

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR BİLİM DALI

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT
AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR,
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB ATTRACTION**

Doktora Tezi

ORHAN ÖZ

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Danışman : PROF DR. HANDAN KEPİR SİNANGİL

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- 1) Tez Danışmanı : PROF. DR. HANDAN KEPİR SİNANGİL
2) Jüri Üyesi : PROF. DR. SUNA TEVRUZ
3) Jüri Üyesi : PROF. DR. İNCİ ARTAN ERDEM
4) Jüri Üyesi : PROF.DR.CAVIDE UYARGİL
5) Jüri Üyesi : DOÇ.DR.PINAR ÜNSAL

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H. Sinangil.
S. Tevruz
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C. Uyargil
P. Ünsal

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between Total Quality Management (TQM) and job attraction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The basic criteria of TQM applications used in this research are customer satisfaction, employee involvement, managerial leadership, team work, reward allocation, performance appraisal, continuous improvement and empowerment.

The first hypothesis of this research is: "The more applications of TQM increase, the more OCB and organizational commitment increase." The second hypothesis of this research is claimed that job attraction improves the relationship between TQM applications with organizational commitment and OCB. The research is applied to the National Quality Movement participant companies that operate under manufacturing sector. 734 participants have been provided.

After factor analysis of TQM applications it is found that three main factors reflect TQM practices mentioned above. These factors are "Training and Development", "Empowerment" and "Democratic Management". According to these three factors, the impacts of TQM applications on organizational commitment and OCB is discussed.

According to the analysis of the relationships between TQM with organizational commitment and OCB, it is found that empowerment has a high relation with organizational commitment and OCB. The lowest relation is with democratic management. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this research is supported. When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on organizational commitment is investigated, results indicate that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications and organizational commitment. Job attraction only facilitates the relation between democratic management and OCB. Therefore, the second hypothesis is partially supported. It is also indicated that there is a positive and significant relationship between age, tenure and organizational commitment.

As a result, this study gives some help to future researches about TQM, job attraction, organizational commitment and OCB.

ÖZET

Bu arařtırmada Toplam Kalite Yönetimi (TKY) ile iře cezbolma, örgüte baėlılık, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřı arasındaki iliřkiler incelenmiřtir. Arařtırmaya konu olan TKY uygulamaları; müşteri memnuniyeti, alıřanların katılımı, yönetici liderliėi, takım alıřması, ödöl dağılımı, performans deėerlendirmesi, sürekli gelişim ve güçlendirmedir.

Arařtırmanın birinci hipotezinde; TKY uygulamalarının arttıka, örgüte baėlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřının da artacaėı, arařtırmanın ikinci hipotezinde ise, iře cezbolmanın TKY uygulamaları ile örgüte baėlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřı arasındaki iliřkiyi güçlendirdiėi öngörölmüřtür. Arařtırma, TKY uygulayan özel sektörlerden üretim alanında faaliyet gösterenlere uygulanmıřtır. Arařtırmaya 734 kiři katılmıřtır.

Yapılan faktör analizi neticesinde yukarıda belirtilen TKY uygulamalarından üç ana faktör belirlenmiřtir. Bu faktörler: “Eėitim ve Geliřim”, “Güçlendirme” ve “Demokratik Yönetim”dir. Bu üç faktör çerevesinde TKY uygulamalarının örgüte baėlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřına etkisi tartıřılmıřtır.

Yapılan analizlerden elde edilen arařtırma bulgularına göre; güçlendirme ile örgüte baėlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřı arasında yüksek bir iliřki vardır. En az iliřki ise demokratik yönetimledir. Böylece, arařtırmanın birinci hipotezi doėrulanmıřtır. TKY uygulamaları ile iře cezbolmanın etkileřiminin örgüte baėlılık üzerindeki etkisi arařtırıldığında ise, iře cezbolmanın TKY uygulamaları ile örgüte baėlılık arasındaki iliřkiyi anlamlı bir seviyede etkilemediėi, yalnız iře cezbolmanın demokratik yönetim ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřı arasındaki iliřkiyi güçlendirdiėi görölmüřtür. Böylece, arařtırmanın ikinci hipotezi kısmen doėrulanmıřtır. Arařtırmada yař ve görev süresinin örgüte baėlılıėı pozitif yönde ve anlamlı seviyede etkilediėi görölmüřtür.

Sonuç olarak bu arařtırma TKY, iře cezbolma, örgüte baėlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranıřı konusunda yapılacak gelecek arařtırmalara ışık tutacaktır.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of Total Quality Management (TQM) approach born in Japan, there have been various researches on the subject. TQM has been increasingly applied in organizations, and has almost become a race for winning the quality prize.

What makes TQM so popular in organizational management? Why do organizations race for the Quality Prize? Or to what extent have those organizations who claimed to have established TQM really succeeded? In this research is aimed to find out whether TQM is only a series of applications, or a management technique which provides organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, job attraction and a way of changing their management values. As a result, it is aimed to detect management applications that improve organization-member commitment and contribute to the increase of organizational efficiency.

Beginning in the 1980s, a total quality approach was defined in which everyone in the organization is involved in developing continuous improvement and a customer orientation through teamwork.

TQM practices include that both organizational and individual factors affect the achievement of quality-oriented outcomes (Stone & Eddy, 1996). TQM main principles are customer focus, continuous improvement and teamwork and most of what has been written about TQM is explicitly or implicitly based on these principles (Dean et. al., 1994).

TQM focuses on achieving full participation and empowerment of the workforce in the pursuit of quality (Deming, 1986a, p.116; Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). Participation in TQM had a significant positive effect employees' orientation to continuous improvement (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). The impact of team building on performance found significantly positive effects (Porras & Silvers, 1991).

Team building is an essential part of the empowerment process (Scarnati J.T. & Scarnati, B.F., 2002). Empowerment may take the form of self-directed work teams or

of letting workers make some of the decisions (Besterfield et. al., 1995). Bowen and Lawler (1992b) argue that empowered service workers are better able to respond to customers' needs. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) report positive relationships between empowerment and job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) at the team level. Empowerment builds trust and promotes effective communication (Hur, 2006). So, empowerment is one of the most important applications of TQM.

Managerial leadership plays a critical role in developing the quality of working life in an organization. The leader in quality management influences the organization's behavior while at the same time the people in the organization (Peters & Waterman, 1982, pp.67-86).

One of the TQM implementation that received by Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (ASQC, 1993) is "Executive Leadership". The role of executive leadership is to provide employees with a vision of quality as the overarching philosophy and top priority of the organization (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993). Management must move from a reactive to a proactive style and prevent, rather than solve, problems (Kanji & Asher, 1993). Most of the TQM practitioner-oriented literature urges leaders to adopt transformational roles (e.g., Saskin & Kiser, 1993).

Performance appraisal is an important means of controlling behavior in organizational settings (Stone & Eddy, 1996). Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity are more positive in their perceptions that the organization is performing well, that morale is high, that TQM has affected the job positively, that the organization's financial performance is strong, and that their co-workers are happy (Fok et. al., 1999).

TQM is perceived as coercive rather than empowering. Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity will also report that the organization's culture is empowering. TQM changes the culture in a positive and empowering way (Fok et. al., 2000).

As you see the introduction of TQM is essentially seen as part of a cultural reconstruction around, and emerging from, the workplace (Tuckman, 1994). According

to Kanji and Yui (1997) TQM is the culture of an organization committed to customer satisfaction through continuous improvement. TQM is an approach for continuously improving the quality of every aspect of business life. It is a never-ending process of improvement for individuals, groups of people and the whole organization (Kanji & Asher, 1993). We see TQM as a philosophy or an approach to management that can be characterized by its principles, practices and techniques.

Studying a wide literature it could have been carried out the basic criteria of TQM applications. The applications of TQM that are also used in this research are as follows;

1. Customer Satisfaction
2. Employee Involvement
3. Managerial Leadership
4. Team Work
5. Reward Allocation
6. Performance Appraisal
7. Continuous Improvement
8. Empowerment

According to these factors the impacts of TQM applications on organizational commitment and OCB is tried to determined.

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that positive past experiences, satisfaction with the job, and policies and procedures are all antecedents of affective commitment. Some of the antecedents of organizational commitment are as follows; job satisfaction would influence affective commitment; feedback had direct and indirect positive effects on affective commitment (Eby et al., 1999); organization prestige and organization stereotypes were found to enhance organizational commitment (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000); perceived task interdependence to be positively related to both team and organizational commitment (Bishop & Scott, 2000).

Leader behaviors (vision articulation) had a significant main effect on organizational commitment. Leadership substitutes, as opposed to leadership behaviors, appear to be the key determinants of employees' commitment to the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Transformational leadership only has an indirect positive relationship with organizational commitment through leader-member exchange quality (Bettencourt, 2004).

In this way it can be said that organizational commitment is higher in the TQM implemented organizations (Allen & Brady, 1997).

In the literature, it has been realized that researchers have not come to a complete agreement about the dimensions of OCB. The most basic research on the subject was conducted by Smith and his colleagues in 1983. They took OCB in two dimensions: Altruism (Devotion) and General Compliance. Organ (1989) defined OCB in 5 elements: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportmanship. McRae and Costa (1987) defined civic virtue, one of the five elements, as Agreeableness. The dimensions that are used in this research are;

1. Helping Behavior (Altruism)
2. Sportsmanship
3. Organizational Loyalty
4. Organizational Compliance
5. Individual Initiative
6. Civic Virtue
7. Self Development

Motives play an important role in OCB (Finkelstein, 2006). Employees whose work provided the skills, behaviors, and positive mood which positively influenced the family were also more satisfied with their job and, were more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behavior (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006).

Some authors have argued that good citizenship behaviors become part of the role requirements in TQM systems (Waldman, 1994; Stone & Eddy, 1996). Walz and Neilhoff (1996) found that OCB was positively related to overall operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality of performance. Workers who are satisfied with their jobs tend to engage in extrarole activities as a means of reciprocity for their organizations' concern (Gyekke & Salminen, 2005). In another words, employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employers will reciprocate by showing a willingness to engage in OCB (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

Podsakoff et al. (1997) found that both helping and sportsmanship were positively related to the quantity of performance. Research by Walz and Niehoff (2000) found that helping was related to several indicators of organizational efficiency and customer satisfaction. OCB can also have positive effects on service quality through their impact on factors internal to the organization, including employees' work environment, service climate, team cohesiveness, and consistency of service processes, among others (Tepper et al., 2001).

Supportive behavior on the part of the leader was strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior. Transformational leadership behavior also was strongly related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Observation had significant, negative relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Employees who perceived that their general managers frequently observed their work or initiated meetings to discuss problems were reported as exhibiting low levels of OCB (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

As it is seen in the literature there is a positive relationship between TQM and OCB. But which TQM applications affects or creates what kind of OCB has still not known yet. This research is aimed to clarify these relations. As a result, it is aimed to test the impact of TQM applications on OC and OCB.

In today's competitive environment, organizations need employees that show beyond-the-line performance. Beyond-the-line performance means not only putting employee's

time into work, but also their personality and heart. Doğan describes job attraction as devoting oneself wholeheartedly into the job (Doğan, 2002).

We come to the point that we are not able to identify one employee's real job attraction by only seeing how important the job is and what it means to him/her without questioning his/her entire spiritual and personal participation. Job attraction appears as a significant factor that can overtake the role of allowing employees show a great performance and create their differences.

At this stage, how organizations can create an environment that provides job attraction for employees becomes a critical question. We suppose that TQM presents organizational environment that encourage job satisfaction, consequently job attraction. In contrast, Schneider (1987) claims the attributes of people, not the nature of the external environment, or organizational technology, or organizational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organizational behavior. In other words, "the people make the place" (Schneider, 1987).

Organizations are systems that are activated and directed by goals. These goals are not actively chosen or consciously dictated goals. Rather, they emerge initially from the kind of person or persons who establish (found) the organization (Schein, 1985). As organizations evolve into maturity, it is the behavior of all of the people in them that defines organizational direction. But, more importantly, the behaviors of people in pursuit of organizational goals determine the processes and structures that evolve in organizations (Schneider, 1987).

Attraction to an organization and attrition from it produce restriction in range in the kinds of people in an organization. This restriction in range of people yields similar kinds of behavior from the people there, making it appear as if the organization were a determinant of their behavior (Schneider, 1987). On the other side, organizations have a culture and the people suit his/her behaviors what is expected from them. At a continuous time their organizational behaviors become their own behavior.

Structures and processes will change when the behaviors of people change, and the behaviors of people will change when different kinds of people are attracted to, selected by, and stay in an organization. For that reason in researches the attraction concept should be examined from two sides; the people make the place and the place make the people.

At this stage, how organizations can create an environment that provides job attraction for employees becomes a critical question. We suppose that TQM presents organizational environment that encourage job satisfaction, consequently job attraction. Therefore, first it is needed to define the factors that allows for job attraction.

This research reviews the affects of job attraction as a moderator. At the second hypothesis it is claimed that job attraction improves the relationship between TQM applications with OC and OCB.

The final aim of this research is to find out whether TQM is only a series of applications or a management technique which provides organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, job attraction and a way of changing their management values. As a result, it is aimed to detect TQM applications that improve organization-member commitment and contribute to the increase of organizational efficiency.

2. TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT AND APPLICATIONS

2.1. The Evolution of TQM

The last decade has seen the most concerted attempt to transform organizational culture since the rise of modern, bureaucratic, organization. During the 1980s, a wide range of manufacturing and service-sector companies, followed in the 1990s by public and welfare organizations, began to implement some programs of TQM. TQM has come to be seen as a separate managerial approach with far wider applicability and a strong emphasis on changing workplace culture. The introduction of TQM is essentially seen as part of a cultural reconstruction around, and emerging from, the workplace.

In terms of the TQM literature, the work of Atkinson (1990, pp.38-45) represents the most theoretically developed notion of culture change, which draws noticeably from the structural functional tradition. However, the central feature of TQM is the idea of culture change grafted onto earlier quality management theory and practices. It is argued that culture change has come to differentiate TQM from quality assurance and even what is often called Total Quality Control (Tuckman, 1994).

The origin of the TQM movement dates back to the early 20th Century when Walter Shewart, in the early 1920s, first introduced the concept of statistical process control (SPC) to monitor quality in mass production manufacturing (Sureshchandar, 2001).

Quality control was used extensively during World War II to produce large quantities of military material that met consistent standards. After World War II, however, American industries reverted to business as usual in the face of vast markets and limited foreign competition. Japan, however, adopted quality principles in rebuilding its war-devastated industries. Japanese government leaders were assisted in their rebuilding efforts by two American quality pioneers: W. Edwards Deming and Joseph Juran (Farmer, 2000).

TQM only really become established in the latter half of 1980s although its roots go back to developments around mass production in the United States in the 1930s, which gave rise to both human relations and quality assurance. The idea of creating a culture change has only recently been wedded to the methods of quality assurance to create TQM (Tuckman,1994).

Since the 1980s quality management has taken a 'total' approach and is viewed as an organization- wide intervention. The elements of the total quality approach significantly differ from the quality management approaches of earlier eras (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

Many quality management gurus and practitioners who all advocated various approaches to TQM followed this. Crosby (1979), the four absolutes, Deming (1986a), fourteen points, Feigenbaum (1991), total quality control, Ishikawa (1985), quality control circles, Juran et al. (1988), quality trilogy and Taguchi (1986), loss function,

have prescribed different techniques and organizational requirements for effective implementation of TQM.

Beginning in the 1980s, a total quality approach was defined in which everyone in the organization is involved in developing continuous improvement and a customer orientation through teamwork (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

During the 1980s and 1990s, American industries increasingly saw quality principles as a means of responding to global competition (Farmer et al., 2000).

The distinct contribution of TQM is to provide the ideological support for this process in the name of 'quality', and through 'culture change', to challenge traditional practices. Hence TQM can be seen as representing a hegemonic project. It starts from the relatively incontestable notion that we should all be concerned about the improvement of quality.

The Japanese played a major role in developing several quality improvement techniques (e.g., Ishikawa, 1985; Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). From the late 1970s as Japanese industrial advance converged on western decline, a stream of managers and experts began to journey to the east to discover the reason. Their discovery was the Japanese system of quality control which appeared to have transformed their industrial fortunes. In a reversal of the earlier reputed pattern of relations between Japan and the west, western companies set out to copy what appeared to be Japanese innovation (Tuckman, 1994).

Several studies have been conducted to examine the differences in quality management practices between US and Japan (e.g. Yoshida, 1992; Fram & Ajimi, 1994; Yavas, 1995). A major finding from these studies is that US managers tend to believe that cost increase with quality, while the Japanese tend to believe that quality can bring down costs (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

2.2. What is TQM ?

Despite thousands of articles in the business and trade press, total quality remains a hazy, ambiguous concept. The differences among frameworks proposed by writers such as Deming, Juran and Crosby have no doubt contributed to this confusion. Deming's framework emphasizes the systemic nature of organizations, the importance of leadership and the need to reduce variation in organizational processes. Juran's (1989) framework involves three sets of activities—quality planning, control and improvement—and emphasizes the use of statistical tools to eliminate defects. Crosby (1979) focused on reducing cost through quality improvement and stressed that both high-and low-end products can have high quality.

Beyond these differences, the variety and continuing evolution of techniques being practiced under the rubric of TQM makes it difficult to maintain a clear conception of its meaning. Indeed, the meaning of the term quality itself is still being debated. TQM is seen by some as an extension of scientific management, by others in terms of systems theory and by still others as an altogether new paradigm for management (Dean et. al.,1994). We see TQM as a philosophy or an approach to management that can be characterized by its principles, practices and techniques.

Garvin (1988) identified five definitions of quality: transcendental, product based, user based, manufacturer based, and value based. Garvin explains how individuals from different departments within an organization may define quality. Garvin further described quality by identifying eight dimensions of quality: performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, aesthetics, and perceived quality.

Juran (1992) another quality guru defined quality as 'fitness for use.' Juran observes that this short definition does not provide managers with courses of action and suggest two dimensions of this definition: (1) product features that meet customer needs and (2) freedom from defects. Thus, fitness for use is the extent to which products or services are designed to meet customer requirements and are actually made to match those standards.

TQM is an approach for continuously improving the quality of every aspect of business life, i.e. it is a never-ending process of improvement for individuals, groups of people and the whole organization. Kanji and Asher (1993) said that “TQM is about continuous performance improvement of individuals of groups and of organizations”. Therefore, to improve performance, people need to know what to do and how to do it, and have the right tools to do it, to be able to measure performance and to receive feedback on current level of achievement. According to Kanji and Asher (1993), this can be achieved through four principles that govern the basic philosophy of TQM:

- Delight the customer
- Continuous improvement
- Management by fact
- People-based management

In a review of Deming’s management method, Anderson et al. (1994) suggest that Deming’s 14 points allude to different management concepts already in existence. They argue that Deming’s method represents a complex, perspective set of interrelated rules of inter and intraorganizational behavior, codified and communicated in the linguistic form of commands. Deming’s approach to quality management requires top management to balance the needs of employees, customers, suppliers, communities and investors in the long run.

Dean and Bowen (1994) in their review of quality management identified three principles of TQM: customer focus, continuous improvement and teamwork.

In another definition, “TQM is the culture of an organization committed to customer satisfaction through continuous improvement.” (Kanji & Yui, 1997). The building of a quality culture has been accepted as a management approach in today’s organizations through well-balanced application of basic principles or premises of TQM (Yahyagil,1999).

TQM is a popular management philosophy and practice designed to enhance productivity and quality, reduce waste, and increase customer satisfaction (Powell, 1995). TQM is characterized by a few basic principles – doing things right the first time, striving for continuous improvement, and fulfilling customer needs as well as a number of associated practices (Snell et. al., 1992).

It is an integrated approach and set of practices that emphasizes, inter alia, management commitment, continuous improvement, customer focus, long-range thinking, increased employee involvement and teamwork, employee empowerment, process management, competitive benchmarking, etc. (Sureshchandar, 2001).

2.3. The Importance of TQM

TQM practices include the use of statistical process control, customer focus, and interfunctional design efforts, and quality performance measures include customers' perceptions of quality, defects in parts per million, and the percentage of units that pass final inspection without requiring rework (Flynn et. al., 1995).

Many popular TQM techniques (e.g. cause-and-effect analysis, Pareto charts) are aimed at helping organizations to process information effectively. In sum, the TQM literature suggests that organizations that consistently collect and analyze information will be more successful than those that do not (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

TQM is associated with a new set of organizational values, goals, and assumptions. For example, according to Deming (1986b, pp.8-9) the ultimate goal of an organization is to create value, and continually improve an organization's ability to do so. He also suggest that the means of accomplishing these goals involve the continuous improvement of organizational processes, an increased focus on the customer, and an increased emphasis on continually learning and proactively seeking new ways to create value (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM assumes that organizations must use systems that emphasize self-control and participation so that individuals will experience intrinsic satisfaction from their work. As

a result, quality management practitioners maintain that good human relations systems are needed to support individuals in the system. Quality-oriented values and goals will influence organizational demands for continuous improvement of processes, learning, and a focus on the customer (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM jobs are likely to require higher levels of cognitive ability, greater levels of commitment to quality values, and place more emphasis on a person's interpersonal style than traditional jobs. For example, some researchers have argued that performance on TQM jobs requires the ability and willingness to learn and engage in knowledge seeking activities (Anderson et al., 1994). In addition, these jobs are likely to place greater demands on an individuals' ability to solve problems, understand the scientific methods and use statistical principles to control variances (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

As indicated previously, organizational norms, values and goals influence the formulation of organizational policies and practices. These policies and practices serve to clarify organizational goals direct organizational activities, and prescribe methods of accomplishing goals. Organizational policies and practices affect quality-oriented outcomes because they influence staffing methods, evaluation procedures and reward systems in organizations.

Some analysts have argued that traditional human resources policies and practices may constrain TQM systems because they rigidly define jobs, and artificially restrict flexibility (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993; Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM theorists typically argue that a quality-oriented organization must foster an open, supportive, problem-solving climate in order to be effective (Deming, 1986a, p.107). The primary reason for this is that such a climate is thought to foster commitment and individual behaviors that are critical to the success of a TQM program.

Most models of TQM have paid relatively little attention to individual factors within a TQM system (Anderson, et al., 1994). In fact, some TQM theorists (Deming, 1986a, pp.107-116) suggest that the system accounts for 94% of the variation in performance,

and production can be improved by focusing primarily on system factors, not person factors.

As it's seen, TQM practices include that both organizational and individual factors affect the achievement of quality-oriented outcomes. The degree of individual-organizational congruence affects three individual outcomes (i.e., the improvement of organizational processes, learning, and satisfaction), and these outcomes mediate the relationship between the individual-organizational congruence and quality outcomes. Organizational values, goals, and assumptions are important determinants of quality-oriented outcomes. These frameworks typically emphasize the control of organizational systems, yet they contend that the success of TQM is also highly dependent on an individual's motivation, and commitment to quality goals. The success of a TQM program may be highly dependent on the extent to which individuals share organizational quality-oriented values (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

It is evident from our previous discussion that the new organizational demands for continuous improvement and learning alter the ability and interaction requirements of many jobs. Thus, it is expected that TQM jobs will require higher levels of cognitive ability (including arithmetic reasoning, inductive thinking, verbal ability, and analytical reasoning) than traditional jobs. Likewise, quality-oriented jobs may require a higher level of technical knowledge (e.g., statistics, scientific method), and place greater demands on an individual's ability to solve problems and communicate effectively with others.

2.4. TQM Applications

TQM main principles are customer focus, continuous improvement and teamwork and most of what has been written about TQM is explicitly or implicitly based on these principles (Dean et. al., 1994). In another words, customer satisfaction, continuous improvement and teamwork frequently are cited as core factors for TQM (Dean et. al., 1994; Morrow, 1997). Each principle is implemented through a set of practices, which are simply activities such as collecting customer information or analyzing processes.

The first and most important principle is customer focus. The goal of satisfying customers is fundamental to TQM. Customer satisfaction is the most important requirement for long-term organizational success and that this satisfaction requires that the entire organization be focused on customers' needs. These practices and techniques also can be applied to internal customers. Continuous improvement is undertaken to archive customer satisfaction and it is most effective when driven by customer needs. Because the processes targeted for continuous improvement transcend hierarchical, functional, and organizational boundaries, teamwork is essential. However, Reed and Lemak (1998) expanded this to include empowerment and statistical process control, at the same time recognizing continuous improvement as one of the central TQM doctrines (Jacqueline et. al.,2002).

TQM focuses on achieving full participation and empowerment of the workforce in the pursuit of quality, obtained through a respect of the workers' pride of workmanship, the formation of work teams, accessibility to management, and the sharing of organizational rewards (Deming, 1986b, pp.72-86). This is similar to Waldman's criteria of involvement and empowerment (Waldman, 1994) and Anderson et al.'s component of employee fulfillment (Anderson et al.,1994).

Saraph et al. (1989) were among the first to attempt to organize and coalesce the various TQM prescriptions. They identified eight critical factors of quality management: the role of management leadership and quality policy; the role of the quality department; training; product/service design; supplier quality management; process management; quality data and reporting; and employee relations. Operational measures of these factors were developed and were found to be reliable and valid (Sureshchandar, 2001).

Another contribution to the development of an instrument to measure the levels of TQM implementation was made by Black and Porter (1996). Their work presented a research methodology that could be used to improve self-assessment frameworks and make organizations more effective in the development of total quality systems. Their research focused on the important elements of the Baldrige Award model and other established literature, and identified 10 critical components of TQM, viz. corporate quality culture, strategic quality management, quality improvement measurement

systems, people and customer management, operational quality planning, external interface management, supplier partnerships, teamwork structures, customer satisfaction orientation and communication of improvement information. These factors were found to be reliable and valid, and provided key contributions for the better understanding of TQM.

Some TQM experts accept consumer-orientation, total involvement and continuous improvement as the major component of quality management like Tenner & De Toro (1994) and Kanji & Yui (1997) with the addition of 'management by fact' and they treat remaining principles as 'supporting ones.' On the other hand, Adrian (1995) accepts 'empowerment of employees' as the fourth major element. Similarly, for Jablonski (1994, p.47) there are six principles of quality management. They are customer focus, focus on process and on results, prevention versus inspection, mobilize expertise of workforce, fact-based decision making and feedback.

The work of Powell (1995) provided valuable insights into the "soft issues" of TQM. Powell explored TQM as a potential source of sustainable competitive advantage and found that the most generally acceptable features associated with TQM, such as quality training, process improvement, benchmarking, etc. may not be that useful for effective TQM implementation, but that certain tacit, behavioral, imperfectly imitable features, such as open culture, employee empowerment and executive commitment, are vital for an environment conducive to TQM (Sureshchandar, 2001).

Samuel K.Ho (1995) also defines 10 items as a prerequisite for successful implementation of TQM. His quality culture principles are leadership, commitment, total customer satisfaction, continuous improvement, total involvement, training and education, ownership, reward and recognition, error prevention, cooperation and teamwork (Yahyagil, 1999).

Joseph et al. (1999) identified 10 factors of TQM. These include organizational commitment, human resource management, supplier integration, quality policy, product design, role of quality department, quality information systems, technology utilization, operating procedures and training.

As it's seen, TQM experts treat all those quality culture elements as a whole, which is the basis or foundation of quality management. The eight-quality culture elements that are mostly stressed in the literature are also considered as the basic ones in this study. The eight quality culture elements are as follows:

2.4.1. Customer Oriented

TQM has broad psychological dimensions that include employees' motivation, commitment and involvement, attitudinal change, continuous improvement, teamwork and strong aspirations for self-actualization, leading to customer satisfaction (Williams, 1994). Ho (1995) sees TQM as an integrated effort at gaining competitive advantage by continuously improving every facet of an organization's activities for the purpose of customer satisfaction (Ehigie & Akpan, 2006).

TQM derives from a business philosophy that focuses on customer satisfaction and on the integration and co-ordination of all activities in an organization, as well as on the continuous improvement of all activities in that organization (Fok et. al., 2000). TQM involves designing organizations to please customers day in day out (Deming, 1986a, p.107-116).

TQM is a way of improving organizations, products, employees, and customers. The assumption of TQM advocates is that employee satisfaction is needed to support continuous improvement and customer satisfaction. They also appear to assume a strong correlation between job satisfaction and performance, but management researchers find only a modest relationship (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

Quality development has a potentially significant impact upon all three elements of business – customers, shareholders and employees. Improved customer service enhances customer loyalty and generates increased revenues. More effective internal operations reduce quality costs and hence improve business performance. A quality culture in which people are empowered creates increased job satisfaction and therefore a more motivated workforce (Kehoe, 1997, p.76).

The primary concern of quality approach is focused on becoming a consumer-driven organization; hence it is of vital importance to learn detailed information on the needs, expectations and the major characteristics of the customers.

