Architecture Image Studies
AIS Scientific Journal

Vol.6, Issue 3, pp.62-77, 2025
DOI: https://doi.org/10.62754/ais.v6i3.187

https://journals.ap2.pt/index.php/ais/index

The Role of Amanah and Reputation in Improving the Performance: Literature Review

Jefri Heridiansyah[1], Mutamimah[2], Sri Hartono[3], Wahyudi[4]

Abstract

This study examines the role of amanah (trustworthiness) and reputation in enhancing the organizational performance of Islamic private universities in Central Java. Drawing on resource-based theory (RBT) and the concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), the research investigates how amanah reputation ethic, amanah reputation work environment, and amanah reputation social responsibility influence OCB and, subsequently, organizational performance. This paper uses a literature review from textbooks and articles with conceptual and empirical findings sourced from Scopus, WoS, ScienceDirect, Emerald, MDPI, and Google Scholar, examining organizational performance at individual, team, and organizational levels. Findings reveal that ethical reputation actively drives organizational success by embedding ethics into corporate identity, fostering trust, and sustaining growth. A supportive work environment enhances reputation, performance, and resilience in evolving markets. Social responsibility is a strategic necessity, strengthening reputation and long-term success. Organizational Citizenship Behavior fosters innovation, excellence, and stakeholder value, driving sustainable growth.

Keywords: *Amanah Reputation Ethics, Amanah Reputation Work Environment, Amanah Reputation Social Responsibility, Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), Organizational Performance*

Introduction

The concept of dynamic capabilities, as introduced by Teece, Pisano, & Shuen (2009), has garnered increasing attention in management literature in recent years. This interest builds on the long-standing focus in strategy and organizational theory literature on the relationship between a company's strategic choices and environmental conditions (Thompson, 1967). Failure to address significant environmental changes can negatively impact a company's performance (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000). In today's economic climate, organizations face more challenges than ever, demanding efficient and effective management practices.

Organizational performance can be viewed as a concept used to measure the extent to which a company achieves its goals through the products or services it delivers (Hendrayati & Gaffar, 2016). Resource-based theory (RBT), developed by Barney (1991), encompasses both tangible and intangible resources. Tangible resources refer to physical assets that can be seen and touched, such as machinery, real estate, and financial capital. According to Kartajaya (2017), tangibles represent everything visibly apparent during interpersonal interactions. Tangible resources also apply to other fields, such as product design, where physical products like furniture, electronics, and household appliances are considered tangible. These products can be measured by sales volume and used to generate revenue.

[1] Doctoral Program in Management Science, Faculty of Economics, Sultan Agung Islamic University Semarang, Indonesia and Management Study Program, College of Economics (Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Semarang) Semarang, Indonesia. EMAIL: jefriheridiansyah@std.unissula.ac.id, ORCID iD: 0009-0006-7567-9224
[2] Faculty of Economics, Sultan Agung Islamic University Semarang, Indonesia. EMAIL: mutamimah@unissula.ac.id, ORCID iD: 0000-0002- 4139-1955
[3] Faculty of Economics, Sultan Agung Islamic University Semarang, Indonesia Email : srihartono@unissula.ac.id, ORCID iD: 0000-0001- 6239-5333
[4] Doctoral Program in Management Science, Faculty of Economics, Sultan Agung Islamic University Semarang, Indonesia and Management Study Program, College of Economics (Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Semarang) Semarang, Indonesia. EMAIL: wahyudi23@std.unissula.ac.id, ORCID iD: 0009-0005-6856-0578

RBT posits that strategies are implemented by making resources superior, unique, and irreplaceable, referred to as "strategic assets" (Bromiley & Rau, 2016). Strategic resources within a company contribute to its ability to survive and thrive (Hitt, Xu, & Carnes, 2016). However, not all resources can be transformed into core competitive competencies (Khan, Rehmat, Butt, Farooqi, & Asim, 2020). This applies only to resources that are valuable, rare, irreplaceable, and difficult to imitate when they become tools for market competition (Hitt, Li, & Xu, 2016). The potential for value creation through intellectual capital aligns with RBT, where value creation is achieved by the human capital of the company—employees with specific skills, expertise, knowledge, and competencies (Abhayawansa & Abeysekera, 2008). One approach to understanding this is the resource-based view (RBT), where the unit of analysis is the resources and capabilities controlled by the organization. Barney (1991), a pioneer of this approach, explained that resources will provide a competitive advantage to organizations that possess them, provided the resources are valuable, rare, and difficult to imitate or substitute. Tangible and intangible resources within RBT encompass all attributes that enable organizations to determine and implement strategies. These resources can be divided into four types: financial resources (e.g., equity, retained earnings, third-party resources); physical resources (e.g., machinery and real estate); human resources (e.g., employee experience and intelligence); and organizational resources (e.g., teamwork and trust) (Barney & Hesterly, 2009).

Some researchers argue that intangible resources drive organizational performance (Zigan, 2013). This finding supports RBT assumptions, as the causal ambiguity inherent in intangible resources makes them difficult to identify, isolate, and measure in terms of performance. Consequently, competitors find it challenging to decode and develop similar resources (Fernàndez, Montes, & Vàzquez, 2000). Therefore, intangible resources are the most difficult to imitate or replace and are often considered the rarest and most valuable, providing competitive advantages and superior performance for organizations (Houneida & Arab, 2011). Similarly, corporate reputation—considered one of the primary intangible resources—has gained academic attention in recent decades as a driver of organizational performance (Vance & De Angelo, 2007). This theory has limitations, as it explores an entity's capability to utilize its resources to create organizational performance. These resources must be valuable, rare, difficult to imitate, and lacking substitutes (Apriliyanti, 2022; Mailani, Hulu, Simamora, & Kesuma, 2024; Pires & Trez, 2018).

The concept of corporate reputation began in the 1970s when the relevance of various stakeholder assessments of corporate reputation started to be identified (Spence, 1973) and the importance of public reputation signals for company performance and competitiveness became clear (Caves & Porter, 1977). Reputation came to be understood as a set of attributes and characteristics of an organization resulting from past actions (Weigelt & Camerer, 1988), evaluations of organizational performance (Puente, Sabaté, & García, 2005; Rao, 1994), and stakeholder perceptions (Fombrun, 1996), through processes of legitimization (Miotto, Del-Castillo-Feito, & Blanco-González, 2020). In the context of universities, reputation is the sum of impressions stakeholders receive from their communication and interactions with the university (Rindova, Williamson, Petkova, & Sever, 2005). Thus, it is evaluative, reflecting consensus judgments (Roberts & Dowling, 2002).

Reputation is associated with “strong traditions” (Chevalier & Conlon, 2003) and, like organizational reputation, requires time to consolidate a positive reputation among stakeholders. It therefore demands institutional innovativeness toward excellence in educational processes and outcomes, as well as research results (Arambewela & Hall, 2009; Delgado-Márquez, Escudero-Torres, & Hurtado-Torres, 2013; Roberts & Dowling, 2002).

Organizational performance is an asset for companies, contributing to key aspects of organizational success. It reflects the level of achievement in realizing an organization’s vision and mission. It represents the results of work in activities or programs planned to achieve predetermined goals within a specific timeframe. Crises can affect corporate reputation, demonstrating that corporate image and reputation can serve as general marketing metrics to measure a company’s performance. Results show that customers perceive quality and satisfaction as influencing loyalty through perceived value, image, and reputation (Özkan, Süer, Keser, & Kocakoç, 2020).

