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that the concept of organizational identity is created on the idea of belonging but goes further to include *"a sense of with"* or *"unity"* with an organization. This means feeling the success and failures of the organization as though they were one's own (Freire et al., 2022, p. 4). When organizational identification is robust, it displays the assimilation of elements that are *"distinctive, central, and enduring"* within the organization (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 242, as cited in Freire, Goncalves, and Carvalho, 2022, p. 4). Thus, Dutton et al. (1994) state that people are inclined to identify with the organization when their identity as a member takes priority over other characteristics that define the organization as a social group (Freire et al., 2022, p. 4).

According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), organizational identification serves as a clear framework of social identification that highlights an individual's connection to the company that employs them (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135). The current literature regarding the reasons behind identity is fragmented and deficient (Vignoles et al., 2006, as cited in Liu and Marley, 2022, p. 135); six psychological factors have previously been associated with organizational identification (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135). Vignoles et al. (2006) claim that these six factors consist of "self-esteem, distinctiveness, belonging, efficacy, meaning, continuity" (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135).

Self-esteem is the drive to maintain a positive self-concept (Gecas, 1982; Breakwell, 1986). Meanwhile, continuity refers to the motivation to achieve stability in one's self-identity over time (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135). According to Mandel & Ashforth (1992), a person experiences a sense of closeness and acceptance from others when they believe they belong; conversely, Brewer (1991) suggests that uniqueness drives individuals to distinguish themselves from others (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135). The extent to which a person feels capable and in control is called efficacy (Breakwell, 1993). Baumeister (1991) describes this as the sense of personal significance and having a purpose in life (Liu & Marley, 2022, p. 135).

Since the late 20th century, organizational identification has emerged as a significant concept in organizational behavior, attracting considerable interest from researchers and academics (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p.2499). Studies have shown that

organizational identification provides various benefits to organizations, with the primary advantage being the enhancement of employee performance and the alignment of individual aspirations with the organization's goals (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p. 2499). Additionally, organizational identification leads to increased personal ambition, a stronger sense of belonging and loyalty, reduced employee turnover, improved job satisfaction, and greater organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p.2499). Al-Maghrabi (2012) notes that organizational identification deepens the connection between employees and their organizations, strengthens alignment with organizational values, encourages justice and trust based on mutual respect, facilitates the match between job specifications and job occupants, and fosters harmonization between individual needs and organizational requirements (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p .2499).

According to Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Edward and Peccei (2007), organizational identification refers to the feeling of unity or affiliation with an organization, where individuals express themselves based on their membership in that organization (Oncer & Yildiz, 2012, p. 717). Furthermore, organizational identification can be characterized as a psychological connection between an individual and an organization, through which the individual experiences a profound, self-defining emotional and cognitive attachment to the organization as a social unit (Oncer & Yildiz, 2012, p. 717). Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, and Garud (1999) identify identification as the social and psychological connection between employees and the organization (Oncer & Yildiz, 2012, p. 717). Valackiene defines identifying with an organization as the active participation in processes that impact specific areas of activity and behavior. These processes are shaped by the organizational environment's interaction and the employees' adaptive behavior (Oncer & Yildiz, 2012, p. 717).

Table 2: Core Perspectives on Organizational Identification

Brown (1969), self-identification as the individual's response to the relationship between the individual and the organization. Key Features: The relationship has four aspects: organizational attraction, consistency in the goals of the individual and the organization,

loyalty to the organization, and the individual referring to themselves as members of the organization.
Lee (1971), alignment as the breadth of the individual's and organization's identities. Key Features: Belonging results from shared goals with others or employees feeling that their organizational function satisfies their personal needs.
Patchen's (1970), key characteristics include common interests and goals that are or have been established with organization members, a sense of loyalty and belonging to the organization, and an understanding that individuals support and defend the organization's goals and principles.
Hall (1970), organizational identification is the process through which individuals' objectives become more aligned with those of the organization, leading to enhanced integration and compatibility. Key Features include adopting the organization's goals and values and a deep emotional commitment to it.
Cheney (1983), identification refers to the active process through which individuals connect themselves with events within their social group. Key Features: An individual identifies with particular targets, such as people, families, groups, or partners, leading to a feeling of belonging to a specific group.
Cheney (1983) Definition: Identification is the process through which individuals connect themselves to events within their social group. Key Features: An individual aligns with certain targets, such as people, families, groups, or partners. Consequently, they may feel a sense of belonging to a particular group.
Ashforth and Mael (1989) define organizational identification as a unique type of social identification that signifies how individuals perceive their connection and unity with the organization. Key features encompass self-classification, the sense of being psychologically entangled with the organization's destiny, and the alignment with the organization's attitudes and values.

According to Pratt (1998), organizational identification happens when an individual feels that their organization defines their identity. Key Features: This process integrates a person's beliefs with the organization's. Self-identification reflects how one perceives one's identity within a social context.
Rousseau (1998) defines identification as a psychological state where an individual sees themselves as part of something. Specifically, organizational identification refers to the perception of oneself as a member of a larger organization. Key Specifications: Identification involves a cognitive and personal connection with the organization.
Dick (2001) defines organizational identification as a distinct type of social identification, reflecting an individual's sense of belonging to and unity with their organization. Key specifications include: - Affective Component: Emotional attachment to the group. - Conceptual Component: Understanding of one's membership. - Evaluative Component: Positive regard for the organization, such as feelings of pride. - Behavioral Component: Engaging in actions that demonstrate this identification.

Source: (Edwards, 2005, pp. 214-215).

Table 3: Forming of Organizational Identification

Stage 1: Founder's culture	Cultural solutions within new groups and organizations typically stem from their founders and initial leaders (Pettigrew, 1979).

Stage 2: Managers	Managers are often seen as members of a Managers are typically regarded as participants of a specific group. As noted by Schein (2015), (1) they have spent enough time together to confront important challenges, (2) they have had chances to address these challenges and witness the outcomes of their solutions, and (3) they have incorporated new members into the group.
Stage 3: Communication	Employee commitment seems directly linked to how communication quality is perceived (Smidts et al., 2001; Postmes et al., 2001; Cheney, 1983).
Stage 4: Psychological contract	Schein (1965) noted that individuals and organizations engage in a complex interplay. This relationship evolves through reciprocal influence and negotiation, leading to a functional psychological contract.
Stage 5: Common organizational value sharing	De Long and Fahey (2000) argued that the values and norms embraced by members of an organization assist in creating specific sensemaking filters meaning-construction
Stage 6: Decision making premises	When people embrace an organization's values and objectives, they create decision-making foundations that align with its value—and goal-oriented frameworks

	(Simon, 1976).

Source: (Enes, 2018, p. 34).

2.3. Components of Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1984) suggested differentiating between affective and continuance commitment. Affective commitment involves emotional attachment and engagement with the organization, whereas continuance commitment pertains to the perceived costs of leaving. Allen and Meyer (1990) introduced a third component of commitment: normative commitment, which represents an obligation to stay within the organization (Meyer et al., 2002, p. 21).

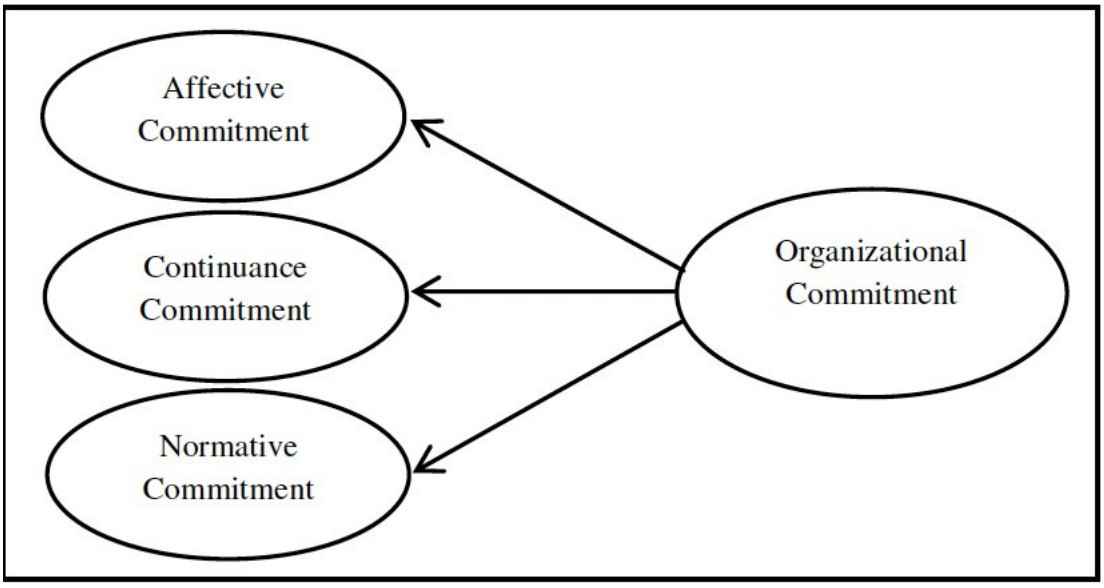


Figure- 1. Conceptual Framework of Organizational Commitment

Source: Based on Hadi and Tentama (2020)

2.4. Importance of Organizational Commitment

In today's globalized world, the human element—especially employee engagement and organizational commitment—is becoming increasingly vital. Previous research shows that employees who are firmly committed to their organizations demonstrate higher productivity, greater responsibility, and positively contribute to overall performance (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Wang & Wong, 2011). This commitment significantly shapes employee behavior and plays a key role in enhancing organizational performance (García Almeida, Fernández Monroy, & Saá Pérez, 2015, as cited in Surucu & Maslakci, 2018, pp. 51-52).

Numerous studies have examined organizational commitment as a vital behavioral variable. These studies indicate connections to increased absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, and low job satisfaction. They emphasize the importance of analyzing the causes of these issues and underscore that improving organizational commitment can help reduce absenteeism and turnover in any work environment (Al-Halboosi and Inan, p. 2).

Organizations with high employee commitment tend to operate more efficiently and effectively. Employees who exhibit strong commitment are less likely to engage in negative behaviors such as absenteeism and lateness than those who do not demonstrate commitment. Those who align with the organization's goals and work to meet expectations contribute to a competitive advantage (Cica, 2023, p. 5).

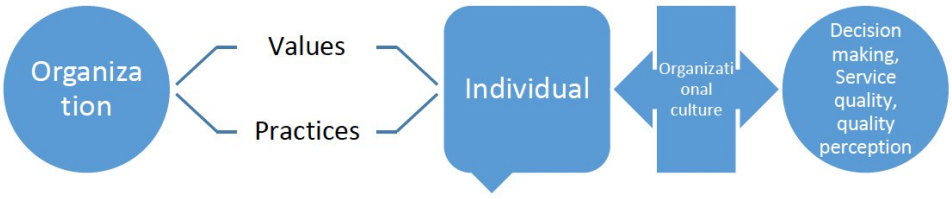
2.5 Components of Organizational Identification

Miller et al. (2000) highlight that organizations recruit employees committed to achieving organizational and personal goals. Employees are expected to show dedication to their work and a sense of belonging to the organization, as those who identify with it are more likely to embrace its image and values (Basar & Basim, 2015). Mael & Ashforth (2001) suggest that such identification stems from commitment and nurtures positive beliefs, perspectives, and emotions toward the organization (Basar & Basim, 2015).

Pratt (1998) underlines that organizational identification pertains to the question, "*Who am I about the organization?* (Witting, 2006, p.1).

Pitchen (1971) argues that organizational identification consists of three components based on his theory, as outlined below: Organizational loyalty refers to the degree to which

employees support and feel committed to the organization in achieving its goals. Affiliation (membership), on the other hand, involves a psychological sense rooted in pride, belonging, and the connections that come with being part of an organization. Organizational similarity is the extent to which the organization's objectives and principles align with those of its employees. According to Glynn (1998), organizational identification does not cease; it evolves and is continuously influenced. It is shaped by the environment in which employees seek to connect with individuals, groups, or organizations and to effect change among their peers (Ghannam & Taamneh, 2017, p. 1028).