As it is mentioned, customer satisfaction is one of the basic components of TQM. It is the most important requirement for organizational success. Not only the external customers' satisfaction is important for organizational success, but also internal customers (i.e. those whose work depends on prior work by others in the organization) are very important in this success.

Internal customers are those who receive the product or service from process within the system and perform additional processing. External customers are those who purchase or otherwise receive the systems output. An additional external customer may be the customer or final user of the product or service (McGrath, 1994, pp.112-117).

Through customer focus, TQM practices are designed to better assess both customer needs and an organization's effectiveness in meeting them, in order to develop a match between them (Flynn et. al., 1995). Employing some of TQM tools in total relationship management and marketing can have a major impact upon an organization by improving and sustaining internal and external customer relationships and satisfaction, reducing marketing expenses, increasing sales, as well as providing competitive synergy effects (Zineldin, 2000).

Improving the quality of work life, increasing satisfaction, and taking a career perspective with workers are all TQM examples that improve adaptability by the organization and hence increase the quality of products and services for external customers (Cardy & Dobbins, 1996).

The main goal is to improve the quality and to meet the customer requirements and needs. To satisfy the needs of the external customers, a company has first to satisfy their internal customers. The internal customer is anyone who is dependent upon someone else within the organization for the supply of products or services (internal

customer-supplier relations). When this philosophy is applied, the barriers between departments and functions are broken down and removed. Organizations are now looking at their business through the customers' eyes and measuring their performance against the customers' expectations.

There are facets to the discussion of external customers. In some firms external customers were thought to be those people the marketing department dealt with (McGrath, 1994, p.123). Customers were not of much interest to any other department. The cross-functional approach to management demanded by the TQM view of the organization has changed that.

The concept of internal customers is important for several reasons. First it supports the systems view of the organizations. If the output from one process to the next does not meet the needs of the receiving process it will be difficult for the second process to do its best. If all of the processes do not mutually support one another then the final output of the system going to the external customer will not be satisfactory. Another reason the concept of internal customer is useful is that often the external customer is distant from the work process and does not provide an adequate reference point for judging the quality of a process (McGrath, 1994, p.125). The internal customer provides a ready reference point and easy communications.

TQM is a set of principles that guide an organization. TQM organizations work for higher ideals than stockholder wealth. Motivating workers to create higher quality products and higher levels of customer satisfaction is difficult when only stockholders and manager's profit (McGrath, 1994, pp.119-125).

Product and service quality improvement is an essential and critical aspect of TQM. High quality has to be valued by the customers who are using the products or services (Ishikawa, 1985, pp.109-120). Therefore, an organization must be able to identify the customer's needs, wishes and expectations (Zineldin, 2000).

In this way, reliability and maintainability engineering have been spreading for product quality development by USA, to improve Japanese product quality by and by, and

Japanese concept CWQC (Company-Wide Quality Control) have been recognized and accepted in the international market for the customer satisfaction since 1960s to 1980 (Miyautchi, 1999, p.101-105).

TQM in marketing can also have a major impact upon an organization by improving customer relationships and satisfaction, reducing marketing expenses, increasing sales as well as providing a competitive edge (Zineldin, 2000). If the customer is satisfied, then we have a quality offering (McGrath, 1994, pp.119-125).

According to Feigenbaum (1991, pp.6-7) quality is “the total composite produced and service characteristic of marketing, engineering, manufacture, and maintenance through which the product and service in use will meet the expectations of the customer.” Customers may view quality differently than members of the firm. Customers’ views of quality are very important and valid. If we understand how a customer evaluates our product on quality, the company will be in a much better position to offer a quality offering.

Empirical findings indicate that customer oriented approach still reflects some problems for the relationship between an organization and its customers, and it has an importance for organizations “to keep the customer informed about opportunities, restrictions and operating methods within the relationship, and about mutual responsibilities.” (Muffatto & Panizzolo, 1995).

2.4.2. Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement is another important characteristic of a TQM environment. Rather than being fairly fixed or static situations, TQM organizations are dynamic and constantly trying to improve. Processes in a TQM environment are fluid and always subject to change (Cardy & Dobbins, 1996).

Japanese concept Kaizen implies a continuous improvement in all organization functions and activities at all levels (Zineldin, 2000). Continuous improvement in all organizational efforts is seen as required to maintain competitiveness in constantly

changing markets. As Garvin (1988) notes, continuously improving quality is viewed as instrumental in reducing costs and increasing customer satisfaction, while Lawler (1994) suggest that increases in quality are believed to result in faster and more effective organizational responses. Further, TQM serves a strategic role by linking different levels and units in the organization in pursuit of a common goal, thereby treating organizational systems as interdependent (Masterson & Taylor, 1996).

TQM is an approach to improving the quality of goods and services. At its foundation are the goals of continuous improvement of all processes, customer-driven quality, production without defects, focus on improvement of processes rather than criticism of people, and data-based decision making (Flynn et. al., 1995). Continuous improvement of processes leads to customer satisfaction (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM focuses on the integration and co-ordination, as well as on the continuous improvement of all activities and processes (Zineldin, 2000). Participation in TQM had a significant positive effect employees' orientation to continuous improvement. However, perceived benefit of TQM was not significantly related to continuous improvement orientation. Thus, greater employee participation in the TQM intervention was associated with a more positive continuous improvement orientation (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).

Perceived fairness had a significant positive effect on employees' continuous improvement orientation. Employees who perceived the profit sharing plan as fair were more likely to enhance their orientation to continuous improvement. Employees who believed that they could contribute to the profitability of the site were more likely to develop a continuous improvement orientation, consistent with what TQM purports to accomplish (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).

The findings suggest that organizational interventions that differ in terms of eliciting intrinsic-versus extrinsic-driven change are equally effective in developing a continuous improvement orientation among employees (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). Employee perceptions of the benefit of the TQM intervention did not have a significant direct effect on the continuous improvement orientation; they may have had an indirect effect

through their effect on employee participation. Perceptions of the benefit of TQM may influence an employee's decision to participate in the intervention and/or his or her decision to continue to participate.

As it is seen above, TQM is an approach for continuously improving the quality of every aspect of business life, i.e. it is a never-ending process of improvement for individuals, groups of people and the whole organization (Kanji & Asher 1993, 1999; Sureshchandar, 2001).

2.4.3. Performance Appraisal

TQM are positively related to developmental performance appraisal. TQM also has a positive effect on appraisal for employees in quality (Snell & Dean, 1992).

Performance appraisal is an important means of controlling behavior in organizational settings. It is typically designed to provide the individual and the organization with information about how well the individual is performing the job, and what corrections or adjustments in performance are needed. These data are then used as the basis for feedback, training and development decisions, placement, and reward systems in organizations (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

Research suggests that the influence of TQM on performance is sometimes positive and sometimes negative. This ambiguous result may be explained by factors such as individual and organizational moderators, organizational readiness to move toward TQM organization and methodological problems associated with TQM research (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

TQM proponents such as Deming advocate the elimination of performance appraisal because it is perceived as contradictory to the purposes of TQM. Deming has argued that performance appraisal promotes short-term performance, builds fear among workers, undermines team efforts, fosters the pursuit of self-interest, threatens workers' self-esteem, and detracts from the attainment of organizational objectives. However, performance appraisal researchers (Carson, Cardy & Dobbins, 1992; Waldman &

Kenett, 1990), as well as management practitioners (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993; Bowen & Lawler, 1992a) have argued against the elimination of performance appraisal in quality-oriented organizations.

Japanese organizations have successfully adopted Deming's approach which requires precise measurement and control using statistical techniques (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). Although we agree with Deming that the current performance appraisal systems may be inappropriate for quality-oriented organizations, we do not believe that performance appraisal systems should be abandoned altogether (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM maturity has a significant correlation with a number of measures related to perceptions about performance. Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity are more positive in their perceptions that the organization is performing well, that morale is high, that TQM has affected the job positively, that the organization's financial performance is strong, and that their co-workers are happy (Fok et. al., 2000).

There should be a good relationship between the employee and the appraiser. Employees should be made aware of the appraisal process, what is evaluated, and how often. Employees should be told how they are doing on a continuous basis, not just at appraisal time. The appraisal should point out strengths and weaknesses as well as how performance can be improved (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

Performance appraisals may be for the team or individuals. Regardless of the system, a key factor in a successful performance appraisal is employee involvement. An employee should always be given the opportunity to comment on the evaluation, including protesting, if desired. Performance must be based on standards that are developed and agreed upon by the appraiser and employee (Besterfield et. al., 1995). Performance appraisals should be viewed as a positive way to get employees involved. Since performance appraisal involves relational interaction between the supervisor and subordinate, it seems pragmatic to evaluate both perspectives simultaneously (Findley, Giles & Mossholder, 2000) because this relational interaction impacts the performance of rates. Demographic similarity between supervisors and subordinates appears to be an important consideration in performance appraisal (Schraeder & Simpson, 2006).

TQM is an approach to management that has evolved from a narrow focus on statistical process control to encompass a variety of technical and behavioral methods for improving organizational performance. Given its mission to improve organizational performance, TQM is almost completely prescriptive in orientation (Sureshchandar, 2001).

Statistical process control is the use of statistical process control charts to provide operators with feedback, allowing them to base their actions on the variability of the manufacturing process (Flynn et. al., 1995). Performance appraisal takes on an important developmental role under integrated manufacturing. Firms using integrated manufacturing often require substantial discretion and flexibility from their employees. For example, continuous improvement which implies that no level of performance is ever completely satisfactory requires that employees discover creative ways to depart from established routines. The purpose of appraisal under integrated manufacturing is developing employees rather than simply auditing their performance (Snell & Dean, 1992).

The TQM approach would use a much broader array of outcome measures, with job performance, employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and customer (both internal and external) satisfaction all treated as important. In fact, there should be less of a tendency to maximize outcomes on any one these measures with expectation that customer satisfaction is always considered first. Customer focus as a driving force behind work processes is a fundamental characteristic of the TQM approach the internal or external customer of the product or service becomes the focus for determining standards and for measuring performance (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

As it is already outlined in the evolution path of TQM, statistical measurement of work processes is a key factor for the birth of TQM. The work of early quality gurus is directly related to a felt need to control the variation for maximizing the output (Ishikawa, 1997, Deming, 1986a; Crosby, 1979,1996) and this is why total quality control (TQC) concept is the foundation of TQM.

TQM today, implies more than statistical measurement but it is still a fundamental premise of quality management culture. According to Feigenbaum (1991, p.6) “the purpose of quality measurement is to determine and evaluate the degree or level to which the product or service approaches this total composite.” Undoubtedly TQM implies an endless or a continuous process and in a certain extent, the success of which relies on the effective use of measurement techniques for the assessment of implementation. “A quality organization measured the success of these (work) processes” (Cartin, 1993). Actually, the variety of so-called old new measurement methods and techniques explain the vital need for measurement of continuous improvement process in achieving the quality targets (Yahyagil, 1999).

Building quality into the process is approached by TQM with the use of statistical tools. Measurement and record keeping are critical and data are often gathered to determine who should be promoted, given a raise, laid off, etc. (Cardy & Dobbins, 1996). TQM uses many approaches for identifying and prioritizing process problems, including inspection at the source, communication with customers, quality circles, and many graphic tools, such as Pareto analysis and cause-and-effect diagrams (Flynn et. al., 1995). TQM tools such as the control chart, run chart, and Pareto analysis can be used by the marketer to review the progress of a strategy in reaching a goal and in providing companies with an edge in the marketplace (Zineldin, 2000).

As it is emphasized before, TQM is about continuous performance improvement of individuals of groups and of organizations (Kanji & Asher, 1993). To improve performance, people need to know what to do and how to do it, and have the right tools to do it, to be able to measure performance and to receive feedback on current level of achievement (Kanji & Yui, 1997). Therefore the introduction of accurate statistical measurements is the unique advantage to control the variation in work processes.

2.4.4. Teamwork

Among the subjects most often mentioned there are “team-building” very popular in the 1980s and the study of organizational culture and change (Sinangil & Avallone, 2001).

The use of employee teams is one popular method for increasing worker productivity and flexibility (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000). Many organizations today use different forms of employee involvement programs to improve quality, productivity, employee motivation, and morale and to reduce costs and adapt to environmental changes. One of the most common organizational changes in the past 20 years has been the implementation of teams (Allen & Hecht, 2004). Teams generally consist of “a group of individuals who work together to produce products or deliver services for which they are mutually accountable” (Mohrman et al., 1995, p.39). Further, teams have both a history and a future and consist of team members who work together to achieve shared, specified goals. According to recent surveys, U.S. firms involved significant numbers of employees in some type of team activity (Abbott et. al., 2006).

A team is defined as a group of people working together to achieve common goals and objectives. Teams are successful because of the emphasis placed on people (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

Teamwork – collaboration between managers and nonmanagers, between functions, and between customers and suppliers – is one of the TQM principles (Dean and Bowen, 1994). In other words teamwork is the major component of TQM (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). The first type of teamwork is based on the familiar assumption that nonmanagerial employees can make important contributions to organizations when they have the power and necessary preparation. Teamwork among functions is based on the notion that organizations as systems cannot be effective if subunits emphasize their own outcomes over those of others. The principle of teamwork with customers and suppliers is based on the perceived benefits (e.g. synergy, loyalty) of partnerships. Teamwork practices include identifying the needs of all groups and organizations involved in decision making, trying to find solutions that will benefit everyone involved, and sharing responsibility and credit. Often such practices are promoted by forming teams (e.g. cross-functional problem-solving teams) that draw together various organizational units. Team-building techniques such as role clarification and group feedback are associated with this principle. The contributions that teams can make to enhance involvement have long been recognized (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

TQM acts to both reinforce existing hierarchy and construct an emphasis on group or teamwork at lower levels. The 'quality organization' often replicates the existing hierarchy giving the senior roles new legitimacy, although Crosby often points to Quality Managers seeking more status. At the top of the organization is a management committee, chaired by the chief executive, consisting of the most senior management. Each member of this committee, usually with the exception of the Chief executive will chair a lower committee consisting of immediate subordinates. Below this, it is usual to have groupings called Quality Improvement Teams, which may be permanent or ad hoc, with cross-functional membership and responsibility for particular improvements (Tuckman, 1994).

Eden (1986) found that team building significantly affected self-perceptions of the efficacy of the intervention but did not effect actual changes (as rated by subordinates) (Porras & Silvers, 1991).

The impact of team building on performance measures was examined by Bottger & Yetton (1987) that they studied the impact of individual training in problem solving on group performance and found significantly positive effects (Porras & Silvers, 1991).

Quality teams have challenging and significant work specifically, collaborating to generate continuous improvement in meeting explicitly stated customer requirement which motivation theory suggests should enhance collective effort (Hackman & Wageman, 1995).

As mentioned previously, one of the key goals of TQM is continuous improvement of processes. Consequently, organizations must develop internal structures and other mechanisms. (e.g., coordination and communication) that will help them achieve this goal. In particular, quality-oriented goals dictate that an organic system is necessary for the organization to adapt to a constantly changing environment (Spencer, 1994). Therefore, most TQM organizations use flat, lean structures, decentralized decision-making, and emphasize flexibility rather than high degrees of specialization. Furthermore, TQM approaches view organizations as a system of overlapping processes rather than separate functions, and attempt to coordinate these processes

through the use of a team-based structure. Given that a team-based structure may enhance communication, coordination, and process improvement, it follows that use of a team-based structure may also facilitate the attainment of quality-oriented goals. The use of a cross-process team structure that allows the team self-control will positively affect the achievement of quality-related outcomes (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

Effective teams become responsive to customer needs and become more knowledgeable about the process (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

Basic elements of a successful quality team (George & Weimerskirch, 1994, p.43):

- Team goals are as important as individual goals.
- Team goals are the responsibility of all the team members.
- Individual competitiveness must be reduced.
- Communication is a must.
- Mutual understanding, respect, and cooperation are emphasized.
- 100% team participation is required.

Work teams are thought to support cooperation, and help foster a climate characterized by fairness, openness, and trust (Saskin & Kiser, 1993). Teams place increased emphasis on coworker communication. The practitioner-oriented TQM literature states that employees working in teams must receive the tools, techniques, training, and quality information they need to understand problems, develop solutions, and take action (e.g., Saskin & Kiser, 1993). However, TQM implementations frequently show “little concern for how they (teams) function as a social unit and decision-making body set within the larger organizational context” (Fairhurst & Wendt, 1993) suggest implementing a team-based system prior to or concurrently with TQM to ensure that the communication relationships within and between teams are characterized by the openness, empathy, and equality of participation prescribed by authors describing the TQM philosophy and practice (e.g., Johnson, 1993b; Schmidt & Finnigan, 1993; Allen & Brady, 1997).

Cross-functional teams can be used in multiple ways in TQM programs, their main purpose is to identify and analyze the “vital few” problems of the organization (Ishikawa, 1985, pp.104-105; Deming, 1986b, pp.72-86). Juran (1969, p.789) refers to such teams as the “steering arm” of a quality effort. Other teams, also cross-functional are created to diagnose the causes of problems that have been identified by the steering arm and to develop and test possible solutions to them. Diagnostic teams can be either temporary task forces or continuing organizational entities. In both cases, department heads are included as team members to ensure that stakeholder departments will cooperate when the time comes to implement the teams within functions. But the team composition principle is the same: Choose people who can provide access to the data necessary for testing potential solutions and who are critical to implementing the solutions developed (Juran, 1969, p.789).

TQM quality teams are composed of members from different functions, ensuring that there is more talent available for work on the collective task than would be the case for individuals operating on their own or in homogeneous teams whose members come exclusively from a single function or unit (Hackman et. al., 1995).

Task-performing teams sometimes head off in the wrong direction or go about their work in inefficient or inappropriate ways, merely because members are not entirely clear about what they are supposed to do or whom they are supposed to satisfy. Under TQM, these risks are minimized: Customers are specifically identified and their requirements are clearly explicated. Customer requirements provide an available and appropriate test for team members to use in inventing and choosing among alternative ways of proceeding with their work. Moreover, changes in those requirements can provide a clear signal that it is time to abandon or revise existing performance routines (Hackman et. al., 1995).

Team building is an essential part of the empowerment process. One major barrier in the team building is resistance from supervisors. Supervisors play a key role in effective team building and without their support it will fail (Besterfield et. al., 1995). Even the best team cannot be successful unless it is empowered to implement appropriate changes and to adapt to the challenge of quality improvement (Scarnati J.T. & Scarnati, B.F., 2002).

Empowered teams are not easy to initiate. It is important to remember that teams must have boundaries to prevent chaos. Resistance to change will certainly be present. Keeping employees informed will reduce resistance, especially when they will benefit from change. Change must take place if an organization is to continue to exist in the competitive world. The first step in team building is to involve the employees themselves as partners in the change process (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

In TQM process, self-directed teams are more suitable than traditional groups. Self-directed teams show greater methodological competence, to some extent greater professional and self-competence but no greater social competence when completing optimization tasks. In addition, the work characteristics participation, formal team communication, continuous improvement process, training and team-oriented tasks were related to team competence in the subsample of self-directed work teams. It can be assumed that the participation granted to teams promotes competence at the group level. Self-directed teamwork stands for the change from behavior-oriented to result-oriented management. Under behavior-oriented management, which refers to traditional group work, work teams are directed by supervisors who decide what is done, how it is done and who does it. Under result-oriented management, which refers to self-directed group work, the team itself is left to decide how best to attain the goals set by management (Kauffeld, 2006).

Job characteristics mediate the relationship between team type and team commitment and partially mediate the relationship between team type and job satisfaction and satisfaction with team processes and activities. Consultative team members perceived the content of their jobs to be more enriched and reported higher levels of satisfaction and commitment than did substantive team members (Darling, 1992).

Some researchers have found significant relationships between team type and employee attitudes (e.g., Cohen & Ledford, 1994; Pearson, 1992), others have found no difference in work-related attitudes between employees in self-managed teams versus traditionally managed groups (e.g., Batt & Applebaum, 1995). In a field experiment, Workman and Bommer (2004) found that employees whom employers had assigned to autonomous work teams failed to show improved job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Abbott et. al., 2006).

Abbott, Boyd and Miles (2006) found that there were significant and negative correlations between team type and job satisfaction, satisfaction with team activities and processes, and team commitment. Thus, the direction of the relationships was opposite of what they hypothesized in that participants in consultative teams reported higher levels of job enrichment, job satisfaction, and team commitment than did participants in substantive teams.

Teamwork may also be introduced as part of Human Resource strategies as a way to stimulate employee commitment and to facilitate creativity and innovation (Bacon & Blyton, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Topolnytsky, 1998). The implementation of teamwork can also be seen as part of a participatory strategy in organizations (Hodson, 2002; Rasmussen, T.H. & Jeppesen, H.J., 2006).

Quality and team-building experts have identified four stages of a team approach: forming, storming, norming, and performing (Pyzdek, 2001). These stages recognize that a team approach to solving problems is time- and resource-consuming and does not result in favorable outcomes overnight. The effort involved in putting together a team and then going through these stages before a solution is achieved takes time and resources, both of which ultimately impact the bottom line of the organization (Parthasarathy, 2006).

Studies indicate that individual contributors can improve system performance given the current system by working alone approximately 5-15% of the time, while the other 85-95% of the improvements will involve changing the system itself (Pyzdek, 2001). While the former is better accomplished by individual contributors, the latter may require a team approach in most cases.

Juran (1988) emphasize the importance of individual rewards as well as team rewards. Team rewards must recognize the contributions of the team to the project success. Poorly designed team reward systems may discourage employees from subscribing to a team approach within the organization and cause the team approach to fail.

Individual contributions and individual contributors are as valuable to organizations as team contributions and team players are (Juran, 1988). Not all decision making or problem resolution requires a team approach (Parthasarathy, 2006).

Team-building activities, such as establishing shared values and ground rules for collaboration and building team trust and cohesiveness, in addition to more advanced skills such as problem solving, reaching consensus, and conflict resolution also have great influence on a team's health and productivity (Snell et. al., 2005).

Team learning behaviors had a significant and consistently positive effect on team performance. Functional diversity had a negative effect on team satisfaction, while the effect of positional diversity was positive. Task and relational conflicts were also found to be negatively associated with team performance (Yeh & Chou, 2005).

Over the past decade, research articles have shown inconsistent results related to impact of demographic diversity on group performance. Some articles have, on the one hand, suggested that demographic diversity increases conflict, reduces cohesion, complicates internal communications, and impairs coordination within the team (Yeh & Chou, 2005).

Teams are important, therefore, gives the priority to the establishment of self managing teams for sharing responsibility to achieve organizational goals through the participation in decision making. Once the organizational members learn to deal with their own problems in the course of their jobs, they would be more successful to cope with the difficulties through the use of communications channels. As it is mentioned that teamworking is an important application for organizational success. Therefore, the role of teamwork as prime factor in TQM implementation.

2.4.5. Empowerment

During the past decade, TQM was considered the right answer for achieving competitive advantage. Other systems, such as business process reengineering may come to replace TQM. The characteristics underlying these quality interventions, such

as teamwork and empowerment, will remain across various incarnations of quality improvement programs (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) connect empowerment with a key motivational concept, namely self-efficacy: they define empowerment as “a process whereby an individual’s belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced”. Empowerment, in short, means increasing self-efficacy, or belief in one’s own effectiveness in executing desired behavior. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) extend this definition, creating a cognitive model of empowerment is defined as “increased intrinsic task motivation”.

Empowerment is an understanding of who I am, how do I relate to higher management, how do I relate to fellow employees, how do I change my old ways, what is expected of me. Empowerment means giving authority by senior management. Empowerment usually requires a change in the organization’s infrastructure. Employees will be more motivated to accomplish organization goals and objectives if they have the authority to make decisions. Empowerment may take the form of self-directed work teams or of letting workers make some of the decisions (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

Empowerment begins with (George & Weimerskirch, 1994, p.43) :

- A willingness by managers and supervisors to give others responsibility.
- Training supervisors and employees in how to delegate and accept responsibility.
- Communication and feedback to tell people how they are doing.
- Rewards and recognition

Wagner (1995) argued that participation and empowerment are different constructs, since the latter involves delegation and distribution of authority, while participation does not involve any delegation.

Empowerment was most commonly associated with alternative approaches to psychological or social development and the concern for local, grassroots community-based movements and initiatives (Hur, 2006).

Banducci, Donovan, and Karp (2004) also found three components of the process of empowerment in their survey study: strengthening representational links, fostering positive attitudes, and encouraging political participation.

Empowerment exists when supervisors give employees the discretion to make job-related decisions (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Empowerment closely parallels the concept of task autonomy and control (Singh, 2000). Central to both concepts is the willingness of supervisors to give employees the authority to make decisions and use their initiative. The practice of empowering subordinates is a principle component of managerial and organizational effectiveness (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

Bowen and Lawler (1992b) argue that empowered service workers are better able to respond to customers' needs, which in turn enhances customers' perceptions of their service experiences. They further argue that empowered employees feel better about themselves and their jobs.

Several studies report positive relationship between empowerment and job attitudes (Spreitzer et. al., 1997; Koberg et. al., 1999; Singh, 2000). However, surveys of service workers suggest a negative relationship or no relationship between empowerment and job attitudes (Hartline & Ferrel, 1996; Hartline et al., 2000).

Spreitzer et al. (1997) find positive relationships between empowerment and work satisfaction (job satisfaction) in samples of mid-level professional employees and insurance agents. Koberg et al. (1999) report a correlation of 0.60 between empowerment and job satisfaction in their study of health care workers. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) report positive relationships between empowerment and job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) at the team level.

Hartline and Ferrell (1996) report a negative relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction for hotel employees. Hartline et al. (2000) find no relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment in a sample of service workers. To build positive job attitudes, employees must be empowered to make decisions and use their initiative.

Psychological empowerment was positively correlated with both job satisfaction and performance (Hechanova et.al., 2006). Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) found that the relationship between empowerment and job attitudes was positive and significant. Finally, the significant relationship between empowerment and OCB is more strongly positive in the sample of employees with shorter tenure than the sample of employees with longer tenure (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

The review of quality management practices in an international context indicates that TQM appears to be a sound management practice and a strategic management tool for achieving business objectives. TQM is based on management tool for achieving business objectives. TQM is based on management techniques such as teamwork and employee participation/empowerment (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). In another words, building quality into the process is approached by TQM with the use of statistical tools and empowerment.

TQM focuses on achieving full participation and empowerment of the workforce in the pursuit of quality, obtained through a respect of the workers' pride of workmanship, the formation of work teams, accessibility to management, and the sharing of organizational rewards (Deming, 1986a, pp.107-116). This is similar to Waldman's (1994) criteria of involvement and empowerment and Anderson et al.'s (1994) component of employee fulfillment.

The practitioner-oriented literature indicates TQM is a top-down process that ultimately stimulates and relies on bottom-up initiative. Its one of the successful implementation is said to depend more on executive commitment to the philosophy and employee empowerment (Powell, 1995).

The concept of empowerment is conceived as the idea of power, because empowerment is closely related to changing power: gaining, expending, diminishing, and losing (Page & Czuba, 1999).

Empowerment theories are not only concerned with the process of empowerment, but also with results that can produce greater access to resources and power for the disadvantaged (Hur, 2006).

Employees with access to power tools are more motivated at work than those without access. Workers who empowered also experience greater job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Managers can play an important role in providing access to these empowering conditions in the work setting (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005). Empowerment has an impact on workers' perceptions of fair management practices, feelings of being respected in their work settings, and their trust in management, which ultimately influence their job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The paradigm of TQM requires comprehensive organizational changes and a complete integration of human resources into every aspect of a business in a dynamic organizational system (Amsden et al., 1996). The process of change should be introduced step-by-step, team working relationship and empowered workers (Pun, 2001).

Paper and Rodger (1996) argue that committed management, empowered workers, customer satisfaction, open communication and a strong project champion would greatly enhance the chances for the successful implementation of TQM initiatives.

The adoption of TQM strengthens the organizational culture encouraging employee participation on teams, engaging in quality suggestion programs, etc. these activities enable employees to experience a broader level of participation and empowerment, by contributing more directly to organizational outcomes than would likely be the case in setting where performance expectations are set in the absence of a TQM philosophy (Masterson & Taylor, 1996).

Quirke (1992) wrote that communication influences fundamental beliefs, values, and attitudes necessary for employee empowerment and commitment to quality and service.

Certainly successful non-TQM organizations exist that do all the things suggested in the TQM literature, such as empowering employees, eliminating bureaucracy, and simplifying processes (Powell, 1995).

TQM is perceived as coercive rather than empowering. Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity will also report that the organization's culture is empowering. TQM changes the culture in a positive and empowering way. If empowerment is present, the prospect that individual difference variables may lead some individuals to resist challenging work (Fok et. al., 2000).

