

Individual performance in services activities: Theoretical approach

La performance individuelle dans les activités de services : Approche théorique

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Abstract

The social approach has its origins in the school of human relations, which specifically presented the problem of integrating individual objectives with organizational ones. The protagonists of this approach accept the following hypothesis: achieving social objectives makes it possible to achieve economic and financial objectives, especially in the context of services, hence the importance of individual performance at work.

Several studies have focused on the determinants of individual performance at work and their ability to actually lead to this performance. The objective of this work is to bring together the body of knowledge on individual performance and its determinants, to present them as a conceptual literature review in a descriptive manner and to identify a conceptual model whose hypotheses can be verified during future empirical study. This work encompasses a set of theories and concepts that guide the research process along the way.

First, a conceptualization of individual performance at work is presented. We then identify the different methods of evaluating individual performance at work. Then we distinguish the determinants of this performance by classifying them according to the relationship of the individual with his organization or with other individuals. Finally, we attach particular importance to the concept of skills in achieving individual performance at work. We integrate all of these variables at the level of a conceptual model in the form of hypotheses to be verified.

Keywords: Determinants of individual performance, service context, Human Resources.

JEL Classification: J24, M12, M51, O15, P47

Paper type: Theoretical Research

Résumé

L'approche sociale a pour origine l'école des relations humaines qui a spécialement présenté la problématique d'intégrer les objectifs individuels à ceux organisationnels. Les protagonistes de cette approche admettent l'hypothèse suivante : aboutir aux objectifs sociaux permet d'atteindre les objectifs économiques et financiers surtout dans le contexte des services, d'où l'importance de la performance individuelle au travail.

Plusieurs recherches se sont focalisées sur les déterminants de la performance individuelle au travail et leur capacité à conduire réellement à cette performance. L'objectif de ce travail est de rassembler l'ensemble de connaissances sur la performance individuelle et ses déterminants, de les présenter comme revue de littérature conceptuelle de manière descriptive et d'en dégager un modèle conceptuel dont les hypothèses peuvent être vérifiées lors d'une future étude empirique. Ce travail englobe un ensemble de théories et des concepts qui guident, au fur et à mesure, le processus de la recherche

Dans un premier temps, une conceptualisation de la performance individuelle au travail est présentée. Nous identifions, dans un deuxième temps, les différents modes d'évaluation de la performance individuelle au travail. Ensuite nous distinguons les déterminants de cette performance en les classant selon la relation de l'individu avec son organisation ou avec les autres individus. Finalement, nous accordons une importance particulière au concept de compétences dans l'atteinte des performances individuelles au travail. Nous intégrons l'ensemble de ces variables au niveau d'un modèle conceptuelle sous forme d'hypothèses à vérifier.

Les mots clés : Déterminants de la performance individuelle, contexte de service, Ressources Humaines

JEL Classification: J24, M12, M51, O15, P47

Paper type: Recherche théorique

1. Introduction

Previously, companies were limited to evaluating financial performance in the highly industrialized economies of the time. This way of doing things, which today is insufficient, was effective in the past when the context was stable and the evolution quite slow. Currently, as economies are increasingly service-oriented, performance monitoring faces new frontiers to overcome. The context of the services is marked by the strong involvement of the men who compose it. The success of the service organization and the quality of its services depends on the performance of the agents at work. It is useful to present the determinants of individual performance at work because the latter contributes to the achievement of organizational performance.

According to Boudjana and Messaid (2020), the whole challenge is based on the usefulness of establishing a real strategy for assessing individual performance and its contribution to organizational performance. Upstream, individual performance indicators are consistent with organizational ones. At the academic level, individual performance represents a consistent variable in management theories but also in empirical studies over the past decades (Jamal, 2016). It represents “the total value expected by the organization of discrete episodes and behaviours that an individual exercises during a given period of time” (Motowildo, 2003). This position includes the possibility that a person can be efficient without achieving the prefixed objectives because the working conditions escape him (Charles-Pauvers et al., 2007). The literature breaks down individual performance into task performance and contextual performance (Bormann and Motowildo, 1997). In recent research, we identify two other types of individual performance which are adaptive performance and counterproductive behaviours (Koopmans et al., 2011 cited by Saoussany & Asbayou, 2018). The interest of this study is to explore the determinants of individual performance, to understand how this can be achieved and to identify a conceptual model to be checked for validity in a future article. Charles-Pauvers et al. (2007) group the determinants of individual performance into two categories: (1) those that determine the relationship that the company has with its agent (motivation, personality traits, satisfaction, affects and involvement) and (2) those that determine the exchange relationships that an agent has with the rest of the agents at work (the psychological contract, organizational justice, organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust, support organizational). Individual performance is an issue for many service companies worldwide. Some of them have made it a key success factor. This issue has fueled several studies in management, occupational health and organizational psychology. We find that there is no consensus on the definition and measurement of individual performance despite the importance of this construct. The objective of this research is to broaden knowledge on the performance of individuals while focusing on the determinants leading to their achievement. The objective of this article is to review all the literature related to individual performance and its determinants. This study will present the literature review in the following research question: What are the factors shaping individual performance in the context of the services?

This article aims to focus, first, on the conceptualization of individual performance at work, by identifying these behavioural dimensions of performance. This reflection, in the literature, distinguishes between contextual performance and performance in the task.

In the second part, we focus on the individual performance evaluation modes at work. We identify three modes: supervision by the hierarchical supervisor, by peers, or by the agent himself. We highlight the pros and cons of the different types of evaluators.

Thirdly, we identify the individual performance determinants grouped into two categories: (1) those that condition the relationship that the employee has with his organization (motivation, personality traits, satisfaction, affects, and implication) and (2) those that determine the relationships of the employees between each other (the psychological contract, organizational

justice, organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust, organizational support, and leader exchange-member).