2.6. The Relationship Between Organizational Identification and Organizational Identity

Early efforts were made to highlight the significance of organizational identification of work-related attitudes and performance (Brown, 1969; Cheney, 1983; Lee, 1969, 1971; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Rotondi, 1975, as cited in Dick, 2004, p. 173). Nonetheless, these initial formulations lack theoretical depth, and the empirical measures employed are challenging to distinguish from other concepts such as "job involvement, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, or turnover intentions" (Dick, 2004, p. 173). During the late 1970s, social identity theory emerged as a psychological framework intended to clarify intergroup conflicts and discrimination (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1979, as cited in Dick, 2004, p. 173). The Social Identity Approach, as defined by Haslam (2001) and explored by Zick (1990), encompasses two interconnected theories: Social Identity Theory (SIT) proposed by Tajfel and Turner (1979, 1986) and Self-Categorization Theory (SCT) (Turner et al., 1987,

as cited in Dick, 2004, p. 174). SIT was initially developed to describe intergroup attitudes, positing that behaviors related to a group are linked to an individual's self-definition. According to this theory, group membership plays a crucial role in shaping a part of an individual's identity, known as their social identity (Dick, 2004, p. 174). Tajfel and Turner (1986, p. 16) assert that the central tenets of SIT can be briefly outlined through three assumptions: (1) individuals strive to create or enhance positive self-esteem; (2) part of an individual's self-concept, termed social identity, is rooted in their group memberships; and (3) to maintain a favorable social identity, individuals engage in activities aimed at achieving positive differentiation between their ingroup and relevant outgroups (Dick, 2004, p. 174).

Ashforth and Mael (1989, p. 20) cite Brown (1969), Hall et al. (1970), Lee (1971), O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Patchen (1970), and Rotondi (1975) as having established that organizational identification has long been recognized in the literature as a significant factor influencing organizational behavior and affecting an organization`s effectiveness as well as its ability to meet the needs of its members. They also assert that organizational identification can be accurately understood through social identity theory, which provides valuable insights into organizational behavior. According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), individuals often categorize themselves and others into various social groups based on a range of factors, including gender, age cohort, religious affiliation, organizational membership, and gender (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 20).

Organizational behavior encompasses two interrelated concepts: organizational identification and organizational identity, which refer to how individuals and groups associate with and perceive themselves as part of their respective organizations. Dutton et al. (1994) examined various written works and applied social identity theory to elucidate organizational identification, incorporating some modifications. According to their findings, organizational identification can be defined as the extent to which an individual's self-concept aligns with the perceived organizational identity (Edwards, 2005, p. 212). Dutton et al. (1994) argue that an individual exhibits a strong organizational identification if two conditions are satisfied: 1) their identity as a member of the organization is more salient than other identities they hold, and 2) their self-concept shares many of the same attributes they believe characterize the organization as a social group (Edwards, 2005, p. 212). Brown (1969), Lee

(1969), and Patchen (1970) describe the expected behaviors, objectives, and values shared by organizations and individuals. This approach goes beyond the concept of organizational identification by employing social identity theory and acknowledging the integration of the organization's identity, such as goals, values, or characteristics, into the individual's self-concept (Edwards, 2005, p. 212). Organizational identity suggests that the psychology and behavior of individuals within an organization align with that organization's values and principles (Lu, 2023, p. 407). Employees with a strong organizational identity are more likely to support the organization and make decisions that reflect its objectives (Lu, 2023, p. 407). This highlights a strong connection between organizational identity and job performance. Therefore, when employees feel a sense of attachment and belonging to the organization, they tend to have a positive attitude toward it and consider themselves part of it (Lu, 2023, p. 407).

2.7. Importance of Organizational Identity

In today's highly competitive landscape, cultivating a positive organizational identity that conveys a sense of superiority is crucial for success and shapes organizational behavior. Recently, as our environment has become more complex and dynamic, and traditional structures have evolved, the importance of organizational identity has gained prominence, giving rise to new approaches (Tüzün & Çağlar, 2008: 1022; Van Riel & Balmer, 1997, p. 340, as cited in Hisarcioglu, 2022, pp. 13-14). This trend is a natural outcome of the rapid shifts occurring in both the macro environment and organizational frameworks. Technology is driving swift changes across all sectors, and organizations must adapt to keep pace with these developments (Hisarcioglu, 2022, p. 14)

Two key factors are driving the increasing interest in organizational identity. First, there is a need to understand the connection between individuals and the organization. Second, it is crucial to emphasize the benefits of identity perception for both employees and the organization (Taşdan, 2013: 5-6). Based on these points, we can conclude that organizational identity is important because of its capacity to influence and guide employee behavior (Hisarcioglu, 2022, p. 14).

An organization's identity significantly influences employee behavior, fosters a sense of belonging, and aligns individual efforts with the organization's goals. Rooted in Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, p. 40) and Organizational Identification research (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 23), it demonstrates how employees perceive and connect with their organization's values and culture. A strong organizational identity boosts work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74), improves job satisfaction (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 107), and strengthens commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 63).

2.8. Importance of Organizational Identification

Pratt (1998) posits that identification entails the construction of identity, yet individuals' relationships with organizations are shaped by their pre-existing personal and social identities. The various ways individuals connect with organizations are fundamental to the three versions of identification theory (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p. 2501). Rasheed (2003, pp. 31-32) asserts that organizational identification is essential for enhancing employee commitment, consistency, performance, and motivation, as well as for reducing conflicts and inconsistencies, strengthening loyalty, and fostering cooperation among employees. It also cultivates a sense of psychological connectivity among workers, encouraging them to perceive themselves as a team with a shared destiny (Harahsheh et al., 2023, p. 2501).

The significance of organizational identification can be defined by an organization`s ability to strongly influence its employees and the management`s capacity to foster conditions conducive to achieving its goals. Consequently, the level of identification has grown more critical, especially for successful organizations. These organizations understand that employee satisfaction and identification are essential to success and longevity. Furthermore, they recognize that these relationships positively affect their workforce's productivity and satisfaction (Ghannam & Taamneh, 2017, p. 1028).

Understanding the factors that promote organizational identification is crucial, as it has significant implications for individuals and organizations (Tuzun, 2009, p. 285). According to Pratt (1998; Schrodt, 2002; Wiesenfeld et al., 1998), positive organizational behaviors correlate with members' organizational identification levels (Tuzun, 2009, p. 285). A member's perception of how much they identify with the organization's objectives and

core values is influenced by their sense of identification (Miller et al., 2000). Additionally, supportive behavior toward the organization can be observed when members identify with it. The strength of identification is influenced by several factors (Tuzun, 2009, p. 285). Ashforth and Mael (1989) note that individuals who identify with their organization typically choose activities that align with its identity (Tuzun, 2009, p. 285).

Sokmen and Biyik (2016: 222) contend that organizations seek employees who can adapt to the evolving environment and contribute to their success. This necessitates individuals who align with the organization's goals, demonstrate commitment, view its success as their own, and fully embrace its values and objectives (Alintas, 20223, p. 53). When organizations provide sufficient physical support to their employees, those individuals connect their fate with their organization psychologically. They operate under the belief that their successes and failures are linked to those of the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992: 104, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 53). Therefore, employees who ultimately embrace their organization and perceive themselves as integral parts of it are inclined to guide their actions by a sense of representing the organization (Dutton et al., 1994, pp. 239–242; Mael and Ashforth, 1995: 312, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 53). Consequently, organizational identification is critical in management science research (Alintas, 2023, p. 53).

The common theme in studies on organizational identification is that it involves significant relationships at the individual, group, and organizational levels. From the individual perspective, organizational identification enhances employees' motivation, job performance, and creativity in the workplace. When employees align their identity with that of the organization, they are more willing to invest their personal and professional efforts in activities such as problem-solving, generating new ideas, and experimenting with various approaches (Imamoglu et al., 2021: 214, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 53). Consequently, this alignment leads to improved organizational performance and productivity. For example, successful and innovative practices of employees within the organization contribute to the generation of practical and creative outcomes for the organization (Dutton et al., 1994, pp. 239-242; Mael & Ashforth, 1995: 312, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 53).

According to Millward and Postmes (2010: 335), employees with a strong sense of organizational identification are likelier to take initiative in the organization's activities. This proactive approach enhances the organization's productivity, profitability, and financial

stability (Altintas, 2023, p. 53). Moreover, it can lead to increased employee motivation, reduced absenteeism, higher levels of cooperation and participation (Gautam et al., 2004: 305; Ashforth et al., 2008: 337), and additional efforts aligned with the organization's interests, significantly impacting role behaviors while fulfilling their responsibilities at work (Demirel et al., 2011: 93, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 53-54). Conversely, employees with low levels of organizational identification tend to experience job dissatisfaction and feelings of psychological inadequacy, leading to stress and anxiety. Consequently, they often display lower job performance, which can result in higher turnover, increased absenteeism, tardiness, and a lack of dedication to their work (Ashforth et al., 2008, p. 337; Knight & Haslam, 2010: 721, as cited in Altintas, 2023, p. 54).

According to Shamir and Kark (2004, p. 117), organizational identification is crucial for influencing member behavior and nurturing a strong connection between the organization's values and norms and its employees' identities (Altintas, 2023, p. 54). Organizational identification gives employees a sense of security, imparts meaning to their work life, and boosts their self-confidence (Tuzun and Caglar, 2008: 1012, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 54).

Moreover, employees can act by organizational values and norms without coercion (Gautam et al., 2004, p. 305). The managerial provision of psychological support encourages employees to align their efforts with the organization's goals and objectives, thereby enhancing the influence of employees' feelings and perceptions about their organization on their job performance (Dutton et al., 1994, pp. 239-224; Mael and Ashforth, 1995: 312, as cited in Alintas, 2023, p. 54).

2.9. Antecedes of Organizational Identification

Studying social identifications and the organizational identification process reveals that individuals shape their self-categorizations and foster identification through social comparisons (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996, as cited in Elsbach, 1999, p. 169-170). Furthermore, organizational researchers indicate that the primary drivers of these cognitive processes are affiliation and self-enhancement (Elsbach, 1999, p. 170). Pratt (1998) posits that self-categorization and social comparisons play a role in the organizational identification process by (1) emphasizing the positive distinctiveness of the organization and (2) highlighting the

collaboration and affiliation among its members (Elsbach, 1999, p. 170). In the first example, the identification process is enabled by clear inter-organizational categories and comparisons, which draw attention to the organization's relative position and the cherished core ideals that hold value (Elsbach, 1999, p. 170). In the second example, the identification process is supported by organizational-level categories that suggest internal coherence, uniformity, and a sense of belonging among the members (Elsbach, 1999, p. 170). In the literature, organizational identification (OI) has been characterized in various ways, referring to broader or narrower conceptualizations, such as Edwards 2005; Dutton et al. 1994; Dutton et al. 2010; Ashforth and Mael 1989; Ashforth et al. 2008, as cited in Freire, Goncalves & Carvalho, 2022, p. 4. For example, from a broader perspective, Ashforth and Mael (1989, p. 21) described the concept as 'the perception of oneness or belongingness to some human aggregate' (Freire et al., 2022, p. 4). Similarly, Dutton et al. (1994, p. 239) describe it as the stage in which a person's self-concept encompasses the same attributes as those within the perceived organizational identity' (Freire et al., 2022, pp. 4-5).

Rousseau (1998) argues that individuals should understand why they align with an organization. Furthermore, she indicates two classifications of identification: situational and deep structure (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Situational identification is more likely when there are mutual interests between the individual and the organization, and the outcome can be equally beneficial. This form of identification may cease once the task is completed and can be developed moderately. In this context, it is connected to the success of temporary jobs and may relate to emerging work models. An individual's collaboration with the organization may deepen when situational identification occurs. Deep structure emerges when individuals find their organizational experiences meaningful or essential (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Dutton et al. (1994) state that an individual's identification is shaped by how others perceive the organization (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5)

Perceived organizational identity and the interpreted organization, as presented by previous authors, emphasize two important images derived from external members (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Dutton et al. (1994) argue that these images significantly influence members' connection to the organization, serving as a crucial mental signal that either encourages or hinders an individual's affiliation with the organization (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). The first aspect relates to members' evaluation of the organization's character (i.e., members' beliefs

about the organization's distinctive, central, and enduring attributes). In contrast, the second aspect concerns members' perceptions of how external parties assess the organization. This concept is illustrated when employees recognize how customers view their organization through the lens of external stakeholders (Glavas & Godwin, 2013, as cited in Freire, Goncalves & Carvalho, 2022, p. 5). Ashforth & Mael (1999) believe that the connections members forge with the organization they belong to can lead to various outcomes affecting both individuals and the organizations involved (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Organizations must concentrate on the aspects that define and influence them in this context. Consequently, the literature has explored several antecedents of the organizational identification concept (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5)

Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that strong identification with an organization necessitates specific attributes, such as interpersonal engagement, similarity, shared preferences, psychological closeness, and common objectives (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). In addition to these factors, researchers have explored other antecedents of identification, including leadership (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumwa et al., 2011), perceived organizational support (Sluss et al., 2008; Subba, 2019), and social responsibility (He & Brown, 2013) (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Regarding the last antecedent identified, Farooq et al. (2014) utilized Tajfel's social identity theory (1974) to explain how social responsibility initiatives help enhance organizational identification. This concept applies to internal stakeholders and external entities, including the community and customers. Furthermore, the study emphasizes that employees' positive actions, attributed to these initiatives, foster organizational identification (Freire et al., 2022, p. 5). Employees increasingly seek organizations whose interests extend beyond mere business objectives. They desire connections to organizations beyond basic requirements, actively nurturing relationships with various stakeholders and the environment (Su & Swanson, 2019, as cited in Freire, Goncalves & Carvalho, 2022, p. 6).