Although much of the empowerment research and literature deals with the individual in his immediate environment, there is clearly a branch that focuses more on the wider community (Itshaky & York, 2000). Empowerment is operative at various levels: personal or individual, interpersonal, organizational, community, and collective (Hur, 2006).

Personal empowerment relates to the way people think about themselves, as well as the knowledge, capacities, skills, and mastery they actually possess (Staples, 1990). Collective empowerment refers to processes by which individuals join together to break their solitude and silence, help one another, learn together, and develop skills for collective action (Boehm & Staples, 2004).

Personal empowerment sometimes conflicts with the development of collective empowerment, when empowerment is not effectively operating. Although individuals can become more empowered personally through the process of personal development, they cannot always become effective in helping to build their group's collective empowerment. Personal empowerment should be consistent with collective empowerment to improve the value of social and economic justice more effectively (Staples, 1990).

Individual empowerment develops when people attempt to develop the capabilities to overcome their psychological and intellectual obstacles and attain self-determination, selfsufficiency, and decision-making abilities (Becker, Kovach, & Gronseth, 2004).

Collective empowerment develops when people join in action to overcome obstacles and attain social change (Staples, 1990). Groups become empowered through collective action, but that action is enabled or constrained by the power structures that they encounter (Parpart et al., 2003).

The goal of individual empowerment is to achieve a state of liberation strong enough to impact one's power in life, community, and society. The goal of collective empowerment is to establish community building, so that members of a given community can feel a sense of freedom, belonging, and power that can lead to constructive social change (Hur, 2006).

As it is mentioned, empowerment provides significant advantages throughout the organization. It makes people feel vital to the success of the organization. It is also a vote of confidence in the employee's ability to significant contribute to the organization. Empowerment places people at the center of. Empowered people join in creating their own destiny; work becomes exciting, stimulating, enjoyable and meaningful. Empowerment builds trust and promotes effective communication (Hur, 2006). So, empowerment is one of the important applications of TQM.

2.4.6. Employee Involvement

Employee involvement is a long-term commitment, a new way of doing business, a fundamental change in culture. Employees who have been trained, empowered, and recognized for their achievements see their jobs and their companies from a different perspective. Employee involvement begins with a change in management's attitude. As Gower says, "You can only have empowerment if the top person makes the decision to have it." (George & Weimerskirch, 1994, p.58).

TQM is defined as both a philosophy and a set of guiding principles that represent the foundation of a continuously improving organization. One of the basic concepts of TQM is effective involvement and utilization of the entire work force (Besterfield et al., 1995). The Total in TQM means just that: the involvement of everyone. There can be no passengers in TQM. (Thomas, 1994, p.48).

Employee involvement has evolved over the years from various titles and programs that were intended to encourage employees to become more closely related to the organization's goal and objectives (Besterfield et al., 1995).

The system of management used in U.S. industry since 1930, which espoused "Say the right thing, but do what must be done," is not appropriate today. It takes employee involvement to continuously improve quality and increase productivity (Besterfield et al., 1995).

Employee involvement has become strongly associated with TQM in the United States. Although not explicitly advocated by the TQM founders (Juran et al., 1995).

Implementing TQM relies significantly on top management leadership and commitment and a supportive organizational culture and management system created by them (Besterfield et al., 1995). Van Schalkwyk (1998) adds that it also requires a new management style and human practices, as well employee involvement and participation.

TQM is an approach for continuously improving the quality of every aspect of business life (Kanji & Asher 1993, 1999). It is an integrated approach and set of practices that emphasizes management commitment, continuous improvement, customer focus, increased employee involvement and teamwork, employee empowerment etc. (Sureshchandar, 2001).

TQM focuses on achieving full participation and empowerment of the workforce in the pursuit of quality, obtained through a respect of the workers' pride of workmanship, the

formation of work teams, accessibility to management, and the sharing of organizational rewards (Deming, 1986a, pp.107-116). This is similar to Waldman's (1994) criteria of involvement and empowerment and Anderson et al.'s (1994) component of employee fulfillment.

TQM domain includes developing an overall HRM plan for selection, employee involvement, training, performance management, and employee recognition that is aligned with company strategy. TQM advocates appear to give more weight to the importance of employee satisfaction in organizational effectiveness than to HRM researchers, who focus on performance per se (Cardy & Dobbins, 1993).

Involving employees, empowering them, and bringing them into the decision-making process provide the opportunity for continuous process improvement. Employee involvement improves quality and increases productivity. Employee involvement increases morale by creating a feeling of belonging to the organization (Besterfield et al., 1995).

Many organizations today use different forms of employee involvement programs to improve quality, productivity, employee motivation, and morale and to reduce costs and adapt to environmental changes. One of the most common organizational changes in the past 20 years has been the implementation of teams (Allen & Hecht, 2004).

Performance appraisals may be for the team or individuals. Regardless of the system, a key factor in a successful performance appraisal is employee involvement (Besterfield et al., 1995).

This is way all quality gurus put an emphasis on the importance of employee involvement in producing quality.

2.4.7. Managerial Leadership

Managerial leadership plays a critical role in developing the quality of working life in an organization. The leader in quality management influences the organization's behavior

while at the same time the people in the organization influence the leader in return. In essence, effective leadership should be viewed as a reciprocal process-managerial leaders and followers influencing each other. What makes truly successful total quality managers is not intelligence, education, lifestyle or background. The principal factor that seems to determine success is the manager's ability to deal with people (Peters & Waterman, 1982, pp.81-86).

There is a tendency for personnel within an organization to try to become what managers give them reason to feel they should and can become. Managerial leaders who strive to establish a setting that is supportive of employees and their development also help to instill within those individuals a loyalty that will serve to enhance the continued achievement of quality in the organization (Darling, 1992).

Deming's framework emphasizes the systemic nature of organizations, the importance of leadership and the need to reduce variation in organizational processes.

Some of the features of a TQM process will vary from company to company, but the fundamental, common aspect of the process will be the change of management style. The culture of continuous improvement in an organization, especially on an individual basis, is not easily achieved and therefore some effective training and leadership are essential. Moreover, management must move from a reactive to a proactive style and prevent, rather than solve, problems (Kanji & Asher, 1993).

Organizational leaders are responsible for providing a vision encompassing the organization's quality values, goals, and systems. One of the TQM implementation that received by Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (ASQC, 1993) is Executive Leadership. Executive leadership plays a part, as does management, but a crucial component of TQM is full participation of workforce, as reflected in the human resource development and management component (Masterson & Taylor, 1996).

The role of executive leadership is to provide employees with a vision of quality as the overarching philosophy and top priority of the organization. However, many authors have noted the inability of organizations to implement this vision and to achieve their

quality goals without employee buy-in to the TQM philosophy (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993). In Japanese companies leadership of the top management was strongly recognized as TQM elements (Kanji & Yui, 1997).

Implementing TQM relies significantly on top management leadership and commitment and a supportive organizational culture and management system created by them (Besterfield et al., 1995; Dale et al., 1997). Van Schalkwyk (1998) adds that it also requires a new management style, as well employee involvement and participation.

In order for a quality management program to be effective, leaders must understand that many definitions and approaches to quality are being used simultaneously by customers, production personnel, engineers, suppliers, and even competitors (McGrath, 1994, p.124). Leaders must recognize that pleasing the customer is not a static process, but is an elusive never ending journey pursued by all competitive organizations (Scarnati & Scarnati, 2002).

We all know that changing things is much easier than changing people; nevertheless, the management structure will have to take the visible leadership from the top involving everybody in the organization in achieving good quality (Kanji & Asher, 1993).

Most of the TQM practitioner-oriented literature urges leaders to adopt transformational roles (e.g., Saskin & Kiser, 1993).

Leadership styles within transformational, transactional and non-transactional classifications are evaluated relative to the organization's performance based on the criteria from the Baldrige Quality Award. Results indicate that leadership does have an affect on quality, and certain transformational and transactional styles are more effective (Hirtz et al., 2007).

Writers on both TQM and transformational leadership stress the communication and reinforcement of values and the articulation and implementation of vision. In TQM, this

entails aligning organizational members' values with quality values of customer focus, continuous improvement, and teamwork (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

The transformational leadership approach focuses on follower development as well as organizational effectiveness. Transformational leaders convince followers to strive for higher expectations, which allows for greater quality achievements (Atwater & Bass, 1994). Bass (1985) noted that transformational leadership builds a different relationship with followers than transactional leadership based on personal, emotional and inspirational exchanges.

A transformational style is based on building engagement and participation. Leaders who have a strong transformational leadership style typically have groups that perform better in various ways, including safety outcomes (Krause & Weekley, 2005).

Transformational leadership has four dimensions. The first is charisma, the second is inspiration, the third is individual attention, and the fourth dimension is intellectual challenge (Krause & Weekley, 2005).

Transformational leadership produces levels of effort and performance that transcend what would occur with only a transactional approach (Hirtz et al., 2007).

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange process whereby followers are rewarded for accomplishing specified goals or rendering certain services or achieving a certain level of performance (Jung & Sosik, 2002). In supervisory-subordinate relations, the transactional leader exchanges rewards and promises of reward for effort (Hirtz et al., 2007).

Transactional leadership emphasizes the workgroup level, in contrast to TQM's focus on the more global level of organizations or major subunits. Dean and Evans (1994) suggested that this difference in focus occurs because TQM advocates emphasize empowerment at lower levels. Further, Waldman speculates that transactional

leadership may encourage the short-term, individually based goal setting denounced in TQM (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

Transformational leaders rely on empathy to understand followers' thoughts, feelings, and points of view. Studies have shown that empathy is related to leadership emergence in self-managed teams (Kellett, Humphrey & Sleeth, 2002; Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002; Barbuto & Burbach, 2006).

Leaders increase the emotional impact of followers' thoughts and attention to tasks when they enable self-determination (Wenzlaff & LePage, 2000).

Conflict is at the root of many leaders' best ideas, as well as at the core of their worst failures. When it is handled poorly it can cost organizations heavily in terms of wasted management time, turnover, lawsuits, and—in extreme cases—violence and sabotage. When it is addressed effectively, it can stimulate creativity and lead to better decision making. With all this at stake, it would seem natural that leaders would seek to hone their conflict management skills (Runde & Flanagan, 2008). Lewis (2000) confirmed that a leader's display of negative emotions causes followers to rate the leader's effectiveness lower. Barsade (2002) found that the spreading of positive emotions among a group could enhance group cooperation and reduce group conflict.

Transformational leaders change their organizations by persuading followers to embrace positive visions and ideals (Keller, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Also, transformational leadership enhances subordinates' satisfaction (Hater & Bass, 1988) and trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Barbuto & Burbach, 2006).

Results indicated that all but one leadership style and one quality management criteria were reliable for further analysis. Each of the transformational leadership styles and contingent reward positively correlates with the perception of organizational quality management implementation (Hirtz et al., 2007).

Past research shows that leader consideration and support is a prerequisite for positive job attitudes (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1996, Singh, 2000). The relationship between leadership support and job attitudes is positive and significant. According to these results it could be suggested that leadership effects OCB positively. But in one research, the relationship between leadership support and OCB is found negative in the sample of female employees. The relationship between leadership support and OCB is also found nonsignificant in the male sample. Further, the negative path from leadership support to OCB in the female sample is consistent with a female tendency for responsiveness to directions (Babin & Boles, 1998; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

Leadership is a fundamental skill that is required and should be used effectively throughout organizations. As it is emphasized, quality management needs a different type of leadership in terms of creating an organizational environment for allowing employees participating in decision making processes. We can say, democratic leadership is the most successful leadership type for TQM implementation. In short, leadership is one of the most important quality management culture elements because the success of quality implementation depends mainly on the type of leadership.

2.4.8. Reward Allocation

More specifically to be effective TQM organizations must use rewards that reinforce the goals of the organization. Similarly the rewards should foster cooperation teamwork because the cross-functional or cross-process team is the basic work-unit in quality-oriented organizations. Furthermore, rewards in TQM organizations should reinforce job-related behaviors that are critical for improving processes or increasing customer satisfaction (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

For employee rewards in TQM, Deming advocated abandoning the individual-based incentive pay systems that have long occupied an important place in HRM research and practice. He argued that these plans represent another case of management focusing on the person instead of the system and that piece-rate incentive plans also reinforce a short-term, quantity-oriented focus inconsistent with continuous quality improvement (Dobbins et al., 1991). Although TQM-oriented firms increasingly are adopting reward-system innovations (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993; Lawler et al., 1992).

TQM does stress the importance of recognition rewards, which have received virtually no research attention in management theory (Dean & Bowen, 1994).

Organizational change researchers recognize the importance of reward systems. For example, Schein (1990) suggested that reward systems can be used as one mechanism to achieve culture change, while Schneider et al. (1996) argued that the focus of rewards determines the climate for the sustainability of change. Furthermore, organizational justice researchers have explicitly confronted the issue of rewards systems in the context of TQM. Cobb, Wooten and Folger (1995) argued that because TQM involves changes in what employees are expected to contribute, some form of organization-wide reward plan needs to be incorporated into the compensation system. Thus, if TQM is to gain a firm foothold in organizations, employees must have the opportunity to reap the financial benefits of their efforts. Along similar lines, Hackman and Wageman (1995) proposed that the absence of rewards may not present a problem initially, but over the longer term, it may lead to a motivational backlash when employees realize that they are not benefiting from the organization's TQM endeavor.

The impact of profit sharing on continuous improvement orientation sends a clear message to those advocates who dismiss the influence of extrinsic rewards. Rather, profit sharing may provide a means for organizations to help sustain and reinforce change that is consistent with TQM. Hackman and Wageman's (1995) observation that the longer an organization's experience with TQM, the greater the reliance on extrinsic rewards to purpose the goals of TQM.

Many TQM organizations avoid performance-contingent extrinsic rewards entirely and rely on intrinsic motivation. This solution, however, has significant opportunity costs. The best motivational state of affairs is obtained when an organization does not rely exclusively on either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards but, instead, structures the work in a way that fosters intrinsic motivation (for example, by providing challenge, autonomy and direct feedback from customers) and then supports that positive motivation with performance-contingent extrinsic rewards (Juran et. al., 1995).

Organizations with greater experience with TQM tended to place greater emphasis on group, departmental or organization-wide, rather than individual rewards. This is consistent with the TQM authorities' emphasis on teamwork and between-unit interdependence and with their view that it is the system, not individual efforts, that ultimately determines quality. Such rewards, however, almost always are linked to quantitative performance measures, which Deming believed to be "limiting" (Juran et al., 1995).

Juran et al. (1988), Davis and Newstrom (1989) emphasize the importance of individual rewards as well as team rewards. Team rewards must recognize the contributions of the team to the project success. Poorly designed team reward systems may discourage employees from subscribing to a team approach within the organization and cause the team approach to fail (Raj, 2006).

If an individual values continuous improvement, learning, attention to detail, pleasing customers, teamwork, and completing high quality work she/he is likely to find working for a quality-oriented company quite rewarding. Correspondence between an individual's needs and types of rewards or outcomes provided by an organization will affect the attainment of quality-related outcomes (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

There is congruence between individuals needs and organizational rewards are to design organizational reward systems to meet the needs of individuals. Previously, it was argued that the reward systems in a TQM organization have to be in alignment with the goals of the organization. Given the importance of rewards for individual performance and satisfaction, it is also important that the reward system be congruent with the needs of individuals. Therefore, organizations should consider both organizational goals and individuals' needs when developing reward systems (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

TQM are positively related to externally equitable rewards. External equity is defined as the degree to which a firm pays employees the price they would command in the external labor market. Individual equity is defined as the degree to which employees are rewarded proportionately to their individual performance (Snell & Dean, 1991).

Organizations look at empowerment as involving more than just “giving more power” to people throughout the organization. Empowerment also requires that organizations redistribute information, knowledge and rewards. Rewards should be allocated on the basis of how effectively employees use this information, knowledge, power to improve the quality of customer service, as reflected in customer loyalty and overall firm performance (Dess & Picken, 2000).

In this context, the types of rewards which play a fatal role in the process of TQM implementation and function to increase the participation and performance of organizational members. Therefore many behaviorists (Steers, Porter & Bigley, 1996, p.497) put the emphasis both on extrinsic and especially on intrinsic rewards due to the fact that self granted rewarding is as effective as financial, material and social rewards.

Thus, the establishment of a new reward allocation system is a basic focus point in general and specifically in TQM implementation. The basic aim of rewarded allocation is to reinforce the employees of an organization to create a conformance between their attitudes, work styles and the organizational goals.

3. JOB ATTRACTION

In today’s competitive environment, organizations need employees that show beyond-the-line performance. Beyond-the-line performance means not only putting employee’s time into work, but also their personality and heart. Doğan describes job attraction as devoting oneself wholeheartedly into the job (Doğan, 2002).

One might think that his/her job is crucial and might see his/her job as the axis, but it doesn’t necessarily mean that person is entirely given himself/herself into the job. Without giving his/her personality and existence into the job, or identifying himself/herself into the job, in short, without the job attraction, he/she might think that the job is everything to him/her.

We come to the point that we are not able to identify one employee’s real job attraction by only seeing how important the job is and what it means to him/her without

questioning his/her entire spiritual and personal participation. Job attraction appears as a significant factor that can overtake the role of allowing employees show a great performance and create their differences.

At this stage, first we need to define the factors that allows for job attraction. In the literature there is fewer research about job attraction and it's antecedents. But, this is a concept similar to job involvement or job engagement. We will surge job attraction by the means of job engagement and job involvement. Because, we think that the factors that effect to job involvement or job engagement also effect job attraction.

Engagement is a relatively new addition to the occupational field and is viewed as part of a more general emerging trend towards a "positive psychology" that focuses on human strengths and optimal functioning rather than on weaknesses and malfunctioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The concept of "job engagement" has been referred as job or work engagement. Kahn defined both personal engagement and personal disengagement and provided a conceptual basis for job engagement (Kahn, 1990). Further on, Maslach and Leiter (1997) expanded Kahn's conceptualization and referred to engagement as "lack of burnout". From their point of view, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy which are postulated as the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions, exhaustion, cynicism and lack of professional efficacy. Engaged employees identify themselves personally with their jobs and become motivated by the work itself (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

Saks (2006) conducted a research for making a distinction between job engagement and organizational engagement and revealing their antecedents and consequences. His results indicated a meaningful difference between job and organizational engagement. Perceived organizational support were found to be the predictor of both job and organizational engagement, while job characteristics were found to be predictors of job engagement.

Demerouti, et.al. (2001) stated that job resources can be located at four levels within the organization; at the *level of organization at large* (e.g., pay, career opportunities,

job security), *interpersonnel level* (e.g., supervisor and co-worker support, team climate), *level of the organization of work* (e.g., role clarity, participation in decision-making), and finally *task level*, which refers to performance feedback, skill variety, task significance, task identity and autonomy. Shine (2003) found that job demands and job resources are both correlated with job engagement. In below,so we can now discuss which factors are related to job attraction.

Higher pay and supportive supervisor feedback made a job more attractive on the average. Not surprisingly, high-paying jobs were preferred to low-paying jobs on the average, and supportive feedback was preferred to critical feedback. Both of these main effects, however, need to be qualified by some significant interactions. The effect of both pay and supervisor feedback varied depending on ethnicity and sex. For example, when feedback is critical, however, female students find the occupations much less attractive than do male students (Krumboltz et al., 1994).

Prestige is generally regarded as being a powerful determinant of occupational attraction, or preference. However there seem to be conditions under which prestige considerations may be of secondary importance in promoting or guiding occupational attraction (Liberty, 1965).

Although prestige is a powerful determinant of occupational attraction, a number of studies have pointed to a concern in certain individuals for activities, which require a high degree of skill or talent and represent a challenge, or a test of personal excellence. For such individuals the degree of skill or talent (competence) demanded by an activity is likely to be more important than the degree of social standing (prestige) bestowed by the activity in guiding occupational preference. Liberty's study investigated this problem by comparing prestige and competence as determinants of occupational attraction for individuals (Liberty, 1965). The results also clearly point to the mastery component in achievement values as accounting for the previously observed relationship between achievement values and occupational attraction.

More attracted people can be confused with workaholic people. At this point we must argue who is attracted and who is workaholic. Some writers view workaholism

positively from an organizational perspective (Korn et al., 1987; Machlowitz, 1980; Sprankle & Ebel, 1987). Others view workaholicism negatively (Killinger, 1991; Schaefer and Fassel, 1988). So, we can say that workaholic people are not the same as job attracted people. Because, we are always looking to job attraction according to positive perspective.

Lee et al. (1996) found that the belief and fear that one must constantly prove oneself or else be judged worthless by others was positively related to both work involvement and achievement striving. They also observed that the belief and fear that one must prove oneself or be judged unworthy related positively to work involvement and achievement striving and directly impacted. Beliefs and fears were significantly correlated with job enjoyment (negatively).

A GOOD IMAGE is important for job attraction. Previous researchers have suggested that an important variable that influences a person's decision to remain in a profession is the profession's image as perceived by the public (Krau & Ziv, 1990). In other words, they suggested that the public's image of a profession plays an influential role in affecting a person's decision to stay in that profession. Perceived job image refers to the ideology or shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership with respect to the social status, capability, and behavior patterns of individual members (Birnbbaum & Somers, 1986). These shared beliefs are, to a certain extent, influenced by how individual members think that others perceive them as members of that occupation or profession. Perceived job image is positively associated with organizational commitment but negatively associated with intention to quit (Lim et al., 2000).

Women continue to be attracted to occupations that are considered to be women's work, such as clerical, secretarial and personal service work (Scott, 1994). Inequalities persist even when women enter traditional male domains such as management. For example, women are under-represented in managerial roles in 68% of workplaces, which, while showing an improvement over the last 10 years, continues to present a social justice problem (Millward et al., 2000).

The findings showed that perception of person-job fit influenced attraction at different stages of selection. At the end of the selection process, there was a direct relationship between person-job fit perceptions and intentions. These findings highlight the importance of ensuring that applicants have sufficient information about the job during the recruitment and selection process (Carless, 2005).

As we mentioned above organizational environment also effects job attraction. At this point, how organizations can create an environment that provides job attraction for employees becomes a critical question. We suppose that TQM presents organizational environment that encourage job attraction.

We also suppose that individuals' needs, or preferences for outcomes may play a relatively important role in the TQM context. One reason for this is that TQM systems are typically designed so that individuals can satisfy personal needs for competence or achieve personal goals by learning and improving organizational process. Therefore, TQM organizations may be more likely to offer individuals attract to their jobs.

If an individual needs to feel competent or successful on the job, and the organization provides the person with an opportunity to utilize his/her abilities to improve organizational processes, then the person is likely to be satisfied and contribute to the goals of the organization (Argyris, 1957). If however, the work situation deprives the person of a chance to feel component or successful, then the person is likely to be dissatisfied and reduce his/her contributions to the system. It follows that some types of individuals may be better suited for a TQM environment than others. In particular, individuals who have high needs for growth, personal competence, autonomy, affiliation, self-control, or prefer jobs that are challenging, and constantly changing will be particularly well suited for a TQM organizations (Lawler, 1994).

As it is explained above, some factors influence job attraction. First, some factors that effect job attraction are related to personality properties such as gender, competence, perceived job image, perception of person-job fit, beliefs and fears, workaholic behaviors, achievement and responsibility; second, some factors are related to organization and it's environment such as nonroutine job nature, integrity, public's

image of a profession, higher pay, participation, supportive supervisor feedback, achievement and advancement opportunities, supportive systems to meet employee's skills and abilities; an third, some factors are related to job characteristics such as prestige, and a good image of job by public.

4. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Quality-oriented organizations may have to select individuals who share quality-oriented values, or alter the organizational system to meet the values or needs of individuals. TQM programs may want to tailor their reward systems to meet both individual and organizational goals. Alternatively, they might increase workers' commitment to quality goals by involving them in the process of setting the values or vision for the organization (Stone & Eddy, 1996). For example, the results indicate that job burnout reduces staff's willingness to deliver quality services and that this effect is moderated by individual staff's level of affective organizational commitment, and their perceptions of the extent of organizational and supervisor support provided by the organization (Humborstad et.al., 2008).

In spite of the arguments noted above about the importance of individual-organizational value congruence in TQM organizations, little research has directly focused on the issue. However, a considerable and organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p.27), and some recent research have emphasized hiring for person-organization fit (Bowen et al., 1991).

Implementing TQM practices represents a dramatic change from those of traditional management. To manage this change successfully, Sohal et al. (1998) argue that visionary strategy and restructuring must be accompanied by organizational commitment to a cultural shift. Attaining TQM relies significantly on continuous improvement that is based in people's commitment and involvement. However, it is still not necessary for firms to integrate them in all circumstances for organizational performance and changes (Pun, 2001).

As seen, organizational commitment and perceived organizational support were significantly higher in the organizations implementing TQM. Employees in the organizations implementing TQM indicated more positive employee-top management and coworker communication relationships, as well as more quality information from top management (Allen & Brady, 1997).

An often-discussed issue in the TQM philosophy is how to improve internal customer commitment. Bergman and Klefsjö (2001) emphasize that TQM needs to clarify the importance of making all stakeholders of the organization winners in the long run the purpose of partnership is to change outside control of people by management into inside control by people themselves.

It is common among TQM authors to advocate everybody's commitment and focus on co-workers, but the next natural step, which could be partnership, is rarely described. Partnership is a relation based on personal visions and desires which are combined to the organizations mission and vision. Mutual trust is crucial in a partnership concept (Harnesk, 2004).

In one empirical study, TQM's implementation positively influenced employees' attitudinal organizational commitment (Harber & Barclay, 1993). If organizational commitment is such an important concept, we must be also interested in the factors that may help to increase organizational commitment.

In the past decade, a great deal of attention and research efforts have been invested in order identify the various causes and implications of organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Steers, 1980). The main thrust of that research was to afford reasonable explanations of the development process of organizational commitment defined as the strength of an individual's identification and involvement with an organization.

Organizational commitment is generally defined as the attachment of the individual to the organization. The mostly used and accepted definition of organizational commitment is given by Porter and Smith (1970). According to them, organizational

commitment is an identification with and involvement in the organization, characterized by the internalization of the values and goals of the organization, a willingness to work extra hard on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization (Kozacioğlu, 2002).

Commitment is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization (Robbins, 2001).

Organizational commitment refers to the belief that membership in the organization is important and worth working on to ensure that it endures indefinitely (Hartline et al., 2000; MacKenzie et al., 1998). Absent from this affective definition of organizational commitment are the normative and continuance dimensions of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment exists when employees face high switching costs because of a perceived lack of suitable alternative employers. Normative commitment exists when employees remain with an organization because of normative pressures to meet organizational goals and interests (i.e., employees feel that staying with an organization is the moral or right thing to do) (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

As it said organization commitment refers to a belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the employing organization, and a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and to main organizational membership (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, p.317).

In 1982, Mowday, Porter and Steers defined commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in an organization”.

Organizational commitment appears as a multidimensional construct, subsuming :

1. A desire to maintain membership in the organization
2. Belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization

3. A willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (Cooper & Robertson, 1986, pp.54-59).

As with other topics in organizational behavior, there is a wide variety of definitions and measures of organizational commitment. As an attitude organizational commitment is most often defined as (Cici, 1997) :

1. A strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization
2. A willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization
3. A define belief in and acceptance of, the values and the goals of the organization (Luthans, 1992, pp.124-126).

Steers (1977) proposed that antecedents of organizational commitment could be cast into three categories: personal characteristics of membership, role-related characteristics, and work experiences.

According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982)' classification, four determinants of organizational commitment are as follows:

- Personal characteristics
- Role and job characteristic
- Structural characteristic
- Work experience

An alternative view is presented by Meyer and Allen (1991) who defined commitment in terms of three separate terms. They referred to these three forms of commitment as affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Commitment as an emotional attachment and identification with and involvement in the organization is called "affective commitment"; commitment as an attachment based on

the cost of leaving the organization is called “continuance commitment”; and feeling of obligation to stay in the organization is called “normative commitment” (Kozacıoğlu, 2002).

Affective commitment is defined as emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in one’s organization (Glazer et al., 2004).

Affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization and it has been related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences, for example pay, supervision, role clarity, and skill variety (Hartmann, 2000).

Continuance commitment describes an employee’s attitude toward turnover, that is, the need to stay with the organization because few job alternatives exist and high sacrifice would ensue (Meyer et al., 1998; Glazer et al., 2004).

Continuance commitment reflects a relationship that is largely based on an exchange between the employee and the organization; members develop commitment to the organization because they see it as beneficial regarding costs and rewards (Randall & O’Driscoll, 1997).

The concept of normative commitment developed in the works of Wiener and Wardi (1980) and Wiener (1982) (and later furthered by Allen & Meyer, 1990) suggest that individuals attach themselves to one organization since this is the proper way to behave.