Researchers have recognized the significant impact of OCB on organizational success, as formal job descriptions cannot anticipate all behaviors necessary to achieve goals (George, 1996). The practical importance of OCB lies in enhancing organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformation, innovation, and adaptability (D. Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCB has received considerable attention in business and organizational studies for several reasons (Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Turnipseed

& Murkison, 2000). OCB can enhance organizational success by enabling more effective allocation of financial and human resources (D. Organ, 1988; Vanyperen, Berg, & Willering, 1999). It provides additional resources to organizations and eliminates the need for costly formal mechanisms critical to successful restructuring processes (George, 1996; Katz & Kahn, 1966; D. W. Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

Reputation is built through students' experiences with universities (Chen & Esangbedo, 2018) and influences student attraction (Plewa, Ho, Conduit, & Karpen, 2016), university selection (Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando, Zorrilla, & Forcada, 2018), faculty appeal (Christensen & Gornitzka, 2017), and stakeholders' knowledge (Vogler, 2020), both internally and externally (Verčič, Verčič, & Žnidar, 2016). It also affects university rankings and evaluations (Del-Castillo-Feito, Blanco-González, & González-Vázquez, 2019). Previous studies found that reputation requires management and significantly impacts internal university processes, including reforms that influence educational quality (Steiner, Sundström, & Sammalisto, 2013). Media plays a crucial role in reputation management by providing channels and spaces for stakeholders to learn about, identify, comment on, and discuss an institution's reputation (Deephouse, 2000). This is why many universities facing competitive contexts turn to marketing to enhance their image and reputation, attracting not only students but also teachers and financial resources (Wilkins & Huisman, 2014).

Reputation refers to the image attached to a product or company name, conveying a strong impression or character. It reflects the need for sellers to build significant relationships with clients to portray their image in the public sphere. Zain et al. (2017) defines reputation as agility in responding to dynamic environmental challenges, variable businesses, and uncertainties, including new ways of doing business, new reflections in production, purchasing, and sales, and openness to new business relationships and evaluation measures for companies and individuals. Reputation is more important in virtual environments than in traditional markets (Munisamy, Jaafar, & Nagaraj, 2014). Varma et al. (2020) argue that reputation enables e-commerce to spread among inexperienced online customers who may become potential clients. Selviana & Istiyanto (2021) defines reputation as an identity representing the sum of values performed by societal groups and consumers.

Conceptually, corporate reputation can be defined as the collective perception of an organization's past actions and expectations regarding its future actions, considering its efficiency relative to major competitors (Fombrun, 1996; Fombrun & Rindova, 2001; Walker, 2010). Some authors state that corporate reputation influences organizational performance, while others argue the reverse: organizational performance influences corporate reputation. Flanagan et al. (2011) studied the relationship between Fortune Most Admired Companies (FMAC) evaluations and organizations' economic-financial performance, finding that the relationship between reputation and company performance—initially identified by Brown & Perry (1994)—still exists, albeit weakened.

Islam calls upon all humanity to achieve success in this life and the afterlife. Islam teaches that the most excellent humans (those with high maqom) are those who are pious. The Qur'an emphasizes amanah, which means fulfilling promises and taking responsibility. Amanah is a responsibility borne by an individual or entrusted to them to return to the rightful owner. Humans are inherently social beings who depend on one another solely to seek Allah's pleasure. Worship is part of the amanah given by Allah (Fachruddin, 1992). Language expert Ibrahim Mustafa explains that amanah conveys meanings of fulfillment and trust. In Indonesian, amanah means something entrusted or delegated (Shihab, 2007). Humans are burdened by Allah with immense responsibilities. Everyone is obligated to uphold amanah or honesty in every situation they face, yet many fail to bear it due to a lack of honesty and knowledge.

The main objective of strategic business management is to understand why some organizations perform better than others (Crook, Ketchen, Combs, & Todd, 2008). Thus, identifying factors explaining corporate performance heterogeneity is a primary concern for theorists in this field. One approach to understanding this is the resource-based view, where the unit of analysis is the resources and capabilities controlled by the organization. Barney (1991), a pioneer of this approach, explained that resources provide a competitive advantage to organizations that possess them, provided the resources are valuable, rare, and difficult to imitate or substitute.

Limitations and differing results from theories developed by Sange highlight the need to propose amanah and trust as mediators of organizational performance to enhance sustainable competitive advantage. Amanah is derived from Quranic verses through deep analysis, emphasizing promise-keeping and accountability within the framework of RBT as a strategic organizational asset integrated with the Islamic paradigm (Ismail & Sarif, 2011; Iseh et al., 2024; Alwan et al., 2024). Through intelligent thought and comprehensive analysis as a variable providing complete dimensions, it becomes an intangible organizational asset indicating belief in the oneness of God (oneness God), realized through organizational life practices conducted with principles of togetherness aligned with religious guidance, and enhanced through knowledge as a solution-oriented path to creating organizational performance.

Conceptually, corporate reputation can be defined as the collective perception of an organization's past actions and expectations regarding its future actions, considering its efficiency relative to major competitors (Fombrun, 1996; Fombrun & Rindova, 2001; Walker, 2010; Behfrouz & Tahmasebpoor, 2025; Ağdemir et al., 2025; Abdullahi, 2025). Some researchers state that corporate reputation influences organizational performance, while others argue the reverse: organizational performance influences corporate reputation. Flanagan et al. (2011) studied the relationship between Fortune Most Admired Companies (FMAC) evaluations and organizations' economic-financial performance, finding that the relationship between reputation and company performance—initially identified by Brown & Perry (1994)—still exists, albeit weakened. The concept of organizational performance developed in this study aligns with Islamic teachings in Surah Al-Alaq (1-5), which emphasize learning and seeking knowledge as a means to understand Allah's existence. Through learning, humans come to believe in Allah's presence, leading them to act responsibly and fulfill promises.

Research controversies exist: Keh & Xie (2009); Kristianti & Ardian (2022); Rose & Thomsen (2004); Wongsosudono (2012) argue that corporate reputation does not influence company performance. However, Setiawan (2016); Pham & Tran (2020); Liu & Lu (2019); Cooper, Diab, & Beeson (2020) found that corporate reputation positively impacts organizational performance. Samli, Kelly, & Hunt (1998); Hatch & Schultz (2001); Wahyuningsih & Tanggulungan (2015) argue that reputation negatively affects organizational performance. Conversely, Pham & Tran (2020); Liu & Lu (2019); Crisóstomo & Freire (2015); Saeidi et al. (2015); Cooper, Diab, & Beeson (2020); Fernando (2010); Wahyuningsih (2018); Putri & Lestari (2019); Islam et al. (2021) assert that reputation positively influences organizational performance.

Research limitations indicate that most studies focus on external corporate reputation while neglecting internal corporate reputation. Brown & Perry (1994); Fombrun, Gardberg, & Sever (2000); Black, Carnes, & Richardson (2000); Hatch & Schultz (2003); Mercer (2004); Flanagan, O'Shaughnessy, & Palmer (2011); Men (2014) state that companies with good internal reputations are expected to enhance public/stakeholder trust. Selnes (1993); Andreassen & Lindestad (1998); Nguyen & Leblanc (1998); Newell & Goldsmith (2001); Davies, Chun, Da Silva, & Roper (2003); Berens & Van Riel (2004); Tangngisalu et al. (2020); Khanifah, Udin, Hadi, & Alfiana (2020); Sa'adah & Sudiarto (2022) argue that reputation is influenced by external factors such as image, organizational identity, honesty, reliability, organizational virtue, and corporate credibility.

Thus, contributions studying the background of corporate reputation in higher education institutions recognize it as an intangible asset across all types of organizations, including universities, from employees' perspectives. Literature reviews on service quality concepts in higher education institutions reveal that reputation is a critical dimension measured to operationalize quality. Considering these factors and the diversity and fragmentation of this concept, particularly in higher education contexts, further exploration of reputation grounded in amanah is needed.

Based on the above, this study aims to examine how the literature review of the integration of Islamic trust values with reputation can improve organizational performance. This research contributes to the academic development and advancement of Islamic private universities. Addressing the research gaps and phenomena outlined above, this study sought to explore how the literature review through reputation and trustworthiness enhances sustainable competitive advantage. The research questions are: How can a new theoretical model be built to address the gap in previous research regarding the effect of reputation, from the OCB dimension, on organizational performance? The purpose of this study is to build a new theoretical model to address the gap.