2.10. Limitations of Organizational Identification

Avanzi, van Dick, Fraccaroli, & Sarchielli (2012) note that Galvin, Lange, & Ashforth (2015) argue that one of the most recognized limitations of organizational identification is overidentification, wherein an individual becomes excessively preoccupied with the

organization`s identity to the detriment of both the organization and the individual (Milton et al., 2016, p. 288). Ashforth et al. (2008), along with Dukerich, Kramer, & McLean Parks (1998) and Mael & Ashforth (1992), suggest that paranoia and distress can arise due to overidentification, coupled with a significant dependence on organizational policies. Additional shortcomings include a lack of organizational flexibility, antisocial and adversarial behavior by leaders and followers, implicit trust in organizational members that stifles innovation, and the deterioration of an automatic sense of self-esteem (Milton et al., 2016, p. 288). Ultimately, organizational identification lays the groundwork for understanding the relational aspects of connection, influence, and feelings of inclusion and belonging to the organization and its members (Milton et al., 2016, p. 289). Kreiner & Ashforth (2004, p. 2–3) argue that organizational identification can sometimes negatively impact both organizations and their employees, such as through excessive identification that leads to burnout, elevated stress levels, a loss of personal identity in favor of adopting organizational identities, and decreased sensitivity to organizational errors (Alintas, 2023, p. 55). Therefore, maintaining organizational identification at an optimal level is crucial, as excessively high levels may not always yield the desired outcomes. Implementing policies to manage organizational identification levels among employees is vital to achieving the right balance (Alintas, 2023, p. 55).

2.11. Related Studies

Research on organizational identification has evolved over the last 70 years. These studies are approached from various perspectives and can be divided into two parts. The first part spans from the 1940s to 1979. The second part begins with Tajfel and Turner's social identity theory in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Tokgöz, 2012, p. 35). Organizational identification represents a distinctive form of social identification. Freud (1922) initially described identification as a deep psychological connection with another person. Later, Lasswell (1965) broadened this concept to encompass collective connections, such as nationalism. Following this evolution, Patchen (1970) adapted the notion of relationships within organizations and workplace interactions (Gautam et al., 2004, p. 302).

Edward Tolman conducted the first study on organizational identification in 1943. In this research, he identified three interconnected types of identification, which, while related, are notably different from one another.

- She mimicked an older individual, especially one admired or trusted, to serve as a role model or source of inspiration.
- A person's connection to any group they identify with
- The individual accepts identification as a motivating factor for action

(Tolman, In 1947 (pp. 141-142), Edward C. Tolman (1943) emphasized that individuals who are identified with their group feel a strong connection to it, perceiving its future as their own, sharing its purpose, and experiencing its successes and failures while connecting their prestige to the group (Kose, 2009, pp. 2–3).

In 1951, Foote explored organizational identification as a motivational factor. He noted that individuals often associate with social groups around them and categorize others. Foote argued that such classifications can lead to positive or negative outcomes for individuals, influencing their behavioral patterns based on these categorizations. Furthermore, he asserted that when people see themselves as part of their organization, they are motivated to work for its benefit (Foote, 1951, p. 17). In 1958, Herbert Kelman examined the concept of organizational identification. He argued that understanding identification is critical for employees during organizational change processes (Tokgoz & Seymen, 2013, p. 63). Organizational identification is a fulfilling and self-defining connection with others or groups that develops as a person embraces that influence.

Brown (1969) defined organizational identification as a person's commitment to the organization. It includes four components: organizational attractiveness, goal alignment, loyalty, and membership reference (Kose, 2012, p. 36)

In their 1970 study, Hall et al. investigated how personal factors influence organizational commitment, finding a positive correlation between tenure and commitment. To expand on this research, Hall et al. conducted a follow-up study in 1972, analyzing the factors that result in different levels of organizational commitment among employees in various organizations (Hall & Schneider, 1972, p. 340, as cited in Kose, 2012, p. 36).

In the 1970s, Hall et al. (1970), Hall and Schneider (1972), Porter et al. (1974-1979), and Rotondi (1975) conducted studies on organizational identification. Hall et al. explored the

relationship between employee personal characteristics and organizational identification, uncovering a positive correlation between organizational identification and tenure (1970). Additionally, researchers investigated the factors that contributed to varying levels of organizational identification among employees across different organizations (Hall & Schneider, 1972, p. 340). In the 1990s, Henri Tajfel and John Turner (1985) formulated social identity theory to elucidate the concept of organizational identification. This theory, developed in social psychology, was first applied to organizational research by Ashforth and Mael (1989). Following this study, the concept began to be analyzed through the framework of social identity theory (Mael and Ashforth, 1992: 21, as cited in Cica, 2023, p. 68). In the 2000s, the notion of organizational identification was examined through the lens of the social identity approach, which combines social identity theory with self-categorization theory (Van Dick, 2001, p. 271, as cited in Cica, p. 68).

2.12. Measuring Organizational Identification

One of the earliest attempts to measure OI (Brown 1969) exemplifies a low epistemic correlation between operationalization and conceptualization. Brown defined OI as attraction to the organization, alignment of organizational and situational goals, loyalty, and identification with organizational membership (Edwards, 2005, p. 221).

However, Brown's scale does not effectively measure the construct, risking deficiency and contamination due to inadequate epistemic correlation. Face validity issues arise, as some items seem too hypothetical or complex, complicating interpretation. Brown's OI scale lacks construct and face validity (Edwards, 2005, p. 222).

Similar issues affect the OI scale used in studies from the early 1970s (Hall et al., 1970; Schneider et al., 1971). The measure includes seven modified items from Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) original 20-item job involvement scale. While the scale demonstrates reasonable face validity, its connection to Hall et al.'s conceptualization of OI is weak, raising content validity concerns. The authors define OI as aligning organizational and individual values and goals (Edwards, 2005, p. 222).

Cheney's (1982) original OIQ featured 25 items reflecting three components of OI identified by Patchen (1970): membership, loyalty, and similarity (p. 349). The items encompass

several potential concepts beyond the sub-dimensions of identification in the outlined conceptualization. Cheney's questionnaire measures value congruence, pride in the organization, perceived homogeneity of member values, self-description, citizenship behavior, loyalty, shared successes and failures, perceived organizational care, the tendency to discuss the organization, feelings of family, concern for its fate, warm feelings, and recognition of its success (Edwards, 2005, p. 222).

Another key operationalization is the six-item organizational identification (OI) scale by Mael and Ashforth (1992). They define organizational identification as 'the perception of oneness with an organization' (p. 104). However, their scale utilizes items from an existing scale developed by Mael and Tetrick (1992) to measure how much people feel they share experiences with their group.

While individuals connected to an organization may claim they share experiences with a psychological group, this does not fundamentally capture the essence of Organizational Identification (OI), primarily as defined by Mael and Ashforth in 1992.

Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale is widely employed in organizational identity literature (e.g., Bamber and Iyer, 2000; Moye & Bartol, 2001) and demonstrates robust reliability, averaging an alpha of 0.85 across six studies. A notable operationalization of OI proposed recently is the single-item graphic scale by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) (Edwards, 2005, p. 223). Shamir and colleagues (2000, 2004) and Dukerich et al. (2002) have utilized scale versions. These scale versions visually represent the merging identities of individuals and organizations, marking a significant advancement in measuring OI (Edwards, 2005, pp. 222-223).

2.13. The Relationship between Organizational Identity and Organizational Identification

Organizational identity appears in various contexts, often related to organizational behavior and culture, company mission, image, and communication. This variation leads to confusion regarding its definition and boundaries. Organizational identity encompasses a set of symbols, signs, and signals that differentiate a company from others, shaping its image for targeted audiences. This identity is intentionally crafted to establish a specific position

within society. The elements that form this identity include behavior, communication, and symbolism. According to Lakačkauskaitė (2012), identity is influenced by the organizational value system and culture, essentially making it a component of organizational philosophy. Balmer (2008) notes that corporate identification broadly represents the outward symbolic representation of the corporation, including its brand and culture, communicated through various channels and how individuals or groups identify with that brand or culture. Organizational identification represents a type of psychological attachment felt when members adopt the organization's defining traits as their own (Dutton, Dukerich, Harquail, 1994). Organizational identity describes how members perceive and interpret ‘who we are’ and ‘what we stand for’ as an organization (Boros, 2009), reflecting their thoughts, feelings, and understanding about their workplace (Kazlauskienė et al., 2025, p. 120).

A related concept to organizational identification is organizational identity. Organizational identification refers to solidarity with the organization that manifests in supportive attitudes, behaviors, and other shared traits among members. This concept is frequently confused with organizational identity (Scott-Findlay & Estabrooks, 2006, p. 499). While organizational identity relates to either the individual or the organization itself, organizational identification signifies the sense of belonging and unity experienced by members regarding the organization's achievements and challenges. It can be defined as a personal quality that reflects an individual's capacity to merge their identity with the core attributes of the organization's identity (Dutton et al., 1994, pp. 223-240; Demirtaş, 2018, pp. 276-277, as cited in Demirci, 2023, p. 76).

Identification matters because it relates to identity. Haslam and Ellemers (2005) explained that to identify with an organization, one must have an identity as a member. Identity situates a person in context, influencing cognitions, affect, and behaviors. Understanding identity helps explain human cognition and behavior, clarifying why people think and act as they do in various environments. It captures the essence of who individuals are, affecting their decisions to join or leave organizations, approach work, and interact with others. Identification is how people define themselves, communicate that definition, and navigate their lives, whether at work or beyond (Ashforth et al., 2008, p. 334).

2.14. The Relationship Organizational Commitment and Organizational Identification

Organizational identification and commitment are key variables in the study of organizational communication and culture. Morrow (1983) suggested that these concepts are theoretically similar. Tompkins and Cheney (1987) noted significant overlap, arguing that identification is more descriptive, yet studying both is valuable. They assert that both terms connect like form and substance, but defining their relationship has become unclear, leaving researchers puzzled about their distinctions (Ghannam & Taamneh, 2017, p. 1029).

Ashforth and Mael (1989) differentiate between organizational commitment and identification, particularly affective commitment. They describe organizational identification as self-defining, contributing to individuals' self-concept of 'Who am I?' This reflects a sense of belonging and outlines individuals' organizational membership (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; p. 104). Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner et al., 1987) propose that organizational identification is flexible, influenced by group salience and interaction contexts (Wagner & Ward, 1993; cf. Pratt, 2001). In contrast, once established, commitment is seen as a more stable and enduring attitude (Gautam et al., 2007, p. 305). Furthermore, identification and commitment emerge from different sources (Pratt, 1998). Identification depends on perceived similarity and shared fate with the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), while commitment arises from exchange factors, such as the material relationship between the individual and the organization (cf. Tyler & Blader, 2000). These developmental differences lead to varying outcomes for these concepts. To foster commitment, there must be genuine exchange and connection among individuals, coworkers, supervisors, and the organization. According to the social identity approach, interaction or future affiliation is unnecessary (Dutton et al., 1994). Employees can identify strongly with their organization from a distance (Gautam et al., 2007, p. 305).

2.15. The Relationships Between Work Engagement, Work Effort, And Organizational Identification

The connection between work engagement, work effort, and organizational identification creates a reinforcing cycle that benefits employees and organizations. Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined work engagement as vigor, dedication, and absorption, often motivating employees to exert more effort, exceeding their formal job responsibilities. When such efforts are acknowledged, employees typically develop a stronger identification with the organization, aligning their values with its mission and objectives (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This increased organizational identification further boosts engagement, resulting in a sustained commitment to the organization's success (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Organizations create a positive feedback loop that enhances individual performance and workplace harmony by fostering employee engagement and promoting shared values.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This part of the research explains the subject, purpose, hypotheses, universe, sample, data collection tools, and statistical analysis. Finally, it presents the interpretations of the obtained findings.