Finally, we reveal the importance of individual skills in achieving individual performance at work.

2. Individual performance

Appreciating individual performance is not limited to the evaluator and the agent's vision. Other parts may have deviated and particular objectives. These are the "stakeholders", who can be internal or external and judge the organization according to their expectations.

The social approach has its origins in the approach of human relations. It mainly presents the problem of including individual objectives with organizational ones. The scholars of this approach assume that human beings are the most significant organizational value. It is based on the assumption that achieving social objectives enables the achievement of economic and financial objectives.

It is useful to integrate the organization's performance and individual performance. All evaluation work requires indicators that evaluate correctly (this is validity) based on relevant criteria (we, therefore, talk about relevance). If the organizational performance indicators aren't based on relevant criteria, the resulting individual performance indicators may encourage dysfunctional behaviour that does not contribute to achieving the organizational objectives.

The authors first focused on how to assess individual performance using indicator-based assessment tools and techniques. The researchers also focused on the determinants of individual performance.

2.1. Definitions of individual performance

In the early 1990s, research emerges on the analysis and conceptualization of individual performance at work.

According to Campbell's definition (1990), individual performance at work is *"a set of behaviours or actions that are relevant to the objectives of an organization and can be measured in terms of the level of competence and contribution to the objectives"*.

For Motowildo (2003) individual performance *"is the total value expected by the organization including the occurrences of discrete behaviours that an individual exercises during a given period"*. The conceptualization of Motowildo (2003) highlights that a person's performance can change over time and be efficient in some actions and limited in others.

Thus, Charles-Pauvers et al. (2007) state that *"individual performance is the behaviour that the organization values and expects from its employees. It represents a set of discrete behaviours that would positively influence the achievement of organizational objectives (productivity, creativity, profitability, growth, quality, customer satisfaction) and that the agent develops after time and experiences (behavioural occurrences: motivation, ability, know-how, quality of work, etc.)"*

These conceptualizations reveal the importance of separating two notions: (1) the performance indicates the people's behaviours considered beneficial for the organization, and (2) the effectiveness goes with the expected results of these same behaviours.

Indeed, by only measuring the results of the person, it is possible to neglect the situational factors which support him, or conversely, which handicap him in the execution of his work. We take as an example the presence of equipment and its quality, the availability of resources, the control of decision-making or not, or the favourable market or not... This position adopts the possibility that an individual can perform despite not having been able to achieve their objectives because their failure is due to conditions beyond their control (Charles-Pauvers et al., 2007).

According to Jamal (2016), Individual performance can be considered as “an activity in which an individual is able to successfully accomplish the task assigned to him, subject to the normal constraints of the reasonable use of available resources”. In this definition, he insists on the two essential components of performance; efficiency and effectiveness.

It is important to distinguish all the behaviours and attitudes that promote performance in a person, identified in the model of Campbell (1990).

2.2. Campbell's multifactor model (1990)

Campbell is one of the pioneers to have identified the desired behaviours and attitudes that enable people to perform. Campbell (1990) and Campbell et al. (1993) present a multidimensional reflection of performance, thanks to a multifactorial model which designates eight dimensions of performance behaviours. These eight dimensions are universal (observable in each firm), generic (depending on the specific context of each company) and independent. A particular position in a company may be affected by only certain factors, while these factors are supposed to be placed in all the jobs present in the company. These eight behavioural dimensions are:

Table 1: Eight behavioural dimensions of work performance from Campbell (1990) (Source: Charbonnier et al., 2005)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Definitions</i>
1. Skills in job-specific	Level of skill with which an individual performs the technical tasks specific to their job
2. Skills in tasks not specific to the job	Ability to master tasks common to several jobs in the organization. This ability is a skill of versatility and adaptability.
3. Written and oral communication	Ability to communicate clearly and effectively orally, or in writing in the workplace
4. Efforts by doing activity	Ability to demonstrate extra effort and work effectively under difficult conditions (motivation to complete assigned tasks with energy, intensity and persistence)
5. Maintaining personal discipline	Ability to avoid negative or counterproductive behaviours (e.g. violation of internal rules, absenteeism, lack of punctuality)
6. Contribution to the performance of the team and colleagues	Ability to support, help, and participate in the development of colleagues; facilitate the effective functioning of the group by being a role model, keeping the group goal-oriented, or increasing the participation of other members
7. Supervision	Ability to positively influence the performance of subordinates through the leadership qualities expressed by the individual (setting objectives, influencing the adoption of expected behaviours, rewarding or sanctioning appropriately)
8. Management and administration	Ability to manage teams (mastery of resource allocation tasks, organization, control of team efficiency) and to develop the service (increase human, financial, and material resources)

Source: Auteurs

The table presented by Campbell (1990) seems to be operative in order to establish employee evaluation procedures since it is sufficiently global and flexible to suit all the categories of existing positions in a company (Charles Pauvers et al., 2007). These eight dimensions are

indeed comprehensive enough to describe the hidden structure of performance for all positions in “the Dictionary of Occupational Titles” (Campbell et al., 1993) although they are not entirely relevant to a particular position. However, they make it easier for the company to identify all the behaviours it values.

2.3. Contextual performance and on-task performance

There are different definitions of work performance. In this sense, Cascio (2015) and Ilgen, and Hollenbeck (1991) prefer to focus on the personal skills needed to perform different actions, rather than on a set of tasks inherent in fixed actions. The work of Borman and Motowidlo (1997) is one of the most examined works. To use a basic reflection on individual performance at the work level, these authors distinguish between contextual performance and performance in the task. They claim that this concept is better understood and even its measurement is more relevant. Contextual and task performance are the two aspects of individual performance at work considered by supervisors when evaluating the performance of their agents (Borman, 1991; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). The results of numerous studies offer empirical support for the differentiation made between these two aspects (Borman et al., 1995; Fetter et al., 1991; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). In order to consider contextual and task performance, Motowidlo (2003) presents the following conceptualization of work performance: *“Work performance is defined as the total value expected by the organization from occurrences of discrete behaviours exercised by an individual during a given period of time”*.