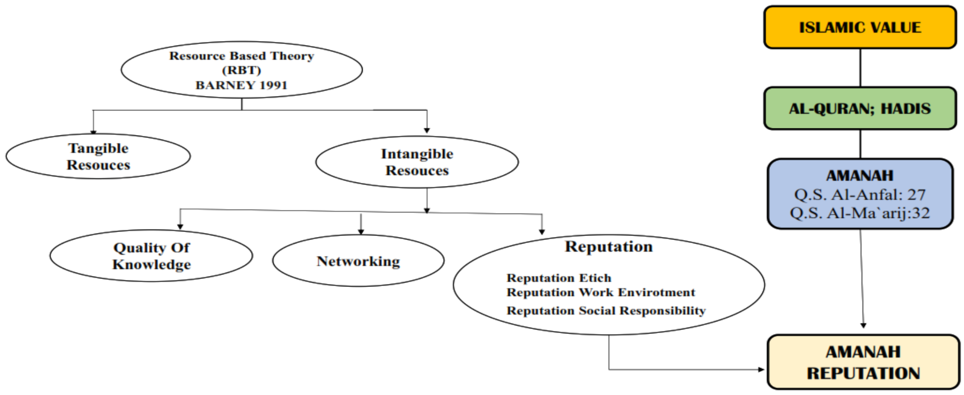

Figure 1: Integration Resources Based Theory (Reputation) and Amanah

Literature Review

Amanah Reputation Ethics

The level of admiration and emotions an organization evokes significantly influences the organization itself. These factors affect organizational behavior and function, particularly through emotional appeal, which includes aspects such as positive feelings toward the organization, admiration and respect for the organization, and trust in the organization (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). According to Fombrun et al. (2000), ethics represents a positive feeling toward an organization based on admiration, respect, and trust.

As previously mentioned, corporate identity is a component of corporate reputation. Therefore, if ethics serves as a means to create and reflect a company's identity, it also impacts reputation. The concept begins with the idea that reputation reflects organizational members' internal and external perceptions and becomes its focal point. Research conducted in various countries using the four scales has revealed differences in dimensions (Saini, Rai, & Chaudhary, 2014; Sivertzen, Nilsen, & Olafsen, 2013). These differences are attributed to cultural variations across countries (Sivertzen et al., 2013). Consequently, companies operating in a specific country cannot rely on research findings from other countries to appear attractive. Based on the above explanation, ethical reputation refers to the positive feelings generated by an organization.

Amanah Reputation Work Environment

Sanjaya & Indrawati (2014) and Confessa & Ardana (2014) explain that the work environment encompasses everything surrounding employees while performing their duties, influencing the level of employee performance. According to Ambarini & Emawati (2010), the work environment is a critical aspect that companies must consider, as it impacts employee performance. The workplace environment includes fair recognition of employee performance, high-quality work, and a good working environment (Fombrun & Gardberg, 2000).

The work environment comprises aspects such as fair rewards for employees, qualified employees, and a good place to work. Workplace reputation reflects perceptions of how well a company is managed, what it feels like to work there, and the quality of its employees. Previous research on the work environment by Sanjaya & Indrawati (2014) and Confessa & Ardana (2014) highlights that a company's work environment significantly influences its human resources. Based on the above explanation, the reputation of the workplace environment plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance in higher education institutions.

Amanah Reputation Social Responsibility

According to Fombrun & Gardberg (2000), social responsibility encompasses compliance with laws, support for good principles, environmental friendliness, and treating communities well. Social responsibility (SR) is a concept where organizations, particularly companies, bear responsibility toward consumers, employees, shareholders, communities, and the environment across all operational aspects, including issues impacting the environment such as pollution, waste, product safety, and labor.

The definition of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) can be found in Article 1, Paragraph 3 of Law No. 40 of 2007 on Limited Liability Companies (UUPT), which states: “Social and environmental responsibility is a company's commitment to participate in sustainable economic development to improve the quality of life and the environment, benefiting the company itself, the local community, and society at large.” Based on the above explanation, social responsibility includes aspects such as legal compliance, support for good principles, environmental friendliness, and treating communities well. Perceptions of a company as a good corporate citizen involve interactions with the community, employees, and the environment.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) refers to the extra efforts made by employees that are not included in their employment contracts but still benefit the organization in meeting customer needs (Polat, 2009). The voluntary commitment of individuals to an organization or business, unrelated to their contractual duties, is known as OCB (Meron, 2021). Typically, when individuals join an organization, they are assigned specific tasks and responsibilities. Members are expected to understand and fulfill these responsibilities as explicitly defined. However, it is impossible to outline every task an employee must perform for the company, including interactions with colleagues in other departments, customers, and other stakeholders. Therefore, employees are expected to undertake additional tasks beneficial to the company but not explicitly mentioned in formal agreements. OCB refers to behaviors that are not formally requested or directly rewarded but contribute to the effective functioning of an organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Organ (1988) identified five dimensions of OCB: conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism. These dimensions encompass organizational behaviors such as helping colleagues, adhering to company rules, refraining from complaints, and actively participating in organizational affairs.

OCB is defined by Organ and colleagues as "individual behaviors that are discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward systems, and collectively promote the effectiveness and functionality of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). The term "OCB" centers on three key elements. Since these behaviors are optional, their performance depends entirely on individual employees and is not regulated by job descriptions. Various studies indicate that different dimensions of OCB may have distinct antecedents. For example, Konovsky & Organ (1996) found that conscientiousness (one of the Big Five Personality Factors) predicts general compliance, altruism, and civic virtue but does not predict courtesy or sportsmanship. Ryan (2001) discovered that moral reasoning predicts helping behavior and sportsmanship but not civic virtue. Role ambiguity and role conflict negatively correlate with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but not with conscientiousness and civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The cited studies suggest the need to view the five dimensions of OCB as distinct concepts, although they fall under the broader category of OCB.

Organizational Performance

Organizational performance refers to the evaluation of an organization's capacity to achieve its objectives, which includes operational efficiency, managerial effectiveness, and the successful implementation of business strategies (Almatrooshi, Singh, & Farouk, 2016; Ilmudeen, Attar, & Alhazmi, 2019; Saputra, Putera, Zetra, Valentina, & Mulia, 2024). Enhancing organizational performance remains a central objective for all organizations. In its simplest form, organizational performance can be understood as the degree to which a company achieves its stated goals and objectives (Novak, 2017). This concept encompasses not only financial achievements but also the broader processes and contributions that drive sustainable success (Saputra et al., 2024). Many management initiatives, such as process optimization, human resource development, and technological innovation, are primarily aimed at improving organizational performance (Hadi & Marpaung, 2023). Researchers like Massingham & Tam (2015) and Barsade & O’Neill (2016) have extensively explored factors influencing organizational effectiveness, including knowledge management practices and dynamic capabilities.

Performance within an organization represents the tangible outcomes achieved about predefined goals, objectives, and desired outputs. Leadership plays a critical role in shaping subordinate behavior to align with organizational targets, making it a key determinant of success. Organizational performance is also viewed as a measure of productivity, emphasizing the contributions of employees (Oyemomi, Liu, Neaga, & Alkhuraiji, 2016). In contrast, Jenatabadi (2015) defines it not merely by results but as the processes and activities that support goal attainment. Performance can be assessed across various hierarchical levels—individual, group, and organizational—and involves evaluating both qualitative and quantitative aspects (Knies, Jacobsen, & Tummers, 2016). At the individual level, Mathis et al. (2018)

focus on the quality and quantity of work outputs, as well as the efficiency and effectiveness of workplace behaviors. From a financial perspective, metrics such as revenue, sales growth, return on investment, and shareholder value are commonly used to gauge economic success.