3.1 Problem Statement

Work engagement, defined by high energy, dedication, and deep work involvement, is a crucial predictor of enhanced employee effort. Nonetheless, how work engagement leads to increased effort still needs to be fully understood, especially regarding employees' feelings of connection to the organization. Organizational identification occurs when employees see themselves as essential members of the organization. This perception might influence the relationship between work engagement and work effort. Despite organizational identification's potential to bridge work engagement and work effort, there is limited empirical evidence explaining this mediation. Understanding this relationship is essential for organizations aiming to enhance performance outcomes through sustainable work efforts. Therefore, this study investigates whether and how organizational identification mediates the effect of work engagement on work effort. By elucidating this mechanism, we

seek to provide organizations with valuable insights on strengthening employee identification to boost work effort sustainably.

3.2. Research Objective

This study explores the mediator role of organizational identification in the effect of work engagement on work effort. Specifically, it investigates how employees' connections to their organization affect their work engagement and efforts to meet organizational goals. Data were collected from 350 employees in a technopark, offering a diverse and representative sample from various organizational roles. This setting allows a detailed exploration of how organizational identification may enhance the impact of work engagement on work effort. Through this analysis, the research seeks to provide insights into the mechanisms linking work engagement with work effort while emphasizing organizational identification as a crucial mediator. Additionally, it looks at job characteristics—like task variety, autonomy, and feedback—that shape these connections, thus offering a thorough understanding of the elements influencing employee motivation and performance. Ultimately, this research aspires to inform strategies organizations can implement to boost engagement and effort, thereby improving individual and organizational outcomes. Thus, the overall objectives of the study are stated below:

- To examine whether work engagement significantly affects work effort.
- To examine how the dimensions of work engagement (absorption and vigor) influence work effort.
- To examine whether work engagement significantly influences organizational identification.
- To examine how the dimensions of work engagement (absorption and vigor) affect organizational identification.
- To examine whether organizational identification significantly affects work effort.
- To examine whether organizational identification mediates the relationship between work engagement and work effort.
- To examine whether organizational identification scores differ by age.

- To examine whether work engagement scores differ by age.
- To examine whether work effort scores differ by age.
- To examine whether scale scores for organizational identification, work engagement, and work effort differ by gender.
- To examine whether organizational identification scores differ by gender.
- To examine whether work engagement scores differ by gender.
- To examine whether work effort scores differ by gender.
- To examine whether organizational identification scores differ by years of work.
- To examine whether work engagement scores differ by years of work.
- To examine whether work effort scores differ by years of work.
- To examine whether organizational identification scores differ by current work mode (e.g., remote, hybrid, on-site).
- To examine whether work engagement scores differ by current work mode.
- To examine whether work effort scores differ by current work mode.
- To examine whether organizational identification scores differ by daily work hours.
- To examine whether work engagement scores differ by daily work hours.
- To examine whether work effort scores differ by daily work hours.

3.4. Research Questions

- Does work engagement significantly affect work effort?
- How do the dimensions of work engagement (absorption and vigor) influence work effort?
- Does work engagement significantly influence organizational identification?
- How do the dimensions of work engagement (absorption and vigor) affect organizational identification?
- Does organizational identification significantly affect work effort?
- Does organizational identification mediate the relationship between work engagement and work effort?
- Do organizational identification scores differ by age?
- Do work engagement scores differ by age?

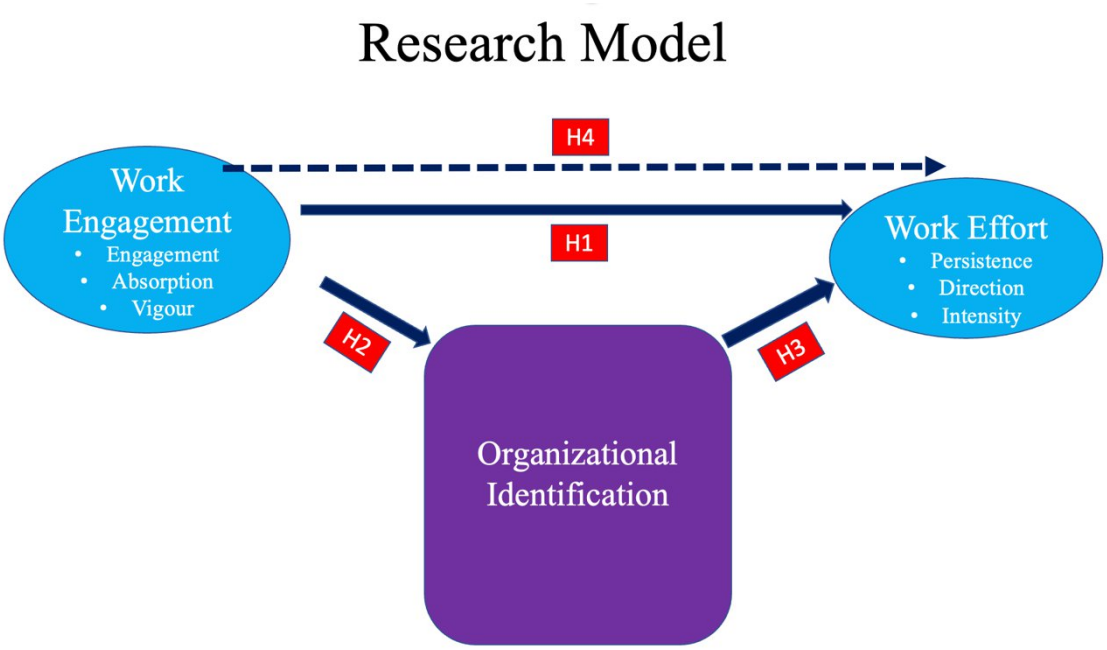
- Do work effort scores differ by age?
- Do scale scores for organizational identification, work engagement, and work effort differ by gender?
- Do organizational identification scores differ by gender?
- Do work engagement scores differ by gender?
- Do work effort scores differ by gender?
- Do organizational identification scores differ by years of work?
- Do work engagement scores differ by years of work?
- Do work effort scores differ by years of work?
- Do organizational identification scores differ by current work mode (e.g., remote, hybrid, on-site?
- Do work engagement scores differ by current work mode?
- Do work effort scores differ by current work mode?
- Do organizational identification scores differ by daily work hours?
- Do work engagement scores differ by daily work hours?
- Do work effort scores differ by daily work hours?

3.5. Research Importance

This research is of paramount importance as, to date, there has been a need for more investigation in Turkish academia concerning the variables I have chosen to explore. Consequently, this study holds significant value and merit. While prior research has addressed employee performance, this investigation uniquely assesses the mediating role of organizational identification in the relationship between work engagement and work effort. It is undeniable that organizations aspiring to endure and prosper over the long term necessitate the presence of engaged employees. In organizational identification, engaged employees whose contributions are crucial for organizational survival in a highly competitive business environment must align themselves with the organization's goals and objectives. Furthermore, the primary issue I have elected to examine is the correlation between employee identification with the organization and their subsequent engagement in work. This research will assess the efficacy of their efforts. The absence of prior studies addressing these concepts

that influence work effort has presented an opportunity to bridge this gap. Consequently, this research is both distinctive and crucial. Once this information is implemented, evaluating employees' efforts to comprehend how engaged employees can further advance the organization is imperative.

3.4. Research Model



3.5. Research Method

In this research, the quantitative research method and questionnaire technique were used. The primary purpose of the quantitative research method is to obtain objective, bias-free information, able to explain cause-and-effect relationships, and able to make generalizations from the sample to the population (Gall & Borg, 1996).

3.5.1. Research Hypotheses

***Hypothesis 1**: Work engagement affects Work Effort*

- *H1a: Engagement affects work effort*
- *H1b: Absorption affects work effort*
- *H1c: Vigour affects work effort*

Hypothesis 2*: Work engagement affects organizational identification*

- *H2a: Engagement affects organizational identification*
- *H2b: Absorption affects organizational identification*
- *H2c: Vigour affects organizational identification*

Hypothesis 3*: Organizational identification affects work effort*

Hypothesis 4*: Organizational identification has a mediator role in the effect of work engagement on work effort*

Hypothesis 5: Scale Scores Differ by Age

- *H5a: Organizational identification scores differ by Age*
- *H5b: Work engagement scores differ by Age*
- *H5c: Work effort scores differ by Age*

Hypothesis 6: Scale Scores Differ by Gender

- *H6a: Organizational identification scores differ by Gender*
- *H6b: Work engagement scores differ by Gender*
- *H6c: Work effort scores differ by Gender*

Hypothesis 7: Scale Scores Differ by Years of Work

- *H7a: Organizational identification scores differ by Years of Work*
- *H7b: Work engagement scores differ by Years of Work*
- *H7c: Work effort scores differ by Years of Work*

Hypothesis 8: Scale Scores Differ by Current Work Mode

- *H8a: Organizational identification scores differ by Current Work Mode*
- *H8b: Work engagement scores differ by Current Work Mode*
- *H8c: Work effort scores differ by Current Work Mode*

Hypothesis 9: Scale Scores Differ by Daily Work Hours

- *H9a: Organizational identification scores differ by Daily Work Hours*
- *H9b: Work engagement scores differ by Daily Work Hours*
- *H9c: Work effort scores differ by Daily Work Hours*

3.5.2. Population and Research Sampling

On April 20, 1988, the Council of Ministers expropriated 13 million m² of land in Pendik Kurtköy for ITEP purposes. Approximately 2.5 million square meters of land was set aside for Technopark Istanbul.

Technopark in figures as shown below.

Companies	483
National Projects	3680
R&D Engineers	10305
Intellectual and industrial property rights	433
Million exports ($)	614
Graduate R&D Engineer	1012
PhD R&D Engineers	193
Existing hatcheries	213
Graduate Incubator Companies	300
Monthly Application to Incubation Centers	30+
Number Of Incubation Companies in Technopark	85

Note. Data retrieved from Technopark (2024), “Technopark in Figures.” https://www.teknoparkistanbul.com.tr/rakamlarla-teknopark

This study's target population is Technopark employees in Istanbul. Due to restricted time and an expedited process, data was collected on campus by quickly meeting employees.

Data collection in the digital realm may require a significant time investment. Therefore, I opted to refrain from gathering data via email to mitigate the time-consuming processes. Because I could not visit employees’ offices during working hours, I attempted to encourage

their participation in my questionnaire during coffee breaks after lunch. However, the limited duration of lunchtime posed challenges in data collection. Consequently, I collected data from Technopark employees, specifically those organizations with a minimum of ten employees.

Furthermore, I endeavored to identify employees from a small-sized organization on campus. Before administering the questionnaire, I verified by inquiring whether their organization employed a minimum of ten individuals. Consequently, the data for this research was gathered from 350 employees whose organizations meet this employment criterion. Owing to time constraints, I sought to expedite the collection process by distributing printed questionnaires to the employees at Technopark for their completion.

3.5.3. Research Scales

3.5.3.1. Organizational identification

Mael and Ashforth (1992) created a six-item, one-dimensional scale to measure organizational identification. The researcher translated it into Turkish using a 5-point Likert scale.

3.5.3.2. Work Engagement

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) measures work engagement. It comprises 17 items and three engagement dimensions defined by Schaufeli et al. (2002): vigor, dedication, and absorption. Ozgur's (2011) work was used for the Turkish translation using a 6-point Likert scale.

3.5.3.3. Work Effort

De Cooman et al. (2009) created a 10-item scale measuring work effort. The scale has three dimensions: persistence, direction, and intensity. The researcher translated it into Turkish using a 7-point Likert scale.

3.5.4. Research Limitations

Although this study provides important insights into how organizational identification mediates the relationship between work engagement and work effort, there are notable limitations.

Firstly, the findings are based on cross-sectional data, which restricts the ability to determine causal relationships among the variables. Future research using longitudinal designs could clarify the directionality of these relationships.

Secondly, the data collection was based on self-reported measures, which can lead to common method bias or social desirability bias. Incorporating various data sources, like supervisor evaluations or objective performance metrics, could strengthen the robustness of the findings.

Third, the sample was sourced from a particular industry or region (feel free to add your context), potentially restricting the results' applicability to other sectors or cultural environments. Future studies could replicate the research in various organizational and cultural contexts to confirm the findings.

In conclusion, although the study emphasizes organizational identification as a mediator, it did not investigate other potential mediators or moderators, such as leadership style or organizational culture. Examining these additional factors, alongside job characteristics, might provide a more thorough insight into the relationships among work engagement, work effort, and organizational identification.