According to recent models, commitment can be seen as an outcome of various antecedent variables, such as job satisfaction, various job characteristic, work experiences, demographic variables, and value orientation (Steers, 1977; Morris & Sherman, 1981).

Organizational structure is one of the important antecedent variable for organizational commitment. For example, volunteer organizations might convey the importance of volunteer work and provide organizational support to induce pride and respect as a means of enhancing organizational commitment among their volunteers. Pride and respect are directly and positively associated with organizational commitment among volunteer workers. The research indicates that volunteer organizations can possibly induce feelings of pride among their volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008).

Higher levels of adverse work-related factors were significantly associated with higher frequency of the distinguished types of violence. Significant interactions were found between psychosocial factors and violence only in predicting organizational commitment, even if effect sizes were very low (Camerino et al., 2008).

Empirical data indicate that age, tenure, teamwork, organizational culture, decentralized organizational structures are also among the causes of organizational commitment (McCormick, 1988).

Several demographic variables will have an impact on commitment. These demographic variables are age, sex, marital status, tenure, occupation and education. Several studies has shown that women are more likely to leave. For many women a job is of secondary importance compared with their family. One the other hand, married couples are more committed. Married people are generally responsible from other persons. Therefore, they do not want to take risk and prefer settlement on a job (Cici, 1997).

Salancik (1997) concluded that people who have greater tenure in an organization are more committed. He also found a relationship between the relative age of workers and their level of commitment. In particular, older workers tend to be more committed (Cici, 1997).

Grusky (1966) found that organizational commitment increased with years spent in the organization (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Overall, for various types of organization age and tenure have generally been reported to be positively associated with commitment and education has been reported to be negatively related to commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988).

Morris and Sherman (1981) reported that older employee and less educated employees higher levels of commitment (Cici, 1997).

Research has established negative relations among tenure (and age), organizational commitment, burnout, and job performance (Wright & Bonett, 2002).

Controlling for employee age and other nuisance variables, the authors found that tenure had a very strong nonlinear moderating effect on the commitment-performance correlation, with correlations tending to decrease exponentially with increasing tenure. These findings do not appear to be the result of differences across studies in terms of the type or performance measure (supervisory vs. self type of tenure (job vs. organizational), or commitment measure) (Wright & Bonett, 2002).

Near (1989) found that freedom positively correlated with commitment for Americans, but not Japanese. For Japanese, seniority positively related to commitment. This indicates that idiocentric values, such as freedom and achievement might be important predictors of commitment in individualistic societies, whereas allocentric values, such as respect, tradition, and seniority might be important predictors of commitment in communal societies (Glazer et al., 2004).

Japanese employees certainly show a high degree of organizational commitment in fact, this is seen as a major competitive advantage for Japanese organizations (Umstot, 1988, p.73).

Organizational commitment is effected from cultural differences. Examining cultural differences, Williams et al. (1998) pointed out that organizational commitment in collectivist cultures is likely a result of social bonding, whereas in individualistic cultures it is likely a result of structural bonding. Arabs, as a more traditional group, commitment

is a more important attitude than for Jews, who are more westernized in their values (Cohen, 2006).

One of the most important factors that is involved in the concept of organizational commitment is long-term job security together with the opportunities to participating in decision-making process having autonomy and responsibility in the jobs being performed (Umstod, 1988).

Leadership behaviors may constitute an important and underresearched component in the commitment process (Morris & Sherman, 1981).

Only one of the leader behaviors (vision articulation) had a significant main effect on organizational commitment, while six substitutes for leadership (indifference to rewards, intrinsically satisfying tasks, routine tasks, organizational inflexibility, group cohesiveness, and rewards outside the leader's control) influenced this criterion variable. Indifference to organizational rewards, rewards outside the leader's control, and routine tasks tend to decrease commitment, while intrinsically satisfying tasks, organizational inflexibility, and group cohesiveness tend to increase it. Thus, leadership substitutes, as opposed to leadership behaviors, appear to be the key determinants of employees' commitment to the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996).

Transformational leadership only has an indirect positive relationship with organizational commitment through leader-member exchange quality (Bettencourt, 2004).

Communication is also of vital importance when leaders try to understand and respond to co-workers' personal motives (Harnesk, 2004).

Argyris (2000) argues that any from of ambiguity will create confusion and lead to a lack of trust and a lack of action because people do not know what they are expected to do.

All decisive factors are dependent on a communication in dialogue between leaders and co-workers. Without communication, core values cannot be deployed, personal maturity has no meaning, personal motives cannot be integrated into the organization's vision and mission, and trust and equity cannot be mediated (Harnesk, 2004).

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that positive past experiences, satisfaction with the job, and policies and procedures are all antecedents of affective commitment. Relationships between affective commitment and its antecedents (organizational support, procedural justice, and company and supervisor satisfaction) were more pronounced for employees with salient collective self-concepts. Alternatively, relationships between continuance commitment and its antecedents (outcome and supervisor satisfaction) were stronger for employees with salient individual self-concepts (Johnson & Chang, 2008). Employees may have accepted and integrated the organization's values as their own and, therefore, may remain with the organization simply because they want to, not because of prior investments (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006).

Developing change strategies that focus on the values that guide people might also help create commitment to the organization (Yousef, 2000) and according to Suliman and Iles (2000), it is equally good to create a sense of continuance commitment, as well as affective commitment. Generally, openness to change values negatively correlated with affective commitment, whereas the correlations between conservation values and openness to change values with continuance commitment were inconsistent (Glazer, 2004).

Some studies have reported large positive correlations between commitment and job performance (Bauer & Green, 1998; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984), whereas others have reported moderate positive (Adkins, 1995; Saks, 1996), small positive (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998), or negative (Wright, 1997) correlations between commitment and job performance.

The higher level of satisfaction tends to change the behavioral intentions of workers for organizational commitment in an organization. Intersender conflict had a significant

effect on organizational commitment through satisfaction with supervision and through satisfaction with co-workers (Bishop & Scott, 2000).

One of the research indicate that the correlation between organizational commitment and job performance is greatest for new employees and decays exponentially over time (Wright & Bonett, 2002).

A decline in both job satisfaction and organizational commitment was observed among newcomers who were strongly committed to self-set goals but experienced poor conditions for accomplishing these goals at work (Maier & Brunstein, 2001). Newcomers enter organization with their own goals in mind and strive to enact them right after the beginning of employment. New employees evaluate their work experiences with respect to the idiosyncratic goals they feel committed to pursue and that these evaluations are in turn reflected in the quality of affective job attitudes. Newcomers will be likely to reach high levels of satisfaction and organizational commitment if they perceive their work environment to be supportive of the accomplishment of valued goals (Maier & Brunstein, 2001).

Mowday et al. (1982) proposed that initial work experiences should influence the development of commitment. Often, an employee's first experience with an organization occurs in a training setting. In a study examining socialization practices, Louis, Posner and Powell (1983) found that when formal offsite residential training was viewed as helpful, new employees reported greater levels of organizational commitment.

Enhanced organizational commitment can be a desirable outcome of early training experiences. Employees may view an effective training experience as an indication that the company is willing to invest in them and cares about them; thus, training may enhance their commitment to the organization. Recent research has shown that trainees who enter training with higher levels of motivation learn more, perform better, and are more likely to complete training than their less motivated counterparts. Individuals enter training with differing expectations and desires. When training fails to meet trainees' expectations and desires, or training fulfillment is low, we hypothesize

some dysfunctional outcomes, such as negative attitude change, poor training reactions, and failure to complete training. The research results suggest that socialization training can influence trainees' feelings of commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation and that fulfilling trainees' expectations and desires can play an important role in the development of post training attitudes. Trainees who completed the training demonstrated significant improvements in their level of organizational commitment and self-efficacy (Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

Training that enhances organizational commitment should improve the company's ability to retain employees, as commitment has demonstrated negative relationship with withdrawal processes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The current study demonstrated that training fulfillment, self-efficacy, and motivation, suggesting that companies should try to enhance training fulfillment in their training efforts (Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

Several researchers suggest that empowerment is a motivational process whereby individuals become more integrated into the organization through increased involvement in work-related issues (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Supervisor can play a key role in this process by encouraging and assisting individuals as they strive to attain meaningful goals. As these goals are achieved, individuals' intrinsic motivation is expected to increase (Bass, 1990, pp.118-120). Involvement in work-related decisions, and the provision of support as one attempts to accomplish work-related goals, are expected to bolster individuals' attraction to both their job and organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Eby et al., 1999).

In terms of the proposed relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment, job satisfaction would influence affective commitment. In keeping with previous research, both general job satisfaction and affective commitment were expected to impact outcomes (Eby et al., 1999).

Feedback had direct and indirect positive effects on affective commitment seem reasonable, particularly given the finding of a 'common cause' for affective commitment and general job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic motivation). It is also worth noting that while

intrinsic motivation was related to both affective commitment and general job satisfaction, the relationship was stronger for affective commitment and general job satisfaction, the relationship was stronger for affective commitment (Eby et al., 1999).

Ko, Price and Muller (1997) explains the determinants of affective commitment are as “largely the result of rewards or punishments”; the determinants of continuance commitment “self-investment, general training social support and opportunity”; and finally the determinants or normative commitment are socialization and exchange.

Organization prestige (i.e. the perception a member has that other people, whose opinions are valued, believe the organization is well-regarded) and organization stereotypes (i.e. value connotations for attributes of the organization) were found to enhance self-categorization (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).

Another factor that affects commitment is freedom of choice. When an employee chooses a job because he wants it (with no other external pressure, such as money, pressure of parents, no other job found e.t.c.) later commitment will be high in order to justify the decision. Nonorganizational factors such as the availability of jobs after making the initial choice to join an organization will affect commitment (Cici, 1997).

Glisson and Durick (1988) suggested that worker’s beliefs about alternatives for leaving an organization and about the irrevocability of their decisions are important in determining commitment behavior. Bateman and Strasser (1984) reported that workers who perceive fewer alternative options for employment tended to have greater organizational commitment.

Individuals whose commitment is based on continuance feel that they have to stay with the organization because they need the benefits that they get from the organization and it would be difficult for them to find another job (Kozacioğlu, 2002).

Perceived task interdependence to be positively related to both team and organizational commitment. Its relationship with team commitment would be significantly greater than with organizational commitment (Bishop & Scott, 2000).

Employees need to feel that their organization is looking out for them and their interests. Employees recognized the costs involved in leaving the organization, the costs had little influence on their attitudes. Another explanation is that employees at this organization do not value the investments they have made. They may remain with the organization for reasons other than to avoid losing their investments (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006).

Work-family facilitation was found to be separate from work-family conflict. Work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation were significantly related to job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006).

Employees whose work provided the skills, behaviors, and positive mood which positively influenced the family were also more satisfied with their job, had higher affective commitment to the organization, were more likely to stay in their job and were more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behavior. Employees whose involvement in family resulted in positive mood, support and sense of accomplishment that helped them to cope better, work more efficiently, feel more confident and positive, and be more energized for one's role at work were also more satisfied with their job, had higher affective commitment to the organization, and were more likely to stay in the job (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006).

Both procedural and distributive justice has significant impacts on organizational commitment (Loi et al., 2006) and intention to leave. These findings are consistent with Meyer et al.'s (2002) argument that organizational support was a possible mechanism through which other work experience variables (e.g. organizational justice) influence affective commitment.

Psychological contract breach has negative consequences for employees and organizations. For example, breach is negatively related to in-role performance,

organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors (Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003; Restubog et al., 2006).

Fairness perceptions and blame attributions are necessary for the highest levels of commitment and OCB. Commitment and OCB can both be viewed as positive behaviors (Horvath & Andrews, 2007).

Porter and Smith (1970) found a negative relation between organizational commitment and turnover.

Absenteeism is one of the consequences of low level of commitment. It has been shown that committed individuals have a good attendance record and work hard for the good of the organization (Mowday et al., 1982, p.315-318).

When we review the consequences of organizational commitments, there is a relationships of TQM implementations with organizational commitment. These applications which is related to organizational commitments are leadership styles, training, empowerment, teamwork and employee involvement in decisions. These relations will be discussed in our research.

5. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

5.1. What is OCB ?

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been referred to in a variety of ways but appears to have been recognized as early as the 1950s (Fok et al., 2000). Bateman and Organ (1983) describe individuals who engage in OCB as “good soldiers.”

Organizational citizenship behaviors are employee work behaviors such as helping others, staying late or working weekends, performing at levels that exceed enforceable standards, tolerating impositions or inconveniences on the job, and being actively

involved in company affairs (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12, pp.4-12; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Bolino et al., 2002).

Citizenship behavior has been formally defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12, pp.4-12). Over the years, however, researchers have often expressed concern about defining OCB in this way. By and large, researchers have been most concerned with the contentions that OCB are discretionary and that they are not rewarded by the organizations (e.g. Morrison, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Tepper, Lockhart, & Hooper, 2001; Werner, 1994; Bolino et al., 2002).

In addition, because of the way that OCB were initially defined, it has often been accepted that, in theory, citizenship behaviors are not formally rewarded by organizations. Empirically, though, several studies indicate that supervisors do consider OCB when conducting performance appraisals (e.g., Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000; Allen & Rush, 1998; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Werner, 1994). Recent research also suggests that individuals are most likely to engage in OCB when they believe that those behaviors will be rewarded (Haworth & Levy, 2001).

More recently, VanDyne et al. (1994) have suggested that OCB activities involve loyalty to the organization, expected modes of participation on the part of the individual, expectations of high standards of participation by others, individual growth as a form of participation, and being obedient to the expectations of the organization.

Specifically, Organ (1997) argued that OCB is best defined as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place".

5.2. Some Factors Related to OCB

Motives play an important role in OCB (Finkelstein, 2006). Three motives were identified by Rioux and Penner (2001): prosocial values, organizational concern, and

impression management. They found that prosocial values motives were most strongly associated with OCB directed at individuals, and organizational concern motives were most strongly associated with OCB directed toward the organization. There were significant correlations between prosocial values motives and Altruism and Courtesy. There was also a significant correlation between prosocial values motives and Civic Virtue. Organizational Concern motives correlated significantly with the Conscientiousness, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship. However, Organizational Concern motives also correlated significantly with Altruism and Courtesy (Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Role perceptions also have significant relationships with at least some of the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions. Both role ambiguity and role conflict are significantly negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but not to conscientiousness and civic virtue (Podsakoff, 2000).

Observation had significant, negative relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. There was also a negative relationship between formal meetings and altruism. Employees who perceived that their general managers frequently observed their work or initiated meetings to discuss problems were reported as exhibiting low levels of OCB. The degree to which the general managers monitored work progress through informal discussions largely did not affect the level of OCB employees exhibited (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Employees who believe that their supervisor personally treated them fairly appeared to be more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991).

Findings demonstrated that *emotional exhaustion and diminished personal accomplishment* were related negatively to OCB, whereas depersonalization had no independent effect on OCB. Job involvement mediated the relationships among emotional exhaustion, diminished personal accomplishment, and OCB (Chiu & Tsai, 2006).

The perceptions of workers regarding their organizations' commitment to their safety and well-being influenced the degree to which they engaged in citizenship behaviors.

Workers who were active in citizenship behaviors were enthusiastic and had positive perceptions regarding safety concerns in their work environments, and vice versa (Gyekke & Salminen, 2005). Safety citizenship role definitions were positively related to the performance of safety citizenship behaviors (Hofmann et al., 2003).

Workers who actively engaged in citizenship behaviors had positive perceptions of safety in their workplaces, and vice versa. Workers who engage in such unprompted productive activities for the advancement of their organizations have been designated as good citizens or good soldiers (Kidder & Parks, 2001; Organ, 1988, pp.4-12). The etymology of this description thus gives the impression that such workers are more efficient and productive than their counterparts who are passive in citizenship behaviors (Gyekke & Salminen, 2005).

5.2.1. Culture and OCB

Culture effects OCB (Paine & Organ, 2000). For example, Arabs, as a more traditional group, commitment is a more important attitude than for Jews, who are more westernized in their values. As a result, higher commitment levels among Arabs would have a stronger impact on OCB and in-role performance than for Jews (Cohen, 2006).

As we mentioned before OCB was a voluntary behavior that has a lot to do with helping others in the organization. A collectivist orientation fits better with this behavior and will strengthen the relationship between commitment and OCB (Cohen, 2006).

Collectivism is such a value, in that it reflects an individual's tendency to value the welfare of the environments more than the welfare of self. Research indicate that Asian nurses adapt to new environments more quickly and smoothly than native nurses in Western countries because of their familiar healthcare administrators (Liou, 2008). Moorman and Blakely (1995) assessed collectivism and OCB, both with self-reports, in a sample of American financial service employees. They found a significant association, with collectivists being more likely to report OCB.

Low power distance may also strengthen the relationship between commitment and OCB. OCB is a behavior that is most often exhibited among those who do not have a rigid hierarchical orientation (Cohen, 2006).

Those who have higher levels of uncertainty avoidance will hesitate to perform OCB. Therefore, the expectation is that among those with lower levels of uncertainty avoidance, commitment will have a stronger relationship to OCB (Cohen, 2006).

Organizational commitment had a favorable effect on in-role performance for those with low uncertainty avoidance, but a favorable effect on organizational OCB for those with high uncertainty avoidance. Occupational commitment had a positive effect on in-role performance for those with lower uncertainty avoidance. Occupational commitment had a positive effect on in-role performance for those with higher levels of femininity and an adverse effect for those with higher levels of masculinity. Occupational commitment also had a positive effect on organizational OCB for those with higher levels of collectivism, as opposed to the negative effect for those with higher levels of individualism (Cohen, 2006).

Organizational culture directly influenced the level of helping among co-workers and also influenced the work status-OCB relation for both helping and voice. Specifically, employees were more helpful in organizations that were less bureaucratic in their organizational culture. Work status, work-status preferences, and organizational culture all have substantial effects on employee helping and voice forms of organizational citizenship behavior (Stamper & Dyne, 2003).

5.2.2. Individual Factors and OCB

Individual difference characteristics are related to perceptions that the organization's culture is participative. In turn, people oriented Total Quality Management programs are positively related to perceptions that the culture is participative and to positive perceptions about the organization (Fok et al., 1999). Individuals who are high in benevolence are also likely to be high in willingness to engage in citizenship behavior and to be high in growth needs strength (Fok et al., 2000).

Researchers have found that individuals sometimes help others in an effort to harm the image of the other person (Gilbert & Silvera, 1996; Shepperd & Arkin, 1991). Specifically, studies on "overhelping" indicate that some people may help others in an

effort to spoil those individuals' reputations. Similarly, employees may volunteer for additional assignments or put in long hours in an attempt to make their colleagues look bad. Thus, in some cases, employees might actually engage in OCB so that their coworkers will be viewed less favorably (Bolino et al., 2004).

Individuals may engage in OCB because they are disinterested in or dissatisfied with their inrole responsibilities. Thus, an employee may volunteer to help out on a committee to get away from his or her regularly assigned duties. In addition, employees might engage in OCB because of a dissatisfying personal life. Indeed, the research of Hochschild (1997) suggests that some employees actually spend extra time at work to avoid their lives back at home.

Ouchi (1981, p.21) suggests that goal/value congruence between employees and the organization might motivate employees to behave in ways that are consistent with the organization's objectives.

In a broader study of organizational commitment, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that individuals whose attachment to their organization was based on identification with organizational values and goals were more likely to perform prosocial behaviors than were individuals whose attachment was instrumental in nature (Tepper et al., 2001).

Employees who identify with the organization and perceive that quality-driven values are important to the organization's culture, will be more likely to personally subscribe to this objective. As a consequence, these employees will be more likely to engage in extrarole behaviors or OCB that help facilitate the goal of superior service quality (Tepper et al., 2001).

5.2.3. Equity and OCB

There has been some consideration of linkages between OCB and feelings of equity and inequity. Organ (1988) has speculated that, in responding to felt negative inequity, in Adams' (1965) sense, employees are often unable to directly lower those inputs which are specified by the employment contract. Instead, they may respond by

reducing organizational citizenship behavior. It can be inferred from Folger, Konovsky (1989) and Organ, Konovsky (1989) that feelings of procedural justice or equity, in Adams' terms, should lead to a willingness to engage in citizenship behavior (Fok et al., 2000). It was proposed that procedural and distributive justice will have positive influence on OCB intentions and negative influence on turnover intentions. Results indicated that distributive justice perceptions were significantly related to both OCB and turnover intentions. Procedural justice, on the other hand, was only significantly related to turnover intentions (Hemdi & Mohd, 2008). Procedural justice is also positively related to perceived organizational support (Moorman et al., 1998). Procedural justice correlated significantly with Sportsmanship (Rioux & Penner, 2001). In general, these ideas suggest a causal link under which feeling inequity can lead to reduced citizenship behavior (Zellars et al., 2002).

Haworth and Levy's (2001) research investigate relations among procedural justice, perceive system knowledge, beliefs about organizational citizenship behaviors. Puffer (1987) reported that need for achievement and personal security predicted OCB.

Several researchers have explored reasons why individuals might react toward a specific person or the organization itself. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000) argued that procedural justice perceptions may be related more to reactions toward the organization, whereas interpersonal justice perceptions may be related more to supervisor reactions.

If an employee perceives he or she is never recognized (formally or informally) at all for performing OCB, he or she may develop an attitude toward OCB that "they are worthless in this organization, they are simply a waste of time, and I am not going to do them" (Folger, 1993; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1993). However, if the employee perceives that OCB are rewarded, then the attitude toward OCB would be expected to be more favorable. This attitude, then, is proposed to be the underlying mechanism which drives the decision to perform OCB (Haworth & Levy, 2001).

As might be expected, there has been some consideration of linkages between OCB and feelings of equity and inequity. Organ (1988) has speculated that, in responding to

felt negative inequity, in Adams' (1965) sense, employees are often unable to directly lower those inputs which are specified by the employment contract. Instead, they may respond by reducing organizational citizenship behavior. It can be inferred from Folger, Konovsky (1989) and Organ, Konovsky (1989) that feelings of procedural justice or equity, in Adams' terms, should lead to a willingness to engage in citizenship behavior. In general, these ideas suggest a causal link under which feeling inequity can lead to reduced citizenship behavior (Fok et al., 2000).

5.2.4. Job Satisfaction and OCB

The management and marketing literatures support the job attitudes–OCB relationship. Bateman, Organ (1983) and Organ, Konovsky (1989) report positive associations between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors in their studies of academics and managers. Williams and Anderson (1991) report a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB in their study of professional managers.

Organizational researchers have consistently found a reliable statistical association between job satisfaction and OCB. Results from these studies have shown a positive relationship between the two organizational variables (e.g., Organ, 1988, pp.4-12; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Yoon & Suh, 2003), and meta-analysis by Organ & Ryan (1995) has also supported this stance.

Results indicate that positive and negative affect at work substantially mediate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and job satisfaction with positive affect exerting a stronger influence. For example, in males, affect at work fully mediate the EI effect on job satisfaction (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Workers who are satisfied with their jobs tend to engage in extrarole activities as a means of reciprocity for their organizations' concern. It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that the greater the derived satisfaction, the greater will be the motivation to engage in citizenship behaviors, and vice versa (Gyekke & Salminen, 2005).

Employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employers will reciprocate by showing a willingness to engage in OCB (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

Spreitzer et al. (1997) find positive relationships between empowerment and work satisfaction (job satisfaction) in samples of mid-level professional employees and insurance agents. Koberg et al. (1999) report a correlation of .60 between empowerment and job satisfaction in their study of health care workers. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) report positive relationships between empowerment and job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) at the team level (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

5.3. The Antecedents of OCB

Most research on OCB has focused on individual antecedents. For example, researchers have suggested important relationships between OCB and satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), perceptions of fairness (Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993), perceptions of pay equity (Organ & Konovsky, 1989), and intrinsic and extrinsic job attitudes (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Organ and Ryan (1995) view as underlying employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of leader supportiveness. All of them have significant relationships with citizenship behaviors.

Williams and Anderson (1991) and Moorman (1993) found that cognitions about intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristic played a more powerful role in predicting OCB than did affect variables. Organ and Konovsk (1989) also found that pay and job cognitions (overall evaluation of pay and job) predicted OCB above and beyond negative and positive affect at work but that negative and positive affect failed to increment the prediction of OCB over cognitions (Farh et al., 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Farh et al. (1997) found that pay satisfaction had no independent effect on any of the outcome variables. In contrast, one or more organizational justice variables had a significant impact on the citizenship behavior dimensions. When the effects of perceptions of organizational justice on OCB are controlled, job satisfaction will not influence the dimension of OCB (Moorman, 1991). Lee and Allen's (2002) research found that fear was primarily responsible for the increase in prediction of OCB.

Van Dyne et al. (1995) indicate that prior studies offer three categories of antecedents of OCB: affective states, individual differences, and situational factors. Affective states

thought to contribute to OCB include overall satisfaction, affective commitment, job involvement, perceptions that justice expectations have been met, perceptions that one's psychological contract has been maintained, and low alienation. Individual differences that may account for OCB include conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive affectivity, propensity to trust, organization-based self-esteem, need for affiliation, relationship orientation, empathetic concern, and field dependence. Situational factors, such as a stable environment, leader supportiveness, and group or work-unit cohesiveness, are also discussed as likely antecedents of OCB. Similarly, the meta-analytic investigation of Organ and Ryan (1995) of the antecedents of citizenship behavior focused on many of the same variables (e.g., job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organizational commitment, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and leader supportiveness).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified three contextual categories of OCB antecedents: task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors. Podsakoff et al. (2000) also suggest that these factors are critical and emphasize the importance of leader-member exchange behavior and transformational leadership in eliciting citizenship as well.

Most of the research on OCB has been focused on identifying its predictors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In conducting this research, scholars generally link predictors to an overall measure of OCB, or they link predictors to the dimensions of OCB suggested by Organ (1988).

Organ's (1988, 1990a) argument is that individuals use extra-role behaviors to reciprocate the organization for fair treatment or withhold those behaviors in response to unfair treatment. This conceptualization of OCB prompted researchers to question the boundary between in-role behavior (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

Morrison (1994) argues that individuals may engage in OCB because they define those behaviors as in-role and concludes that "the very importance of OCB has been tied to its being extra-role behavior and thus conceptually and motivationally distinct from in-role behavior".

Morrison (1994) concludes that the reason employees engage in OCB is because these behaviors are viewed as part of an individual's job, while Pond et al. (1997) argue that employees engage in OCB because these behaviors are viewed as being directly rewarded.

Employees' indifference to organizational rewards tended to reduce employees' satisfaction, commitment, trust in their leader, in-role performance, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; and also increased role conflict (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

On the one hand, employees who perceived that they possess more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, tended to express more trust in their leader and role clarity, and exhibit more civic virtue than employees who do not perceive they possess as much ability, experience, training, and knowledge. On the other hand, higher levels on this predictor variable also tended to result in more role conflict on the part of employees, and reduced sportsmanship (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

In evaluating the overall performance of employees, MacKenzie et al. (1991) found that managers take into account some forms of OCB in addition to objective productivity. In a review of empirical studies on OCB, Podsakoff et al. (2000) conclude that OCB accounted for at least as much variance in performance evaluations as did in-role performance. Furthermore, the emerging empirical evidence suggest that OCB is related to organizational and group performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996). Walz and Neilhoff (1996) found that OCB was positively related to overall operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality of performance, and negatively related to waste. Podsakoff et al. (1997) found a positive relationship between OCB and work group performance in terms of quality and quantity of work.

It appears that a more complete understanding of why individuals engage in OCB needs to take into account how individuals define the boundaries of their job. Although Pond et al. (1997) highlight the need to distinguish between citizenship behaviors that are truly discretionary and those that are formally rewarded, this distinction may itself be clouded by evidence that managers consider extra-role behaviors in assessing

performance, which in turn are rewarded (Eastman, 1994). Furthermore, the demarcation between in-role and extra-role behaviors is further blurred by the nature of some organizational interventions. Rather than relying on individual discretion to engage in organizationally functional activities, organizations are turning to enabling technologies such as TQM, for example, as a vehicle for modifying employee work orientations and responsibilities (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999; Parker et al., 1994) should not be seen as discretionary if TQM is successful in integrating continuous improvement into an individual's conceptualization of the nature of their job. This may make the distinction between in-role and discretionary behavior even more untenable and is likely to give rise to idiosyncratic measures of OCB that may hinder theory development.

The distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior is important for understanding an individual's motivation to engage in OCB. An individual's perception of the commitment that exist in their relationship with the organization is positively associated with employees' willingness to reciprocate by engaging in OCB (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

McNeely and Meglino (1994) showed that empathy was related to OCB when the target was another person, but not an organization. Thus, the type of OCB may be critical in determining whether empathy is relevant.

