Handbook of Research on

Positive Organizational Behavior for Improved Workplace Performance

Elif Baykal

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Handbook of Research on Positive Organizational Behavior for Improved Workplace Performance

Elif Baykal
Istanbul Medipol University, Turkey

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Akçakanat, Tahsin / *Suleyman Demirel University, Turkey* 179
Aşçı, Mehmet Saim / *İstanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 219
Baykal, Elif / *İstanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 72
Bayraktar, Osman / *Istanbul Commerce University, Turkey* 276
Dinçer, Hasan / *Istanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 310, 349
Ekinci, Abdurrahman / *Mardin Artuklu University, Turkey* 86
Ertosun, Öznur Gülen / *Istanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 1, 291
Fawzy, Camelia M. / *University of Maryland Global Campus, USA* 140
Gürsoy, Ali / *National Defense University, Turkey* 162
Hamid, Zainab / *University of Kashmir, India* 260
Köksal, Kemal / *Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Turkey* 162
Küçükoğlu, Mübeyyen Tepe / *Trakya University, Turkey* 102
Muzamil, Muhammad / *University of Kashmir, India* 260
Ozturk, Mahmut Sami / *Suleyman Demirel University, Turkey* 330
Pınarbaşı, Fatih / *İstanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 349
Sachdeva, Geeta / *National Institute of Technology Kurukshetra, India* 201
Sakız, Halis / *Mardin Artuklu University, Turkey* 86, 240
Saraç, Mehlika / *Bursa Uludag University, Turkey* 55
Shah, Shawkat Ahmad / *University of Kashmir, India* 260
Shore, Brenda M. / *University of Phoenix, USA* 140
Unnu, Nazlı Ayşe Ayyildiz / *Ege University, Turkey* 34
Williams, York / *West Chester University, USA* 21
Yavuz, Meltem / *Istanbul University, Turkey* 122
Yüksel, Serhat / *İstanbul Medipol University, Turkey* 310, 349

Table of Contents

Detailed Table of Contents

Organizations should be able to cope with uncertainty and also adapt to technological, economic, political, and cultural changes in order to maintain their existence and to provide negative entropy. The main reason for organizational development is to help organizations respond to the new work life conditions. From a classical management approach to today's positive organization approach, numerous studies indicate that organizational development that ensures managers and employees perform their tasks more effectively is not an option; rather, it is a necessity for organizations. Organizational development predominantly provides the necessary atmosphere for conflict management, problem solving, and effective communication. Organizational development provides for anticipation of the organization and effective adaptation. This also makes organizational success possible by increasing the individual development and performance of employees.

Organizational behavioral analysis has been utilized as a tool to deconstruct the behavior interactions, antecedents, and consequences that impact work productivity and performance across the workplace. Such an analysis has been helpful within the industry at assisting managers, leaders, and workers to measure workplace culture, morale, and productivity. Accordingly, in order for there to be maximum harmony and equilibrium within the workplace, there must also be happiness, contentment, and peace. This chapter synthesizes best practice principles of organizational behavioral analysis (OBM) interwoven within a cultural diversity framework with the functional systems logic so as to enhance workplace management and productivity. Additionally, this chapter elucidates the conceptual framework of positive psychology as a compendium to OBM and cultural diversity in order for worker productivity to become reciprocally fashioned across the workplace.

Due to the trauma of the global recession, there is a need to move away from predominantly negative theories of organizational behavior to positively oriented ones that focus on developing psychological capital to achieve employees' full potential. Many organizations look to rebuild organizational life and "positivity" generally, "positive psychology interventions" specifically have much to offer that is needed. So, organizational coaching is discussed as a positive intervention, triggering improved workplace performance based on a case study in this chapter. The main data for the analysis comes from 10 in-depth interviews with coaches and coachees from a leading company in Turkey, in which an integrative coaching system is in place. The analysis revealed that coaching has positive individual and organizational level effects and channel people's psychological capacities toward achieving self-awareness, self-development, increase in positivity, and result in improved performance. The characteristics, enablers, and challenges of an ideal coaching system were also explored.

Although there are remarkable researches from different fields, little research has focused on how mindfulness relates to work-related outcomes. Since it is a new concept in an organizational context, there is a need for more studies to clarify the conceptualization and measurement of mindfulness and enhance the understanding of its relationships with related work-outcomes. This present study provides a detailed review of published studies that have defined and measure mindfulness in the work context and examined the relationship between mindfulness and possible work-related outcomes such as performance and wellbeing. As well as work-related outcomes, mediator and moderator variables were taken into consideration to enhance understanding of how mindfulness affects each outcome.