Although this study has limitations, it offers a fundamental framework for comprehending the relationship among these key concepts and serves as a basis for future research.

3.5.5. Data Analysis

SPSS 24.0 program was used for statistical analysis. While evaluating the study data, descriptive statistical methods (mean, standard deviation, median, frequency, ratio, minimum, maximum), as well as the conformity of quantitative data to normal distribution, were tested with the Skewness values of the cut-off points of the kurtosis and skewness values. An Independent-sample t-test was used to compare two groups with normal distribution, and the One-Way Anova Test was used to compare three or more groups. Bonferroni correction test was used in cases where there was a difference between the groups. The PROCESS macro developed by Hayes was used to measure the mediating effect. Significance was evaluated at $p<0.01$ and $p<0.05$ levels.

3.6. Research Findings

3.6.1. Basic Characteristics and Demographic Findings of the Participants in the Research

Table 1: Distribution by Gender

	Frequency	%
Male	121	33.4
Female	241	66.6

33.4% (n=121) of the participants were female, while 66.6% (n=241) were male.

Table 2: Distribution by Age

	Frequency	%
21-25	104	28.7
26-30	141	39.0
31-35	72	19.9
36 years and above	45	12.4

28.7% (n=104) of the participants were 21-25 years old, 39.0% (n=141) were 26-30 years old, 19.9% (n=72) were 31-35 years old, and 12.4% (n=45) were 36 years and above.

Table 3: Distribution by Marital Status

	Frequency	%
Single	234	64.6
Married	128	35.4

Of the participants, 64.6% (n=234) were single, and 35.4% (n=128) were married.

Table 4: Distribution by Parental Status

	Frequency	%
Yes	52	14.4
No	310	85.6

14.4% (n=52) of the participants had children, while 85.6% (n=310) did not have children.

Table 5: Distribution by Education

	Frequency	%
Associate degree	25	6.9
Bachelor's Degree	231	63.8
Master's Degree	106	29.3

6.9% (n=25) of the participants had an associate degree, 63.8% (n=231) had a bachelor's degree, and 29.3% (n=106) had a master's degree.

Table 6: Distribution by Number of Children

	Frequency	%
1	40	76.9
2	10	19.2
3 or more	2	3.8

Among the participants with children, 76.9% (n=40) had one child, 19.2% (n=10) had two children, and 3.8% (n=2) had three or more children.

Table 7: Distribution by Dependent Responsibility

	Frequency	%
Yes	32	8.8
No	330	91.2

8.8% (n=32) of the participants had someone they were responsible for, while 91.2% (n=330) did not have such a responsibility.

Table 8: Distribution by Regular Job

	Frequency	%
Yes	356	98.3
No	6	1.7

Of the participants, 98.3% (n=356) had a regular job, while 1.7% (n=6) did not have a regular job.

Table 9: Distribution by Years of Work

	Frequency	%
Less than 1 year	42	11.6
1-5 years	176	48.6
5-10 years	86	23.8
11 years and above	58	16.0

11.6% (n=42) of the participants had worked for less than 1 year, 48.6% (n=176) had worked for 1-5 years, 23.8% (n=86) had worked for 5-10 years, and 16.0% (n=58) had worked for 11 years and above.

Table 10: Distribution by Current Work Mode

	Frequency	%

Fully in-person	274	75.7
Fully remote	23	6.4
Hybrid	65	18.0

75.7% (n=274) of the participants worked entirely in person, 6.4% (n=23) worked thoroughly remotely, and 18.0% (n=65) worked in a hybrid mode.

Table 11: Distribution by Preferred Work Mode

	Frequency	%
Fully in-person	67	18.5
Fully remote	25	6.9
Sometimes in-person, sometimes remote	74	20.4
Hybrid	196	54.1

18.5% (n=67) of the participants preferred to work entirely in person, 6.9% (n=25) preferred to work entirely remotely, 20.4% (n=74) preferred sometimes working in person and sometimes remotely, and 54.1% (n=196) preferred a hybrid work model.

Table 12: Distribution by Daily Work Hours

	Frequency	%
6 hours or less	26	7.2
6-8 hours	145	40.1
8-10 hours	172	47.5
10 hours and above	19	5.2

7.2% (n=26) of the participants worked 6 hours or less daily, 40.1% (n=145) worked 6-8 hours daily, 47.5% (n=172) worked 8-10 hours daily, and 5.2% (n=19) worked 10 hours and above daily.

Table 13: Distribution by Sector

	Frequency	%
Private Sector	298	82.3
Public Sector	64	17.7

Of the participants, 82.3% (n=298) of the participants worked in the private sector, while 17.7% (n=64) worked in the public sector.

Table 14: Distribution by Monthly Income

	Frequency	%
20,000-25,000 TL	63	17.4
25,001-30,000 TL	46	12.7
30,001-35,000 TL	29	8.0
35,000-40,000 TL	39	10.8
40,001-45,000 TL	27	7.5
45,001 TL and above	158	43.6

17.4% (n=63) of the participants earned 20,000-25,000 TL, 12.7% (n=46) earned 25,001-30,000 TL, 8.0% (n=29) earned 30,001-35,000 TL, 10.8% (n=39) earned 35,000-40,000 TL, 7.5% (n=27) earned 40,001-45,000 TL, and 43.6% (n=158) earned 45,001 TL and above.

3.6.2. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Scales

3.6.2.1. Work Engagement Scale

Table 15: KMO ve Bartlett's Test Results for Work Engagement Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		**0.910**
	Chi-Square	2980.120
	Df	136
	Sig.	**<0.000**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Adequacy Test and Bartlett's Sphericity test were used to measure the adequacy of Factor Analysis. The closer the KMO measurement is to 1, the more appropriate it is to perform factor analysis on the available data group (Živadinović, 2004). Our study was calculated as 0.910, and it was deemed appropriate to analyze the data group.

Table 16: Factor Analysis Results for Work Engagement Scale

Factors/Items	**Factor Loading**	**Eigen value**	**Explained Variance (%)**
Vigour			
WORKENG1	0.745		
WORKENG2	0.819		
WORKENG3	0.789	6.657	39.156
WORKENG4	0.818		
WORKENG5	0.833		
WORKENG6	0.621		
Dedication			
WORKENG7	0.612	2.451	14.421
WORKENG8	0.661		

WORKENG9	0.596		
WORKENG10	0.615		
WORKENG11	0.603		
WORKENG12	0.652		
Absorption			
WORKENG13	0.689		
WORKENG14	0.766	1.155	6.795
WORKENG15	0.835		
WORKENG16	0.722		
WORKENG17	0.747		

According to the explanatory factor analysis results, the scale items comprise six factors. Table 7 gives the eigenvalue and variance explanation rate of each factor. The total variance explanation rate was calculated as 60.372%. The greater the variance rates obtained, the more decisive the factor structure is, and this value, between 40% and 60% in social areas, is sufficient (Karagöz, 2017).

In the analysis applied, the common factor variance of the factors on each variable, the factor loadings of the items, and the explained variance ratios were examined. To say that an item measures a construct or factor well, the value of this factor loading is expected to be 0.30 or above (Stevens, 2002). The factor loads of all the items in our study were 0.30 or above, as shown in Table 16.

3.6.2.2. Work Effort Scale

Table 17: KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Work Effort Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		**0.864**
	Chi-Square	2859.043
	Df	45
	Sig.	**<0.000**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Adequacy Test and Bartlett's Sphericity test were used to measure the adequacy of Factor Analysis. The closer the KMO measurement is to 1, the more appropriate it is to perform factor analysis on the available data group (Živadinović, 2004). Our study was calculated as 0.864, and it was deemed proper to analyze the data group.

Table 18: Factor Analysis Results for Work Effort Scale

Factors/Items	**Factor Loading**	**Eigen value**	**Explained Variance (%)**
Exploration			
WORK_EFFORT1	0.934	5.310	53.101
WORK_EFFORT2	0.925		
WORK_EFFORT3	0.912		
Generation			
WORK_EFFORT4	0.846	1.856	18.557
WORK_EFFORT5	0.857		
WORK_EFFORT6	0.761		
Implementation			
WORK_EFFORT7	0.644	0.900	8.996
WORK_EFFORT8	0.644		
WORK_EFFORT9	0.750		
WORK_EFFORT10	0.847		

According to the explanatory factor analysis results, the scale items consist of four factors. The eigenvalue and variance explanation rate of the factor are given in Table 18. The total variance explanation rate was calculated as 80.654%. It is accepted that the greater the variance rates obtained, the stronger the factor structure is, and this value between 40% and 60% in social areas is sufficient (Karagöz, 2017). In the analysis applied, the common factor variance of the factors on each variable, the factor loadings of the items, and the explained variance ratios were examined. In order to say that an item measures a construct or factor

well, the value of this factor load is expected to be 0.30 or above (Stevens, 2002). The factor loads of all the items in our study were 0.30 and above, as shown in Table 18.

3.6.2.3. Organizational Identification Scale

Table 19: KMO ve Bartlett's Test Results for Organizational Identification Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.874
	Chi-Square	1178.937
	Df	15
	Sig.	<0.000

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Adequacy Test and Bartlett's Sphericity test were used to measure the adequacy of Factor Analysis. The closer the KMO measurement is to 1, the more appropriate it is to perform factor analysis on the available data group (Živadinović, 2004). Our study was calculated as 0.874, and it was deemed appropriate to analyze the data group.

Table 20: Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Identification Scale

Factors/Items	Factor Loading	Eigen value	Explained Variance (%)
Exploration			
1	0.796		
2	0.802		
3	0.851	3.897	64.957
4	0.865		
5	0.819		
6	0.691		

According to the explanatory factor analysis results, the scale items consist of four factors. The eigenvalue and variance explanation rate of the factor are given in Table 7. The total variance explanation rate was calculated as 64.957%. It is accepted that the greater the variance rates obtained, the stronger the factor structure is, and this value between 40% and 60% in social areas is sufficient (Karagöz, 2017). In the analysis applied, the common factor variance of the factors on each variable, the factor loadings of the items, and the explained variance ratios were examined. In order to say that an item measures a construct or factor well, the value of this factor load is expected to be 0.30 or above (Stevens, 2002). The factor loads of all the items in our study were 0.30 and above, as shown in Table 20.

Table 21: Mean Scores, Normality Distributions, and Cronbach's Alpha Values

	Mean±SS	*Min-Max (Median)*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*	*Cronbach's Alpha*
Work Engagement					
Vigor	5.04±1.08	1-7 (5.08)	-1.207	1.005	*0.899*
Dedication	4.99±0.96	1.33-7 (5)	-0.432	0.716	*0.791*
Absorption	4.63±1.15	1-7 (4.8)	-0.881	1.236	*0.837*
Total	4.89±0.85	1.11-6.83 (4.94)	-0.583	1.117	*0.896*
Work Effort					
Persistence	5.73±1.45	1-7 (6)	-1.926	1.303	*0.950*
Direction	6.16±0.9	1-7 (6.33)	-1.371	1.990	*0.873*
İntensity	5.79±0.96	1.25-7 (6)	-1.429	1.403	*0.833*
Total	3.86±0.69	1-5 (4)	-1.650	1.529	*0.888*
Organizational Identification	3.4±0.83	1-5.5 (3.5)	-0.694	0.908	*0.890*

Skewness and kurtosis values are considered to decide whether a distribution is expected. At this point, the skewness value's cut-off points (boundaries) should not exceed the

absolute value of 3, and the absolute value for kurtosis should not be over 10 (Kline, 2011). Since all the values in our study are within the specified limit ranges, they are suitable for normal distribution.

The Cronbach Alpha values of the scales between 0.70 and 0.99 indicate they are reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). All the values found in our study are reliable as they are within the specified limit ranges.

3.6.3. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Scales

3.6.3.1 Work Engagement Scale

As a result of the analysis, $\chi 2$ /df (2.86), RMSEA (0.072), NFI (0.95), NNFI (0.97), SRMR (0.059), and CFI (0.97) measurements are within the desired fit values. Accordingly, it shows that the research data is acceptable and fit, and our confirmatory factor analysis is statistically significant and valid (Erkorkmaz et al., 2013).