Therefore, the individual is efficient in some actions and less so in others and his performance is variable over time. At any time, all these behaviours can be evaluated, in order to constitute an overall performance evaluation.

In recent research, we identify two other dimensions, in addition to contextual and task performance, which are adaptive performance and counterproductive behaviours (Koopmans et al., 2011 cited Saoussany & Asbayou, 2018). The first consists in generating new ideas, setting up objectives and plans for each situation, training in new technologies and tasks, showing flexibility and openness to others, accepting other groups or cultures, being resilient, cool-headed, quick-thinking, and acting in the best way. The second dimension designates off-task behaviours, taking long and numerous breaks, going away, complaints, being often late, wrong tasks, accidents, insults or chatter, arguments with colleagues, ignoring security, abusing privileges, theft, and assault.

At this level, let's focus on the performance by doing the task.

2.3.1. Performance in the task

Performance in the task, according to Saoussany & Asbayou (2018) is defined as “the total expected value of the behaviours of an individual over a period of time for the production of the goods or services of the organization”.

Borman and Motowidlo (1997), refer to the prescribed behaviours. In other words, all the work activities are described in the job and competency frameworks. More concretely, task performance observes the performance of activities that contribute directly or indirectly to the technical heart of the organization and to the achievement of organizational objectives (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997): (1) “Directly” through the production and sale of services (from design to *servuction*, including marketing), and (2) “Indirectly” through supporting activities, which provide the materials or services useful to the service production activity that allow the smooth running of the service organization.

These two types of activities are most of the time concerned with a performance appraisal. However, organizational and environmental evolution transforms the measurement of performance and makes it difficult to propose tools for evaluating performance in the task.

Indeed, the authors themselves admit that the tasks related to the prescribed activities are specific to a position and therefore very diverse from one position to another (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) highlight the fact that jobs tend to become "unique", employees are assigned redefined, diverse missions and "moving" responsibilities to be carried out in separate work teams. In this way, the demands on performance in the task change rapidly.

On the other hand, the contextual performance, detailed in the following paragraphs, is supposed to be evaluated in a similar way for all the positions analysed (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999) since the behavioural occurrences which ameliorate the psychological and social environment are identical.

2.3.2. Contextual performance

To extend performance evaluation beyond the task or activity performed by the employee, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) recommend adding contextual performance. It coincides with all the behaviours that contribute to organizational effectiveness through their influence on the social, psychological and organizational context at the work level. Coleman and Borman (2000) call it citizen performance.

It consists of contributions that promote the general environment in which the technical tasks develop.

Faced with the environmental evolution of work and its effect on its nature (evolution of teamwork and project management, the evolution of empowerment practices, primacy of customer orientation, etc.), contextual performance is increasingly more important (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

It is strongly correlated with measures of organizational effectiveness such as organizational flexibility and productivity (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Walz and Niehoff, 1996).

Borman and Motowidlo (1997), present the first conceptualization of contextual performance. It has five dimensions: (1) encourage and motivate to mobilize efforts to achieve successful tasks, (2) deliberately taking responsibility for certain tasks and activities outside of formal work, (3) cooperate with collaborators, (4) respect organizational procedures, and (5) agree to align with organizational goals.

Borman and Motowidlo (2000) then present an integrative three-dimensional model for contextual performance: (a) interpersonal citizenship performance, (b) organizational citizenship performance, and (c) conscientiousness in the task.

The first dimension of behaviours, i.e., civic interpersonal performance, corresponds to those who influence colleagues in a positive way. We, therefore, focus on behaviours that benefit from the help of other employees of the company (Altruism) and contribute to the development of behaviours anchoring efficiency in them (interpersonal awareness). Secondly, these acts have a positive value at the level of the organization because they participate in perfecting the organizational context of work and the social context. They help interpersonal communication, coordination, cooperation, in general, integration in the group or in the team. Individual performance, therefore, implies collective performance (of the team or of a department).

The second dimension of behaviours that have an effect on the psychosocial context at the work level is the ability to deploy behaviours which the company values (organizational civic performance). It is particularly this set of behaviours that prove, on the one hand, the loyalty of the employee to his organization and its objectives, and on the other hand, his compliance with organizational procedures and strategies.

The third dimension of behaviours is called "task conscientiousness". It reflects extra-role behaviours in relation to work activities, such as the case of voluntarily engaging in actions that

are not officially part of one's work or continuously displaying efforts to improve one's performance.

According to Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) and Conway (1999), the set of behaviours that are an integral part of contextual performance contributes more to the general efficiency of modern organizations than task performance. Indeed, current work structures increasingly require behaviours oriented towards interpersonal cooperation, initiative, as well as the support of organizational objectives (Borman, Motowidlo and Schmit, 1997).

After reading this literature on individual performance and identifying performance in the task and contextual performance. It is interesting at this stage to focus on the types of evaluation of individuals in the context of work.

3. Performance and its method of evaluation

Three modes are valid for the evaluation of the performance of individuals at work: by supervision, by peers or by the agent in contact himself. It is recommended to use several evaluators simultaneously, where each plays a different role (Chonko et al., 1986). Using all of these evaluators has the following advantages: (1) the accumulation of a richer evaluation base that helps decision-making, (2) easy identification of evaluation biases, (3) consideration of multiple perspectives, and (4) the participation of various evaluators leads to a deeper understanding and involvement in the performance evaluation system.