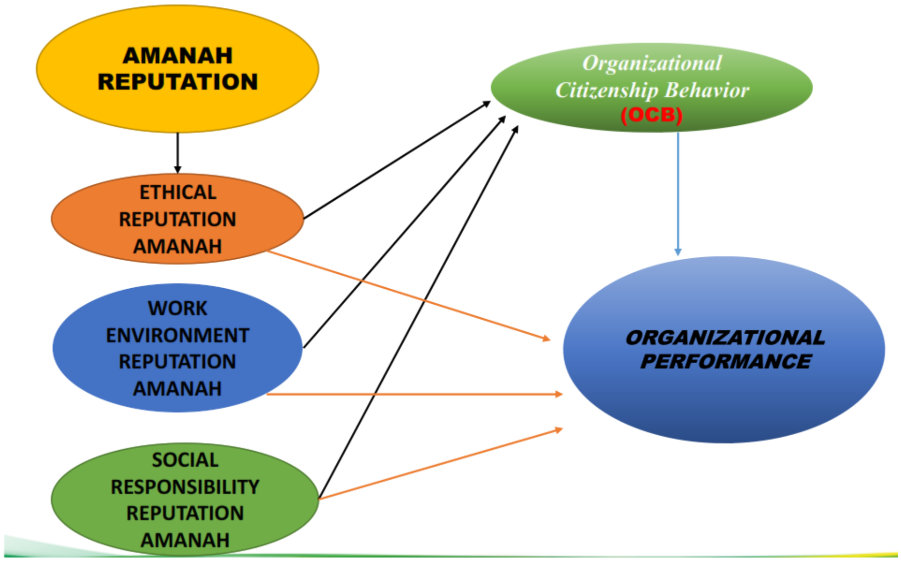

Figure 2: Empirical Model

Research Methodology

The paper is prepared using the literature review method, which is sourced from textbooks and articles containing concepts and empirical results. Articles obtained from Scopus, Web of Science (WoS), ScienceDirect, Emerald, MDPI, and Google Scholar. The organizational performance referred to in this paper includes all performance hierarchies, namely individuals, groups/teams, and the organization as a whole.

Research Result

Amanah Reputation Ethics

The higher the ethical amanah reputation, the higher the intensity of organizational performance. The level of admiration and emotional connection that an organization inspires plays a pivotal role in shaping its behavior, functionality, and overall effectiveness. These elements influence organizational dynamics through emotional appeal, which encompasses positive sentiments toward the organization, respect for its core values, and trust in its actions (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). Such emotional connections are not merely abstract concepts but tangible drivers of organizational success. They shape how stakeholders—ranging from employees and customers to investors and communities—perceive and interact with the organization. According to Fombrun et al. (2000), ethics serves as a cornerstone of this emotional appeal, reflecting a favorable perception of an organization rooted in admiration, respect, and trust. In essence, ethical reputation is not just about compliance with norms or adherence to legal standards; it is about cultivating a sense of integrity and reliability that resonates with both internal and external stakeholders.

As previously noted, corporate identity is a critical component of corporate reputation. Corporate identity encapsulates the unique characteristics, values, and behaviors that define an organization, while reputation reflects how these attributes are perceived by others. Ethics, in this context, acts as a bridge between corporate identity and reputation. When organizations embed ethical principles into their operations, they not only shape their identity but also enhance their reputation. This alignment between identity and reputation fosters trust and credibility, which are essential for long-term sustainability and competitive advantage.

The concept of reputation is inherently dynamic, as it is shaped by both internal perceptions (e.g., employees' views of the organization) and external perceptions (e.g., public opinion and media portrayals). Research conducted across various countries using standardized scales has revealed significant variations in how reputation dimensions are perceived (Saini et al., 2014; Sivertzen et al., 2013). These variations are often attributed to cultural distinctions, as societal norms and values influence what stakeholders consider important in evaluating an organization's reputation. For instance, in collectivist cultures, community-oriented values such as social responsibility and environmental stewardship may carry more weight, while individualist cultures might prioritize innovation, transparency, and personal accountability.

These cultural nuances underscore the importance of contextualizing reputation management strategies. Companies operating in one country cannot simply replicate findings or practices from other regions without considering local cultural and institutional factors (Sivertzen et al., 2013). For example, a reputation built on ethical practices in one cultural setting may not resonate equally in another if those practices do not align with local expectations or priorities. This highlights the need for organizations to adopt a localized yet globally informed approach to reputation management. By doing so, they can ensure that their ethical reputation is not only authentic but also relevant to the specific contexts in which they operate.

Based on this explanation, ethical reputation can be understood as the positive emotions and perceptions generated by an organization's commitment to ethical principles. It is a multidimensional construct that encompasses trustworthiness, respect, and admiration, all of which contribute to the organization's ability to build meaningful relationships with its stakeholders. These relationships, in turn, play a crucial role in driving organizational performance, fostering loyalty, and enhancing resilience in the face of challenges.

Amanah Reputation Work Environment

The higher the amanah reputation of the work environment, the higher the intensity of the organizational performance. The work environment, as described by Sanjaya & Indrawati (2014) and Confessa & Ardana (2014), encompasses all the external and internal factors that surround employees during their daily tasks. These factors significantly influence employee performance levels, shaping not only individual productivity but also the overall effectiveness of the organization. Ambarini & Emawati (2010) further emphasize that the work environment is a critical factor that organization must prioritize, as it directly impacts employee motivation, satisfaction, and output. A conducive work environment fosters fairness in recognizing employee contributions, encourages high-quality work outputs, and creates a supportive atmosphere that promotes collaboration and innovation (Fombrun & Gardberg, 2000).

The work environment is multifaceted, encompassing various dimensions such as equitable rewards systems, the presence of qualified personnel, and a pleasant physical and psychological workplace setting. Equitable reward systems ensure that employees feel valued and fairly compensated for their efforts, which in turn enhances their commitment to organizational goals. Qualified personnel contribute to a culture of excellence, where expertise and professionalism are highly regarded. Meanwhile, a pleasant workplace—characterized by ergonomic design, positive interpersonal dynamics, and minimal stressors—creates an atmosphere where employees can thrive both personally and professionally.

Workplace reputation, as a reflection of these elements, plays a pivotal role in how a company is perceived by its stakeholders. It reflects perceptions of management quality, the experiences of employees within the organization, and the overall competence of the workforce. For instance, organizations with a strong reputation for fostering a positive work environment are often seen as desirable employers, attracting top talent and retaining skilled workers. Conversely, companies with poor workplace reputations may struggle to recruit and retain employees, leading to higher turnover rates and reduced organizational performance. Previous studies by Sanjaya & Indrawati (2014) and Confessa & Ardana (2014) have consistently highlighted that a company's work environment significantly influences its human resources, underscoring the importance of creating a supportive and engaging workplace culture.

In higher education institutions, the reputation of the work environment becomes even more critical. Faculty members, administrative staff, and other employees in academic settings require environments that support intellectual growth, professional development, and emotional well-being. A positive work environment in higher education can enhance teaching quality, research output, and student satisfaction, all of which contribute to institutional success. For example, when faculty members feel supported through fair recognition systems, access to professional development opportunities, and a collaborative atmosphere, they are more likely to excel in their roles and contribute to the institution's mission.

Moreover, the work environment serves as a foundation for building organizational resilience. In times of crisis or rapid change, organizations with a strong work environment are better equipped to adapt and overcome challenges. Employees who trust their leaders, feel valued, and are provided with the necessary resources are more likely to remain committed and motivated, even under pressure. This resilience is particularly important in industries characterized by high uncertainty or rapid technological advancements, such as healthcare, technology, and education.

Amanah Reputation Social Responsibility

The higher the amanah reputation of social responsibility, the higher the intensity of the organizational performance. Fombrun & Gardberg (2000) define social responsibility (SR) as adherence to legal standards, support for ethical principles, commitment to environmental sustainability, and active engagement in fostering positive relationships with communities. This multifaceted concept underscores the obligation of organizations—particularly companies—to consider the needs and well-being of various stakeholders, including consumers, employees, shareholders, communities, and the environment. Social responsibility permeates all operational aspects of an organization, addressing critical issues such as pollution control, waste management, product safety, and equitable labor practices. By integrating SR into their core strategies, organizations not only fulfill their ethical obligations but also enhance their reputation, foster trust, and contribute to sustainable development.

The concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is further elaborated in Article 1, Paragraph 3 of Law No. 40 of 2007 on Limited Liability Companies (UUPT), which defines CSR as "a company's commitment to sustainable economic development aimed at improving the quality of life and the environment, benefiting the company itself, local communities, and society at large." This legal framework highlights the dual focus of CSR: achieving economic growth while simultaneously addressing social and environmental challenges. It emphasizes that CSR is not merely a philanthropic endeavor but a strategic imperative that aligns business objectives with societal needs. By embedding CSR into their operations, companies can create shared value, where both the organization and its stakeholders benefit from sustainable practices.