OCB can be encouraged by positive emotion. Whereas negative emotion induces avoidance tendencies to exit the situation, positive emotion induces approach tendencies to remain. Furthermore, people in good moods will engage in behavior that will support their moods. For example, people in such a state might choose to engage in an altruistic behavior as a means of making themselves continue to feel good. Positive mood is associated with helping behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Somech and Drach-Zahavy's research findings indicated that although most OCB were performed by individuals, those behaviors conceptually could be extended to the organizational level (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

Despite the numerous studies on the antecedents of OCB relatively few researchers have examined the effects of job characteristics on OCB. OCB was positively correlated with job variety, job significance, job feedback, and job interdependence. There was no relationship between OCB and job identity and job autonomy. Job variety and job significance were found to have a significant positive relationship with OCB, while job identity, job autonomy, job feedback, and job interdependence did not affect OCB (Chiu & Chen, 2005).

Empirical studies support the relationship between high levels of perceived organizational support and OCB (Eisenberg et al., 1990; Wayne et al., 1997; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and OCB. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that the relationship between procedural justice and citizenship was fully mediated by employees' trust in their supervisor. Procedural justice enhances a person's trust in his or her supervisor and organization, which in turn leads to the display of citizenship behavior. If employees believe that procedures used in allocating organizational outcomes are fair and just, they will be satisfied and more likely to engage in citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman et al., 1998; Farh et al., 1997; Posthuma & Compion, 2005). Individuals are more likely to alter their citizenship behavior if they believe that the system is inherently fair or unfair than when they believe a decision outcome was favourable or unfavourable (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

The good soldiers who perceived a high level of organizational concern and support, and who were satisfied with workplace conditions felt a sense of indebtedness and a need to reciprocate in terms that would benefit the organization/management (Gyekye & Salminen, 2005).

5.4. The Dimensions of OCB

The dimensions of the most popular theoretical conceptualization of OCB include the following: (1) altruism—helping others at work; (2) conscientiousness-work performance that goes beyond enforceable standards; (3) sportsmanship-tolerance of impositions or inconveniences on the job; (4) courtesy-touching base with others before taking actions that would affect their work; and (5) civic virtue-active involvement in

company affairs (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12; Bolino et al., 2004; Lievens & Ansell, 2004; Yoon & Suh, 2003).

Altruism is a discretionary behavior that helps other persons with respect to organizationally relevant tasks or problems (e.g., voluntarily helping less skilled or new employees and assisting coworkers who are overloaded or absent (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12).

Conscientiousness is a discretionary behavior that employees carry out well beyond the minimum required level (e.g., working long days, voluntarily doing things besides duties, keeping the organization rules, and never wasting work time) (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12).

Sportsmanship is a form of citizenship behavior that has received much less attention in the literature. Organ (1990b) has defined sportsmanship as “a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining.” Sportsmanship consists of actions that employee refrain from complaining, doing petty grievances, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12).

Courtesy consists of actions that help prevent work-related problems with others or such actions as “touching base” with those parties whose works would be affected by one’s decisions or commitments (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12; MacKenzie et al., 1998).

Civic virtue reflects behaviors, in which an employee responsibly engages, that show concern for the organization and employee initiative in recommending how the organization can improve its operations (Netemeyer et al., 1997; Yoon & Suh, 2003). Civic virtue represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organization as a whole. This is shown by a willingness to participate actively in its governance to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities; and to look out for its best interests, even at great personal cost. These behaviors reflect a person’s recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails. This dimension has been referred to

as civic virtue by Organ (1988, 1990b), organizational participation by Graham (2000), and protecting the organization by George and Brief (1992) (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

According to Organ (1988), courtesy is not easily distinguishable from altruism. The distinction between the two behaviors can be made when one distinguishes between coming to the aid of someone who already has a problem and helping someone prevent a problem from occurring. Also, pointing out the difficulty of recognizing some of these five distinctions, recent research (MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1997) combines several behaviors into a single global behavior or ignores certain behaviors (Yoon & Suh, 2003).

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) describe the dimensions of OCB into seven common themes: (1) Helping Behavior, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational Loyalty, (4) Organizational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self Development.

Sportsmanship and civic virtue are described as above. Helping behavior has been identified as an important form of citizenship behavior by virtually everyone who has worked in this area. Conceptually, helping behavior involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems. The first part of this definition (helping others with work-related problems) includes Organ's altruism, peacemaking, and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12, 1990b). The second part of the definition captures Organ's (1988, 1990b) notion of courtesy, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for coworkers.

Organizational loyalty consists of loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty, spreading goodwill and protecting the organization, and the endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives construct. Essentially, organizational loyalty entails promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Organizational compliance has a long tradition of research in the citizenship behavior area. This dimension has been called generalized compliance by Smith et al. (1983); organizational obedience by Graham (1991); and following organizational rules and procedures by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). This dimension appears to capture a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance.

Another dimension that several researchers have identified as a form of citizenship behavior is called individual initiative. This form of OCB is extra-role only in the sense that it involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor. This dimension is similar to Organ's conscientiousness construct (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12). Organ (1988) indicated that this form of behavior is among the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behavior, because it differs more in degree than in kind. Therefore, perhaps it is not surprising that some researchers have not included this dimension in their studies of organizational citizenship behavior (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; MacKenzie et al., 1993) or have found that this behavior is difficult to distinguish empirically from in-role or task performance (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

The final dimension is self development. Based on the work of Katz (1964), George and Brief (1992) identified developing oneself as a key dimension of citizenship behavior. Self-development includes voluntary behaviors employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Interestingly, self-development has not received any empirical confirmation in the citizenship behavior literature. However, it does appear to be a discretionary form of employee behavior that is conceptually distinct from the other citizenship behavior dimensions, and might be expected to improve organizational effectiveness through somewhat different mechanisms than the other forms of citizenship behavior.

As it is seen above OCB or extra-role behaviors are discretionary in nature and are usually not recognized by the organization's formal reward system (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Netemeyer et al., 1997). Helping behaviors, civic virtue, and sportsmanship are

subdimensions of OCB that are described in the literature (Netemeyer et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

The relationships between organizational characteristics and OCB were somewhat mixed. Neither organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, nor spatial distance were consistently related to citizenship behaviors. However, group cohesiveness was found to be significantly and positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; and perceived organizational support was found to be significantly related to employee altruism. In addition, rewards outside the leader's control were negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

5.5. The Relations between OCB and TQM Applications

We believe that value expression and the internalization of system goals may be critical to the success of TQM programs because value expression serves to motivate and activate behavior that leads to innovation, cooperation, and the improvement of processes. It should be noted that the type of behaviors necessary to make a TQM system effective are not always prescribed in traditional systems, and are often labeled extra-role or good citizenship behaviors. Thus, some authors have argued that good citizenship behaviors become part of the role requirements in TQM systems (Waldman, 1994; Stone & Eddy, 1996). For instance, results indicate that OCB is as a unique and meaningful construct in organizations and support many of the predictions hypothesized in the leadership, teamwork and satisfaction (Aoyagi et al., 2008). In the following section we will argue the relationship between some TQM applications and OCB dimensions.

5.5.1. Customer Orientation and OCB

Podsakoff and his colleagues examined the effects of three dimensions of citizenship—helping, sportsmanship, and civic virtue—on work-unit performance in two separate studies. In the first study, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found that civic virtue and sportsmanship were positively related to the performance of insurance agencies. In the second study, Podsakoff et al. (1997) found that both helping and sportsmanship were positively related to the quantity of performance. Research by Walz and Niehoff (2000)

found that helping was related to several indicators of organizational efficiency and customer satisfaction.

OCB can have an immediate effect on customer perceptions as they are evidenced within actual employee-customer interactions. OCB can also have positive effects on service quality through their impact on factors internal to the organization, including employees' work environment, service climate, team cohesiveness, and consistency of service processes, among others (Tepper et al., 2001).

OCB indirectly improve the customer-orientation of customer contact personnel through the provision of assistance and support among co-workers (Tepper et al., 2001). Openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were significantly positively related to the customer orientation of logistics employees. Peria et al., (2007) indicated that conscientiousness and extraversion were the strongest predictors of the customer orientation of managers. An employee who demonstrates high OCB is likely to generate high levels of customer satisfaction, through their propensity to help customers make better decisions (Tepper et al., 2001).

Socialization theory helps explain the expected relationship between employee OCB and customer-oriented behaviors (Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Morrison, 1996). Socialization research suggests that employees who perform one type of helping behavior (e.g., OCB) are more likely to perform other types of helping behaviors (e.g., customer-oriented behavior) due to the personal values acquired through the socialization process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). For example, altruism may be manifest in employees' going out of their way to provide benefits for customers (Bell & Menguc, 2002).

Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found a negative relationship between helping and sales performance in their study of insurance agencies. In addition, Podsakoff et al. (1997) found that civic virtue was not related to either the quantity or quality of production in their study of groups within the paper mill. Moreover, although Walz and Niehoff (2000) found helping to be positively related to overall efficiency and customer service among 30 franchises in the fast-food industry, they did not find any significant relationships between OCB and profit margins or financial performance. Furthermore, in their study, sportsmanship was significantly related to only two of nine indicators of

organizational effectiveness, while civic virtue was significantly related to only one such indicator. Koys (2001) also found the aggregate measure of OCB to be unrelated to a measure of profit that controlled for the unit's size and negatively (although not significantly) related to customer satisfaction. Finally, a recent study by Bachrach, Bendoly and Podsakoff (2001) suggests that even the positive empirical link between OCB and performance found in some of these studies could be biased by implicit theories that individuals may have about the relationship between these two variables.

Stock and Hoyer (2005) concluded that salespersons' expertise, empathy, reliability, and restrictions in job autonomy moderated the relationship between customer-oriented attitudes and customer-oriented behaviors. Thakor and Joshi (2005) argued that salespeople will be more motivated to be customer oriented when they experience their work as meaningful, and this relationship will be moderated by their organizational identification and pay satisfaction. Consequently, selecting customer-oriented logistics employees is an important first step in building a customer- oriented logistics organization (Periatt et al., 2007).

5.5.2. Teamwork and OCB

Group cohesiveness was positively related to employees' general satisfaction, commitment, trust, sportsmanship, and courtesy, and negatively related to employees' perceptions of role conflict; suggesting that cohesive groups generally improve employees' attitudes, role perceptions, and citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Researchers might examine which types of OCB are most likely to facilitate organizational performance. For example, in some cases, employee conscientiousness may contribute more significantly to organizational effectiveness than employee altruism or sportsmanship (Bolino et al., 2004). Conscientiousness is negatively related to job satisfaction (especially satisfaction with coworkers) when controlling for Agreeableness; OCB is higher with satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996). In other cases, civic virtue may be positively related to organizational success, while other types of OCB may be unrelated (or even inversely related) to organizational performance. Werner (2000) suggests that OCB may be more important in flatter, more team-oriented organizations than in hierarchical, more individually-oriented organizations.

Bachrach, Bendoly and Podsakoff (2001) examine the possibility that feedback regarding team performance may influence team members' report of organizational citizenship behaviors. Members of group that receive positive feedback generally report their groups to be significantly more helpful and exhibit more civic virtue than groups that receive negative feedback. Group members who received neutral feedback perceived their groups to exhibit more helping behavior and civic virtue than groups that received negative feedback.

Both helping behavior and civic virtue are generally described in terms of those activities or behaviors that team members can perform to make their team or organization more effective. For example, people who exhibit helping behavior are described as those who willingly share their expertise with others, who take steps to try to prevent problems from occurring, and who act like peacemakers to teammates who are having disagreements. In a similar manner, people who exhibit civic virtue are described as those who provide constructive suggestions on what the group might do to improve its performance and/or those who are willing to risk disapproval to express what they think is the best for the team. Thus, these two forms of OCB represent constructive activities that people can perform to improve their team's effectiveness. Sportsmanship, in contrast, is concerned with the avoidance of complaints, consumption of time dealing with trivial non-task-related matters, and/or finding fault with the behaviors of teammates (Bachrach et al., 2001).

5.5.3. The Leadership and OCB

Existing theory and research suggest that citizenship behaviors are context-related phenomena that are influenced by personal characteristics and work environmental factors (e.g., Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

When workers have perceived that their organizations/management are supportive and concerned about their general well-being, they have been motivated to engage in extrarole commitments (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhodes, 2001; Simons & Robertson, 2003), displayed loyalty (Setton, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), and abided by safety regulations (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999; Gyekye & Salminen, 2005).

Learning goal orientation and leader-member exchange quality are direct positive antecedents of OCB. Contingent reward leadership and transformational leadership behaviors also have indirect positive relationships with change-oriented OCB via leader-member exchange quality (Bettencourt, 2004).

Supportive behavior on the part of the leader was strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior and may even underlie the effects of perceived organizational support on OCB. Transformational leadership behavior also had consistent effects on every form of citizenship behavior. Leader-member exchange behavior also was strongly related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

It can be said that when employees believe their managers are trustworthy, employees tend to spend more time and energy on helping other contact employees (e.g., unskilled or new employees or temporarily overburdened ones) and on good sportsman-like behaviors (Yoon & Suh, 2003).

Through various leadership behaviors, managers seek to influence the situational goals and behaviors of their followers. On the one hand, managers may seek to focus employee attention and efforts on relatively narrowly defined task activities, referred to as transactional leadership (Bettencourt, 2004).

Transformational or charismatic behaviors' are believed to augment the impact of transactional leader behaviors on employee outcome variables, because "followers feel trust and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989).

Generally speaking, the empirical results have verified the impact of transformational leader behaviors on employee attitudes, effort, and "in-role" performance. Bass (1985) cites a variety of field studies demonstrating that transformational leader behaviors are positively related to employees' satisfaction, self-reported effort, and job performance. In other words, as noted by Graham (1988) the most important effects of transformational leaders should be on extra-role performance, rather than in-role performance.

Transformational leader behaviors to directly influence organizational citizenship behaviors, much in the same way that transactional leader behaviors have been shown to influence in-role performance. This is consistent with Smith, Organ, and Near's (1983) finding that a leader's individualized support behavior has a direct effect on some forms of employee citizenship behavior (i.e., conscientiousness).

The aggregate effects of the set of transformational leader behaviors on the set of organizational citizenship behaviors indicates that the effects of these leader behaviors on OCB are indirect, rather than direct, in that they are mediated by followers' trust in their leaders. More specifically, Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) findings generally showed that: (a) transformational leader behaviors had no direct effects on OCB, (b) transformational leader behaviors influenced both employee trust and satisfaction, and (c) trust influenced OCB, but employee satisfaction did not.

Similar results have been reported by Howell and Frost (1989). Howell and Frost (1989) found that charismatic leader behavior produced higher performance, greater satisfaction, and greater role clarity, than directive leader behavior. They manipulated the behavior of leaders in a laboratory setting and found that charismatic leader behaviors produced better performance, greater satisfaction, and enhanced role perceptions (less role conflict) than directive leader behaviors.

Bryman (1992) cites a variety of organizational studies demonstrating that transformational leader behaviors are positively related to employees' satisfaction, self-reported effort, and job performance.

The majority of studies on transformational leadership behaviors have focused on the effects that these behaviors have on "in-role" performance, rather than on "extra-role" or "organizational citizenship behaviors" (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12). However, as noted by Podsakoff et al. (1990), even though the effects of transformational leadership on "in-role" performance are important, they may not be as important as the effects of transformational leadership on extra-role and/or citizenship behavior.

Taken together, this suggests that transformational leadership may have a number of important effects on extra-role or organizational citizenship behaviors. The same is true of substitutes for leadership. Recent research by Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie and Williams (1993) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Fetter (1993) has documented the linkage between substitutes for leadership and OCB or extra-role behavior. Consequently, organizational citizenship behaviors were included as a key criterion variable in this study.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) reported positive correlations between subordinates' OCB and transformational leadership behaviors like articulating a vision, role modeling, intellectually stimulating subordinates, and communicating high performance expectations.

Research suggests that abused subordinates are likely to hold their employer somewhat responsible for their supervisor's behavior (Tepper et al., 2001). Abusive supervision will be negatively associated with subordinates' OCB. The relationship between abusive supervision and OCB was stronger among employees who defined OCB as extra-role relative to those who defined OCB as in-role (Bolino et al., 2004).

Past research has shown that contingent reward leadership behaviors are positively related to OCB based on social exchange reasoning (MacKenzie et al. 2001).

According to MacKenzie et al. (2001), the core transformational leadership behaviors include identifying and articulating a vision, modeling appropriate role behaviors, and fostering acceptance of group goals (see also Bass 1985; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Yukl 1989). Although transformational leadership behaviors may also clarify employees' in-role expectations (MacKenzie et al. 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer 1996), their primary emphasis is upon elevating followers' aspirations beyond contractual role expectations. Thus, they encourage the performance of extra-role behaviors that contribute to the good of the group or organization (Bass 1985; MacKenzie et al. 2001).

Increased levels of transformational leadership behaviors lead to increased change-oriented OCB among employees higher in performance goal orientation, reduced levels of contingent reward leadership behaviors have the same effect due to their emphasis on economic exchange with the employee and in-role task behaviors as a means to achieving performance rewards (Bettencourt, 2004).

Generally speaking, the transformational leadership behaviors had significant and consistent positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Two forms of transactional leader behavior were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; one positively (contingent reward behavior), and the other negatively (noncontingent punishment behavior). Of the Path-Goal leadership dimensions, supportive leader behavior was found to be positively related to every form of OCB, and leader role clarification was positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

5.5.4. Reward and OCB

Reward contingencies influence the frequency of organizational citizenship behavior. When employees are not indifferent to the rewards made available by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders control those rewards, and when their leaders administer rewards contingent upon performance, organizational citizenship behavior increases. These findings indicate that managers do take OCB into account when evaluating the performance of their subordinates, while the findings of Park and Sims (1989), and Allen and Rush (1998), indicate that managers administer rewards contingent upon citizenship behavior.

Haworth and Levy (1998) found some support for this notion in their research, they found that individuals reported that they received rewards (both direct and indirect) for performing OCB. There is a link between perception of rewards for OCB and the attitude formed toward OCB. They found that the perceptions of rewards for OCB were related to attitudes about OCB.

Of the remaining employee characteristics examined in the literature, only indifference to rewards was found to have a consistent relationship with OCB. Indeed, indifference

to rewards was negatively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

5.6. Demographic Variables and OCB

Demographic dissimilarity refers to the differences between a focal employee and his or her peers in terms of demographic characteristics such as race, sex, or age. OCB refers to discretionary behavior that is not part of an employee's job description and thus not enforceable by supervisors (Organ, 1988, pp.4-12). Demographic dissimilarity is likely to affect how employees interact with their peers (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989). Employees who are demographically dissimilar to their peers are likely to trust their peers less than those who are more similar to their peers (Rousseau & Parks, 1993; Chattopadhyay, 1999).

Generally speaking, demographic variables (e.g., organizational tenure and employee gender) have not been found to be related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). According to the Farh and Lin, demographic variables and individual characteristic of traditionality and modernity had little impact on citizenship behavior (Farh & Lin, 1997). On the contrary that empirical research suggests both that females are perceived as more altruistic by observers and that females often are more likely to be altruistic and helpful than males (Kidder, 2002).

Strong empirical evidence suggests that males are perceived as more assertive and task-oriented rather than relationship-oriented as well as the fact that they often are more assertive. For instance, Walker, Ilardi, McMahon and Fennell (1996) found that males were five times more likely than females to exercise opinion leadership in leaderless groups (Kidder, 2002).

Kidder's (2002) research suggests that females are more likely to report performing OCB-altruism than males, and males are more likely to report performing OCB-civic virtue behaviors than females (Kidder, 2002):

- a. Being female will be positively related to the performance of OCB-altruism.

- b. Being male will be positively related to the performance of OCB-civic virtue.

Morrison (1994) and Van Dyne, Ang (1998) found that women were more likely to perform altruism/helping OCB, while LePine and Van Dyne (1998) found being male was positively related to performing voice behaviors (Kidder, 2002).

Females were significantly less likely to report performing civic virtue behaviors than males. Having a feminine identity was positively related to the performance of OCB-altruism, while a masculine identity was positively related to OCB-civic virtue (Kidder, 2002).

Individuals with high feminine identity were more likely to report performing altruism OCB, while highly masculine individuals were more likely to report performing civic virtue OCB. Females were significantly less likely to perform civic virtue behaviors than males, however, there were no gender differences in reported performance of altruism behaviors after the other identities were controlled for (Kidder, 2002).

Gender could be said to be a moderator of the relationship between distributive justice and altruism (Farh & Lin, 1997) results showed a significant relationship for low traditionality or male employees and a weak or non-significant relationship for high traditionality or female employees. These results suggest that employees who perceive their interactions within an organization as recognized and legitimate are more likely to engage in citizenship behavior (Farh & Lin, 1997).

Vardi and Weitz (2002) found that, as a group, males reported engaging in a greater number of workplace misbehaviors than females. Additional research has found that women are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Kidder, 2002) and are more sensitive to disempowering types of behaviors (Vance, Ensher, Hendricks, & Harris, 2004; Hitlan et al., 2006).

Recent research suggests that women are more likely to participate in the helping dimension of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) whereas men are more likely to participate in the civic virtue dimension (Farrell et al., 2007).

Results indicated that OCB in general were expected more of women than of men. Only under specific conditions were OCB-civic virtue behaviors expected more of men. Additionally, participants were more likely to attribute men's OCB than women's OCB to impression management motives (Farrell et al., 2007).

Recent research has also found that women are actually penalized for not participating in OCB-helping behaviors, whereas men are not (Heilman & Chen, 2005). Farrell and Sara (2007) found that civic virtue behaviors were more expected of male than female. Laboratory technicians could suggest that civic virtue behaviors performed by females in this job would be more likely to be noticed and rewarded. Previous research has demonstrated that employees, regardless of gender, are less likely to be rewarded for work behaviors when they are perceived as motivated by impression management (Zellars & Kacmar, 1999; Farrell et al., 2007).

These studies demonstrate that gendered social identities are related to citizenship behaviors (Kidder, 2002).

6. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

Since the beginning of TQM approach born in Japan, there have been various researches on the subject, TQM has been increasingly applied in organizations, and has almost become a race for winning the quality prize.

What makes TQM so popular in organizational management? Why do organizations race for the Quality Prize? Or to what extent have those organizations who claimed to have established TQM really succeeded? Like any other research on the subject, this research also starts its journey by setting these questions as the origin. This management approach mainly focused on customer satisfaction first requires the satisfaction of internal customers, in other words, the organization members. In the first phase of the research, if exists, the relation between TQM and organizational commitment and citizenship is examined in order to reflect the effect of TQM on

internal staff. The second phase of the research focuses on how job attraction affects TQM applications with organizational commitment and citizenship.

The final aim of the research is to find out whether TQM is only a series of applications, or a management technique which provides organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, job attraction and a way of changing their management values. As a result, it is aimed to detect management applications that improve organization-member commitment and contribute to the increase of organizational efficiency.

7. THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Based on the main goal of research, TQM applications are considered as independent, job attraction is considered as moderating and organizational commitment and citizenship is considered as dependent variables. The model of research is as shown in **Figure 1**.

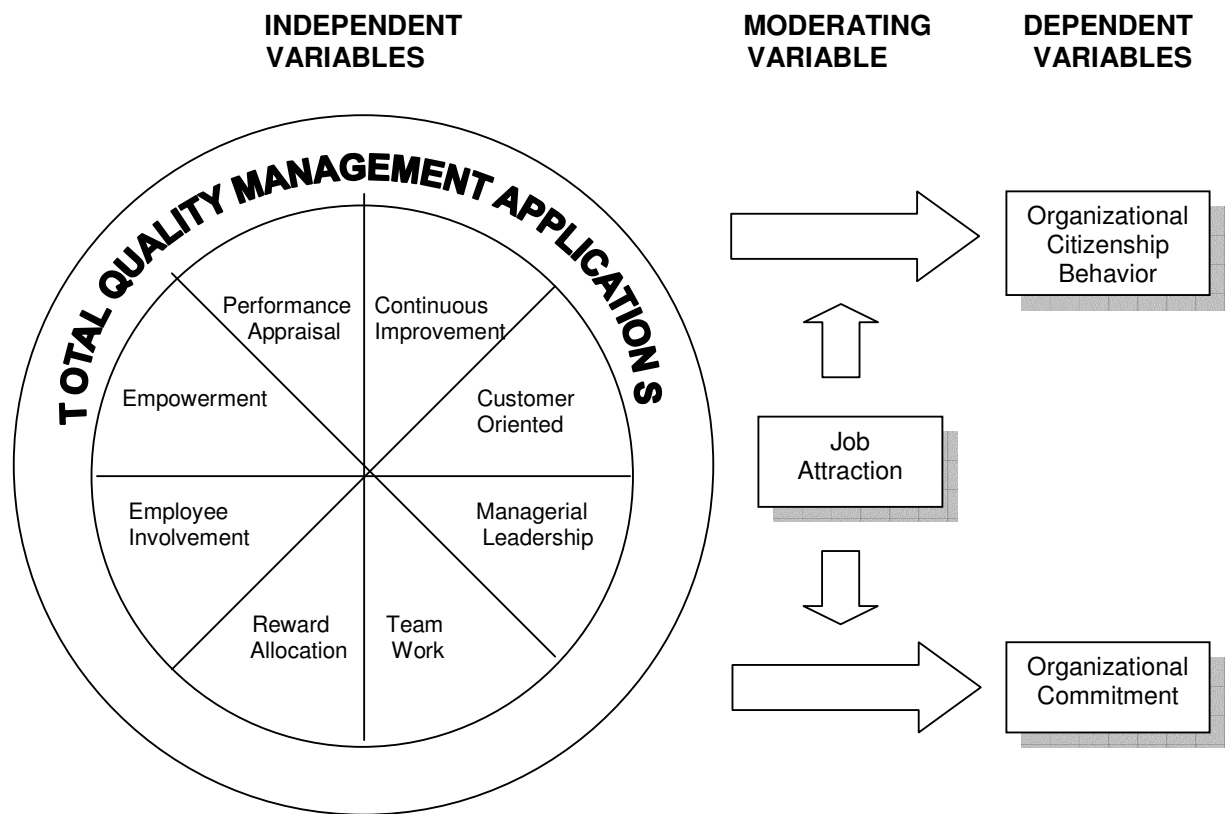
First it is aimed to test the impact of TQM applications on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. So the first hypothesis of the research is developed;

H1 : The more applications of TQM increase, the more organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment increase.

Focusing on how job attraction affects the correlation between TQM applications and organizational commitment and citizenship, the second hypothesis is derived.

H2 : Job attraction improves the relationship between TQM applications and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. In this way, the more job attraction increases, the more the relation between TQM applications with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior will increase. The less job attraction decreases, the less relation between TQM applications with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior will decrease.

Figure 1: The Model of Research;



8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

8.1. Sampling

The target population of this research consists of blue and white collar workers who work for big size, National Quality Reward or National Quality Movement participant companies that operate under manufacturing sector. A total number of 1200 questionnaire (see Appendix 1) distributed to the 12 organizations. 805 participants meeting these criteria have been provided.

When the demography of population is examined, it is seen that 605 of participants (82,4 %) are male, and 106 (14,4%) of participants are female. 23 participants have not mentioned their gender.

When looking at seniority, 308 participants (42%) are blue collar, and 364 (49,6%) are white collar workers. 62 (8,4%) participants' titles are not mentioned.

When it comes to educational levels, 382 (52%) of all participants are primary-secondary and high school graduates, 287 (39.1) are university graduates, and 53 (7,2%) are postgraduates. 12 (1,7%) of participants' educational level is unknown.

Age demography of participants is as follows; 243 (%33,1) 29 years and younger, 300 (40,9%) 30-39 years and 174 (23,7) 40 years and older. 17 participants' age is unknown.

When considering the working period of participants, it is observed that 295 of them (40,2%) represent 0-5 years, 222 (30,2%) represent 6-10 years, and 201 (27,4%) fall into 11+ years. 16 (2,2%) participants' working period is unknown.

8.2. Measurement Instruments

The information about measuring scales of the four variables (TQM applications, Job Attraction, Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior) is given below.

8.2.1. The Applications of Total Quality Management Scale

For this research, which seeks the impact of TQM applications on organizational commitment and citizenship, a wide literature study has been carried out in order to define the basic criteria of TQM applications. These criteria which are derived basically from TQM observers and theoreticians like Deming, Juran, Crosby, Feigunbaum and Ishikawa and called TQM applications are as follows:

1. Customer Satisfaction
2. Employee Involvement
3. Managerial Leadership
4. Team Work
5. Reward Allocation
6. Performance Appraisal
7. Continuous Improvement

8. Empowerment

This test has been prepared by the researcher in order to measure how these applications are perceived by workers. The tests consists of 21 questions and the reliability of the test can be justified by the Cronbach Alpha value (0,8350) derived from the internal consistency analysis (see Table 1). The participants are required to give an answer in a range of six levels starting from “Never” to “Always” (see Appendix 2).