Tablo 22: Limits and The Results of the Work Engagement Scale

Fitness Criterion	Perfect Fitness	Acceptable Fitness	Model 1
$\chi 2$ /df	$1 \leq \chi 2$ /df ≤ 3	$3 < \chi 2$ /df ≤ 5	2.34
RMSEA	$0 \leq$ RMSEA ≤ 0.05	$0.05 <$ RMSEA ≤ 0.10	0.072
NFI	$0.95 \leq$ NFI ≤ 1	$0.90 <$ NFI < 0.95	0.95
NNFI	$0.95 \leq$ NFI ≤ 1	$0.90 <$ NNFI < 0.95	0.97
SRMR	$0 \leq$ SRMR < 0.05	$0.05 \leq$ SRMR < 0.10	0.059
CFI	$0.97 \leq$ CFI ≤ 1	$0.95 \leq$ CFI < 0.97	0.97

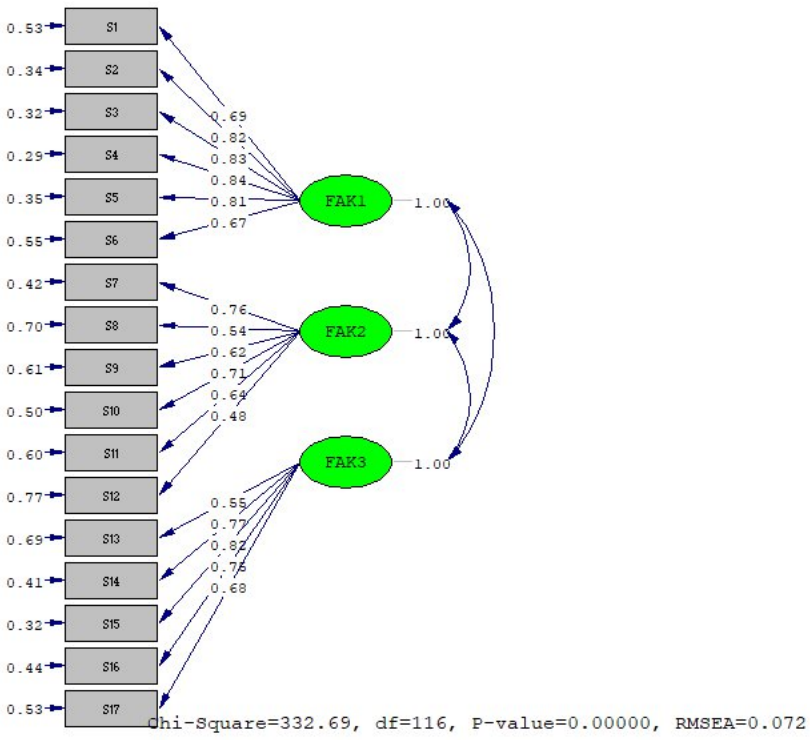


Figure 1: Values of the Work Engagement Scale

3.6.3.2. Work Effort Scale

As a result of the analysis, χ2 /df (3.54), RMSEA (0.084), NFI (0.97), NNFI (0.97), SRMR (0.042), and CFI (0.97) measurements are within the desired fit values. Accordingly, it shows that the research data is acceptable and fit, and our confirmatory factor analysis is statistically significant and valid (Erkorkmaz et al., 2013).

Tablo 23: Limits and The Results of the Work Effort Scale

Fitness Criterion	Perfect Fitness	Acceptable Fitness	Model 1
χ2 /df	1≤ χ2 /df ≤3	3<χ2 /df ≤ 5	3.54
RMSEA	0 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.05	0.05 <RMSEA ≤ 0.10	0.084

NFI	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1	0.90 <NFI < 0.95	0.97
NNFI	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1	0.90 <NNFI < 0.95	0.97
SRMR	0 ≤ SRMR < 0.05	0.05 ≤ SRMR < 0.10	0.042
CFI	0.97 ≤ CFI ≤ 1	0.95 ≤ CFI < 0.97	0.97

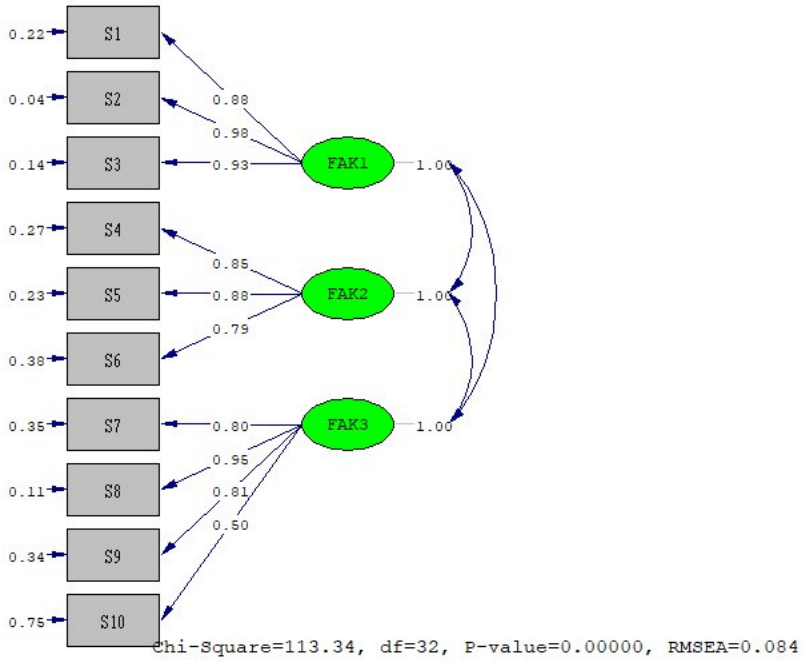


Figure 2: Values of the Work Effort Scale

3.6.3.3. Organizational Identification Scale

As a result of the analysis, $\chi 2$ /df (4.04), RMSEA (0.081), NFI (0.97), NNFI (0.95), SRMR (0.035), and CFI (0.97) measurements are within the desired fit values. Accordingly, it shows that the research data is acceptable and fit, and our confirmatory factor analysis is statistically significant and valid (Erkorkmaz et al., 2013).

Tablo 24: Limits and The Results of the Organizational Identification Scale

Fitness Criterion	Perfect Fitness	Acceptable Fitness	Model 1
χ2 /df	1≤ χ2 /df ≤3	3<χ2 /df ≤ 5	4.04
RMSEA	0 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.05	0.05 <RMSEA ≤ 0.10	0.081
NFI	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1	0.90 <NFI < 0.95	0.97
NNFI	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1	0.90 <NNFI < 0.95	0.95
SRMR	0 ≤ SRMR < 0.05	0.05 ≤ SRMR < 0.10	0.035
CFI	0.97 ≤ CFI ≤ 1	0.95 ≤ CFI < 0.97	0.97

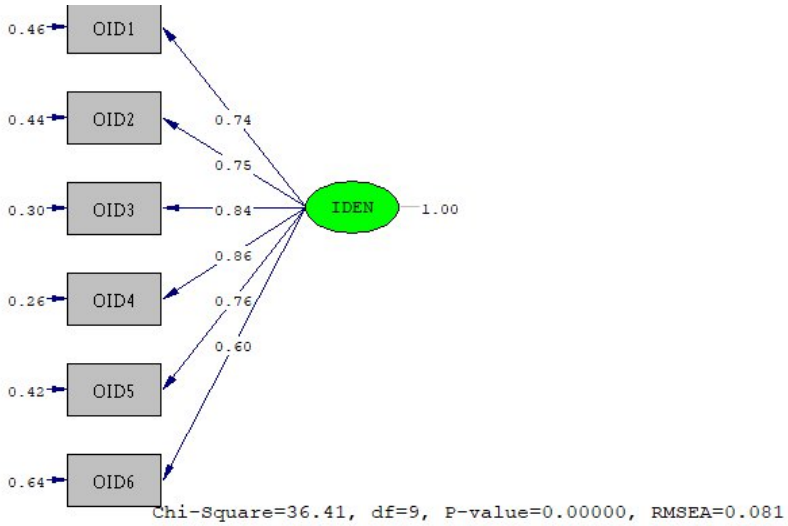


Figure 3: Values of the Organizational Identification Scale

3.6.4. Findings of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis results are presented in this section. The results of the analyses are presented below.

Hypothesis 1: Work engagement affects work effort

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	4.243	0.259	16.394	0.001**
Work Engagement	0.338	0.052	6.484	0.001**

y= Work Effort ***p<0.01*

Work engagement impacts work effort tested and was accepted with the p-value of ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$; R^2:0,102). We can conclude that one unit rise in work engagement increased the work effort by 0.338. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 1.1: Vigor affects work effort

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	4.802	0.216	22.230	0.001**
Vigor	0.217	0.042	5.181	0.001**

y= Work Effort ***p<0.01*

Vigor impacted work effort tested and was accepted with the p-value of ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$; R^2:0,067). We can conclude that one unit rise in vigor increased the work effort by 0.217. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 1.2: Dedication affects work effort

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	4.633	0.239	19.414	0.001**
Dedication	0.253	0.047	5.394	0.001**

y= Work Effort ***p<0.01*

Dedication impacts work effort tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,072). We can conclude that one unit rise in dedication increased the work effort by 0.253. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 1.3: Absorption affects work effort

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	5.027	0.189	26.578	0.001**
Absorption	0.188	0.040	4.738	0.001**

y= Work Effort ***p<0.01*

Absorption impacts work effort tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,056). We can conclude that one unit rise in absorption increased the work effort by 0.188. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 2: Work engagement affects organizational identification

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	2.581	0.276	9.363	0.001**
Work Engagement	0.146	0.056	2.627	0.001**

y= Organizational Identification ***p<0.01*

Work engagement has an impact on organizational identification was tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,096). We can conclude that one unit rise in work engagement increased the organizational identification by 0.146. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 2.1: Vigor affects organizational identification

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	2.906	0.227	12.812	0.001**
Vigor	0.077	0.044	1.748	0.038*

y= Organizational Identification **p<0.05* ***p<0.01*

Vigor has an impact on organizational identification was tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,046). We can conclude that one unit rise in Vigor increased the organizational identification by 0.077. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 2.2: Dedication affects organizational identification

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	2.599	0.250	10.415	0.001**
Dedication	0.139	0.049	2.833	0.005**

y= Organizational Identification ***p<0.01*

Dedication has an impact on organizational identification was tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,077). We can conclude that one unit rise in dedication increased the organizational identification by 0.139. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 2.3: Absorption affects organizational identification

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	2.947	0.197	14.929	0.001**
Absorption	0.075	0.041	1.810	0.041*

y= Organizational Identification ***p<0.01* **p<0,05*

Absorption has an impact on organizational identification was tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,043). A one-unit increase in absorption led to a 0.075 rise in organizational identification. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

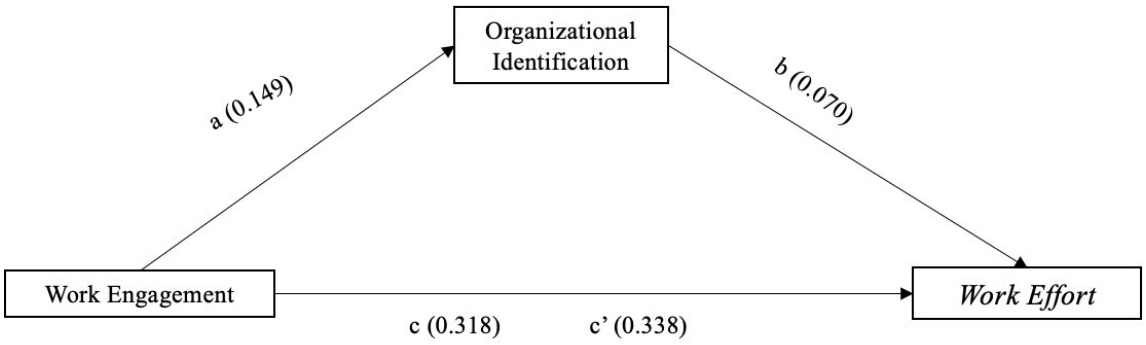
Hypothesis 3: Organizational identification affects Work Effort

Coefficient	B	Std. Error	t	P
Constant	2.526	0.176	31.426	0.001**
Organizational Identification	0.112	0.051	2.185	0.030*

y= Work Effort ***p<0.01*

Organizational identification has an impact on work effort was tested and was accepted with the p-value of (p=0.001; p<0.01; R^2:0,081). We can conclude that one unit rise in organizational identification increased the work effort by 0.112. Thus, the relationship between them is significant.

Hypothesis 4: Organizational identification has a mediator role in the effect of work engagement on work effort



Bootstrapping test results were examined to determine whether organizational identification mediates work engagement's effect on work effort. The indirect effect results are expected to be in a value range different from zero and above zero at a 95% bootstrap confidence interval (Hayes, 2013). In our study, the indirect effect was statistically

significant, as it was in the range of BootLLCI=-0.046 and BootULCI=0.032. The findings are shown in Table.