Social responsibility encompasses several key dimensions, including compliance with laws, adherence to ethical principles, environmental stewardship, and positive community interactions. Compliance with laws serves as the foundation of SR, ensuring that organizations operate within the boundaries of regulatory frameworks. However, true social responsibility goes beyond mere compliance; it involves adopting ethical principles that guide decision-making and promote fairness, transparency, and accountability. Environmental stewardship reflects an organization's commitment to minimizing its ecological footprint through initiatives such as reducing greenhouse gas emissions, conserving natural resources, and promoting circular economy practices. Positive community interactions, on the other hand, involve actively engaging with local communities, supporting social causes, and contributing to the socio-economic development of the regions in which the organization operates.

Perceptions of a company as a responsible corporate citizen are shaped by its relationships with key stakeholders, particularly employees, communities, and the environment. For instance, employees are more likely to feel motivated and loyal to organizations that prioritize fair labor practices, diversity, and inclusion. Communities, in turn, view companies favorably when they demonstrate genuine efforts to address local challenges, such as poverty alleviation, education, and healthcare access. Similarly, environmental stewardship enhances a company's reputation among environmentally conscious consumers and investors, who increasingly demand sustainable products and practices. These perceptions play a crucial role in shaping organizational outcomes, as they influence customer loyalty, investor confidence, and overall brand equity.

In today's interconnected and socially aware world, social responsibility has become a critical differentiator for organizations seeking to thrive in competitive markets. Consumers, employees, and investors are no longer satisfied with businesses that prioritize profit at the expense of people and the planet. Instead, they expect organizations to demonstrate a genuine commitment to creating positive social and environmental impact. This shift in expectations has led to the emergence of new business models that integrate social responsibility into their core strategies, such as B Corporations, social enterprises, and purpose-driven organizations.

Furthermore, social responsibility catalyzes innovation and resilience. By addressing pressing social and environmental challenges, organizations can uncover new opportunities for growth and differentiation. For example, companies that invest in renewable energy technologies or sustainable supply chains often gain a competitive edge in emerging markets. Similarly, organizations that prioritize employee well-being and community engagement are better equipped to navigate crises, as they have already built strong relationships and trust with their stakeholders.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The higher the ethical amanah reputation, the higher the intensity of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). The higher the amanah reputation of the work environment, the higher the intensity of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). The higher the amanah reputation of social responsibility, the higher the intensity of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). The higher the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), the higher the intensity of organizational performance. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) refers to the voluntary efforts made by employees that extend beyond their formal job descriptions, yet significantly contribute to organizational success in meeting customer needs and achieving broader strategic objectives (Polat, 2009). This discretionary commitment, which is unrelated to contractual obligations, has been identified as a critical driver of organizational effectiveness (Meron, 2021). While employees are typically assigned specific tasks and responsibilities upon joining an organization, not all duties can be explicitly defined. For instance, interactions with colleagues, customers, and other stakeholders often require behaviors that go beyond formal expectations. These additional contributions, though informal, play a pivotal role in fostering a positive work environment, enhancing team cohesion, and improving overall organizational performance.

Employees are expected to engage in tasks that benefit the organization but are not formally outlined in employment agreements. OCB encompasses behaviors that are neither formally requested nor directly rewarded, yet they significantly enhance organizational effectiveness (Smith et al., 1983). Such behaviors reflect employees' willingness to "go the extra mile," demonstrating initiative, cooperation, and a sense of ownership toward the organization's goals. Organ (1988) identified five key dimensions of OCB: conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism. These dimensions encompass a wide range of behaviors, such as assisting colleagues in completing tasks, adhering to company policies, refraining from complaints, and actively participating in organizational matters. Together, these behaviors create a culture of collaboration, trust, and mutual support, which is essential for navigating the complexities of modern workplaces.

OCB is further defined by Organ and colleagues as "discretionary behaviors that are not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward systems but collectively promote organizational effectiveness" (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Unlike mandated tasks, OCB behaviors are optional and depend entirely on individual employees, as they are not governed by job descriptions or performance metrics. This discretionary nature makes OCB particularly valuable, as it reflects employees' intrinsic motivation to contribute to the organization's success. However, the manifestation of OCB is influenced by various factors, including personality traits, leadership styles, organizational culture, and workplace dynamics.

Research has shown that different dimensions of OCB may have distinct antecedents, highlighting the complexity and multifaceted nature of this construct. For example, Konovsky & Organ (1996) found that conscientiousness—a personality trait associated with diligence and responsibility—predicts general compliance, altruism, and civic virtue but does not influence behaviors related to courtesy or sportsmanship. Similarly, Ryan (2001) discovered that moral reasoning predicts helping behavior and sportsmanship but does not correlate with civic virtue. These findings suggest that while certain personality traits or cognitive processes may predispose individuals to exhibit specific OCB behaviors, others remain unaffected. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (2000) demonstrated that role ambiguity and role conflict negatively correlate with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but do not impact conscientiousness and civic virtue. Such insights underscore the importance of understanding the nuanced relationships between individual characteristics, workplace conditions, and OCB dimensions.

The interconnected yet distinct nature of OCB dimensions highlights the need for organizations to adopt a holistic approach to fostering these behaviors. For instance, promoting a culture of transparency and clear communication can reduce role ambiguity and conflict, thereby encouraging altruistic and courteous behaviors. Similarly, recognizing and rewarding OCB—even informally—can reinforce employees' willingness to engage in discretionary efforts. Leadership also plays a critical role in shaping OCB, as supportive and transformational leaders are more likely to inspire employees to go beyond their formal responsibilities. By fostering an environment where employees feel valued, empowered, and aligned with organizational values, leaders can cultivate a workforce that consistently demonstrates OCB.

In today's rapidly evolving business landscape, OCB has become increasingly important for organizations seeking to maintain a competitive edge. As industries face unprecedented challenges such as technological disruptions, globalization, and shifting consumer expectations, the ability to adapt and innovate is crucial. Employees who exhibit OCB contribute to organizational resilience by fostering collaboration, addressing unanticipated challenges, and driving continuous improvement. For example, during periods of crisis, employees who demonstrate altruism and civic virtue are more likely to support their colleagues, uphold organizational values, and ensure continuity of operations. Moreover, OCB has significant implications for organizational reputation and stakeholder relationships. Customers, investors, and partners are more likely to trust and engage with organizations that demonstrate a strong internal culture of collaboration and mutual support. Employees who exhibit OCB behaviors often serve as ambassadors for the organization, reflecting its values and commitment to excellence in their interactions with external stakeholders. This, in turn, enhances brand equity, customer loyalty, and long-term sustainability.

Conclusion

Ethical reputation is not merely a passive outcome of organizational actions but an active driver of success. By prioritizing ethical practices and embedding them into their corporate identity, organizations can cultivate a reputation that resonates deeply with stakeholders. This, in turn, creates a virtuous cycle where ethical behavior reinforces positive perceptions, leading to improved performance and sustainable growth. As organizations navigate increasingly complex and interconnected global markets, the ability to build and maintain a strong ethical reputation will remain a key differentiator in achieving long-term success.

The work environment is not merely a backdrop for employee activities but a dynamic and influential force that shapes organizational outcomes. By prioritizing the creation of a fair, supportive, and engaging work environment, organizations can enhance their reputation, improve employee performance, and achieve sustainable success. As the global workforce continues to evolve, organizations must recognize the centrality of the work environment in driving both individual and collective achievements. This understanding underscores the need for ongoing investment in workplace improvements, ensuring that organizations remain competitive and resilient in an increasingly complex and interconnected world.

Social responsibility is not merely a moral obligation but a strategic necessity for organizations operating in the 21st century. By adhering to legal standards, embracing ethical principles, championing environmental sustainability, and fostering positive community interactions, organizations can build a reputation as responsible corporate citizens. This reputation, in turn, enhances their ability to attract talent, retain customers, and secure long-term success. As global challenges such as climate change, inequality, and resource scarcity continue to intensify, organizations must recognize the pivotal role of social responsibility in driving sustainable development and creating shared value for all stakeholders.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior represents a powerful yet often underappreciated driver of organizational success. By encouraging employees to engage in discretionary behaviors that align with organizational goals, companies can foster a culture of excellence, innovation, and resilience. Understanding the distinct yet interconnected dimensions of OCB—and the factors that influence them—enables organizations to design targeted strategies for nurturing these behaviors. As the global workforce continues to evolve, organizations must recognize the transformative potential of OCB in driving sustainable growth, enhancing stakeholder relationships, and creating shared value for all.