3.1. The supervision

Among the attributions of the supervisor is the mission of developing the potential of his collaborators and the evaluation of their efforts in this area, in order to be able to determine the good and the worse performances. According to Chonko et al. (1986), in order for a supervisor to measure the performance of his contact agent, he needs fair behaviour on his part.

He must also take on the role of judge and mitigate the harmful consequences that may affect his contact agent. He must also take the time to observe the behaviour of his contact agent quite frequently, in order to be sure of his evaluation (Chonko et al., 1986). Jaramillo et al. (2005) in their meta-analysis show that management evaluations are more relevant than self-evaluations.

3.2. Colleagues/peers

At this level it is possible to identify two modes of evaluation among peers; either an evaluation carried out by a group of individuals or another carried out individually (Arvey and Murphy, 1998). They find that once a task has been performed, the majority of individuals place their own performance below the median (negative illusion of performance), while the majority of the elements of a group place their performance of the group above the median. median (positive illusion of performance).

These researchers call the difference in perceptions of performance between the individual and the group the "evaluation gap". Martell and Borg (1993) observe in their study of police officers that the group remembers the performance more easily than the individual. It is useful to state that there is a significant difference in evaluation between peers and supervisors and this is due to the distinct sources of information on which they base their performance evaluation (Borman and al., 1995).

There is also a "360° evaluation", which considers various perspectives in the evaluation of an individual: managerial supervision (direct and indirect), subordinates, peers, the individual himself, overall, the "internal customers" and simply customers (Churchill et al., 2006).

3.3. The individual himself

Self-evaluation is important because the individual is in the best position to evaluate his performance and it is logical to think that the personnel in contact are in an adequate position

to observe his performance (Chonko et al., 1986). Self-assessment has been the subject of several studies in terms of its relationship with satisfaction (Morris et al., 1991; Pettijohn et al., 2001) but rarely in terms of its relationship with performance (Chonko et al., 1986). Nevertheless, in these works, it seems that individuals are more complacent when it comes to self-evaluation (Arvey and Murphy, 1998).

Jaramillo et al. (2005) wonder why no study is interested in the possible interchangeability between self-evaluation and evaluation by the manager. Three theories support the finding that supervisor evaluation and self-evaluation are different in nature: social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), common ground concept (Primoff, 1980), and performance effect. (Jaramillo et al., 2005).

It is common to think that there is a convergence between evaluation by the supervisor and self-evaluation, this presumes that they have a common basis for evaluation. In this sense, Jaramillo et al. (2005) find that the manager bases his evaluation on objective characteristics. Subjective, the contact agent, bases his self-assessment on his own attributes, on personal considerations and on ample self-schemes. As a result, their performance measures are different because they are conditioned by heterogeneous factors and do not have a common basis.

The postulate of social comparison theory is that individuals make their evaluations on the basis of a comparison with others. The manager has easy access to information, given his position, particularly in relation to the overall performance of the group that the agent in contact does not have. Given this asymmetry of information, the link between the manager's evaluation and self-evaluation is necessarily weak.

The mode of performance evaluation allowed us to highlight the advantages and disadvantages of the different types of evaluators. It is interesting at this stage to mention the determinants of individual performance which are classified into two categories: those which condition the relationship that the employee has with his organization and the exchange relationships existing between the employee and others.

4. Factors driving individual performance

Charles-Pauvers et al., (2007) classify the determinants of individual performance into two groups: (1) the determinants of performance that condition the relationship that the agent has in contact with his work and his company and (2) the performance determinants that condition the exchange relationship that the agent has in contact with other individuals at work. In the following paragraphs, these two categories of individual performance determinants will be identified.

4.1. The relation of the agent in contact with his work

In this first part, we identify five determinants of individual performance that relate to the relationship of the person with his work, we perceive that individual performance is influenced by motivation, personality traits, satisfaction, affects and involvement.

4.1.1. The motivation

Kanfer (1990) classifies the theories of motivation into three groups, this classification is taken up by Oubrayrie and Roussel (2003). It is the following:

The theories of needs, values, and motives are based on the reasoning that a need evokes an imbalance that pushes one to undertake actions. In principle, the identification of a person's needs should reveal his motivation. The best-known authors in this theoretical current are Herzberg and Maslow;

Cognitive choice theories deal with the orientation and persistence of the actions adopted by the person at work, at the level of the motivation process and the mechanisms that allow it to

be achieved. These theories attempt to answer the following question: "How can a person be motivated to work?" This is why cognitive theories evoke the hypothesis that the person reacts in a hedonistic way when he prefers to adopt a behaviour. This ability makes it possible to achieve a result accompanied by a significant perceived positive value with the aim of reducing negative affect and increasing positive affect (Kanfer, 1990);

Theories of self-regulation develop how to take action motivated by the search for a particular goal. Performance is then strongly linked to objectives. The latter represent stimulants to motivation and in this sense give the model of goals. Nevertheless, motivation is unstable, it is a process that involves focusing on self-determination (Deci and Ryan, 1991).

Therefore, motivation is necessarily contingent, on the one hand to individuals, without becoming a fixed psychological characteristic, and on the other hand, to their work environment. According to Steiner et al., (2001), "motivation alone is not enough to account for performance".

Indeed, the results achieved by the employee are conditioned both by his motivation to undertake actions and by the organization where he works. Motivation considers a large number of variables which leads it to be fragile and potentially changing. Although it is not a characteristic of the person, it is not completely foreign to his personality. Motivation is ultimately not a state but rather the result of a process, it is indeed a complicated construct to analyse which implies difficulties in evaluating it. Despite everything, it, therefore, seems to be an important determinant of individual performance. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H1: The motivation of the agent significantly influences individual performance.