Tablo 25: The Total, Direct, And Indirect Effect Values of Organizational Identification's Mediating Effect of Work Engagement on Work Effort

Organizational Identification mediator role	Effect	LLCI	ULCI
Total Effect	0.318	0.440	0.323
Direct Effect	0.338	0.431	0.313
Indirect Effect	0.020	-0.046	0.032

The indirect effect, which is the difference between the total and direct effects, indicates the magnitude of the mediation effect (Hayes, 2013). The mediation effect of organizational identification is positive at 0.020. An indirect effect size close to 0.01 is interpreted as a low effect, close to 0.09 as a medium effect, and close to 0.25 as a high effect (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The value of 0.02 we obtained is close to a medium mediation effect.

Hypothesis 5: Scale Scores Differ by Age

Tablo 26: Evaluation of Scale Scores by Age

	21-25 age	26-30 age	31-15 age	36 age and above	
	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	[a]p
Organizational Identification	3.26±0.91 (3.33)	3.31±0.94 (3.5)	3.26±0.89 (3.33)	3.39±0.85 (3.5)	***0.860***
Work Engagement	4.88±0.8 (4.89)	4.82±0.92 (4.98)	4.94±0.79 (4.89)	5.05±0.86 (5.08)	***0.391***
Work Effort	5.89±1.0 (6.1)	5.86±0.87 (6)	5.91±0.79 (6)	5.99±0.88 (6.19)	***0.865***

[a]*One-Way Anova Test*

The organizational identification scale total score does not differ statistically by age ($p>0.05$).

The work engagement scale total score does not differ statistically by age ($p>0.05$).

The total score for the work effort scale does not differ statistically by age (p>0.05).

Hypothesis 6: Scale Scores Differ by Gender

Tablo 27: Evaluation of Scale Scores by Gender

	Female	Male	
	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	[b]p
Organizational Identification	3.27±0.86 (3.33)	3.31±0.93 (3.5)	***0.694***
Work Engagement	4.72±0.93 (4.73)	4.97±0.8 (5.07)	***0.010****
Work Effort	5.89±0.97 (6)	5.9±0.85 (6.06)	***0.889***

[b]*in dependent Sample T-test* **p<0,05*

The organizational identification scale total score does not differ statistically by gender (p>0.05).

The work engagement scale total score does differ statistically by gender (p=0,010; p<0.05). Found to be higher in women.

The total score for the work effort scale does not differ statistically by gender (p>0.05).

Hypothesis 7: Scale Scores Differ by Years of Work

Tablo 28: Evaluation of Scale Scores by Years of Work

	Less than 1 year	1-5 years	5-10 years	11 years and above	
	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	Mean±Sd (Median)	[a]p
Organizational Identification	3.37±0.79 (3.5)	3.27±0.93 (3.33)	3.36±0.87 (3.5)	3.21±0.99 (3.33)	***0.704***
Work Engagement	4.91±0.84 (4.93)	4.87±0.86 (4.97)	4.8±0.79 (4.88)	5.06±0.92 (5.03)	***0.336***
Work Effort	5.89±1.07 (6.13)	5.9±0.88 (6.08)	5.82±0.89 (6)	6.01±0.79 (6.07)	***0.644***

[a]*One-Way Anova Testi*

The organizational identification scale total score does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

The work engagement scale total score does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

The total score for the work effort scale does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

Hypothesis 8: Scale Scores Differ by Current Work Model

Tablo 29: Evaluation of Scale Scores by Current Work Model

	Fully in-person	**Fully remote**	**Hybrid**	
	Mean±Sd (Median)	**Mean±Sd (Median)**	**Mean±Sd (Median)**	**[a]p**
Organizational Identification	3.34±0.86 (3.5)	3.07±1.02 (3.17)	3.2±1.05 (3.33)	***0.264***
Work Engagement	4.89±0.84 (4.96)	4.71±1.12 (4.71)	4.93±0.81 (4.97)	***0.546***
Work Effort	5.89±0.92 (6.03)	5.7±0.93 (5.92)	5.98±0.77 (6.11)	***0.446***

[a]One-Way Anova Test

The organizational identification scale total score does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

The work engagement scale total score does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

The total score for the work effort scale does not differ statistically by years of work (p>0.05).

Hypothesis 9: Scale Scores Differ by Daily Work Hours

Tablo 30: Evaluation of Scale Scores by Daily Work Hours

	6 hours or less	**6-8 hours**	**8-10 hours**	**10 hours and above**	
	Mean±Sd	**Mean±Sd**	**Mean±Sd**	**Mean±Sd**	**[a]p**

	(Median)	(Median)	(Median)	(Median)	
Organizational Identification	3.37±0.79 (3.5)	3.27±0.93 (3.33)	3.36±0.87 (3.5)	3.21±0.99 (3.33)	***0.895***
Work Engagement	4.91±0.84 (4.93)	4.87±0.86 (4.97)	4.8±0.79 (4.88)	5.06±0.92 (5.03)	***0.465***
Work Effort	5.89±1.07 (6.13)	5.9±0.88 (6.08)	5.82±0.89 (6)	6.01±0.79 (6.07)	***0.382***

[a]*One-Way Anova Test*

The organizational identification scale total score does not differ statistically by daily work hours (p>0.05).

The work engagement scale total score does not differ statistically by daily work hours (p>0.05).

The total score for the work effort scale does not differ statistically according to daily work hours (p>0.05).

Tablo 31: Hypothesis summary

Hypothesis	***Status***
Hypothesis 1: Work engagement affects Work Effort	***Accepted***
•H1a: Engagement affects work effort	***Accepted***
•H1b: Absorption affects work effort	***Accepted***
•H1c: Vigour affects work effort	***Accepted***
Hypothesis 2: Work engagement affects organizational identification	***Accepted***
•H2a: Engagement affects organizational identification	***Accepted***
•H2b: Absorption affects organizational identification	***Accepted***
•H2c: Vigour affects organizational identification	***Accepted***
Hypothesis 3: Organizational identification affects work effort	***Accepted***
Hypothesis 4: Organizational identification has a mediator role in the effect of work engagement on work effort	***Accepted***
•H5a: Organizational identification scores differ by Age	***Rejected***
•H5b: Work engagement scores differ by Age	***Rejected***

•H5c: Work effort scores differ by Age	***Rejected***
•H6a: Organizational identification scores differ by Gender	***Rejected***
•H6b: Work engagement scores differ by Gender	***Accepted***
•H6c: Work effort scores differ by Gender	***Rejected***
•H7a: Organizational identification scores differ by Years of Work	***Rejected***
•H7b: Work engagement scores differ by Years of Work	***Rejected***
•H7c: Work effort scores differ by Years of Work	***Rejected***
•H8a: Organizational identification scores differ by Current Work Mode	***Rejected***
•H8b: Work engagement scores differ by Current Work Mode	***Rejected***
•H8c: Work effort scores differ by Current Work Mode	***Rejected***
•H9a: Organizational identification scores differ by Daily Work Hours	***Rejected***
•H9b: Work engagement scores differ by Daily Work Hours	***Rejected***
•H9c: Work effort scores differ by Daily Work Hours	***Rejected***

Managerial Implications

This study offers practical insights for managers looking to boost employee effort in their organizations. Employee effort is essential for organizations to succeed in the competitive business world. Given that work engagement and its components—engagement, absorption, and vigor—play a crucial role in influencing both work effort and organizational commitment, managers ought to focus on initiatives that promote these aspects. Practical implications include:

1. **Improving Work Engagement**
    - **Create Relative Work**: Managers must guarantee that tasks are significant and aligned with employees' skills and interests to boost engagement and absorption, which are critical performance components.

- **Urge Energy and Strength**: Offering chances for breaks, wellness initiatives, and revitalizing activities can boost energy, enhancing work performance.
- **Provide Continuing Growth**: Structured learning opportunities and career development plans help keep employees engaged and motivated.

2. **Enhancing Organizational Identification**
    - **Promote a Shared Vision**: Articulate a distinct organizational purpose and values that resonate with employees, nurturing a feeling of community.
    - **Recognition and Attachment**: To strengthen employees' emotional bonds with the organization, organizations must consistently recognize their contributions and involve them in decision-making. They must also align employees with their values and goals.
3. **Utilizing Organizational Identification as an Intermediary**
   Organizational identification is crucial in mediating work engagement and effort. Therefore, cultivating an identification culture can enhance engagement's positive impacts. This can be accomplished through team-building activities, mentorship initiatives, and encouraging open communication that aligns employees with the organization's objectives.
4. **Consistent Approaches Across Different Demographics**
   The research indicates that work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort are not significantly affected by age, gender, work mode, experience, or daily working hours. Essentially, the variables in this research demonstrated that they remain unaffected by demographics. Therefore, managers can implement universal strategies to enhance these factors without customizing interventions for specific demographic groups. Nonetheless, gender-specific initiatives might still apply when engagement scores vary by gender.

5. **Adjusting to Hybrid and Remote Work Settings**
   As work environments change, especially with the growth of hybrid and remote models, managers must adjust their engagement and identification strategies to fit virtual contexts. Consistent virtual check-ins, collaborative platforms, and online recognition systems can support ongoing engagement and enhance organizational connections, even when team members are physically apart.

6. **Ongoing Observation and Feedback**
   Continuous performance monitoring is an essential key to any organization's success. When performance worsens, it is imperative to keep it under control. Thus, routinely establishing systems to assess engagement, organizational identification, and work effort enables managers to pinpoint improvement areas. Utilizing employee surveys and analytics ensures strategies remain adaptable to workforce needs and changing work environments.

By applying these insights, managers can create a motivating workplace that encourages employees and sustains high performance, ultimately contributing to long-term organizational success.

CONCLUSION

This study explored how organizational identification mediates the effect of work engagement on work effort, offering insights into the psychological processes that influence employee performance. The results indicate that work engagement, defined by vigor, dedication, and absorption, significantly enhances work effort. Employees who feel energized, passionate, and deeply involved in their tasks are more productive and more inclined to establish strong emotional connections with their organization. These connections, or organizational identification, are key factors that amplify the positive link between engagement and work effort.

Though modest, the mediating role of organizational identification underscores its significance in cultivating a sense of shared purpose and belonging among employees. This alignment between personal and organizational objectives can foster sustained motivation

and improved performance. Notably, the research revealed that demographic and work-related variables, including age, years of experience, work mode, and daily hours, did not substantially impact the primary relationships examined. Nonetheless, variations in work engagement scores by gender indicate the potential for targeted interventions to meet specific needs and preferences, promoting fair engagement strategies within varied employee groups.

These findings enhance our understanding of organizational behavior by highlighting the relationship among engagement, identification, and effort. They stress the significance of fostering a supportive work environment that builds psychological connections, motivating employees to dedicate their utmost efforts toward the organization's success.

These insights are crucial in the modern workplace, characterized by hybrid and remote work models. Organizations must adjust their strategies to ensure high engagement levels and promote strong identification, even in virtual and flexible environments. By harnessing the combined benefits of engagement and organizational identification, companies can cultivate a motivated, committed, high-performing workforce that excels in a competitive and rapidly evolving landscape.

The results of this study highlight the importance of emphasizing engagement and identification as essential factors driving employee effort, which is vital for achieving organizational success. By focusing on these elements, organizations can unlock the full potential of their workforce, facilitating sustainable performance and long-term growth.

Practice Enhancement Implications

Work Engagement: Organizations must focus on strategies that boost work engagement, which enhances employee effort and sense of belonging. Efforts such as transparent communication of organizational objectives, offering challenging and meaningful tasks, and creating a supportive workplace can increase employees' energy, commitment, and concentration. Regular engagement surveys are valuable for identifying improvement areas and assessing initiative effectiveness.

Cultivating Organizational Identification: Due to its essential role, organizational identification should be nurtured as part of engagement strategies. Leaders can promote this by highlighting shared values, encouraging pride in the organization, and acknowledging employees' contributions. Strengthening the emotional bond between employees and the organization can enhance their work efforts. Additionally, involving employees in decision-making and promoting an inclusive culture can further improve this identification.

Focused Gender Strategies: The notable disparity in work engagement between genders implies that organizations could gain from customizing their engagement strategies to meet gender-specific preferences or requirements. For example, providing flexibility, mentorship, and inclusive workplace policies can boost engagement among underrepresented groups. Ensuring fairness in leadership opportunities and recognition is essential, as these factors may lead to improved engagement among all demographics.