References

[1] Abhayawansa, S. A., & Abeysekera, I. (2008). An Explanation of Human Capital Disclosure from the Resource Based Perspective. *Journal of Human Resource Costing and Accounting*, *12*(1), 51–64.

[2] Almatrooshi, B., Singh, S., & Farouk, S. (2016). Determinants of organizational performance: a proposed framework. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(6), 844–859. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/iJPPm-02- 2016-0038

[3] Alwan, A., Shah, A., Alwan, A. A. A. R., & Laghari, S. U. A. (2024). Evaluating Machine Learning Models for Real-Time IoT Intrusion Detection: A Comparative Study with RTSS Analysis. *Journal of ICT, Design, Engineering and Technological Science, 8*(2). https://doi.org/10.33150/jitdets-8.2.1

[4] Ağdemir, E., Kuyucu, M., Yücedağ, M., & Ağdemir, K. K. (2025). Assessment of Xenopsin Related Peptide-1 levels in pregnant women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *Perinatal Journal*, *33*(1), 5-10.

[5] Abdullahi, B. (2025). Impact of N-power program on poverty alleviation in Nigeria: A study of Gombe State. *Journal of Advances in Humanities andSocial Sciences. 11*(2): 65-71

[6] Ambarini, & Ernawati. (2010). Pengaruh Hubungan Kerja dan Lingkungan Kerja Terhadap Kinerja Pegawai dengan Motivasi Kerja sebagai Variabel Moderating. *Jurnal Ekonomi Dan Kewirausahaan*, *10*(2), 100–112.
[7] Andreassen, T., & Lindestad, B. (1998). The effect of corporate image in the formation of customer loyalty. *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(1), 82–92.
[8] Apriliyanti, I. D. (2022). A Problem Waits: Is it True that Resource-Based Theory (RBT) is an Empty Tautology? *Policy & Governance Review*, *6*(2), 107. https://doi.org/10.30589/pgr.v6i2.543
[9] Arambewela, R., & Hall, J. (2009). An empirical model of international student satisfaction. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *21*(4), 555–569. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555850910997599
[10] Audia, P., Locke, E., & Smith, K. (2000). The paradox of success: An archival and a laboratory study of strategic persistence following radical environmental change. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(5), 837–853. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2307/1556413
[11] Barney, J. B. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, *17*(1), 99–120. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700108
[12] Barney, J. B., & Hesterly, W. (2009). *Strategic Management and Competitive Advantage: Concepts and Cases*. New York: Pearson College Div.
[13] Barsade, S., & O'Neill, O. A. (2016). Manage your emotional culture. *Harvard Business Review*, *94*(1), 58–66.
[14] Behfrouz, A., & Tahmasebpoor, M. (2025). Modification of clinoptilolite zeolite adsorbent from Miyaneh mines to remove ammonia from the water environment. *Environment and Water Engineering*, *11*(3), 239-250.
[15] Berens, G., & Van Riel, C. (2004). Corporate associations in the academic literature: Three main streams of thought in the reputation measurement literature. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *7*, 161–178.
[16] Black, E., Carnes, T., & Richardson, V. (2000). The market valuation of corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *3*, 31–42.
[17] Bromiley, P., & Rau, D. (2016). Operations management and the resource based view: Another view. *Journal of Operations Management*, *41*, 95–106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2015.11.003
[18] Brown, B., & Perry, S. (1994). Removing the financial performance halo from Fortune's "most admired" companies. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(5), 1347–1359.
[19] Caves, R., & Porter, M. (1977). From Entry Barriers to Mobility Barriers: Conjectural Decisions and Contrived Deterrence to New Competition. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *91*(2), 241–262.
[20] Chen, C., & Esangbedo, M. O. (2018). Evaluating University Reputation Based on Integral Linear Programming with Grey Possibility. *Mathematical Problems in Engineering*, *2018*(2), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/5484326
[21] Chevalier, A., & Conlon, G. (2003). Does it Pay to Attend a Prestigious University? In *SSRN Electronic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.435300
[22] Christensen, T., & Gornitzka, Å. (2017). Reputation Management in Complex Environments - A Comparative Study of University Organizations. *Higher Education Policy*, *30*(1), 123–140. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41307-016-0010-z
[23] Confessa, I. M. T. S. A., & Ardana, K. (2014). Pengaruh Kompensasi, Kepemimpinan dan Lingkungan Kerja Terhadap Kepuasan Kerja Karyawan. *E-Jurnal Manajemen*, *3*(5), 1211–1220.
[24] Cooper, A., Diab, D., & Beeson, K. (2020). Why spelling errors matter: Online company reviews and organizational attraction. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *23*, 160–169.
[25] Crisóstomo, V., & Freire, F. (2015). The influence of ownership concentration on firm resource allocations to employee relations, external social actions, and environmental action. *Revista Brasileira de Gestão de Negócios*, *17*(55), 987–1006.
[26] Crook, T. R., Ketchen, D. J., Combs, J. G., & Todd, S. Y. (2008). Strategic resources and performance: a meta-analysis. *Strategic Management Journal*, *29*(11), 1141–1154.
[27] Davies, G., Chun, R., Da Silva, R., & Roper, S. (2003). Corporate Reputation and Competitiveness. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, *8*(2), 148–149. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/ccij.2003.8.2.148.1
[28] Deephouse, D. (2000). Media Reputation as a Strategic Resource: An Integration of Mass Communication and Resource-Based Theories. *Journal of Management*, *26*(6), 1091–1112.
[29] Del-Castillo-Feito, C., Blanco-González, A., & González-Vázquez, E. (2019). The relationship between image and reputation in the Spanish public university. *European Research on Management and Business Economics*, *25*(2), 87–92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iedeen.2019.01.001
[30] Delgado-Márquez, B. L., Escudero-Torres, M. Á., & Hurtado-Torres, N. E. (2013). Being highly internationalised strengthens your reputation: An empirical investigation of top higher education institutions. *Higher Education*, *66*(5), 619–633. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9626-8
[31] Fachruddin, H. (1992). *Ensiklopedia Pengetahuan Al-Qur'an dan Hadits*. Jakarta: PT. Rineka Cipta.
[32] Fernàndez, E., Montes, J., & Vàzquez, C. (2000). Typology and strategic analysis of intangible resources.