4.1.2. character traits

The "big five" model with five factors, resulting from the research of Tupes and Christal (1992) is a reference because it proposes a typology of personality traits with five dimensions: (1) extraversion puts the sociable and communicative character in opposition to the fact of being reserved and withdrawn..., (2) emotional stability reflects being calm and controlled to being nervous and insecure..., (3) Friendliness opposes a courteous, confident and easy-going character to an aggressive, cold and intolerant character, (4) righteousness exposes the fact of being efficient and trusting as opposed to being negligent, unorganized and inefficient..., and (5) Intellectual openness refers to being curious, broad-minded, and cultured as opposed to being narrow-minded and ignorant.

In the majority of research done on this model, emotional stability and righteousness are positively correlated with a variety of performance types (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Barrick et al., 2001).

It seems clear that only the dimension of uprightness announces, with significant validity, the performance of all types and professional groups combined. Barrick et al., (2001) believe that uprightness represents "a motivationally-oriented personality trait variable that organizational psychologists have been looking for, for a long time. This should play a central role in theories aimed at explaining work performance".

The emotional stability dimension can possibly announce the overall performance and the performance of the group on the other hand only for some types of profession. The three remaining dimensions of the "big five" announce only a few types of performance, for a few groups. It is certain that personality traits are an important determinant of performance. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H2: The character traits of the agent significantly influence individual performance.

4.1.3. Satisfaction

The examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and performance occupied researchers during the second half of the 20th century, hence the emergence of contradictory

debates.

Locke (1976) describes job satisfaction as a positive and pleasurable emotional attitude. It is the consequence of the evaluation of a position or professional experience by a person. Because of this, it is valued as an emotional feeling at her work.

From the 90s Motowidlo evokes “judgments by the subject of the more or less favourable aspects of his work environment”.

Thereby, if job satisfaction is considered to be an evaluation judgment, affect at work is perceived as prior to it. If we believe that job satisfaction has an affective connotation, then affect is its indicator.

Among the classic emotional states that occur at work, we cite stress and job satisfaction as not necessarily related to emotions per se: a satisfied employee is not necessarily a happy employee and vice versa a stressed employee is not inevitably unhappy.

Professional satisfaction is the consequence of the adequacy between the expectations of employees and the measure of what they perceive from their work (Hess, 2003).

The relationship between performance and job satisfaction has not been unanimous. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) show a low average correlation between performance and satisfaction (0.17). This research, therefore, underlines that job satisfaction is not a predictive variable of future performance at work. It seems that the link is not direct but rather moderated by moderating variables such as Absenteeism /presenteeism, psychological withdrawal / Well-being at work; and intention to leave / fidelity, etc.

More recent research on the differentiation between contextual and task performance seems less definitive. Indeed Judge et al., (2001) highlighted an average degree of correlation between the satisfaction of the employees and the performance of the individuals at the level of work which is 0.30 (while Iaffaldano and Muchinsky 0.17). This average degree of correlation is sufficient to demonstrate that satisfaction is a predictive variable of future performance in the behavioural sciences.

Today, it is clear that the analysis of the link between satisfaction and individual performance at work represents a major challenge in contemporary research. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H3: The job satisfaction of the agent significantly influences individual performance.

4.1.4. Affects

Affect is a generic concept that evokes feelings that the person has towards someone or something. A lasting and low-intensity affect depends on the mood. The pleasure and displeasure experienced in a busy position depend on the mood. Working in another position, or changing the content of a job, involves a transformation that potentially changes the mood whether it is towards pleasure or displeasure. On the other hand, a momentary but very strong affect is an emotion. The latter is generally oriented towards a well-defined target; a situation, a person or a thing.

Mitchell and Daniels (2003) identify in their research the factors that are conditioned by affect and which subsequently involve motivation and performance at work: ease of decision-making, creativity, adaptation to stressful events, prosocial behaviours conflict resolution.

When these factors have an effective influence, there is an improvement in work performance. They also show that mood has an effect on the deployment of feelings of self-efficacy when a task or an activity is thoroughly mastered. Nevertheless, these factors remain reserved in relation to their conclusions, because they revealed that some affects are successive to performance while others influence performance.

For their part, Wright and Cropanzano (2000) demonstrated the positive affect of psychological well-being in relation to work performance. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H4: Agent affects significantly influences individual performance.

4.1.5. Involvement and commitment

This is “work commitment” or “involvement”. Commitment or involvement, indicated in English by the affective or collective relationships linking the employee to his world of work. The term organizational involvement includes three types: the normative, the calculated and the affective in the relationship of the person to his work or to his organization. The normative refers to a sense of duty within an organization, the calculated underlines the importance of the possible loss of departure from the organization, and attitude or affection, which refers to the attachment and identification of a person with a particular organization.

The definition of organizational involvement is formulated by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), within the framework of harmony between the values of the organization and the values of its members, it is as follows: "It is the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization". For the person to have a sense of involvement, they are supposed to adopt the organisation's values, standards, and goals.

Most empirical work has highlighted only a weak link between organizational involvement and individual performance at work.

According to the conclusion of Riketta and Landerer (2005), there is a positive link between organizational involvement of the affective type and performance in action on the one hand and on the other hand the behaviour of organizational citizenship. Meyer et al. (2004) demonstrated that through involvement with the hierarchical superior, emotional organizational involvement has an effect on work, performance.

As a result, performance is essentially related to affective involvement and the attachment is more intense within the profession than with the organization. Employees with a strong involvement in their profession work more intensely to achieve higher standards. Involvement in work tasks is a significant determinant of performance. It should also be noted that a calculated involvement leads to a certain passivity.

In the second paragraph, we demonstrate that other determinants of individual performance relate to the relationship that the individual has with other individuals in the organization. We, therefore, show that the psychological contract, organizational justice, organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust, organizational support and Leader-Member exchange have an influence on individual performance. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H5: Agent involvement significantly influences individual performance.