Connecting Engagement with Performance Metrics: Organizations should incorporate engagement and identity metrics into their performance management systems. This strategy will help managers understand how these psychological elements influence individual and team productivity, informing targeted interventions that enhance effort and efficiency.

Suggestions for Future Research on Contextual Variables: Future studies ought to examine other organizational and contextual elements, including leadership styles, cultural variations, and industry-specific traits, to gain a deeper understanding of their impact on the connections between work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort. Investigating how remote or hybrid work settings influence these dynamics may provide valuable insights.

Longitudinal Studies: A longitudinal approach can offer deeper insights into the evolution of work engagement and organizational identification and their influence on sustained work effort. These studies assist organizations in crafting interventions with a lasting impact.
Increased Sample Diversity: Broadening the study to encompass a variety of industries, locations, and organizational sizes could improve the applicability of the results. This approach may reveal potential moderating variables, such as socioeconomic status or levels of organizational hierarchy, that need to be clarified in the present study.

Advanced Mediation Models: Though the study found a slight mediation effect, future research could utilize advanced mediation models or investigate additional mediating variables, like job satisfaction or perceived organizational support, to gain a deeper insight into these dynamics. Moderation analyses might also reveal circumstances that strengthen or weaken mediation's effects.
Qualitative Insights: Adding qualitative methods, like interviews or focus groups, alongside quantitative analyses can reveal more profound insights into employees' experiences and views on engagement and identification. Grasping the "why" behind noticed trends may help shape more effective organizational strategies
Technology and Digitalization: Given the increasing prevalence of technology in the workplace, future studies could examine how digital tools and platforms impact work engagement, organizational identification, and effort.

This study reveals that work engagement and organizational identification boost work effort. The findings support the view that work engagement significantly affects work effort, with its dimensions—engagement, absorption, and vigor—each contributing positively. Additionally, work engagement enhances organizational identification, emphasizing the need to cultivate a stronger bond between employees and their organizations to foster greater motivation and commitment.
Organizations can use these insights to create strategies that foster a motivated and committed workforce. This can be accomplished by boosting engagement through initiatives that enhance absorption and energy while encouraging organizational identification to nurture loyalty and a sense of purpose. The study’s results also highlight the importance of

understanding individual and collective factors influencing work effort, ensuring that personal and organizational needs are aligned. When the two concepts are matched, their work effort will increase, leading to organizational success in the long term.

The research indicated no significant variations in organizational identification, work engagement, or work effort linked to age, gender, years of experience, current work mode, or daily hours worked. This implies that the core factors influencing engagement and organizational identification are likely more uniform across these variables, highlighting their broader relevance results.

This study's findings have become increasingly vital as work environments evolve, particularly with the prevalence of hybrid and remote work models. Organizations must constantly adjust their strategies to maintain employee engagement and enhance organizational identification in flexible work settings. By gaining insight into how these factors interact, organizations can implement adaptive practices that promote sustained high performance, ultimately securing long-term success in a swiftly changing work landscape.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Longitudinal Studies

   Future research should use longitudinal designs to examine work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort over time. This approach provides deeper insights into the development of these relationships and the changing mediating role of organizational identification during ongoing engagement.

2. Investigation of Sector-Specific Elements

   Expanding research to various industries can reveal key contextual differences. Sectors may exhibit unique engagement, identification, and effort dynamics influenced by organizational culture, job requirements, or sector-specific challenges.

3. Incorporation of Extra Mediators and Moderators

   This study examined organizational identification as a mediator, but future research

could explore other mediators, such as job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, or trust in leadership. Moderators such as leadership style, team dynamics, or workplace diversity might also clarify how these factors influence relationships.

4. Effects of Hybrid and Remote Work
   With the rise of remote and hybrid work models, evaluating their effects on work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort is essential. Research should explore whether virtual environments hinder or enhance the mediating role of organizational identification and discover strategies to overcome any obstacles.

5. Cultural and Geographic Differences
   Future research could investigate the impact of cultural differences on the relationships between key variables. For example, employees in collectivist cultures might demonstrate a more profound sense of organizational identity than their counterparts in individualist cultures, potentially influencing mediation effects.

6. Engagement Factors Specific to Gender
   Future studies should examine the distinct factors that influence work engagement for each gender to understand the variations in their work engagement scores. This might include analyzing the effects of workplace inclusivity, gender diversity in leadership, or gender-specific stressors that shape engagement dynamics.

7. Qualitative Methods
   Qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups provide deeper insights into employee experiences and perceptions. These approaches can uncover the root causes of noticeable trends and inspire new hypotheses for future quantitative studies.

8. Impact of Technology on Engagement and Identification
   With digital tools and platforms becoming increasingly important in the workplace, upcoming studies may explore their impact on work engagement and organizational identification.

9. Workplace Behavioral Outcomes Effort

   Incorporating extra outcomes like innovative behavior, team collaboration, or employee well-being might improve our comprehension of how engagement and identification influence organizational dynamics' success.

10. Cross-Functional Research

    Examining these relationships across different organizational tiers—such as frontline staff, middle managers, and executives—might reveal variations in engagement and identification patterns influenced by role or responsibility.

The complex relationships among work engagement, organizational identification, and work effort are essential, and focusing on these aspects enhances our understanding. Thus, this method can also provide valuable insights for organizations seeking to succeed in ever-evolving work environments.

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APPENDIX

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

1. Yaşınız
   .....

2. Cinsiyetiniz?
   Kadın ( ) Erkek ( )

3. Medeni Durumunuz?
   Bekar ( ) Evli ( ) Dul ( ) Diğer ( )

4. Eğitim Durumunuz?
   Okuryazar değilim ( ) Okuryazarım ( ) İlkokul ( ) Ortaokul ( ) Lise ( ) Üniversite ( )
   Yüksek Lisans ( ) Doktora ( )

5. Çocuğunuz var mı?
   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

6. Evet ise kaç tane?
   Bir ( ) İki ( ) Üç ( ) Dört ( ) Beş ( ) Daha fazla ( )

7. Çocuklarınız dışında evde bakmakla yükümlü olduğunuz biri var mı?
   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

8. Şu anda çalıştığınız düzenli bir iş var mı?
   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

9. Kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız?
   1 yıldan az ( ) 1-5 yıl arası ( ) 5-10 yıl arası ( ) 11 yıl ve üzeri ( )

10. Çalışma şekliniz nedir?
    Tamamen yüz yüze çalışmaktayım ( ) Tamamen çevrimiçi çalışmaktayım ( )
    Bazen yüz yüze bazen çevrimiçi çalışmaktayım (Hibrit çalışma modeli) ( )

11. Hangi çalışma düzenini tercih ederdiniz?
    Tamamen yüz yüze çalışmaktayım ( ) Tamamen çevrimiçi çalışmaktayım ( )
    Bazen yüz yüze bazen çevrimiçi çalışmaktayım (Hibrit çalışma modeli) ( )

12. Günde kaç saat çalışmaktasınız?
    4-6 saat ( ) 6-8 saat ( ) 8-10 saat ( ) 10 saat ve üzeri ( )

13. Hangi sektörde çalışmaktasınız?
    Özel sektör ( ) Kamu sektörü ( )

14. Aylık geliriniz nedir?
    1 – 17.002 TL ( ) 17.003-35.000 TL ( ) 35.001-50.000 TL ( ) 50.001 TL'den daha fazla ( )

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ETİK KURUL ONAYI ALMIŞTIR
Kurul Tarihi: 29.11.2024
Kurul Karar No: 11-03

Örgütsel Özdeşleşme Anketi Açıklama: Bu ölçekte insanların işleriyle ilgili tutumlarını yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Sizden istenen bu ifadelerin sizin açınızdan ne ölçüde doğru olduğunu uygun yanıt aralığına çarpı (X) işareti koyarak belirtmenizdir. 1) Tümüyle Katılmıyorum 2) Katılmıyorum 3) Ne Katılmıyorum Ne de Katılıyorum 4) Katılıyorum 5) Tümüyle Katılıyorum		Tümüyle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılmıyorum Ne de Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tümüyle Katılıyorum
1	Birisi çalıştığım şirketi eleştirdiğinde bunu kendime yapılmış hakaret olarak görürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2	Başkalarının çalıştığım şirket ilgili görüşleri ile ilgilenirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3	Çalıştığım şirket hakkında konuşurken genellikle onlar yerine biz derim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4	Şirketimin başarısını kendi başarım olarak görürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5	Şirketimi birisi övdüğünde, bunu kişisel bir iltifat bir olarak hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6	Medyada şirketimi eleştiren bir haber çıkarsa utanç duyarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Çalışma Eforu Anketi Açıklama: Bu ölçekte insanların işleriyle ilgili tutumlarını yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Sizden istenen bu ifadelerin sizin açımızdan ne ölçüde doğru olduğunu uygun yanıt aralığına çarpı (X) işareti koyarak belirtmenizdir. 1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum 2) Katılmıyorum 3) Kısmen Katılmıyorum 4) Ne katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum 5) Kısmen Katılıyorum 6) Katılıyorum 7) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1- Bir şey yolunda gitmediğinde hemen pes etmem.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
2- Potansiyel zorluklar ne olursa olsun işimi yapmak için gerçekten elimden gelenin en iyisini yaparım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
3- Bir göreve başladığımda, onu sona kadar götürürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4- Benden bekleneni yapmak için elimden gelenin en iyisini yaparım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
5- Bana verilen görevleri yerine getirmekte güvenilirimdir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
6- Şirketimin amaçlarına ulaşması için gerçekten elimden gelenin en iyisini yaparım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
7- Kendimi çalışkan biri olarak görüyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
8- İşimde gerçekten elimden gelenin en iyisini yaparım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
9- Başladığım görevlere çok fazla enerji harcarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
10- İşimin yapılması sırasında her zaman eşit çaba sarf ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

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İşe Tutkunluk Anketi Açıklama: Bu ölçekte insanların işleriyle ilgili tutumlarını yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Sizden istenen bu ifadelerin sizin açınızdan ne ölçüde doğru olduğunu uygun yanıt aralığına çarpı (X) işareti koyarak belirtmenizdir. 0) Asla 1) Neredeyse 2) Nadiren 3) Bazen 4) Sıklıkla 5) Çok Sık 6) Her Zaman		Asla	Neredeyse	Nadiren	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Çok Sık	Her Zaman
Dinçlik		(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	İşimde enerjiyle dolu olduğumu hissederim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2	Yaptığım işin anlamlı olduğunu ve bir amaca hizmet ettiğini düşünüyorum.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
3	Çalışırken zaman hızlı akıp gider.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
4	İsimde kendimi güçlü ve dinç hissederim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
5	İşim konusunda hevesliyim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
6	Çalışırken etrafımdaki her şeyi unuturum.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Adanma								
1	İşim bana ilham verir.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2	Sabah kalktığımda işe gider gibi hissederim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
3	Yoğun çalıştığımda kendimi mutlu hissederim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
4	Yaptığım işten gurur duyarım.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
5	İşimde dalar giderim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
6	Bir seferde çok uzun süreler çalışmaya devam edebilirim	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Yoğunlaşma								
1	Bana göre işim zorlayıcıdır.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2	Çalışırken kendimi kaptırırım.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
3	İşimde zihinsel olarak çok dayanıklıyım.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
4	Kendimi işimden ayırmam zordur.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
5	İşimde işler yolunda gitmese de her zaman sebat ederim.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

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Tarih:05/12/2024 07:40
Sayı: E-65836846-044-339414
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İSTANBUL TİCARET ÜNİVERSİTESİ

T.C.
İSTANBUL TİCARET ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ

Sayı : E-65836846-044-339414 5.12.2024
Konu : Etik Onayı

Sayın Kamil TOPÇU

İlgi : 06.11.2024 tarihli dilekçeniz.

İlgi yazınız ile "İşe Adanmışlığın İş Eforu Üzerindeki Etkisinde Örgütsel Özdeşleşmenin Aracı Rolü" isimli çalışmanın anket sorularına Etik Kurul onayı talep edilmektedir.

Adı geçen ve ekte yer alan anket soruları, Üniversitemiz Etik Kurulunca incelenerek etik tanım, değer ve ilkelere aykırı bir düzenleme tespit edilmediği, önerilen anket sorularının etik kurallara uygun olduğu ve etik onayının verildiği ifade edilmiştir.

Konuya ilişkin bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Hanifi PARLAR
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: Etik Onaylı Anket Soruları