A resource-based approach. *Technovation*, *20*(2), 81–92.
[33] Fernando, S. (2010). *Mental Health, Race and Culture*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
[34] Flanagan, D., O'Shaughnessy, K., & Palmer, T. (2011). Re-assessing the relationship between the Fortune reputation data and financial performance: overwhelming influence or just a part of the puzzle? *Corporate Reputation Review*, *14*, 3–14.
[35] Fombrun, C. J. (1996). Reputation: realizing value from the corporate image. In *Choice Reviews Online* (Vol. 33). Boston: Harvard Business School Press. https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.33-5807
[36] Fombrun, Charles, & Gardberg, N. A. (2000). Who's Tops in Corporate Reputation? *Corporate Reputation Review*, *3*(1), 13–17.
[37] Fombrun, Charles, & Shanley, M. (1990). What's in a Name? Reputation Building and Corporate Strategy. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(2), 233–258. https://doi.org/10.5465/256324
[38] Fombrun, CJ, Gardberg, N., & Sever, J. (2000). The Reputation Quotient SM: A multi-stakeholder measure of corporate reputation. *Journal of Brand Management*, *7*, 241–255. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540008.
[39] Fombrun, CJ, & Rindova, V. (2001). Fanning the flame: Corporate reputations as social constructions of performance. In J. Porac & M. Ventresca (Eds.), *Constructing Markets and Industries*. New York: Oxford University Press.
[40] George, J. (1996). Group affective tone. In M. West (Ed.), *Handbook of work group psychology* (pp. 77–94). Chichester: Wiley.
[41] Hadi, T., & Marpaung, A. B. (2023). Transformational Leadership & Knowledge Management Impact on Organization Performance : A Systematic Review. *Aptisi Transactions on Technopreneurship (ATT)*, *5*(1), 64–72.
[42] Hatch, M., & Schultz, M. (2001). Are the strategic stars aligned for your corporate brand. *Harvard Business Reviewbusiness Review*, *79*(2), 128–134.
[43] Hatch, M., & Schultz, M. (2003). Bringing the corporation into corporate branding. *European Journal of Marketing*, *37*(7/8), 1041–1064.
[44] Hendrayati, H., & Gaffar, V. (2016). Innovation and Marketing Performance of Womenpreneur in Fashion Industry in Indonesia. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *219*, 299–306.
[45] Hitt, M. A., Li, D., & Xu, K. (2016). International strategy: From local to global and beyond. *Journal of World Business*, *51*(1), 58–73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2015.08.016
[46] Hitt, M., Xu, K., & Carnes, C. (2016). Resource Based Theory in Operations Management Research. *Journal of Operations Management*, *41*(1), 77–94. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2015.11.002
[47] Houneida, B. B., & Arab, M. Ben. (2011). The efficiency of accounting normalization in the matter Of intangibles: Asset versus Expense. *International Journal of Accounting and Financial Reporting*, *1*(1), 72–98. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijafr.v1i1.762
[48] Ilmudeen, A., Attar, R., & Alhazmi, A. (2019). How does business-it strategic alignment dimension impact on organizational performance measures: conjecture and empirical analysis. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, *32*(3), 457–476. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/Jeim-09-2018-0197
[49] Iseh, M. J., Matthew, M. A., & Michael, I. T. (2024). Risk factors and demographic analysis on maternal mor-tality rate in Nigeria. *Journal of Advances in Health and Medical Sciences. 10*: 1-13
[50] Islam, T., Islam, R., Pitafi, A. H., Xiaobei, L., Rehmani, M., Irfan, M., & Mubarak, M. S. (2021). The impact of corporate social responsibility on customer loyalty: The mediating role of corporate reputation, customer satisfaction, and trust. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, *25*, 123–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2020.07.019
[51] Ismail, Y., & Sarif, S. M. (2011). The role of Tawhidic paradigm in the transformation of management system. *Proceedings of the National Seminar on Islamic Management Systems Transformation (Trans-SPI)*, pp. 127–147. https://doi.org/ISBN: 978-967-5295-91-1)
[52] Jenatabadi, H. S. (2015). *An Overview of Organizational Performance Index: Definitions and Measurements*.
[53] Kartajaya, H. (2017). *Citizen 4.0 Menjejakkan Prinsip-Prinsip Pemasaran Humanis di Era Digital*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
[54] Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1966). *The social psychology of organizations*. Chichester: Wiley.
[55] Keh, H., & Xie, Y. (2009). Corporate reputation and customer behavioral intentions: The roles of trust, identification and commitment. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *38*(7), 732–742.
[56] Khan, H., Rehmat, M., Butt, T. H., Farooqi, S., & Asim, J. (2020). Impact of transformational leadership on work performance, burnout and social loafing: a mediation model. *Future Business Journal*, *6*(1), 40. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1186/s43093-020-00043-8
[57] Khanifah, K., Udin, U., Hadi, N., & Alfiana, F. (2020). Environmental performance and firm value: Testing the role of firm reputation in emerging countries. *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, *10*(1), 96–103.

[58] Knies, E., Jacobsen, C., & Tummers, L. (2016). Leadership and organizational performance: State of the art and research agenda. In J. Storey, J. Denis, J. Hartley, & P. 't Hart (Eds.), *The Routledge Companion to Leadership* (pp. 404–418). New York: Routledge.

[59] Konovsky, M., & Organ, D. (1996). Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *17*(3), 253–266. https://doi.org/https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199605)17:3%3C253::AID-JOB747%3E3.0.CO;2-Q

[60] Kristianti, I., & Ardian, N. (2022). Pengaruh reputasi organisasi, ukuran organisasi, opini audit dan ukuran kap terhadap kinerja organisasi nirlaba di Indonesia. *Jurnal Ilmu Manajemen*, Vol. 10, pp. 1120–1132.

[61] Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando, A., Zorrilla, P., & Forcada, J. (2018). A review of higher education image and reputation literature: Knowledge gaps and a research agenda. *European Research on Management and Business Economics*, *24*(1), 8–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iedeen.2017.06.005

[62] Liu, M., & Lu, W. (2019). Corporate social responsibility, firm performance, and firm risk: the role of firm reputation. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Accounting & Economics*, *28*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/16081625.2019.1601022

[63] Mailani, D., Hulu, M. Z. T., Simamora, M. R., & Kesuma, S. A. (2024). Resource-Based View Theory to Achieve a Sustainable Competitive Advantage of the Firm: Systematic Literature Review. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Sustainability Studies*, *4*(1), 1–15.

[64] Massingham, P. R., & Tam, L. (2015). The relationship between human capital, value creation and employee reward. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, *16*(2), 390–418.

[65] Mathis, A., Mamidanna, P., Cury, K., Abe, T., Murthy, V., Mathis, M., & Bethge, M. (2018). DeepLabCut: markerless pose estimation of user-defined body parts with deep learning. *Nature Neuroscience*, *21*(9), 1281–1289.

[66] Men, L. (2014). Internal reputation management: The impact of authentic leadership and transparent communication. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *17*, 254–272.

[67] Mercer, M. (2004). How do investors assess the credibility of management disclosures? *Accounting Horizons*, *18*(3), 185–196.

[68] Meron, B. (2021). The effect of organizational citizen behaviour on organizational performance: the case of St. Mary's University. *International Journal of Commerce and Management Research*, 10–13.

[69] Miotto, G., Del-Castillo-Feito, C., & Blanco-González, A. (2020). Reputation and legitimacy: Key factors for Higher Education Institutions' sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Business Research*, *112*, 342–353.

[70] Munisamy, S., Jaafar, N. I. M., & Nagaraj, S. (2014). Does Reputation Matter? Case Study of Undergraduate Choice at a Premier University. *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, *23*(3), 451–462. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-013-0120-y

[71] Newell, S., & Goldsmith, R. (2001). The development of a scale to measure perceived corporate credibility. *Journal of Business Research*, *52*(3), 235–247.

[72] Nguyen, N., & Leblanc, G. (1998). The mediating role of corporate image on customers' retention decisions: An investigation in financial services. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *16*(2), 52–65. https://doi.org/10.1108/02652329810206707

[73] Novak, A. (2017). Knowledge Management and Organizational Performance – Literature Review. *Management Challenges in a Network Economy: MakeLearn and TIIM International Conference*, 433–440.

[74] Organ, D. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behaviour: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

[75] Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive Versus Affective Determinants of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(1), 157–164. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.1.157

[76] Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences. In *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences*. California: Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452231082

[77] Oyemomi, O., Liu, S., Neaga, I., & Alkhuraiji, A. (2016). How knowledge sharing and business process contribute to organizational performance: Using the fsQCA approach. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(11), 5222–5227.

[78] Özkan, P., Süer, S., Keser, İ. K., & Kocakoç, İ. D. (2020). The effect of service quality and customer satisfaction on customer loyalty: The mediation of perceived value of services, corporate image, and corporate reputation. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *38*(2), 384–405. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJBM-03-2019-0096

[79] Pham, H., & Tran, H. (2020). CSR disclosure and firm performance: The mediating role of corporate reputation and moderating role of CEO integrity. *Journal of Business Research*, *120*, 127–136.

[80] Pires, V., & Trez, G. (2018). Corporate reputation: A discussion on construct definition and measurement

and its relation to performance. *Revista de Gestao*, *25*(1), 47–64. https://doi.org/10.1108/REGE-11-2017-005

[81] Plewa, C., Ho, J., Conduit, J., & Karpen, I. O. (2016). Reputation in higher education: A fuzzy set analysis of resource configurations. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(8), 3087–3095. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.01.024

[82] Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 513–563. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600307

[83] Polat, S. (2009). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) display levels of the teachers at secondary schools according to the perceptions of the school administrators. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *1*(1), 1591–1596. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.280

[84] Puente, E. de Q., Sabaté, J. M. de la F., & García, J. B. D. (2005). Reputación corporativa y creación de valor: marco teórico de una relación circular. *Investigaciones Europeas de Dirección y Economía de La Empresa*, *11*(2), 81–97.