4.2. The perception of relationship exchange by the individual

According to Giffard and Moral (2015), “this perspective presupposes that what is important is not the person but the way the interactions between people work as a whole”. The current social exchange is based on the research of Blau (1964), he defines social exchange as "favours which create diffuse future obligations, unspecified and whose nature of the counterpart cannot be negotiated but must be left to the discretion of its author" (Blau, 1964).

These exchange relationships are portrayed and examined according to several concepts: psychological contract, organizational justice, organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust and organizational support. These concepts instil that the individual engages in behaviours at the social exchange level to achieve his objectives. A description of the various concepts related to exchange relations with the aim of identifying the determinants of performance that are important and those that are not.

4.2.1. The psychological contract

The psychological contract is defined as a set of mutual obligations and promises between the employer and his employee, entered by the latter (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994). A breach or breach of contract affects behaviours and diminishes job performance. Research by Robinson

and Morrison (2000) demonstrates that the perception of rupture negatively influences employee citizenship behaviours.

Studies on overcoming the psychological contract and its effect on work performance are few. This is justified by the fact that employees are more likely to have the perception of the violation of the psychological contract rather than an overshoot. While employers working to retain their employees most of the time go beyond the psychological contract (to retain significant potential, for example). It is deductible whereas respecting the psychological contract is a real determinant favourable to individual performance. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H6: The psychological contract significantly influences individual performance.

4.2.2. Support and organizational justice

Overall, people care about how they are treated in the organization where they work. A sense of justice experienced by a person implies positive attitudes at work (job satisfaction, involvement in the organization, citizenship behaviour) and increases work performance (Cropanzano et al., 2002). This feeling of justice is the consequence of a triple perception: (1) perceiving distributive justice concerns the justice of decisions (equity theory Adams), (2) perceiving procedural justice means the justice of the decision-making process, the justice of the allocation of results (performance measurement criteria, management of performance measurement, certainty of information for inter-individual decision-making), and (3) interpersonal justice (treating individuals with respect, the possibility of having explanations and justifications).

There seems to be a positive correlation between perceiving distributive justice and work performance (Dubinsky and Levy, 1989). Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H7: Organizational justice significantly influences individual performance.

4.2.3. Organizational citizenship

Organizational citizenship behaviours include all activities beyond those prescribed at work, which will bring quality to the work context. They are supportive behaviours. Organ (1988) mentions five factors that define organizational citizenship behaviours: (1) Altruism (the behaviour is directed towards helping a particular person, in face-to-face situations), (2) Honesty (impersonal behaviour in accordance with the organization's standards like being punctual, etc.), (3) Sportsmanship (having a broad mind while avoiding complaining about minor things), (4) Courtesy (consulting others before initiating an action), and (5) Civic virtue (being interested in the organization's concern).

Thus, the relationship between performance and citizenship behaviours is more a matter of belief than scientifically established links, but these behaviours eventually influence the performance of groups.

The literature then reveals several relationships between the behaviours of organizational citizenship and our subject the performance of the individual. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H8: Organizational citizenship significantly influences individual performance.

4.2.4. Interpersonal trust

It represents the trust between an employee and his direct manager or with the leader. It has an effect on work performance and more generally on work attitudes. Indeed, the commitment of employees in the company is carried out according to their perception of reciprocity and the balance of exchanges and when the bond of trust between employees and the organization is favourable therefore generates performance at work (Neveu, 2004). Having confidence in one's direct supervisor has a positive effect on performance, innovative actions and job satisfaction. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H9: Interpersonal trust significantly influences individual performance.

4.2.5. Organizational support and its perception by the employee

The employee's perception of organizational support reflects the organization's commitment to him. This approach then considers the exchange only from the perspective of the employee.

According to research on the concept of organizational support, when employees perceive support from their organization, they show reciprocity by supporting the organization in achieving its goals.

Organizational support positively influences organizational involvement and especially in its affective dimension as well as in acts of organizational citizenship and work performance. On the contrary, there is a negative effect on absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Lynch et al. (1999) show that significant organizational support positively influences extra-role performance. On the other hand, concerning the relationship between role performance and organizational support, the results are more nuanced. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H10: Organizational support and its perception by employees significantly influence individual performance.

4.2.6. The Leader-Member Exchange

Regarding this concept (ELM), it is related to the link between a manager and his subordinate. Wayne et al. (2002) show that a quality exchange deploys organizational involvement and increases work performance. Once all the relationships that a person has with others at work are spread out, it is possible to consider all of these factors as determinants of individual performance, and therefore as determinants of collective performance.

In another sense, Mebarki (2018) and Clergeau et al. (2002) claim in their research that service performance also depends on the perceptions of the employees in contact and their skill levels. It is for these reasons that it is necessary to present in this subsection the importance of competence in achieving the performance of personnel in contact. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H11: The Leader-Member Exchange significantly influences individual performance.

5. Is there performance without skills?

In the field of Human Resources, performance and competence are two concepts that most of the time go together: (1) skills create performance, (2) the existence of performance depends on the interest shown in skills, whether individual or collective. In the context of rationalization where evaluation makes it possible to control what is evaluated, competence is a performance lever that can mask the difficulty hidden behind this relationship.

We begin by recalling the founding definition on the basis of which researchers all agree today after the research of Zarifian (2009). Le Boterf (2013): “*Competence is the set of individual characteristics: knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow a person to carry out their activity independently, to constantly improve their practice and to adapt to a rapidly changing environment*”.

On the other hand, the socio-constructivist approach of Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky (Blais, 2014) where competence is an individual and continuous construction process, which unfolds in comparison with the collective. Competence there is not a state, it depends on the context and the protagonists in the midst of which it arises. It is, therefore, in continuous evolution, never finished or fixed.

Skill can only be acquired and constantly on the move. These new economic conditions have contributed to the development of Human Resource Management models. The initial model

based on qualification gives way to that of “GPEC” (provisional management of jobs and skills).