Effecting mental processes and shaping individual frameworks in perceiving present situation, mindfulness is a processes-oriented state of mind that can be considered as the capacity to be in the present moment in a nonjudgmental way. That is to say, it is a state of not being obsessed with preconceived assumptions, past experiences, and current anxieties. With the help of mindfulness, individuals learn how to direct and hold the focus of their attention internally without being "captured" by any present events, thoughts, and experiences. Although mindfulness is beneficial in many managerial areas, in this chapter, specifically, the effects of mindfulness in executive coaching—a unique kind of intervention that encompasses practical and goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and tries to result in meaningful behavioral change in the executive—will be discussed in detail.

the study, the presence of low and moderate levels of significant relationships were found between all the variables. Moreover, as a result of the mediation tests that were conducted, the effect of happiness at work on OCB was observed to be mediated by intrinsic motivation. Psychological resilience was found not to have any role in this interaction.

The performance of employees defines the competitive advantage of the company in current ferocious competition, and it affects the long-standing growth of the company. If a company inspires its workforce merely by the means of financial contract, then the company will not be in the position to gain the effective and efficient performances from its employees. Because apart from this financial contract, psychological contract also upsets attitudes and performance of the employees at the workplace. The spirit of the firms is the employees, and the implementation of the psychological contract can effectually decrease the turnover rate of employees and consequently increase their efficiency at the workplace. In the current chapter, first of all an attempt has been made to elucidate the concept and development process of psychological contract. After that it is endeavored to highlight the positive impact of psychological contract on employees' performances such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, organization citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions.

Positive psychology emphasizes on what is right in the individuals instead of what is wrong and focuses on the ways with which a happy life can be lived. Positive organizational behavior, on the other hand, is the reflection of positive psychology in organizations and works on powers and mental capabilities of quantifiable, efficiently manageable, and improvable human resources. However, growing in parallel with the widespread expansion of neo-liberal understanding of economics, insecure jobs, chore works, intensely repressive and overwhelming management practices, and practices that have even led people to commit suicide as an escape option, discourage and impede the development of a positive organizational climate. In this study, striking examples of these hurtful practices were provided, and by emphasizing the characteristics only human beings can have, an attempt was made at drawing the attention to the fact that an organization can't be won—or rather, nothing can be gained in the medium and long term—without winning the people first.

This chapter embarks from the increasing number of disabled individuals in private companies and public institutions and examines the working conditions of disabled employees in these organizations. Although this case is relevant to a considerable number of international contexts, the author focuses on Turkey as a case, illustrative of countries going through similar processes. The author starts by providing an introduction followed by literature on organizational culture. Next, the author discusses the recent

a sense of belonging, all of which will occur in the organization as well as the numeric outputs of the organization. Although the concepts of conflict, personality, and leadership are often dealt with in the literature, there are few studies examining the relationship between a leader's personality traits and conflict resolution. At such an important point, the possible effects of the personality of the leader should be discussed both theoretically and empirically.

The aim of the study is to evaluate the customer expectations and workplace efficiency of tourism industry in the competitive market environment. For this purpose, house of quality is applied to measure the relative importance of the customer expectations and to rank the workplace efficiency based on customer needs using the fuzzy systems. A set of criteria for the customer expectations and workplace efficiency is defined with the supported literature to weight and rank the factors. Fuzzy DEMATEL is applied for weighting the criteria and fuzzy VIKOR is used for ranking the technical factors of competitive tourism industry. The findings show that tourism companies should mainly focus on designing services for the customers to use easily. In this context, website of the tourism companies should be redeveloped so that the users should understand all details regarding the tourism companies much easily. In addition, technological competency should be provided by the tourism companies to increase their competitive power.

Psychological capital is a concept that is mentioned together with positive organizational behavior and has become more widespread recently. Psychological capital, which evaluates people positively, focuses on the personal characteristics and tendencies of individuals. The main purpose of psychological capital is to ensure that individuals' psychologies are better. The aim of this study is to investigate the psychological capital levels of certified public accountants. Psychological capital levels of certified public accountants are important because the working conditions are intense and difficult, and they have a stressful life. In line with the purpose of the study, a survey was conducted for 294 certified public accountants. The results of the survey conducted on the optimism, resiliency, hope, and self-efficacy levels of the certified public accountants were investigated.