8.2.2. Job Attraction Scale

This scale developed by Doğan (2002) consists of 29 items and aims to measure how much a worker devotes himself physically and mentally to his job (see Appendix 3). The internal consistency analysis came up with 0,9543 Cronbach Alpha value (see Table 1) which shows the reliability of the scale. Again, the participants' remarks are placed in a range of six levels starting from “Never” to “Always”.

8.2.3. Organizational Commitment Scale

In order to measure the degree of organizational commitment, research tools of Porter & Smith (1970) and Cook & Wall (1980) on the subject are applied. Three basic criteria of organizational commitment are targeted to measure. These criteria are as follows:

- a. Identification
- b. Job Involment
- c. Loyalty

For this purpose, 8 questions are asked to workers (see Appendix 4). How workers agree with the remarks vary from “Never” to “Always” in a range of six levels. The internal consistency analysis of the scale results is 0,6036 Cronbach Alpha value (see Table 1).

8.2.4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

After the literature study conducted to define the degree of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), it has been realized that researchers have not come to a complete agreement. The most basic research on the subject was conducted by Smith and his

colleagues in 1983. Within a 16 question survey, they took OCB in two dimensions: Altruism (Devotion) and General Compliance. Organ (1989) defined OCB in 5 elements: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportmanship. As we see, Organ, Smith and their colleagues redefine General Compliance as Conscientiousness. McRae and Costa (1987) defined Civic Virtue, one of the five elements, as Agreeableness. Podsakoff and his colleagues who had examined organizational citizenship dimensions more comprehensively and systematically formed the base of this scale. The dimensions intended to measure are:

1. Helping Behavior
2. Sportsmanship
3. Organizational Loyalty
4. Organizational Compliance
5. Individual Initiative
6. Civic Virtue
7. Self Development

This test consisting of 21 items which employ the remarks that describe the dimensions above best are prepared by the researcher. The participants are asked to choose a degree in a range of six levels starting from “Never” to “Always” (See Appendix 5). The Cronbach Alpha value derived from the internal consistency analysis is 0,8785 and it makes the scale reliable (see Table 1).

8.2.5. Demographic Variables

A personal information form is created to define age, gender, education, seniority and tenures of workers (see Appendix 1).

8.3. Application

These applications are made with the top management of the organizations face-to-face, through mail and fax. A total number of 1200 questionnaire (see Appendix 1) are distributed to the 12 organizations. The organizations are asked to hand out the

surveys at random to blue and white collars, with a higher ratio of white collars. The surveys are collected via mail and e-mail. This way, the number of 805 participants is reached. 71 surveys are eliminated due to wrong filling. As a result, 734 surveys are taken into consideration.

8.4. The Statistical Methods

In this research, to define what dimensions those variables are formed with, factor analysis (principle component analysis) is conducted. This way, it is tested whether scales measure more than one concept or variables.

To determine the internal consistency of variables, internal consistency analysis is conducted and Cronbach Alpha values are obtained.

In order to determine the independent variables' explaining impact on the dependent variables in this research model, Single and Multiple Regression analyses are carried out.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis is used to examine the relation between variables with job attraction and TQM applications with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Results of analysis are derived from the increase and decrease of Beta Coefficients and Coefficient of Determination.

9. FINDINGS

In this section, the internal consistency of tests used in the research is evaluated and it is aimed to determine if the tests are reliable. Then, the result of factor analysis for every test is given. Finally, hypotheses of the research are tested considering relations between variables.

9.1. Reliability Analysis

The results of the internal consistency analysis, regarding the variables and dimensions derived from factor analysis are shown below (Table 1). Factor analysis test and results are given in the following section:

TABLE 1. Internal Consistency Results

VARIABLES	CRONBACH ALPHA
Total Quality Management applications	.8350
Factor 1 (Training and Development)	.8604
Factor 2 (Empowerment)	.7008
Factor 3 (Democratic Management)	.7845
Job Attraction	.9543
Factor 1 (Happiness)	.9617
Factor 2 (Unhappiness)	.6829
Organizational Commitment	.6036
Factor 1 (High Commitment)	.6862
Factor 2 (Low Commitment)	.4202
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	.8785
Factor 1 (Occupational Development and Sharing)	.8168
Factor 2 (Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation)	.7615
Factor 3 (Following Institutional Regulations)	.6530

As shown in the table above, the second dimension of organizational commitment, *low commitment* (Factor 2), has a low internal consistency. Therefore, this dimension is excluded from the analysis.

9.2. Factor Analysis

In this section, Principle Component Analysis which is used to see the sub- dimensions of research variables is examined. Findings of reliability of the measurement instruments can be seen in Table 1. Under the light of these findings, it is possible to test the hypotheses by considering every single variable and their behaviors as a whole. Also what sub dimensions these variables are formed with should be investigated in order to examine research hypotheses with respect to sub dimensions of each variable. When evaluating factor analysis with this purpose, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness values that show whether data have a homogeneous

distribution and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values that determine whether factor analysis correlations are statistically meaningful are applied. In order to tell that data are homogeneously distributed, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness values should be above .50. To be able to claim that correlations are significant, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values must be below .05. Besides, loadings of each factor are examined and other similar distributions that fall into different factors are stated. By eliminating one by one those which have similar distributions, the process is repeated till the situation is avoided and the factors reach the ideal form. Factor analysis results operated with this principle are shown below (Tables 2,3,4,5).

9.2.1 Factor Analysis of Total Quality Management Applications Test

In the factor analysis which aims to define the sub dimensions of TQM applications, items 9, 7, 8, 11 and 12 are eliminated consecutively, and finally three factors are acquired. As Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness value is .916 and *barlett test* has significant results (Chi-Square = 4356.218, $p=.000<.05$), data is appropriate for factor analysis. The loadings of three factors that are proved to belong to TQM applications and their content is shown in Table 2.

When variance explaining percentages are examined, the first factor obtained is composed of items 5, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17. When this factor's content relating to performance evaluation and continuous training applications is studied, visions about the quality values of the organization, targets and systems are determined by the top management. Furthermore, it is observed that workers are encouraged, performance evaluation system is operated and continuous development training programs are applied. This factor which stands for adapting to changing environments and continuous development is called "Training and Development". So, management applications like setting the organizational vision, measuring employees' performance and training are placed in this factor.

TABLE 2. Results of Factor Analysis of Total Quality Management Applications Scale

Factor 1 : *Training and Development (Variance Explanation Percentage = Loadings 24.601)*

13. Performance appraisal is operated in this organization.	.820
15. Training programs are conducted to improve the product and service quality in this organization	.769
16. This organization applies training programs to provide continuous improvement	.712
14. Activities in this organization are statistically measured and evaluated.	.676
5. This organization's vision about quality values, goals and systems is defined by top managers and workers are encouraged on the issue.	.617
17. Our organization adapts to changing conditions and continuously improves	.507

Factor 2 : Empowerment (Variance Explanation Percentage = 16.198)

19. I have enough information and skills to do my job	.753
21. My job is meaningful and important to me	.683
20. I can impress my co-workers about the job.	.581
1. Activities in this organization focused on customer satisfaction	.548
2. Quality is determined by customer expectations in this organization.	.545

Factor 3 : Democratic Management (Variance Explanation Percentage = 15.787)

3. Employees' opinions and suggestions are taken into account	.710
18. Employees in this organization have the authorization to do their job on their own and control it..	.647
10. Our effort and activities are appreciated on time and our successes are rewarded.	.647
6. In this organization, top management is democratic to each level of workers and shows a "democratic and participatory" approach.	.643
4. In this organization, it is important to inform employees about the outcomes of activities.	.589

Note : Three factors' variance explanation percentage total = 56,586

Items 1, 2, 19, 20 and 21 are grouped under the second factor. When the contents of the sections are examined, concepts like customer satisfaction and strengthening customer relations fall under this factor. So this factor relating to management applications like focusing on customer satisfaction, training employees to be self-sufficient, and valuing on their work is called "Empowerment".

The third dimension of TQM applications, 3rd factor has items 3, 4, 6, 10 and 18. This factor contains employees participation and rewarding them. This factor relating to management applications like top management's democratic approach, participating employees, appreciation of good work, fair rewarding system, self-management and self-control is called "Democratic Management".

9.2.2. Factor Analysis of Job Attraction Scale

In the factor analysis which aims to define the sub dimensions of job attraction, item 25 is eliminated, and finally two factors are acquired. As Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness value is 0.966 and Barlett test has significant results (Chi-Square = 10779.431, $p=.000<.05$), data are appropriate for factor analysis. The loadings of two factors that are proved to belong to job attraction and their content are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Results of Factor Analysis of Job attraction Scale

Factor 1 : Happiness (Variance Explanation Percentage = 45.844)	Loadings
5. I feel like myself when I do my job	.828
24. I feel happy when I do my job	.823
18. I feel energetic when I do my job.	.804
3. I enjoy doing my job	.789
10. My job attracts me.	.786
2. I feel like I gain my personality when I do my job.	.777
23. I have a sweet excitement when I do my job.	.775
9. I feel healthy when I do my job.	.773
1. I feel enthusiastic when I do my job.	.759
19. I feel attached to my job.	.757
16. When I do my job I use my mentality, emotions and body in a harmony.	.754
4. I devote myself fully to my job.	.753
29. I feel hilarious when I do my job	.747
17. I feel inspired, and I come up with fresh ideas.	.717
6. I feel strong when I do my job.	.700
15. I feel free when I do my job.	.698
28. I am determined when I do my job.	.683
27. I feel proud when I do my job.	.676
20. I focus fully on my job.	.660
12. I feel safe when I do my job.	.658
14. I feel creative when I do my job.	.653
11. I indulge in my job.	.627
8. I get away from my daily concerns when I do my job.	.585
21. I feel like an important person when I do my job	.563
Factor 2 : Unhappiness (Variance Explanation Percentage = 9.707)	
26. I feel lifeless in my job.	.749
13. I feel discouraged when I do my job.	.694
7. My mind is somewhere else when I do my job.	.653
22. I feel alienated to myself when I do my job.	.643
Note : Two factors' variance explanation percentage total = 55,551	

The first factor, which has a higher variance explanation percentage compared to the other dimension is called "Happiness" and it expresses the density of sentimental state of an employee. It is understood that this factor is about a dimension whether an

employee is attached to his work with positive feelings. So employee is attracted to his job sentimentally.

The 2nd factor that contains items 7, 13, 22 and 26 seem to reflect some Stage feelings, emotional and mental processes of an employee. As the worker is believed to be unhappy, mentally non-existent in this factor, it is called “Unhappiness”.

9.2.3. Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Scale

In the factor analysis which aims to define the sub dimensions of organizational commitment, item 2 is eliminated, and finally two factors are acquired. As Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness value is 0.738 and Barlett test has significant results (Chi-Square = 740.934, $p=.000<.05$), data are appropriate for factor analysis. The loadings of two factors that are proved to belong to organizational commitment and their content are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4. Results of Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Scale

Factor 1 : High Commitment (Variance Explanation Percentage = 31.709)	Loadings
7. I feel proud to be a member of this organization.	.796
8. This organization is the most ideal one amongst others.	.770
4. I accept any kind of duty to maintain my membership.	.677
1. I work more than what is necessary for the success of my organization.	.676
Factor 2 : Low Commitment (Variance Explanation Percentage = 20.770)	
3. I do only what is necessary for my job. Expecting more from me is unfair.	.734
6. It is hard for me to like the policies of this organization.	.659
5. As long as similar to my job, I can work else where.	.625
Note : Three factors' variance explanation percentage total = 52.478	

When examining variance explanation percentage, it is clear that 1st the factor has the most important dimension. Items 1, 4, 7 and 8 are grouped under this factor. When the contents are reviewed, employees work too much for the success of the company, undertake any kind of duty to keep their positions, and are too proud to be a part of the organization. In short, they are committed to their organization perfectly in this factor. This factor that represents commitment behaviors is called “High Commitment”.

The second factor that covers items 3, 5, and 6 expresses behaviors like not being committed to work, doing only what is necessary for the job, being ready to change the job, not making much effort, disliking the policy of the organization. This second factor relating to low level of organizational commitment is called "Low Commitment"

9.2.4. Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

In the factor analysis which aims to define the sub dimensions of TQM applications, items 8, 19, 9, 10, 2, 14 and 6 are eliminated consecutively, and finally three factors are acquired. As Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling appropriateness value is 0.919 and Barlett test has significant results (Chi-Square = 4356.218 , $p=.000<.05$), data are appropriate for factor analysis. The loadings of three factors that are proved to belong to TQM applications and their content are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5. Results of Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Factor 1 : Occupational Development and Sharing (Variance Explanation Percentage = 22.053)	
21. I create new ideas to improve my department	.833
17. I make suggestions in order to develop applications related with my job	.775
15. I share my ideas with my colleagues about new products and innovations	.634
20. I volunteer training activities	.594
18. I keep track of any informative announcements, messages and materials that provide information about my organization.	.589
16. I attend to the meetings set in the organization.	.521
Factor 2 : Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation (Variance Explanation Percentage = 17.122)	
1. I overtake the duties of those colleagues who are off that day	.792
13. I volunteer to work extra hours when necessary.	.669
7. I voluntarily participate in the activities that help to create the image of organization.	.662
4. I do my best when I face trouble.	.590
Factor 3 : Following Institutional Regulations (Variance Explanation Percentage = 15.786)	
12. I follow verbal rules that are not written.	.707
11. I always arrive on time.	.691
3. I help recruits during the orientation stage even if there is no task assigned to me.	.561
5. I sacrifice my personal priorities for my colleagues.	.561
Not : Three factors' variance explanation percentage total = 54.961	

When examining variance explanation percentage, we see that the 1st factor is the most important factor containing section 21, 17, 15, 20, 18 and 16. When the contents of these items are examined, self development and civic virtue are falling under this factor. This factor, which is made up of civic virtue, which states employee initiated behaviors pertaining to participating in discussions about the organization, sharing opinions, and coming up with solutions to problems, and self development, which states voluntary behaviors of the employees for developing, their skills and knowledge, is called “Occupational Development and Sharing.”

Items 1, 13, 7 and 4 fall under the 2nd factor, in Table 5. Factor stands for voluntary overtaking jobs of colleagues, working extra hours when necessary, and volunteer participation in activities of organization’s image-making. This factor is called “Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation”.

Under the 3rd factor, we see items 12, 11, 5 and 3. In a weighted manner, compatibility behavior is under this factor. 3rd factor contains the following non-written but verbal rules: arriving work on time, sacrificing personal priorities when necessary, voluntarily helping a newcomer, and being compatible with organizational rules and activities. Therefore this factor is called “Following Institutional Regulations”.

After all these evaluations, TQM applications, job attraction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior scales, factors and their sections have their final state. So far in the research, the points of variables, their general states, and sub factors belonging to these variables have been made calculable which are going to be used in the analysis of scales which test the hypotheses.

9.3. Hypotheses Testing

9.3.1. Descriptive Analysis Results

The descriptive analysis of variables with sub-dimensions and their correlations are given in Table 6 and Table 7. To understand the data distribution, each variable’s

Skewness and Kurtosis values are divided into standard deviations. The gained result being less than 5.5 means the distribution is close to the standard distribution.

When looking at relations between variables, we don't see high correlations. The highest correlation is between *happiness* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* ($r=.696$; $p<.01$).

TABLE 6. Results of Descriptive Analysis Research Variables

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standart Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender (1 = Male)	711	1	2	1,15	,36	1,975	1,905
Age (Years)	717	1,00	3,00	1,9038	,7571	,162	-1,240
Education	720	1,00	3,00	1,5444	,6291	,722	-,473
Duty (1=Blue, 2=White)	670	1,00	2,00	1,5418	,4986	-,168	-1,978
Tenure (Years)	718	1,00	3,00	1,8691	,8213	,246	-1,476
TQM APPLICATIONS	734	1,86	5,76	4,3301	,6339	-,627	,224
• Democratic Management	734	1,67	6,00	3,8415	,7442	-,186	-,105
• Training and development	734	,00	6,00	4,7044	1,0478	-,888	,380
• Empowerment	734	2,20	6,00	5,1106	,6745	-,799	,540
JOB ATTRACTION	734	,00	6,00	4,5254	,9468	-1,388	4,192
• Happiness	734	,00	6,00	4,4883	1,0032	-1,181	2,841
• Unhappiness	734	,00	6,00	4,6853	1,1538	-1,650	3,513
COMMITMENT	679	2,38	8,50	4,6506	,7857	-,219	,284
• High Commitment	734	1,75	6,00	4,9871	,9060	-,815	,099
• Low Commitment	734	,00	6,00	4,2053	1,1973	-,609	,092
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS	625	1,71	6,00	4,9306	,6289	-,681	,621
• Occupational Development and sharing	734	,00	6,00	4,6760	,9707	-1,156	2,958
• Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation	734	,00	6,00	4,9469	1,0268	-1,713	4,966
• Following Institutional Regulations	734	,00	6,00	4,8849	,8977	-1,591	5,750

The highest correlation of organizational citizenship behavior is with *happiness*. If the level of relationships between dependent and independent variables is to be examined, a weak correlation between *democratic management* and *organizational commitment* ($r=.315$; $p<.01$), a middle correlation between *training and development* and *organizational commitment* ($r=.500$; $p<.01$), and a middle correlation between *empowerment* and *organizational commitment* ($r=.526$; $p<.01$) are seen (see Table 7). Empowerment, one of TQM applications, seems to have a higher correlation compared to other TQM applications.

Examining relations between demographic variables and dependent variables, we find that age and working period correlate with dependent variables in a positive direction, educational level correlates with dependent variables in a negative direction, and the relation with dependent variables weakens from blue collar to white collar workers.

From dependent variables perspective, employees are committed to their organizations (mean = 4,9871). After organizational commitment, employees show *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* (mean = 4,9469), *following institutional regulations* (mean = 4,8849) and *occupational development and sharing* (mean = 4,6760) consecutively. It can be stated that in general, workers are attracted to their jobs (mean = 4,4883), (Table 6).

TABLE 7. Intercorrelations of Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.	Age	1,000												
2.	Education	-,058	1,000											
3.	Seniority	,154	,492**	1,000										
4.	Tenure	,667**	-,148**	,058	1,000									
5.	Democratic Management	,027	-,030	-,069	,114**	1,000								
6.	Training and Development	,146**	-,201**	-,256**	,229**	,591**	1,000							
7.	Empowerment	,098**	-,208**	-,177**	,192**	,438**	,573**	1,000						
8.	Happiness	,143**	-,199**	-,101**	,173**	,401**	,396**	,474**	1,000					
9.	Unhappiness	,084*	,042	,046	,085*	,036	,111**	,122**	,447**	1,000				
10.	High Commitment Occupational Development and Sharing	,105**	-,411**	-,321**	,182**	,315**	,500**	,526**	,535**	,188**	1,000			
11.	Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation	,147**	-,072	-,063	,185**	,350**	,359**	,465**	,631**	,306**	,394**	1,000		
12.	Following Institutional Regulations	,002	-,188**	-,119**	,053	,232**	,297**	,418**	,696**	,339**	,534**	,636**	1,000	
13.		,096**	-,221**	-,182**	,112**	,221**	,307**	,362**	,513**	,250**	,405**	,615**	,573**	1,000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

9.3.2. Relations Between TQM Applications with Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In multiple regression analysis, only one of the variables should be selected from those among which there is a high correlation. Therefore, before starting the regression analysis, the correlation between independent variables is examined (Table 7). The highest correlation is between *democratic management* and *training and development* ($r = .591$; $p < .01$). While there is a positive relation between all three factors, there is not a high relation noticed between independent variables. In short, there is no collinearity between independent variables. Therefore, all three TQM applications can be included in regression analysis.

In the first hypothesis, it was foreseen that the more TQM application increases, the more organization commitment and organization citizenship behavior will increase. To test the first hypothesis, the relation between the three factors under TQM applications with the result of their interactions and independent variables is examined and tested with multiple regression analysis.

TABLO 8. Results of Regression Analysis of Relations Between TQM Applications with Organizational Commitment

Model	R	Adjusted R ²	F	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	Sig.
1 (Constant)	,579	,333	122,813	1,378		,000
DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT				-2,976E-02	-,024	,519
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT				,266	,308	,000
EMPOWERMENT				,483	,360	,000

Dependent Variable: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

There is a positive and significant correlation between TQM applications and organizational commitment ($r = .579$). Empowerment has the most impact on organizational commitment ($\beta = .360$). Training and development has also significant impact on organizational commitment ($\beta = .360$). Democratic management has no impact on organizational commitment. It can be said that 33,3% of organization commitment depends on TQM applications ($\text{adj. } r^2 = .335$) (see Table 8).

TABLE 9. Results of Regression Analysis of Relations Between TQM Applications and Occupational Development and Sharing

Model	R	Adjusted R ²	F	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	Sig.
1 (Constant)	,495	,242	78,824	,966		,000
DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT				,205	,157	,000
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT				5,290E-02	,057	,197
EMPOWERMENT				,523	,364	,000

Dependent Variable: OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SHARING

There is a positive and significant correlation between TQM applications and occupational development and sharing ($r=.495$). Empowerment has the most impact on occupational development and sharing ($\beta = .364$). Democratic management has also significant impact on occupational development and sharing ($\beta = .157$). Training and development has no impact on occupational development and sharing. It can be said that 24,2% of occupational development and sharing depends on TQM applications (adj. $r^2 = .242$) (see Table 9).

TABLE 10. Results of Regression Analysis of Relations Between TQM Applications and Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation

Model	R	Adjusted R ²	F	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	Sig.
1 (Constant)	,425	,177	53,545	1,625		,000
DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT				4,198E-02	,030	,469
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT				6,835E-02	,070	,131
EMPOWERMENT				,555	,365	,000

Dependent Variable: Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation

There is a positive and significant correlation between TQM applications and maintaining and furthering institutional reputation ($r=.425$). Empowerment has the most impact on maintaining and furthering institutional reputation ($\beta = .365$). Democratic management and training and development have no impact on maintaining and furthering institutional

reputation. It can be said that 17,7% of maintaining and furthering institutional reputation depends on TQM applications (adj. $r^2 = .177$)(see Table 10).

TABLE 11. Results of Regression Analysis of Relations Between TQM Applications and Following Institutional Regulations

Model	R	Adjusted R ²	F	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
1 (Constant)	,382	,142	41,525	2,376		,000
DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT				2,325E-02	,019	,653
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT				,119	,139	,003
EMPOWERMENT				,364	,273	,000

Dependent Variable: FOLLOWING INSTITUTIONAL REGULATIONS

There is a positive and significant correlation between TQM applications and following institutional regulations ($r=.382$). Empowerment has the most impact on following institutional regulations ($\beta = .273$). Training and development has also significant impact on following institutional regulations ($\beta = .139$). Democratic management has no impact on following institutional regulations. It can be said that 14,2% of following institutional regulations depends on TQM applications (adj. $r^2 = .142$)(see Table 11).

As a result, the first hypothesis is verified. *Empowerment* has a high relation with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. When TQM applications increase, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior increase.

9.3.3. Job Attraction's Impact on Relations Between TQM Applications and Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In the previous analysis, we emphasized that TQM applications increase organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. In the second hypothesis of research we stated that job attraction boosted the relation between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. In order to test the second hypothesis, hierarchical regression analysis is conducted. For this purpose, after checking every sub dimension of

TQM applications' impact on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, the role of moderating variable – job attraction's on relationship between TQM applications and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior is examined. The aim is to see whether the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable shows a change depending on the moderating variable. In the first stage, the relation between dependent and independent variables is studied. In the second phase, the moderating variable is added to the operation. In the third stage, the multiplication of independent and moderating variable is added and their interaction is examined. The resulting variable of pertaining multiplication shows a high correlation with the independent and moderating variables which were added separately to the first stage. This caused increase in standard deviations of beta coefficients and this increase prevented significant relations which are normally expected. A method in the literature which is used to avoid multiple relations is subtracting the average of variables which show a high correlation and centralizing the data (Çalışkan, 2006). Via this method, multiple relation is avoided. The acquired analysis results show that there is no multiple relation. Under the light of this frame, the analysis is presented below.

9.3.3.1. *After Interacting with TQM Applications, Job Attraction's Impact on Organizational Commitment*

Every sub-dimension of TQM applications has a significant relationship with organizational commitment. The more TQM applications are used, the higher organizational commitment is obtained. In the former section, we mentioned that TQM applications mostly affect organizational commitment in positive direction. When TQM applications are evaluated with sub dimensions, as we said before, the highest impact on organizational commitment is *empowerment*. Also there is a positive significant correlation between job attraction and organizational commitment. When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on organizational commitment is investigated, we see that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications and organizational commitment (see Table 12).

TABLE 12. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Job Attraction's Interaction with TQM Applications and Its Impact on Organizational Commitment.

Variables	B	Beta	R²	Δ R²	F	Sig.
1. Stage	3.512		.098***		80.860	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.384	.315***				.000
2. Stage	2.451		.297***	.199	146.637	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.147	.120***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.535	.465***				.000
3. Stage	2.443		.297	.000	97.651	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.147	.121				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.441	.427				.000
DM X JA	1,096E-02	.009				.770
1. Stage	2.954		.250***		243.780	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.432	.500***				.000
2. Stage	2.947		.376***	.126	220.186	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.397	.423***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.367	.384***				.000
3. Stage	1.813		.377	.001	147.056	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.394	.368				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.354	.379				.000
TD X JA	-2,09E-02	-.028				.404
1. Stage	1.378		.276***		279.633	.000
Empowerment (E)	.706	.526***				.000
2. Stage	1.331		.375***	.099	219.270	.000
Empowerment (E)	.554	.581***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.337	.352***				.000
3. Stage	1.117		.377	.002	147.353	.000
Empowerment (E)	.551	.563				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.327	.331				.000
E X JA	-5,97E-02	-.049				.117

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

9.3.3.2. After Interacting with TQM Applications, Job Attraction's Impact on Occupational Development and Sharing

Every sub-dimension of TQM applications has a significant relationship with occupational development and sharing. The more TQM applications are used, the higher occupational development and sharing is obtained. In the former section, we mentioned that TQM applications mostly affect occupational development and sharing in positive direction.

When TQM applications are evaluated with sub dimensions, as we said before, the highest impact on occupational development and sharing is *empowerment*. Also there is a positive significant correlation between job attraction and occupational development and sharing. When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on occupational development and sharing is investigated, we see that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications and occupational development and sharing (see Table 13).

TABLE 13. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Job Attraction's Interaction with TQM Applications and Its Impact on Occupational Development and Sharing .

Variables	B	Beta	R ²	Δ R ²	F	Sig.
1. Stage	2.921		.122***		102.402	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.457	.350***				.000
2. Stage	1.763		.412***	.290	256.520	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.263	.254***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.594	.579***				.000
3. Stage	2.043		.413	.001	171.550	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.241	.238				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.587	.576				.000
DM X JA	3,932E-02	.033				.244
1. Stage	3.113		.127***		107.958	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.332	.359***				.000
2. Stage	1.957		.413***	.286	257.146	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.202	.181***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.591	.576***				.000
3. Stage	2.811		.413	.000	171.442	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.197	.176				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.582	.578				.000
TD X JA	1,530E-02	.019				.510
1. Stage	1.254		.215***		202.185	.000
Empowerment (E)	.670	.465***				.000
2. Stage	1.106		.437***	.222	283.667	.000
Empowerment (E)	.412	.403***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.540	.527***				.000
3. Stage	1.212		.438	.001	189.444	.000
Empowerment (E)	.405	.392				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.521	.517				.000
E X JA	3,783E-02	.029				.318

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

9.3.3.3. After Interacting with TQM Applications, Job Attraction's Impact on Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation

TABLE 14. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Job Attraction's Interaction with TQM Applications and Its Impact on Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation.