Faced with the complexity of grasping the skill by a measure in a given situation, Jobert (2014) suggests associating it with work and attesting that for daily managerial uses, the product of the skill is of more interest than his nature.

From there, he establishes the relationship between competence and performance and recommends that instead of continuing the search for a new and more adequate conceptualization of competence, it is preferable to improve above all the conditions of construction and occurrence of that competence (Jobert, 2014).

But Jobert (2014) is not interested in the notion of work, which concerns all the tasks to be performed for remuneration. That is to say, everything that the worker has invested in his person through his work to achieve his mission.

All of the stakeholders agree that a person's competence is the source of their growth and that of the company. The logic behind it is as follows: everyone has skills and this produces performance, therefore measuring skills to deploy them with the aim of increasing performance. Skill is also a commodity obtained through work. It is at this point that the skills assessment gives rise to knowing where each individual has arrived in the VAE (validation of acquired experience) in order to progress in his profession or perhaps change it.

As Del Rey (2013) states, “We have entered a knowledge society, the most efficient economy is the one that knows how to invest primarily in Human Resources. But what is Human resources made of? Skills! Investing in training means investing in human capital which, through the acquisition of skills, is enhanced... but not just any skills: “key skills”! Hence the challenge of their definition...”

Management makes it possible to produce tools to identify the skills of the protagonists at work by formalizing the job descriptions, the skills objectives, and the tasks: the training passport, the portfolio, and the annual evaluation interview are the results.

In some contexts, professionals manage to achieve feats in extreme conditions. However, all of this cannot be formalized, any evaluation that gives rise to effective management by skills and especially the detection of elements participating in performance.

In this sense, the skills of individuals are conditioned by the resources of the organization and the possibility of access to the knowledge networks they have. Supporting organizational responsibility led Le Boterf (2013) to discuss collective skills and their deployment in his final articles. To go from individual skills to collective skills, he underlines the need to create work groups based on cooperation, which he claims forms collective performance.

For his part, Clot (2017) evokes the “power to act”. It shows that to develop this “power to act” which is carried out both on oneself and in the profession of belonging, it is necessary that people confront each other and face the institution. “The power to act is the rediscovered professional creation that gives the ability to dialogue with everyone when possible and the power to resist power when necessary.”

When the person works in another organization, he may find that he cannot reproduce some skills in the new environment. A skill tested in variable environments is bound to be stronger.

As in the case of the debate held on specialized skills or on the evaluation of competence, the difficulty of building competence tells us that it is a process. The individual is determined to be more competent; he requires resources and places himself in a dynamic.

The collective is important given the debates it allows while establishing a climate of trust and stimulating cross-validation. A synergy is created which is the result of a mesh of all the collaborators. This energy nevertheless has limits because if a component disappears, the building can collapse.

The aspects of recognition, cohesion between the group and team spirit on the one hand, an accentuated interest brought to the atmosphere, and expectation at work on the other hand, do

not come out of the competence but these dimensions are essential to the development of the latter.

The evaluation of professional practices (EPP) carried out by peers may present a space not controlled by the hierarchy when communication between them takes place on all aspects of the work. They present new ways of learning and assessment, outside of formal training, constantly with the aim of “redoing the job” and encouraging the evolution of its performance in terms of quality.

The frequent organizational models in human resources, with their series of prescriptions, good practices, and protocols, are unfavourable to developing skills. They leave intelligence, creativity, autonomy and pleasure at work invisible. Achieving performance without finding pleasure in one's work is an illusion challenged by Dejours (2018) in his study of suffering at work.

We can't discuss his actual work anywhere, we don't divulge his little relevant, productive, creative arrangements. We keep them to ourselves, especially if we are in competition. On the other hand, it is possible to share them with a work collective to which one belongs. It shows that there is an invisible and unprescribed part of the skill that fuels performance.

The interest is to go beyond the model of acquisition in primary school or higher schools to join a model of building skills in a continuous way that is more real than prescribed. Professionals can, however, articulate diplomas at work around skills, however by focusing more on their construction than on their acquisition and by bringing training even closer to work. Hence, we can propose the following hypothesis:

H12: The Skills of an agent significantly influence individual performance.