[85] Putri, N., & Lestari, D. (2019). Pengaruh gaya hidup dan literasi keuangan terhadap pengelolaan keuangan tenaga kerja muda di Jakarta. *AKURASI: Jurnal Riset Akuntansi Dan Keuangan*, *1*(1), 31–42.

[86] Rao, H. (1994). The Social Construction of Reputation: Certification Contests, Legitimation, and the Survival of Organizations in the American Automobile Industry: 1895–1912. *Strategic Management Journal*, *15*(1 S), 29–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250150904

[87] Rindova, V. P., Williamson, I. O., Petkova, A. P., & Sever, J. M. (2005). Being good or being known: An empirical examination of the dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of organizational reputation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(6), 1033–1049. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.19573108

[88] Roberts, P. W., & Dowling, G. R. (2002). Corporate reputation and sustained superior financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, *23*(12), 1077–1093. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.274

[89] Rose, C., & Thomsen, S. (2004). The impact of corporate reputation on performance: Some Danish evidence. *European Management Journal*, *22*(2), 201–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2004.01.012

[90] Ryan, J. J. (2001). Moral reasoning as a determinant of organizational citizenship behaviors: A study in the public accounting profession. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *33*(3), 233–244.

[91] Sa'adah, L., & Sudiarto, E. (2022). Pengaruh Corporate Social Responsibility terhadap Kinerja Keuangan Perusahaan dengan Ukuran Perusahaan sebagai Variabel Moderating. *Jurnal Manajemen Dirgantara*, *15*(1), 159–165. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.56521/manajemen-dirgantara.v15i1.583

[92] Saeidi, S., Sofian, S., Saeidi, P., Saeidi, S., & Saaeidi, S. (2015). How does corporate social responsibility contribute to firm financial performance? The mediating role of competitive advantage, reputation, and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(2), 341–350.

[93] Saini, G. K., Rai, P., & Chaudhary, M. J. (2014). What do best employer surveys reveal about employer branding and intention to apply? *The Journal of Brand Management: An International Journal*, *21*(2), 95–111.

[94] Samli, A., Kelly, J., & Hunt, H. (1998). Improving the retail performance by contrasting management-and customer-perceived store images: A diagnostic tool for corrective action. *Journal of Business Research*, *43*(1), 27–38.

[95] Sanjaya, I. K. E., & Indrawati, A. D. (2014). Pengaruh Kompetensi, Kompensasi, dan Lingkungan Kerja Terhadap Kinerja Karyawan Pada PT. Pande Agung Segara Dewata. *E-Jurnal Manajemen*, *3*(1), 205–224.

[96] Saputra, N., Putera, R. E., Zetra, A., Valentina, T. R., & Mulia, R. A. (2024). Capacity building for organizational performance : a systematic review , conceptual framework , and future research directions. *Cogent Business & Management*, *11*(1), 2434966. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2024.2434966

[97] Selnes, F. (1993). An examination of the effect of product performance on brand reputation, satisfaction and loyalty. *European Journal of Marketing*, *27*(9), 19–35.

[98] Selviana, Y., & Istiyanto, B. (2021). Pengaruh Variabel Reputasi, Keamanan, Dan Kemudahan Terhadap Keputusan Pembelian Masyarakat Solo Di Shopee. *Mabha Jurnal*, *2*(2), 132–142. https://doi.org/10.70018/mb.v2i2.30

[99] Setiawan, T. (2016). Etika Lingkungan dan Kinerja Ekonomi pada Ukuran Global Reporting Initiative-G4. *Jurnal Akuntansi*, *10*(1), 23–40.

[100] Shihab, M. Q. (2007). *Ensiklopedi Al-Qur'an: Kajian Kosakata*. Jakarta: Lentera Hati.

[101] Sivertzen, A., Nilsen, E., & Olafsen, A. (2013). Employer Branding: Employer Attractiveness and the Use of Social Media. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *22*(7), 473–483.

[102] Smith, C., Organ, D., & Near, J. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *68*(4), 653–663. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.68.4.653

[103] Spence, M. (1973). Job Market Signaling. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *87*(3), 355–374.

[104] Steiner, L., Sundström, A. C., & Sammalisto, K. (2013). An analytical model for university identity and

reputation strategy work. *Higher Education*, *65*(4), 401–415. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-012-9552-1
[105] Tangngisalu, J., Mappamiring, M., Andayani, W., Yusuf, M., & Putra, A. (2020). CSR and firm reputation from employee perspective. *The Journal of Asian Finance, Economics and Business*, *7*(10), 171–182.
[106] Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (2009). Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. *Knowledge and Strategy*, *18*, 77–116. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198781806.003.0019
[107] Tepper, B., & Taylor, E. (2003). Relationships among supervisors' and subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(1), 97–105. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2307/30040679
[108] Thompson, J. (1967). *Organizations in action: Social science bases of administrative theory.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
[109] Turnipseed, D., & Murkison, G. (2000). Good soldiers and their syndrome: Organizational citizenship behavior and the work environment. *North American Journal of Psychology*, *2*(2), 281–302.
[110] Vance, P., & De Angelo, C. (2007). Reputação Corporativa: Uma Revisão Teórica. *Revista de Gestão*, *14*(4), 93–108.
[111] Vanyperen, N., Berg, A., & Willering, M. (1999). Towards a better understanding of the link between participation in decision-making and organizational citizenship behaviour: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *72*(3), 377–392.
[112] Varma, M., Kumar, V., Sangvikar, B., & Pawar, A. (2020). Impact of social media, security risks and reputation of e-retailer on consumer buying intentions through trust in online buying: A structural equation modeling approach. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, *7*(1), 119–127. https://doi.org/10.22159/jcr.07.01.22
[113] Verčič, A. T., Verčič, D., & Žnidar, K. (2016). Exploring academic reputation – is it a multidimensional construct? *Corporate Communications*, *21*(2), 160–176. https://doi.org/10.1108/CCIJ-01-2015-0003
[114] Vogler, D. (2020). Analyzing reputation of Swiss universities on Twitter–The role of stakeholders, content and sources. *Corporate Communications*, *25*(3), 429–445. https://doi.org/10.1108/CCIJ-04-2019-0043
[115] Wahyuningsih, K., & Tanggulungan, G. (2015). Pengaruh Reputasi dan Ukuran Organisasi Terhadap Kinerja Organisasi Nirlaba di Indonesia. *Benefit: Jurnal Manajemen Dan Bisnis (Jurnal Ini Sudah Migrasi)*, *18*(2), 114–123.
[116] Wahyuningsih, S. (2018). Pengaruh reputasi sebagai variabel intervening terhadap kinerja perusahaan pada PT. Telkom Kebumen. *Fokus Bisnis: Media Pengkajian Manajemen Dan Akuntansi*, *17*(1), 41–53.
[117] Walker, K. (2010). A systematic review of the corporate reputation literature: definition, measurement, and theory. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *12*(4), 357–387.
[118] Weigelt, K., & Camerer, C. (1988). Reputation and corporate strategy: A review of recent theory and applications. *Strategic Management Journal*, *9*(5), 443–454. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250090505
[119] Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2014). Factors affecting university image formation among prospective higher education students: the case of international branch campuses. *Studies in Higher Education*, *40*(7), 1256–1272. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.881347
[120] Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship and In-Role Behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *17*(3), 601–617. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700305
[121] Wongsosudono, C. (2012). Hubungan komitmen organisasi, umur, dan motivasi terhadap kinerja dosen STIE IBBI Medan. *Jurnal Keuangan & Bisnis Program Studi Magister Manajemen Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Harapan*, *4*(2), 127–136.
[122] Zain, R., & Yuliana, A. T. R. D. (2017). Pengaruh Kompensasi dan Kepuasan Kerja terhadap Kinerja Dosen di Fakultas Ilmu Tarbiyah dan Keguruan UIN Sunan Kalijaga Yogyakarta. *Manageria: Jurnal Manajemen Pendidikan Islam*, *2*(1), 107–126. https://doi.org/10.14421/manageria.2017.21-06
[123] Zigan, K. (2013). A Contingency Approach to the Strategic Management of Intangible Resources. *Journal of General Management*, *38*(2), 79–99.