Variables	B	Beta	R ²	Δ R ²	F	Sig.
1. Stage	3.719		.052***		41.499	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.320	.232***				.000
2. Stage	1.943		.486***	.434	337.663	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	-7.758E-02	-0.56				.052
Job Attraction (JA)	.736	.719***				.000
3. Stage	1.832		.498	.012	236.880	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	-7.601E-02	-0.55				.054
Job Attraction (JA)	.750	.732				.000
DM X JA	.140	.112***				.000
1. Stage	3.578		.088***		70.796	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.291	.297***				.000
2. Stage	1.679		.484***	.396	338.676	.000
Training and Development (TD)	2.444E-02	.025				.389
Job Attraction (JA)	.702	.686***				.000
3. Stage	1.584		.488*	.004	228.939	.000
Training and Development (TD)	4.022E-02	.041				.164
Job Attraction (JA)	.702	.686				.000
TD X JA	5.346E-02	.063*				.011
1. Stage	1.693		.175***		155.169	.000
Empowerment (E)	.637	.418***				.000
2. Stage	.631		.493***	.318	355.823	.000
Empowerment (E)	.318	.221***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.686	.633***				.000
3. Stage	.638		.493	.000	237.019	.000
Empowerment (E)	.315	.219				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.674	.663				.000
E X JA	1.676E-02	.012				.659

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Every sub-dimension of TQM applications has a significant relationship with maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation. The more TQM applications are used, the higher maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation is obtained. In the former section, we mentioned that TQM applications mostly affect maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation in positive direction. When TQM applications are evaluated with sub dimensions, as we said before, the highest impact on maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation is *empowerment*. Also there is a positive significant correlation between job attraction and maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation. When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation is investigated, we see that the interaction of democratic management with job attraction has a significant and low impact on maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation ($\beta = .112$; $p < .001$). We see also that the interaction of training and development with job attraction has a significant and low impact on maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation ($\beta = .063$; $p < .05$). Job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between empowerment and maintaining and furthering institutional and reputation (see Table 14).

9.3.3.4. *After Interacting with Total Quality Management Applications, Job Attraction's Impact on Following Institutional Regulations*

Every sub-dimension of TQM applications has a significant relationship with following institutional regulations. The more TQM applications are used, the higher following institutional regulations is obtained. In the former section, we mentioned that TQM applications mostly affect following institutional regulations in positive direction. When TQM applications are evaluated with sub dimensions, as we said before, the highest impact on following institutional regulations is *empowerment*. Also there is a positive significant correlation between job attraction and following institutional regulations. When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on following institutional regulations is investigated, we see that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications and following institutional regulations (see Table 15).

TABLE 15. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Job Attraction's Interaction with TQM Applications and Its Impact on Following Institutional Regulations

Variables	B	Beta	R ²	Δ R ²	F	Sig.
1. Stage	3.859		.048***		37.690	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.267	.221***				.000
2. Stage	2.834		.265***	.217	131.729	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.197	.183***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.474	.500***				.000
3. Stage	2.717		.265	.000	87.915	.000
Democratic Management (DM)	.191	.181				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.472	.498				.000
DM X JA	2,410E-02	.035				.490
1. Stage	3.647		.093***		76.232	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.263	.307***				.000
2. Stage	2.171		.279***	.184	141.092	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.182	.180***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.440	.464***				.000
3. Stage	2.184		.279	.000	93.979	.000
Training and Development (TD)	.175	.178				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.438	.437				.000
TD X JA	7,522E-03	.010				.752
1. Stage	2.426		.130***		110.049	.000
Empowerment (E)	.481	.362***				.000
2. Stage	1.632		.285***	.155	145.420	.000
Empowerment (E)	.256	.247***				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.417	.440***				.000
3. Stage	1.673		.285	.000	96.922	.000
Empowerment (E)	.253	.246				.000
Job Attraction (JA)	.412	.409				.000
E X JA	-1.90E-02	-.016				.630

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

As a consequence, TQM applications and job attraction affect organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in a positive direction. Depending on the moderating variable which is job attraction, TQM applications' impact on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior appears to have a partial modification. Also job attraction strengthens the relation between *democratic management*

and maintaining *and furthering institutional reputation, also training and development* and maintaining *and furthering institutional reputation* . In other cases, no effect of job attraction is detected. So the second hypothesis of the research is partially justified. The more job attraction increases, the stronger the relation between *democratic management* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputations, also* the relation between *training and development* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputations* increase.

9.3.4 The Impact of Demographic Variables on the Relation Between TQM Applications with Job Attraction and Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

To understand in which direction and how demographic variables affect the relation between independent and dependent variables, in this section too, hierarchical regression analysis is preferred. In order to realize the effect of demographic variables, age is chosen as the controlling variable in the first phase. In the second phase as controlling variables, education, position, title and tenure which refer to education and experience are chosen. TQM applications' sub dimensions are chosen in the third phase. And finally in the last phase, job attractions' sub-dimensions are included in the hierarchical regression analysis. This way, it will be possible to determine whether demographic variables' descriptiveness on dependent variables shows a change according to independent and moderating variables. The obtained results are shown in Table 16, 17, 18 and 19.

9.3.4.1. Relations of Demographic Variables - TQM Applications – Job Attraction and Organizational Commitment.

Age has a significant effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = .112$; $p < .01$); as the age increases, organizational commitment also improves. But when educational level, title and tenure are added to the model, the significance of age disappears. Educational level has a negative significant effect on organizational commitment ($\beta = -.318$; $p < .001$). When educational level increases, organizational commitment decreases from white collars to blue collars ($\beta = -.179$; $p < .001$). Tenure has a positive significant impact on organizational commitment ($\beta = .120$; $p < .01$). Longer tenure leads to increasing organizational commitment. When TQM applications are added to the model, we see that tenure loses its significant impact on organizational commitment, the impact of educational level decreases, and the effect of seniority increases. There is no significant relation between *democratic management* and organizational commitment while *training and development*

and *empowerment* have a significant effect on organizational commitment. The more *training and development* increases, the more organizational commitment will increase ($\beta = .217$; $p < .001$). When *empowerment* increases, also organizational commitment increases ($\beta = .319$; $p < .001$). Adding job attraction into the model, even though not to a significant extent, democratic management's relation with job attraction shows a change in a negative direction. When *happiness* increases, organizational commitment also increases ($\beta = .305$; $p < .001$). With job attraction added to the model, *training and development* and *empowerment*'s impact on organizational commitment decreases. It can be stated that, among all independent variables, *happiness* has the highest impact on organizational commitment. The explanation percentage of independent variables on dependent variables is 49,6% ($R^2 = .496$; $p < .001$), (Table 16).

TABLE 16. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Demographic Variables, TQM Applications and Job Attraction's Impact on High Commitment

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Stage 1</i>	<i>Stage 2</i>	<i>Stage 3</i>	<i>Stage 4</i>
Personal Variables				
• Age (Years)	.112**	.047	.047	.020
Variables about Education and Experience				
• Education		-.318***	-.259***	-.212***
• Work Title (1=Blue)		-.179***	-.089**	-.107**
• Tenure (Years)		.120**	.007	.011
TQM Applications				
• Democratic Management			.028	-.044
• Training and Development			.217***	.197***
• Empowerment			.319***	.210***
Job Attraction				
• Happiness				.305***
• Unhappiness				.005
R² total	.013**	.221***	.435***	.496***
R² difference		.209	.214	.061
F value of model	8.333	46.269	71.409	70.701

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

R² total : Announced Variance ;

R² difference : Variance explanation effect brought by every variable group

9.3.4.2. Relations of Demographic Variables - TQM Applications – Job Attraction and Occupational Development and Sharing.

Age has an effect at a significant level on *occupational development and sharing* ($\beta = .158$; $p < .001$). As age increases, *occupational development and sharing* also increases.

Adding educational level, seniority and tenure to the model the significance of age disappears. Educational level and seniority do not seem to have an effect on *occupational development and sharing*. Tenure with other demographic variables has a positive significant impact on *occupational development and sharing* ($\beta = .179$; $p < .001$). With TQM applications added to the model, the relation of educational level and seniority with *occupational development and sharing* shows a positive change, though not at a significant level. On the other hand, the significance of tenure's effect lessens. Democratic management has a positive significant relation with *occupational development and sharing* ($\beta = .178$; $p < .001$). The effect of training and development on *occupational development and sharing* is not noticed. *Empowerment* has a positive significant effect on the issue ($\beta = .397$; $p < .001$). *Occupational development and sharing* increases depending on *empowerment*. When job attraction is included in the model, the effect of *democratic management* and *empowerment* on *occupational development and sharing* lessens. *Happiness* has a positive significant relation with *occupational development and sharing* ($\beta = .383$; $p < .05$). Among all independent variables, *happiness* has the highest impact on the issue. The explanation percentage of all independent variables on dependent variables is 41,9% ($R^2 = .419$; $p < .001$), (Table 17).

TABLE 17. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Demographic Variables, TQM Applications and Job Attraction's Impact on Occupational Development and Sharing .

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Stage 1</i>	<i>Stage 2</i>	<i>Stage 3</i>	<i>Stage 4</i>
Personal Variables				
• Age (Years)	.158***	.043	.065	.031
Variables about Education and Experience				
• Education		-.054	.004	.063
• Work Title (1=Blue)		-.043	.029	.007
• Tenure (Years)		.179***	.054	.059
TQM Applications				
• Democratic Management			.178***	.087*
• Training and Development			.066	.043
• Empowerment			.397***	.261***
Job Attraction				
• Happiness				.383***
• Unhappiness				-.003
R² total	.025***	.053***	.326***	.419***
R² difference		.028	.273	.094
F value of model	16.687	9.093	44.746	51.867

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

R² total : Announced Variance ;

R² difference : Variance explanation effect brought by every variable group

9.3.4.3. Relations of Demographic Variables - TQM Applications – Job Attraction and Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation.

Age does not have a significant effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* (Table 18).

TABLE 18. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Demographic Variables, TQM Applications and Job Attraction's Impact on Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation .

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Stage 1</i>	<i>Stage 2</i>	<i>Stage 3</i>	<i>Stage 4</i>
Personal Variables				
• Age (Years)	.009	-.036	-.026	-.077
Variables about Education and Experience				
• Education		-.201***	-.140***	-.052
• Work Title (1=Blue)		-.017	.050	.016
• Tenure (Years)		.059	-.045	-.039
TQM Applications				
• Democratic Management			.041	-.095*
• Training and Development			.088	.052
• Empowerment			.389***	.184***
Job Attraction				
• Happiness				.576***
• Unhappiness				.007
R² total	.000	.049***	.245***	.461***
R² difference		.049	.196	.216
F value of model	.048	8.348	30.037	61.373

* p< .05; ** p< .01; ***p<.001

R² total : Announced Variance ;

R² difference : Variance explanation effect brought by every variable group

Educational level has a negative significant effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* ($\beta = -.201$; $p<.001$). When the educational level increases, the related behavior decreases. Also seniority and tenure with other demographic variables do not show an effect. With TQM applications added to the model, the relation of *democratic management* and *training and development* with *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* does not show a significant change. On the other hand, *empowerment* has a positive significant effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* ($\beta = .389$; $p<.001$). The more *empowerment* increases, the more the behavior increases. When job attraction is included in the model, *democratic management* has a negative significant effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* ($\beta = -.095$; $p<.05$). Job attraction has a positive significant correlation with organizational commitment. When

happiness increases, organizational commitment also shows an increase ($\beta = .576$; $p < .001$). The explanation percentage of all independent variables on dependent variables is 46,1% ($R^2 = .461$; $p < .001$).

9.3.4.4. Relations of Demographic Variables - TQM Applications – Job Attraction and Following Institutional Regulations.

Age has an effect at a significant level on *occupational development and sharing* ($\beta = .158$; $p < .001$). As age increases, *following institutional regulations* also increases. Adding educational level, seniority and tenure to the model, the significance of age disappears. Educational level has a negative significant effect on *following institutional regulations* ($\beta = -.205$; $p < .001$). When the educational level increases, the related behavior decreases. Seniority has a significant impact on *following institutional regulations*. *Following institutional regulations* shows a decrease from white collars to blue collars. Tenure with other demographic variables do not have an impact at a significant level on *following institutional regulations*. With TQM applications added to the model, seniority loses its effect on *following institutional regulations*. However tenure's effect on *following institutional regulations* shows a negative change, though not at a significant level. When no significant relation between *democratic management* and organizational commitment is noticed, *training and development* and *empowerment* indicate a positive significant effect on organizational commitment. When *empowerment* increases, organizational commitment also increases ($\beta = .303$; $p < .001$). The same relation is true between *training and development* and organizational commitment ($\beta = .100$; $p < .05$). Adding job attraction to the model democratic management's relation with job attraction shows a change in negative direction, even though not at a significant level. *Happiness* has a positive significant relation with *following institutional regulations* ($\beta = .263$; $p < .05$). When *happiness* increases, it is noticed that the effect of *empowerment* decreases. Among all independent variables, *happiness* has the highest impact on the issue. The explanation percentage of all independent variables on dependent variables is 26,2% ($R^2 = .262$; $p < .001$), (Table 19).

TABLE 19. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Demographic Variables, TQM Applications and Job Attraction's Impact on Following Institutional Regulations .

Variables	Basamak 1	Basamak 2	Basamak 3	Basamak 4
Personal Variables				
• Age (Years)	.107***	.071	.077	.054
Variables about Education and Experience				
• Education		-.205***	-.156***	-.113**
• Work Title (1=Blue)		-.093*	-.033	-.047
• Tenure (Years)		.064	-.024	-.018
TQM Applications				
• Democratic Management			.034	-.031
• Training and Development			.100*	.088
• Empowerment			.303***	.214***
Job Attraction				
• Happiness				.263***
• Unhappiness				-.034
R² total	.011**	.087***	.222***	.262***
R² difference		.076	.135	.040
F value of model	7.582	15.501	26.414	25.467

* p< .05; ** p< .01; ***p<.001

R² total : Announced Variance ;

R² difference : Variance explanation effect brought by every variable group

As a consequence, age, only by itself has a positive significant relation with all dependent variables, but *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*. This relation loses its significance when other demographic variables are added to the model.

Educational level has a negative effect on high commitment and *following institutional regulations*. When educational level increases, organizational commitment and *following institutional regulations* decreases. The same relation is valid between educational level and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*. But when TQM applications are included, this significant relation disappears. No significant relation is detected between educational level and *occupational development and sharing*.

Significant relation in a positive direction is detected between tenure and *occupational development and sharing* with organizational commitment. When tenure is longer, then *occupational development and sharing* with organizational commitment increase. But when TQM applications are considered, these significant relations disappear. Tenure does

not have an effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation behavior* and *following institutional regulations*.

From the seniority perspective, research statistics show that blue collar workers have a higher organizational commitment compared to white collars. But again adding TQM applications to the model eliminates this significant relation on *following institutional regulations*. No significant relation is detected between seniority and *occupational development and sharing* with *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*.

Democratic management has a positive significant impact on *occupational development and sharing* but when job attraction is added to the model, this effect is lost, and it shows a negative significant effect on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*.

Training and development has a positive significant effect on organizational commitment and *following institutional regulations*. With job attraction taken into account, this effect disappears: no significant effect of *training and development* on *occupational development and sharing* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*.

Empowerment has a positive significant impact on the dependent variable in any case. When *empowerment* increases, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior increase. Then the effect of all independent variables on dependent variables is examined, in all cases, educational level has a negative, *empowerment* and *happiness* have a positive effect.

To sum up, when educational level of employees increases, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior decrease, when *empowerment* increases, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior increase. When job attraction increases, the relation between TQM applications and dependent variables gets stronger. Job attraction strengthens *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation behavior* most ($\Delta R^2 = .216$; $p < .001$), (Table 18). All independent variables, from explanation percentage aspect, explain organizational commitment most ($R^2 = .496$; $p < .001$), (Table 16). To put it another way, 49,6% of organizational commitment depend on demographic variables, TQM applications and job attraction.

When dependent variables are examined from an angle of all independent variables, educational level, seniority, *training and development*, *empowerment* and *happiness* have a significant effect on organizational commitment. From organizational citizenship behavior perspective, *democratic management*, *empowerment*, and *happiness* have a significant impact. There is a different situation for independent variables' effect on *following institutional regulations*: when *democratic management* loses its significant effect, educational level gains significance in negative direction.

10. DISCUSSION

TQM has come to be seen as a separate managerial approach with far wider applicability and a strong emphasis on changing workplace culture. The introduction of TQM is essentially seen as part of a cultural reconstruction around, and emerging from, the workplace (Tuckman, 1994). According to Kanji and Yui (1997) TQM is the culture of an organization committed to customer satisfaction through continuous improvement. TQM is an approach for continuously improving the quality of every aspect of business life. It is a never-ending process of improvement for individuals, groups of people and the whole organization (Kanji & Asher, 1993).

Our aim in this research is to find out whether TQM is only a series of applications, or a management technique which provides organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, job attraction and a way of changing their management values. As a result, it is aimed to detect management applications that improve organization-member commitment and contribute to the increase of organizational efficiency.

TQM is seen by some as an extension of scientific management, by others in terms of systems theory and by still others as an altogether new paradigm for management (Dean et. al., 1994). We see TQM as a philosophy or an approach to management that can be characterized by its principles, practices and techniques.

TQM practices include that both organizational and individual factors affect the achievement of quality-oriented outcomes (Stone & Eddy, 1996). TQM main principles are customer focus, continuous improvement and teamwork and most of what has been written about TQM is explicitly or implicitly based on these principles (Dean et. al., 1994).

For this research, which seeks the impact of TQM applications on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, a wide literature study has been carried out in order to define the basic criteria of TQM applications. These criteria which are derived basically from TQM observers and theoreticians like Deming, Juran, Crosby, Feigunbaum and Ishikawa are as follows;

1. Customer Satisfaction
2. Employee Involvement
3. Managerial Leadership
4. Team Work
5. Reward Allocation
6. Performance Appraisal
7. Continuous Improvement
8. Empowerment

After factor analysis of TQM applications it is found three main factors that reflect TQM practices mentioned above. These factors are “Training and Development”, “Empowerment” and “Democratic Management”.

The factor which stands for adapting to changing environments and continuous development is called “Training and Development”. When this factor’s content relating to performance evaluation and continuous training applications is studied, visions about the quality values of the organization, targets and systems are determined by the top management. Furthermore, it is observed that workers are encouraged, performance evaluation system is operated and continuous development training programs are applied.

The factor relating to management applications like focusing on customer satisfaction, training employees to be self-sufficient, and valuing on their work is called “Empowerment”.

The factor relating to management applications like top management's democratic approach, participating employees, appreciation of good work, fair rewarding system, self-management and self-control is called "Democratic Management".

In brief, we can say that *training and development* includes performance appraisal and continuous improvement; *empowerment* includes customer satisfaction and empowerment; *democratic management* includes employee involvement, managerial leadership and reward allocation. It can be said that teamwork is mainly included in *training and development*.

According to these three factors we will discuss the impacts of TQM applications on organizational commitment and OCB.

TQM focuses on achieving full participation and empowerment of the workforce in the pursuit of quality (Deming, 1986a, pp.107-116). In another words, TQM is based on management techniques such as teamwork and employee participation/empowerment (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). Beginning in the 1980s, a total quality approach was defined in which everyone in the organization is involved in developing continuous improvement and a customer orientation through teamwork (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2001). Participation in TQM had a significant positive effect employees' orientation to continuous improvement (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). On the other hand, teamworking is an important application for organizational success. Therefore, the role of teamwork as prime factor in TQM implementation. The impact of team building on performance found significantly positive effects (Porrás & Silvers, 1991).

Team building is an essential part of the empowerment process (Scarnati J.T. & Scarnati, B.F., 2002). Empowerment is defined as "increased intrinsic task motivation" (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowerment means giving authority by senior management. Empowerment usually requires a change in the organization's infrastructure. Employees will be more motivated to accomplish organization goals and objectives if they have the authority to make decisions. Empowerment may take the form of self-directed work teams or of letting workers make some of the decisions (Besterfield et. al., 1995).

Bowen and Lawler (1992b) argue that empowered service workers are better able to respond to customers' needs. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) report positive relationships between empowerment and job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) at the team level. Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) also found that the relationship between empowerment and job attitudes was positive and significant. They also found the relationship between empowerment and OCB was more strongly positive. Empowerment has an impact on workers' perceptions of fair management practices, feelings of being respected in their work settings, and their trust in management, which ultimately influence their job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005).

TQM is perceived as coercive rather than empowering. Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity will also report that the organization's culture is empowering. TQM changes the culture in a positive and empowering way (Fok et. al., 2000).

As it is mentioned, empowerment provides significant advantages throughout the organization. It makes people feel vital to the success of the organization. Empowerment builds trust and promotes effective communication (Hur, 2006). So, *empowerment* is one of the important applications of TQM.

Performance appraisal is an important means of controlling behavior in organizational settings (Stone & Eddy, 1996). Individuals in organizations with higher levels of TQM maturity are more positive in their perceptions that the organization is performing well, that morale is high, that TQM has affected the job positively, that the organization's financial performance is strong, and that their co-workers are happy (Fok et. al., 2000). A quality culture in which people are empowered creates increased job satisfaction and therefore a more motivated workforce (Kehoe, 1997, p.83).

One of the basic concepts of TQM is effective involvement and utilization of the entire work force. Employee involvement improves quality and increases productivity. Employee involvement increases morale by creating a feeling of belonging to the organization (Besterfield et al., 1995).

Managerial leadership plays a critical role in developing the quality of working life in an organization. The leader in quality management influences the organization's behavior while at the same time the people in the organization (Peters & Waterman, 1982, pp.67-73).

One of the TQM implementation that received by Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (ASQC, 1993) is "Executive Leadership". The role of executive leadership is to provide employees with a vision of quality as the overarching philosophy and top priority of the organization (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993). Management must move from a reactive to a proactive style and prevent, rather than solve, problems (Kanji & Asher, 1993). Most of the TQM practitioner-oriented literature urges leaders to adopt transformational roles (e.g., Saskin & Kiser, 1993).

Transformational leaders convince followers to strive for higher expectations, which allows for greater quality achievements (Atwater & Bass, 1994). Transformational leaders rely on empathy to understand followers' thoughts, feelings, and points of view (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). Transformational leaders change their organizations by persuading followers to embrace positive visions and ideals (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Also, transformational leadership enhances subordinates' satisfaction (Hater & Bass, 1988) and trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Results indicate that leadership does have an affect on quality, and certain transformational style is more effective. (Hirtz et al., 2007) Researches show the relationship between leadership support and job attitudes is positive and significant. According to these results it could be suggested that leadership effects OCB positively (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

As it is emphasized, quality management needs a different type of leadership in terms of creating an organizational enviroment for allowing employees participating in decision making processes. We can say, transformational leadership is the most successful leadership type for TQM implementation.

Organizational change researchers recognize the importance of reward systems. For example, Schein (1990) suggested that reward systems can be used as one mechanism

to achieve culture change, while Schneider et al. (1996) argued that the focus of rewards determines the climate for the sustainability of change.

TQM-oriented firms increasingly are adopting reward-system innovations (Blackburn & Rosen, 1993). Hackman and Wageman (1995) proposed that the absence of rewards may not present a problem initially, but over the longer term, it may lead to a motivational backlash when employees realize that they are not benefiting from the organization's TQM endeavor. More specifically to be effective TQM organizations must use rewards that reinforce the goals of the organization. Rewards in TQM organizations should reinforce job-related behaviors that are critical for improving processes or increasing customer satisfaction (Stone & Eddy, 1996).

In this context, the types of rewards which play a fatal role in the process of TQM implementation and function to increase the participation and performance of organizational members. Thus, the establishment of a new reward allocation system is a basic focus point in general and specifically in TQM implementation.

As it is explained in the literature, we see that teamworking, empowerment, performance appraisal, employee involvement, executive leadership (especially transformational leadership) and reward system are the basic and important TQM implementations. When these management techniques have been applied to organizations, employee's satisfaction and commitment to organizations would be increased. From this concept, we improve our first hypothesis: "The more TQM applications increase, the more-organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment increase."

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that positive past experiences, satisfaction with the job, and policies and procedures are all antecedents of affective commitment. Some of the antecedents of organizational commitment are as follows; job satisfaction would influence affective commitment; feedback had direct and indirect positive effects on affective commitment (Eby et al., 1999); organization prestige and organization stereotypes were found to enhance organizational commitment (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000); Perceived task interdependence to be positively related to both team and organizational commitment

(Bishop & Scott, 2000) ; and the another factor that affects commitment is freedom of choice (Cici, 1997).

Organizational commitment and perceived organizational support were significantly higher in the organizations implementing TQM (Allen & Brady, 1997).

Leader behaviors (vision articulation) had a significant main effect on organizational commitment. Leadership substitutes, as opposed to leadership behaviors, appear to be the key determinants of employees' commitment to the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Transformational leadership only has an indirect positive relationship with organizational commitment through leader-member exchange quality (Bettencourt, 2004). As it's seen in the literature leader behavior directly influence employee's commitment. Especially transformational leadership increase organizational commitment. In our research it is also found that transformational leadership is the leadership style in TQM implementation. Also it is found that democratic leadership that one of the application of TQM enhanced organizational commitment. But this affect was less than the other applications.

Both procedural and distributive justice has significant impacts on organizational commitment (Loi et al., 2006). Fairness perceptions and blame attributions are necessary for the highest levels of commitment (Horvath & Andrews, 2007). It can be thought that democratic leaders' equity and justice management to their staffs will increase organizational commitment.

The research results suggest that socialization training can influence trainees' feelings of commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation. Trainees who completed the training demonstrated significant improvements in their level of organizational commitment and self-efficacy (Tannenbaum et al., 1991). In our research it is also found that *training and development* application that include performance appraisal, teamworking and continuous improvement enhance organizational citizenship behavior.

Several researchers suggest that empowerment is a motivational process whereby individuals become more integrated into the organization through increased involvement in

work-related issues (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Supervisor can play a key role in this process by encouraging and assisting individuals as they strive to attain meaningful goals. As these goals are achieved, individuals' intrinsic motivation is expected to increase (Bass, 1990, pp.118-120). Involvement in work-related decisions, and the provision of support as one attempts to accomplish work-related goals, are expected to bolster individuals' attraction to both their job and organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Eby et al., 1999). In our research it is also found that *empowerment* is the most that affected organizational commitment. Thus, our research findings support this conclusion.

Several demographic variables will have an impact on commitment. These demographic variables are age, sex, marital status, tenure, occupation and education (Cici, 1997). Empirical data indicate that age and tenure also among the causes of organizational commitment (McCormick, 1988). Wright and Bonett (2002) have found negative relations among tenure, age and organizational commitment. In our research it is also found that there is a significance relationship between age, tenure and organizational commitment. When age and tenure increase, organizational commitment also increases.

Morris and Sherman (1981) reported that older employee and less educated employees higher levels of commitment. In our research it is also found that educational level has a negative significant effect on organizational commitment; When educational level increases, organizational commitment decreases from white collars to blue collars . Tenure has a positive significant impact on organizational commitment; longer tenure leads to increasing organizational commitment.

Porter and Smith (1970) found a negative relation between organizational commitment and turnover. Absenteeism is one of the consequences of low level of commitment. (Mowday et al., 1982, p.317). When we review the consequences of organizational commitments, there is a relationships of TQM implementations with organizational commitment. We see that the applications related to organizational commitments are leadership styles, training, empowerment, teamworking and employee involvement in decisions. When these applications involve in organizations, turnover and absenteeism will be less, so organizational commitment will be high.

In the literature, it has been realized that researchers have not come to a complete agreement about the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The most basic research on the subject was conducted by Smith and his colleagues in 1983. They took OCB in two dimensions: Altruism (Devotion) and General Compliance. Organ (1989) defined OCB in 5 elements: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportmanship. McRae and Costa (1987) defined civic virtue, one of the five elements, as agreeableness. The dimensions that are used in this research are;

1. Helping Behavior (Altruism)
2. Sportsmanship
3. Organizational Loyalty
4. Organizational Compliance
5. Individual Initiative
6. Civic Virtue
7. Self Development

The factor, which is made up of civic virtue, which states employee initiated behaviors pertaining to participating in discussions about the organization, sharing opinions, and coming up with solutions to problems, and self development, which states voluntary behaviors of the employees for developing, their skills and knowledge, is called “Occupational Development and Sharing.”

The factor stands for voluntary overtaking jobs of colleagues, working extra hours when necessary, and volunteer participation in activities of organization’s image-making is called “Maintaining and Furthering Institutional Reputation”.

The factor contains the following non-written but verbal rules: arriving work on time, sacrificing personal priorities when necessary, voluntarily helping a newcomer, and being compatible with organizational rules and activities is called “Following Institutional Regulations”.

Briefly, we can say that *occupational development and sharing* factor includes civic virtue, individual initiative, helping behavior and self development; *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* factor includes organizational loyalty; *following institutional regulations* includes organizational compliance. The relationship between TQM and organizational citizenship behavior will be discussed according to these three dimensions.

Motives play an important role in OCB (Finkelstein, 2006). Employees whose work provided the skills, behaviors, and positive mood which positively influenced the family were also more satisfied with their job and, were more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behavior (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006).