6. Methodology and conceptual model

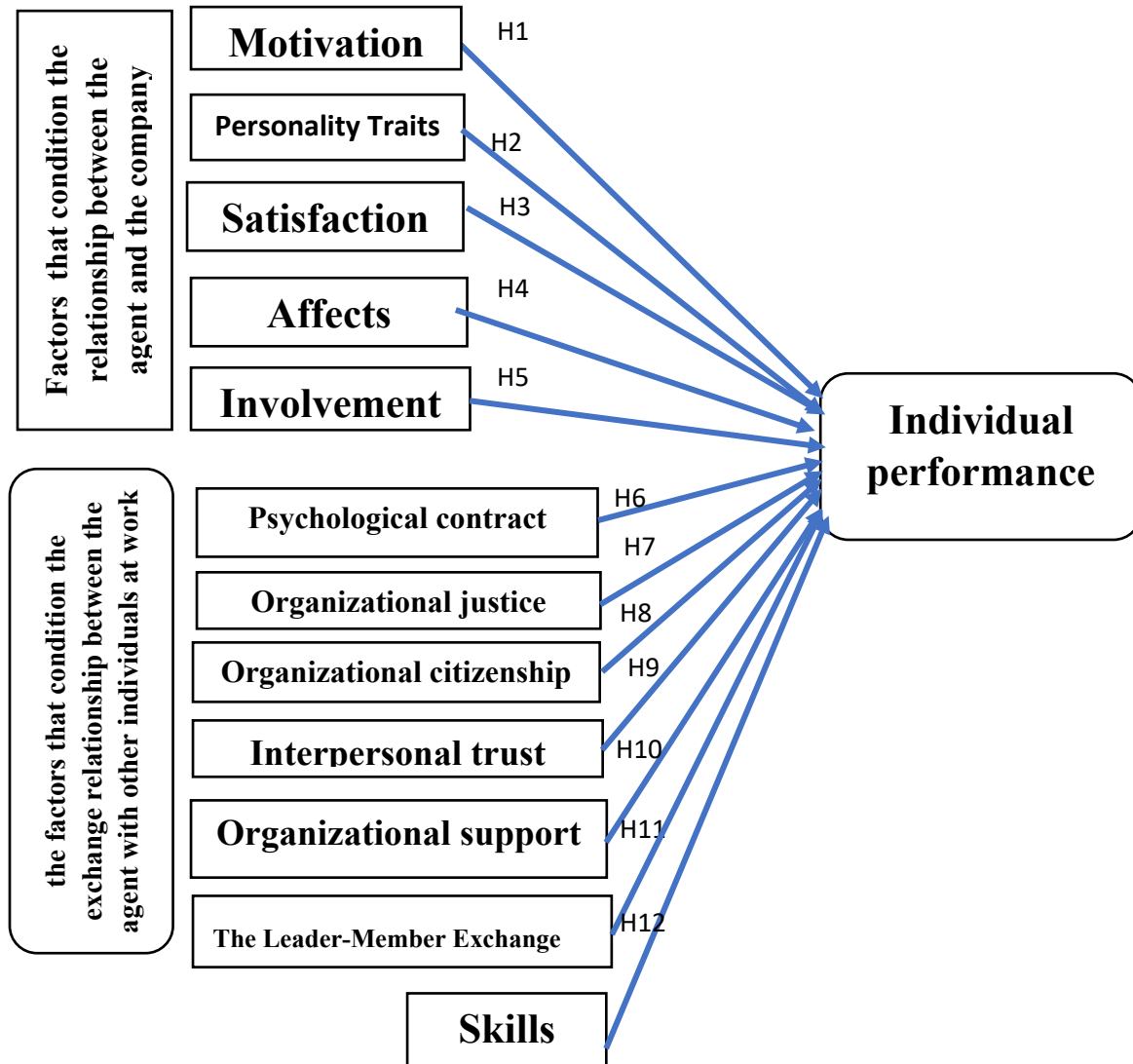
Methodologically, we use conceptual literature with a descriptive epistemological position. This work encompasses a set of theories (needs theory, self-regulation theory and agency theory...) and all the concepts that guide the research process along the way.

This literature review realized factors driving individual performance. It can allow us to build our conceptual model. It can be explored in future studies by empirical research. We summarize our literature review by highlighting important ideas like there are two types of factors driving individual performance: (1) the factors that condition the relationship between the agent and the company, (2) the factors that condition the exchange relationship between the agent with other individuals at work (Charles-Pauvers et al., 2007). We talk about (1) motivation, personality traits, satisfaction, affect, and involvement and, (2) psychological contract, organizational justice, organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust and organizational support. A description of the various concepts related to exchange relations has been realized with the aim of identifying the determinants of individual performance that have a high level of correlation and those that don't. Anyway, the correlation between these variables can be positively confirmed or not and at which level in future empirical research. Then we add Skills to our conceptual model because we justify theoretically that this variable has a correlation with individual performance.

- **H1:** The motivation of the agent significantly influences individual performance.
- **H2:** The character traits of the agent significantly influence individual performance.
- **H3:** The job satisfaction of the agent significantly influences individual performance.
- **H4:** Agent affects significantly influences individual performance.
- **H5:** Agent involvement significantly influences individual performance.
- **H6:** The psychological contract significantly influences individual performance.
- **H7:** Organizational justice significantly influences individual performance.

- **H8:** Organizational citizenship significantly influences individual performance.
- **H9:** Interpersonal trust significantly influences individual performance.
- **H10:** Organizational support and its perception by employees significantly influence individual performance.
- **H11:** The Leader-Member Exchange significantly influences individual performance.
- **H12:** The Skills of an agent significantly influence individual performance.

Figure n°1: Conceptual and hypothetic model



Source: Author

7. Conclusion

The protagonists of performance according to the school of human relations consider an absolute criterion of organizational value, that of men. It is based on the assumption that achieving social objectives leads to the achievement of economic and financial objectives. Individual performance includes all the behaviours that the company values and expects from its employees.

These are behaviours that positively influence the achievement of organizational objectives (growth, productivity, creativity, quality, customer satisfaction) and that the employee achieves discontinuously (ability, know-how, motivation, quality of work, etc.).

Campbell is one of the first researchers to have identified the desired behaviours and attitudes, giving the possibility to the employee to be successful thanks to a multifactorial model which designates eight dimensions of performance behaviours. In order to mobilize a basic reflection on the concept of individual performance at the work level, we distinguish between contextual performance and performance in the task.

The latter refers to the prescribed behaviours. The performance coincides with all the behaviours that contribute to organizational effectiveness through their influence on the social, psychological and organizational context at the work level. That being said, there are three modes of performance evaluation: by supervision, by peers or by the contact agent himself.

We then discuss the determinants of individual performance. We distinguish two categories: (1) those that relate to the relationship of the person with his work, we perceive motivation, personality traits, satisfaction, affects and involvement; and (2) those that relate to the relationship that the individual has with other individuals in the organization. We identify the behaviours of organizational citizenship, interpersonal trust, organizational support, psychological contract, justice and exchange leader member.

After this literature review, we find that without skills, we cannot speak of performance because skills create performance and the existence of performance depends on the interest in skills, whether individual or collective. the interconnection between all these ideas leads us to present a conceptual and hypothetic model ready for future exploration work. the future results can confirm if these factors chosen really drive individual performance

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