The type of behaviors necessary to make a TQM system effective are not always prescribed in traditional systems, and are often labeled extra-role or good citizenship behaviors. Thus, some authors have argued that good citizenship behaviors become part of the role requirements in TQM systems (Waldman, 1994; Stone & Eddy, 1996). Walz and Neilhoff (1996) found that OCB was positively related to overall operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality of performance. Workers who are satisfied with their jobs tend to engage in extrarole activities as a means of reciprocity for their organizations' concern (Gyekke & Salminen, 2005). In another words, Employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employers will reciprocate by showing a willingness to engage in OCB (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005). In our research it is found that TQM applications have a positive significant correlation with organizational citizenship behaviors. So, our findings support that TQM applications create OCB. But, which TQM application creates what kind of OCB must be researched in the following researches. Our findings about the relationship between TQM applications and OCB dimensions could be shine for these researches. In the following section we will discuss these relationships at the right time.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2004) research findings indicated that although most OCB were performed by individuals, those behaviors conceptually could be extended to the organizational level. Employees who perceived that they possess more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, tended to express more trust in their leader and role clarity, and exhibit more civic virtue than employees who do not perceive they possess as much ability, experience, training, and knowledge (Podsakoff et al., 1996). In our research it is also found that generally TQM applications positively affect OCB.

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that the relationship between procedural justice and citizenship was fully mediated by employees' trust in their supervisor. If employees believe that procedures used in allocating organizational outcomes are fair and just, they will be satisfied and more likely to engage in citizenship behavior (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Moorman et al., 1998; Farh et al., 1997; Posthuma & Compion, 2005). Individuals are more likely to alter their citizenship behavior if they believe that the system is inherently fair or unfair (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). In our research it is also found that *democratic management* influences *occupational development and sharing* behaviors. We can say that someone who trusts his/her supervisor's justice will also behave at the same manner.

Podsakoff et al. (1997) found that both helping and sportsmanship were positively related to the quantity of performance. Research by Walz and Niehoff (2000) found that helping was related to several indicators of organizational efficiency and customer satisfaction. OCB can also have positive effects on service quality through their impact on factors internal to the organization, including employees' work environment, service climate, team cohesiveness, and consistency of service processes, among others (Tepper et al., 2001).

Koys (2001) found the aggregate measure of OCB to be unrelated to a measure of profit that controlled for the unit's size and negatively (although not significantly) related to customer satisfaction. On the other side, we found that customer satisfaction that took place in *empowerment* influenced maintaining and furthering institutional reputation.

Bachrach, Bendoly and Podsakoff (2001) examine the possibility that feedback regarding team performance may influence team members' report of organizational citizenship behaviors. Members of group that receive positive feedback generally report their groups to be significantly more helpful and exhibit more civic virtue than groups that receive negative feedback. Group members who received neutral feedback perceived their groups to exhibit more helping behavior and civic virtue than groups that received negative feedback. Sportsmanship, in contrast, is concerned with the avoidance of complaints, consumption of time dealing with trivial non-task-related matters, and/or finding fault with the behaviors of teammates (Bachrach et al., 2001). In our research it is also found that there is a positive relationship between teamworking and OCB. In general, teamworking positively influences OCB. It increases the employee's helping behavior.

Supportive behavior on the part of the leader was strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior transformational leadership behavior also was strongly related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Generally speaking, the transformational leadership behaviors had significant and consistent positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

As noted by Graham (1988) the most important effects of transformational leaders should be on extra-role performance, rather than in-role performance (Bass, 1985). When workers have perceived that their organizations/management are supportive and concerned about their general well-being, they have been motivated to engage in extrarole commitments (Simons & Robertson, 2003). When employees believe their managers are trustworthy, employees tend to spend more time and energy on helping other contact employees (Yoon & Suh, 2003). We have proposed that the best leadership style in TQM is transformational leadership. If we think that transformational leaders are supportive and trustworthy, employee's helping behaviors will also increase. As we mentioned before democratic leadership (especially transformational leadership) increased employee's *occupational development and sharing*. So, our findings support this concept.

Observation had significant, negative relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Employees who perceived that their general managers frequently observed their work or initiated meetings to discuss problems were reported as exhibiting low levels of OCB (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Employees who believe that their supervisor personally treated them fairly appeared to be more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991). If we think that observation prevents Employee Involvement, we can say that observation negatively affect OCB. As It is mentioned before democratic leadership increased employee's *occupational development and sharing*. So, our findings support this concept.

Reward contingencies influence the frequency of organizational citizenship behavior. When employees are not indifferent to the rewards made available by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders control those rewards, and when their leaders administer rewards contingent upon performance, organizational citizenship behavior increases (Allen & Rush, 1998).

Contingent reward leadership and transformational leadership behaviors also have indirect positive relationships with change-oriented OCB via leader-member exchange quality (Bettencourt, 2004).

Openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were significantly positively related to the customer orientation. Perriatt et al., (2007) indicated that conscientiousness and extraversion were the strongest predictors of the customer orientation of managers.

Generally speaking, demographic variables (e.g., organizational tenure and employee gender) have not been found to be related to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). But Farrell (2007) indicated that OCB in general were expected more of women than of men. According to demographic variables it is found that there is a positive relationship between age and OCB. Especially when age increases, *occupational development and sharing* and *following institutional regulations* increases. It is also found that when education increases, *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* and *following institutional regulations* decreases.

In today's competitive environment, organizations need employees that show beyond-the-line performance. Beyond-the-line performance means not only putting employee's time into work, but also their personality and heart. Doğan describes job attraction as devoting oneself wholeheartedly into the job (Doğan, 2002).

We come to the point that we are not able to identify one employee's real job attraction by only seeing how important the job is and what it means to him/her without questioning his/her entire spiritual and personal participation. Job attraction appears as a significant factor that can overtake the role of allowing employees show a great performance and create their differences.

At this stage, how organizations can create an environment that provides job attraction for employees becomes a critical question. We suppose that TQM presents organizational environment that encourage job satisfaction, consequently job attraction. Therefore, first we need to define the factors that allows for job attraction.

After factor analysis of job attraction scale, we found a factor called *happiness* that is about a dimension whether an employee is attached to his work with positive feelings. We will discuss the moderating affects of job attraction between TQM applications with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Some research suggest that employee satisfaction is positively related to customer satisfaction (Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Schneider, Parkington & Buxton, 1980; Tornow & Wiley, 1991). For example, when individuals are satisfied with their jobs they are more likely to improve the processes that lead to increased customer satisfaction. The more satisfied the individual, the more likely he/she is to make important contributions to organizational goals (Stone & Eddy, 1996). If it is thought that TQM implementations effect employee's satisfaction positively, it can be said that TQM increases job attraction consequently.

As a result, the organization is likely to achieve its quality goals. Satisfaction is a predictor of performance in a TQM context than in a traditional context. The primary reason for this is that performance in a TQM context is based on a more broadly defined criterion that includes good citizenship behaviors (Waldman, 1994). However, additional research is needed to examine the satisfaction-performance relationship in a TQM context (Stone & Eddy, 1996). According to this need, we researched the relationship between job attraction with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

We will not discuss the antecents of job attraction here. It is explained in the related section. We will review the affects of job attraction as a moderator. At the second hypothesis of this research it is claimed that job attraction improves the relationship between TQM applications with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

When the effect of interaction between TQM applications and job attraction on organizational commitment is investigated, we see that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications and organizational commitment.

After examining the interaction of job attraction and TQM applications' impact on *occupational development and sharing*, we see that job attraction does not have a significant effect on the relation. When the impact of interaction of job attraction and TQM applications' impact on *following institutional regulations behavior* is examined, we also see that job attraction does not have a significant impact on this relation. It is only seen that job attraction strengthens the relation between *democratic management* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*. So, the second hypothesis of the research is partially justified.

It can be said that TQM applications creates an attractive environment in the organization. Therefore, if there is someone who is not attracted to his/her job will finally be attracted in TQM implemented organizations. Consequently, the moderating affect of job attraction will not be disappeared clearly. But in the future it could be researched why there is a significance moderating affects of job attraction on the relationship between *democratic management* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*.

On the other side it could be said that when job attraction increases, the relation between TQM applications with organizational commitment and OCB gets stronger. As a result job attraction strengthens *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* most.

11. CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the relationships between TQM with Organizational Commitment (OC) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) generally affirmed previous findings in the literature that TQM increases OC and OCB. Although the relationships between TQM with OC and OCB are robust, which TQM applications affects OC and OCB dimensions is not clear.

In the literature there is few research about the antecedents of OC and OCB. Generally, it is talked about the results of OC and especially OCB. By investigating the antecedents of OC and OCB according to TQM applications, this research will be used in other areas for future inquiry.

This research supports the hypothesis that TQM applications are positively related to OC and OCB. It is found that the highest predictor of OC and OCB is *empowerment*. *Empowerment* has a strong relation with job attraction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The lowest relation is with *democratic management*. When TQM applications increase, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior increase.

In the literature, it is generally mentioned that teamworking, supportive leadership, empowerment, employee involvement and reward allocation are the fundamental implementations of TQM and all of them positively affects OC and OCB. Whereas, in this research the effects of TQM are examined according to the factors that are determined after factor analysis. In this way, it is found that *democratic management* has the most positive impact on *occupational development and sharing*. *Training and development* has the most positive effect on organizational commitment. *Empowerment* is the most positive impact on *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* and *following institutional regulations*. These findings could be the beginning of the future researches about at the same subjects.

The question of which management applications more suitable for TQM environment is one of the important diagnosis of this research. Especially, it is seen that transformational leadership is the TQM's leadership model and *empowerment* is the most important dimension.

This research is mostly interested in what makes employee attracted to their jobs. Focusing on how Job Attraction effects the correlation between TQM applications and OC and OCB, the second hypothesis is derived. It is searched how job attraction improves the relationship between TQM applications with OC and OCB. As a results it is seen that job attraction does not have a significant impact on the relation between TQM applications with OC and OCB.

Job attraction strengthens the relation between *democratic management* and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*. In other cases, no effect of job attraction is detected. So the second hypothesis of the research is partially justified. The more job attraction

increases, the stronger the relationship between *democratic management* with *training and development* programs and *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* gets, or vice versa.

As a result, this research gives some help to future researches about TQM, job attraction, OC and OCB. These contributions are shortly as follows:

1. To increase employee's commitment to their organizations and create beneficial behaviors that will have impact on performance, organizations should apply some important TQM applications. In this way, organizations must implement empowerment programs. Leaders should be supportive and behave transformational leadership style. Teamworking and employee involvement should be supported.

2. It should be given importance to the *training and development* activities in TQM implemented organizations. Employees should be aware of the visions about the quality values of the organization, targets and systems in training programs.

3. Performance evaluation system should be operated and statistical programs must be used in evaluating the all activities.

4. *Democratic management* will increase employee's *occupational development and sharing*. In other words if it will create an *occupational development and sharing*, *democratic management* techniques should be applied.

5. *Training and development* activities will usually increase organizational commitment; *empowerment* in organization will usually increase organizational citizenship behaviors (especially, *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation* and *following institutional regulation* behaviors).

6. As it is mentioned before, if education level increase, organizational commitment will decrease. For that reason, when *training and development* programs are

implemented, it should be given more important to high educated employees for increasing their commitment to their organizations.

7. Job attraction is more effective on organizational commitment than organizational citizenship behaviors. Especially, it increases the *maintaining and furthering institutional reputation*. The more job attracted recruits should be selected to the organizations.

8. TQM affects organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors more than demographic variables. For that reason, giving more attention to management strategies is more important than demographic variables to increase organizational commitment and create some organizational citizenship behaviors.

12. LIMITATIONS

Although this investigation sheds light on several important researches related to the effects of TQM applications on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, some of the results are clearly limited by the use of some of implementations of TQM that we are used. The TQM applications could be widened.

In this research we almost took the job attraction by the side of individuals. However, job environment also attracts the employees. We have supposed that TQM implemented organizations attracts the employees. In the future researches job attraction could be used as a dependent variable and the effects of TQM applications on job attraction could be studied.

Another limitation of this study is to use non-equivalent group in the TQM implemented organizations. Some organizations answered more questions on the questionnaire form more than the others. The organizational culture of these organizations might be effect the results.

According to demographic characteristics of the respondents male respondents were more than the female respondents. In the analysis of this research it couldn't be valued the results from the gender side.

Whenever we applied to the TQM implemented organizations for investigation, most of them rejected us. 52 organizations meeting the requirements of research criteria are consulted to apply the survey. These applications are made with the top management of the organizations face-to-face, through mail and fax. So, we are forced to collect the questionnaires.

This research was only applied to the TQM implemented organizations in Turkey. The results might reflect the organizational culture of too big generalization ! A similar research could be made in the other countries.

Despite the limitations of this study, its main contribution was not only its findings alone but also indications of the needs about TQM's effects on employees. This study could be a reference for the other studies about TQM with a wider perspective.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX-1 (QUESTIONNAIRE FORM)

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
1	Bu kuruluştaki yapılan faaliyetler müşteri memnuniyetine odaklanmıştır.						
2	Bu kuruluştaki alınan kararlarda çalışanların görüş ve önerilerine yer verilir.						
3	Suistimale meydan vermemek için çalışanların faaliyetleri yöneticiler tarafından kontrol edilmektedir.						
4	Bu kuruluştaki bireysel çalışmadan çok takım çalışması yapılır.						
5	Takım çalışmalarında başarıya en fazla katkısı olan personel ödüllendirilmektedir.						
6	Bu kuruluştaki performans ölçümü yapılmaktadır.						
7	Ürün ve hizmet kalitesinin artması için kuruluşumuzda çalışanlar için eğitim programları düzenlenmektedir.						
8	Yaptığım iş benim için anlamlı ve önemlidir.						
9	İşimi yapmak için gerekli bilgi ve beceriye sahibim.						
10	Bu kuruluştaki kaliteyi, müşterilerimizin beklentileri belirlemektedir.						
11	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanların faaliyet sonuçları ile ilgili bilgilendirilmesine ve önerilerinin alınmasına önem verilir.						
12	Bu kuruluştaki üst yönetim her kademedeki çalışanlarına karşı "demokrat ve katılımcı " bir yaklaşım tarzı sergilemektedir.						
13	Bu kuruluştaki bireysel başarıya, takım çalışması ile elde edilen başarıdan daha çok önem verilmektedir.						
14	Bu kuruluştaki yapılan faaliyetler istatistiki olarak ölçülmekte ve objektif olarak değerlendirilmektedir.						
15	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanlara maaş, prim ve ödüller adil olarak dağıtılmaktadır.						
16	Bu kuruluşun kalite değerleri, hedefleri ve sistemleri ile ilgili vizyon üst yöneticiler tarafından belirlenmekte ve çalışanlar bu konuda teşvik edilmektedir.						
17	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanlar işlerini kendi başlarına yapma ve kontrol etme yetkisine sahiptirler.						
18	Gayret ve çalışmalarımız zamanında takdir edilmekte, elde ettiğimiz başarılar ödüllendirilmektedir.						
19	Beraber çalıştığım kişileri iş konusunda etkileyebilirim.						
20	Bu kuruluş, çalışanların sürekli gelişimini sağlamak için eğitim programları uygular.						
21	Kuruluşumuz değişen koşullara uyum sağlamak ve sürekli gelişmektedir.						
22	Bu kuruluşun politikalarını benimsemek bana zor geliyor.						
23	Çalıştığım kuruluşun başarılı olması için gereğinden fazla çalışırım.						
24	Bu kuruluş, işimde en yüksek performansı göstermem için beni teşvik ediyor.						
25	İşimin gereğini yaparım; benden bunun ötesinde bir şey beklenmesi haksızlıktır.						
26	Bu kuruluştaki çalışmamı sürdürmek için verilecek her türlü görevi kabul ederim.						
27	Yaptığım iş benzer olduğu sürece, başka bir kuruluştaki da çalışabilirim.						
28	Bu kuruluşun bir mensubu olmaktan gurur duyuyorum.						

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
29	Bu kuruluş, çalışabileceğim bir çok kuruluş içerisinde en idealdir.						
30	İşimi yaparken kendimi coşkulu hissediyorum.						
31	İşimi yaparken kişiliğimi kazandığımı hissediyorum.						
32	İşimi yaparken büyük zevk alıyorum.						
33	İşimi yaparken tüm benliğimle kendimi işe veriyorum.						
34	İşimi yaparken kendim olduğumu hissediyorum.						
35	İşimi yaparken kendimi güçlü hissediyorum.						
36	İşimi yaparken zihnim başka yerlere kayıyor.						
37	İşimi yaparken günlük kaygılarımdan uzaklaşıyorum.						
38	İşimi yaparken kendimi zinde hissediyorum.						
39	İşim beni cezbediyor.						
40	İşimi yaparken kendimi kaptırıyorum.						
41	İşimi yaparken kendimi güven içinde hissediyorum.						
42	İşimi yaparken kendimi bezgin hissediyorum.						
43	İşimi yaparken bir şeyler yarattığımı hissediyorum.						
44	İşimi yaparken kendimi özgür hissediyorum						
45	İşimi yaparken zihnimi, duygularımı ve vücudumu bir bütün içinde kullanıyorum.						
46	İşimi yaparken esinleniyorum; aklıma yepyeni fikirler geliyor.						
47	İşimi yaparken kendimi enerjik hissediyorum.						
48	İşim tarafından çekildiğimi hissediyorum.						
49	İşimi yaparken tüm dikkatim yaptığım iştedir.						
50	İşimi yaparken önemli olduğumu hissediyorum.						
51	İşimi yaparken kendime yabancılaşıyorum.						
52	İşimi yaparken kendimi tatlı bir heyecan içinde hissediyorum.						
53	İşimi yaparken kendimi mutlu hissediyorum.						
54	İşimi ilgi duyarak yapıyorum.						
55	İşimi yaparken kendimi ruhsuz hissediyorum.						
56	İşimi yaparken kendimle gurur duyuyorum.						
57	İşimi yaparken azimliyim.						
58	İşimi yaparken içim kıpır kıpır oluyor.						
59	İş arkadaşlarımdan işe gelmediği günlerde onların görevlerini severek üstlenirim.						
60	Bir sorunla karşılaştığımda yapabileceğim en iyisini yapmaya çalışırım.						
61	Çalıştığım kurumun imaj yaratmasına yardımcı olacak faaliyetlere gönüllü katılırım.						
62	Kimsenin beni görmediği durumlarda da kurallara, emirlere ve prosedürlere uyarım.						
63	Gerekli olduğunda fazla mesai yapmak için gönüllü olurum.						

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
64	İşyerinin düzenlediği toplantılara katılıyorum.						
65	Bilgi ve becerilerimi sürekli güncel tutmaya çalışıyorum.						
66	İş arkadaşlarımla işle ilgili problemlerinde onlara seve seve zaman ayırıyorum.						
67	Zamanımın çoğunu işimle ilgili problem ve sorunları şikayetle geçiririm.						
68	Başkalarına bu kurumun çalışmak için iyi bir yer olduğunu söylerim.						
69	İşe her zaman vaktinde gelirim.						
70	İşimin gerektirdikleri dışında ekstra görev ve sorumluluk almaktan kaçınıyorum.						
71	İşimle ilgili uygulamaların geliştirilmesi için öneriler getiririm.						
72	Hizmetiçi eğitim faaliyetlerine gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.						
73	İşe yeni başlayan personelin oryantasyon sürecinde bana verilmiş bir görev olmasa da onlara yardımcı olurum.						
74	Çalışma arkadaşlarımla iyiliği için kişisel önceliklerimi feda ederim.						
75	Daha yüksek ücret söz konusu olursa, rakip bir firmada çalışmayı kabul edebilirim.						
76	Yazılı olmayan ama herkesin bildiği sözlü kurallara uyarım.						
77	Yeni ürün ve gelişmeler hakkındaki fikirlerimi çalışma arkadaşlarımla paylaşıyorum.						
78	Çalıştığım işyeri hakkında bilgi sağlayan duyuruları, mesajları ve yazılı materyalleri sürekli izler ve okurum.						
79	Bulunduğum bölümü geliştirecek yeni fikirler yaratırım.						

Lütfen aşağıda belirtilen ilgili soruları işaretleyerek cevaplandırınız.

En son mezun olduğunuz okul : İlk Öğretim__ Üniversite__
Lise__ Yüksek Lisans__
Ön Lisans__ Doktora__

Cinsiyetiniz : Erkek__
Kadın__

Yaşınız :

Görev/ Ünvanınız : İşgören__
Alt Kademe Yöneticisi__
Orta Kademe Yöneticisi__
Üst Kademe Yöneticisi__

Bu kuruluştaki çalışma süreniz :

APPENDIX-2 (TQM QUESTIONNAIRE FORM)

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
1	Bu kuruluştaki yapılan faaliyetler müşteri memnuniyetine odaklanmıştır.						
2	Bu kuruluştaki kaliteyi, müşterilerimizin beklentileri belirlemektedir.						
3	Bu kuruluştaki alınan kararlarda çalışanların görüş ve önerilerine yer verilir.						
4	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanların faaliyet sonuçları ile ilgili bilgilendirilmesine ve önerilerinin alınmasına önem verilir.						
5	Bu kuruluşun kalite değerleri, hedefleri ve sistemleri ile ilgili vizyon üst yöneticiler tarafından belirlenmekte ve çalışanlar bu konuda teşvik edilmektedir.						
6	Bu kuruluştaki üst yönetim her kademedeki çalışanlarına karşı "demokrat ve katılımcı " bir yaklaşım tarzı sergilemektedir.						
7	Suistimale meydan vermemek için çalışanların faaliyetleri yöneticiler tarafından kontrol edilmektedir.						
8	Bu kuruluştaki bireysel çalışmadan çok takım çalışması yapılır.						
9	Bu kuruluştaki bireysel başarıya, takım çalışması ile elde edilen başarıdan daha çok önem verilmektedir.						
10	Gayret ve çalışmalarımız zamanında takdir edilmekte, elde ettiğimiz başarılar ödüllendirilmektedir.						
11	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanlara maaş, prim ve ödüller adil olarak dağıtılmaktadır.						
12	Takım çalışmalarında başarıya en fazla katkısı olan personel ödüllendirilmektedir.						
13	Bu kuruluştaki performans ölçümü yapılmaktadır.						
14	Bu kuruluştaki yapılan faaliyetler istatistiki olarak ölçülmekte ve objektif olarak değerlendirilmektedir.						
15	Ürün ve hizmet kalitesinin artması için kuruluşumuzda çalışanlar için eğitim programları düzenlenmektedir.						
16	Bu kuruluş, çalışanların sürekli gelişimini sağlamak için eğitim programları uygular.						
17	Kuruluşumuz değişen koşullara uyum sağlamakta ve sürekli gelişmektedir.						
18	Bu kuruluştaki çalışanlar işlerini kendi başlarına yapma ve kontrol etme yetkisine sahiptirler.						
19	İşimi yapmak için gerekli bilgi ve beceriye sahibim.						
20	Berber çalıştığım kişileri iş konusunda etkileyebilirim.						
21	Yaptığım iş benim için anlamlı ve önemlidir.						

TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT APPLICATIONS QUESTION GROUPS;

Customer Oriented : 1,2

Employee Involvement : 3,4

Managerial Leadership : 5,6,7

Team Work : 8,9

Reward Allocation : 10,11,12

Performance Appraisal : 13,14

Continuous Improvement : 15,16,17

Empowerment : 18,19,20,21

APPENDIX-3 (JOB ATTRACTION QUESTIONNAIRE FORM)

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
1	İşimi yaparken kendimi coşkulu hissediyorum.						
2	İşimi yaparken kişiliğimi kazandığımı hissediyorum.						
3	İşimi yaparken büyük zevk alıyorum.						
4	İşimi yaparken tüm benliğimle kendimi işe veriyorum.						
5	İşimi yaparken kendim olduğumu hissediyorum.						
6	İşimi yaparken kendimi güçlü hissediyorum.						
7	İşimi yaparken zihnim başka yerlere kayıyor.						
8	İşimi yaparken günlük kaygılarımdan uzaklaşıyorum.						
9	İşimi yaparken kendimi zinde hissediyorum.						
10	İşim beni cezbediyor.						
11	İşimi yaparken kendimi kaptırıyorum.						
12	İşimi yaparken kendimi güven içinde hissediyorum.						
13	İşimi yaparken kendimi bezgin hissediyorum.						
14	İşimi yaparken bir şeyler yarattığımı hissediyorum.						
15	İşimi yaparken kendimi özgür hissediyorum						
16	İşimi yaparken zihnimi, duygularımı ve vücudumu bir bütün içinde kullanıyorum.						
17	İşimi yaparken esinleniyorum; aklıma yepyeni fikirler geliyor.						
18	İşimi yaparken kendimi enerjik hissediyorum.						
19	İşim tarafından çekildiğimi hissediyorum.						
20	İşimi yaparken tüm dikkatim yaptığım iştedir.						
21	İşimi yaparken önemli olduğumu hissediyorum.						
22	İşimi yaparken kendime yabancılaşıyorum.						
23	İşimi yaparken kendimi tatlı bir heyecan içinde hissediyorum.						
24	İşimi yaparken kendimi mutlu hissediyorum.						
25	İşimi ilgi duyarak yapıyorum.						
26	İşimi yaparken kendimi ruhsuz hissediyorum.						
27	İşimi yaparken kendimle gurur duyuyorum.						
28	İşimi yaparken azimliyim.						
29	İşimi yaparken içim kıpır kıpır oluyor.						

APPENDIX-4 (ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FORM)

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
1	Çalıştığım kuruluşun başarılı olması için gereğinden fazla çalışırım.						
2	Bu kuruluş, işimde en yüksek performansı göstermem için beni teşvik ediyor.						
3	İşimin gereğini yaparım; benden bunun ötesinde bir şey beklenmesi haksızlıktır.						
4	Bu kuruluşta çalışmamı sürdürmek için verilecek her türlü görevi kabul ederim.						
5	Yaptığım iş benzer olduğu sürece, başka bir kuruluşta da çalışabilirim.						
6	Bu kuruluşun politikalarını benimsemek bana zor geliyor.						
7	Bu kuruluşun bir mensubu olmaktan gurur duyuyorum.						
8	Bu kuruluş, çalışabileceğim bir çok kuruluş içerisinde en idealdir.						

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTION GROUPS ;

JOB INVOLVEMENT : 1,2,3

LOYALTY : 4,5

IDENTIFICATION : 6,7,8

APPENDIX-5 (OCB QUESTIONNAIRE FORM)

	LÜTFEN AŞAĞIDA BELİRTİLEN İFADELERE NE DERECE KATILDIĞINIZI İLGİLİ KUTUYA ÇARPI İŞARETİ ATARAK BELİRTİNİZ	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Hemen Her Zaman	Her Zaman
1	İş arkadaşlarımdan işe gelmediği günlerde onların görevlerini severek üstlenirim.						
2	İş arkadaşlarımdan işle ilgili problemlerinde onlara seve seve zaman ayırırım.						
3	İşe yeni başlayan personelin oryantasyon sürecinde bana verilmiş bir görev olmasa da onlara yardımcı olurum.						
4	Bir sorunla karşılaştığımda yapabileceğim en iyisini yapmaya çalışırım.						
5	Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan iyiliği için kişisel önceliklerimi feda ederim.						
6	Zamanımın çoğunu işimle ilgili problem ve sorunları şikayetle geçiririm.						
7	Çalıştığım kurumun imaj yaratmasına yardımcı olacak faaliyetlere gönüllü katılırım.						
8	Başkalarına bu kurumun çalışmak için iyi bir yer olduğunu söylerim.						
9	Daha yüksek ücret söz konusu olursa, rakip bir firmada çalışmayı kabul edebilirim.						
10	Kimsenin beni görmediği durumlarda da kurallara, emirlere ve prosedürlere uyarım.						
11	İşe her zaman vaktinde gelirim.						
12	Yazılı olmayan ama herkesin bildiği sözlü kurallara uyarım.						
13	Gerekli olduğunda fazla mesai yapmak için gönüllü olurum.						
14	İşimin gerektirdikleri dışında ekstra görev ve sorumluluk almaktan kaçınırım.						
15	Yeni ürün ve gelişmeler hakkındaki fikirlerimi çalışma arkadaşlarımla paylaşıyorum.						
16	İşyerinin düzenlediği toplantılara katılırım.						
17	İşimle ilgili uygulamaların geliştirilmesi için öneriler getiririm.						
18	Çalıştığım işyeri hakkında bilgi sağlayan duyuruları, mesajları ve yazılı materyalleri sürekli izler ve okurum.						
19	Bilgi ve becerilerimi sürekli güncel tutmaya çalışırım.						
20	Hizmetiçi eğitim faaliyetlerine gönüllü olarak katılırım.						
21	Bulunduğum bölümü geliştirecek yeni fikirler yaratırım.						

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR QUESTION GROUPS ;

Helping Behavior : 1,2,3

Sportsmanship : 4,5,6

Organizational Loyalty : 7,8,9

Organizational Compliance : 10,11,12

Individual Initiative : 13,14,15

Civic Virtue : 16,17,18

Self Development : 19,20,21