This study aims to analyze customer expectations in European retail banking industry. For this purpose, five different criteria are identified. Furthermore, IT2 FDEMATEL approach is used to weight these criteria. In addition, three different factors are also defined which have a negative influence on customer satisfaction. In this context, IT2 FQUALIFLEX approach is used to rank these three alternatives. In this process, Kano model-based evaluation factors are converted into the fuzzy numbers. The findings show that the most important problem to be solved to ensure customer expectations and satisfaction is the communication problems. Therefore, European retail banks should firstly focus on solving this problem to meet customer expectations and provide customer satisfaction. These banks should employ the necessary number of personnel to provide services in different channels, such as social media, mobile banking, telebanking. Moreover, these personnel should also be trained effectively to increase the quality of communication.

Foreword

I have been making researches related to organizational behavior and organizational theory for many years. In this process, I earned the opportunity of evaluating many different perspectives in these topics. Most of these studies in organizational behavior had a limited focus in understanding individual and group behavior in organizational settings. However, in 21st century, owing to fierce competition and ever-increasing demands of competitive markets search for more competitive and more efficient organizations increased. Being obsessed with efficiency and productivity, most of these perspectives embrace a classical approach in figuring out human behavior at workplace. This creates the impression that there is need for a new study which evaluates human behavior in organizations with a framework.

This book certainly satisfies this need of the literature due to many different reasons. First of all, it focuses on individuals in organizations with a more humane approach. Therefore, it is obvious that this book can provide a more human-focused view of efficiency and performance. Moreover, with a positive organizational behavior point of view, this book embraces a comprehensive understanding of efficiency and human behavior in organizations. Another important advantage is that, different from other related books on positive organizational behavior and positive psychology, this book tries to support conceptual assumptions of positive organizational behavior with actual empirical data and analysis. Moreover, it also tries to explain effects of positive organizational behavior in many areas in organizations that vary from leadership to performance management contributing to higher performance.

While considering the aspects emphasized above, it is believed that this book has a significant contribution to the literature. In other words, many different academicians in various subjects can find an important point which improve their studies. On the other hand, the results and recommendations of this book can also provide significant perspectives to the top managers in this area. With the help of these issues, they can develop many different strategies in order to improve their companies.

I would like to firstly congratulate the editor Dr. Elif Baykal for creating a book of this quality. In addition, I would also like to congratulate all chapter authors who contributed to the formation of the book. I hope that the readers of this book both enjoy and benefit from this book.

Nihat Alayoğlu
İstanbul Medipol University, Turkey

Preface

The positive psychology movement was born as a reaction to a negative and pathology-centered assessment of human nature and behavior. In general, there are many valid reasons why psychology focuses on negativity. However, the main reason why psychology has focused on negativity, especially in the last 56 years, is the social events that took place during this period and the utilitarian attitudes towards such events. The lack of emphasis in psychology on the strengths and positive characteristics of people that make life meaningful and livable has strengthened the need for positive psychology.

Positive psychology is not only an area of interest in diseases or health, but also a branch that deals with every aspect of life, such as work, education, love, development, and the best way of life. It is based on scientific methods, not on temporary fashions or illusions, and tries to solve the complexity of human behavior. The baseline of this approach is not treatment but prevention. The most important proposition of positive psychology is that human well-being and perfection are as normal, natural and real as diseases, disorders and disorders. In fact, positive psychology has seen people as potential individuals who have the potential to manage distressed, hopeless, unhelpful situations with choices and choices, and to be productive even in these situations, rather than as a passive organism that reacts to impact.

Today, positive psychology is used as an umbrella concept to cover all the positive topics in the field of psychology and includes all the studies and researches on the strengths, values, achievements, progress and development, flexibility and optimum activity of the individuals. Similarly, positive organization school is the product of an approach that tends to resolve negativity in the field of organization; focuses on the progress of individuals, work groups and teams at the organizational level, the development of strengths and the creation of productive dynamics in organizations. The school in question does not represent a single theory. It is an umbrella field of study on numerous concepts and theories examining dynamics including many positive concepts such as excellence, success, development, progress, flexibility virtue. It is a field of research that categorizes previous positive studies in the field of organization and provides a framework for creating mechanisms that produce positivity in individuals, groups, communities and organizations. The idea that identifying factors that create positive behavior in the work environment will lead organizations to more successful points is the baseline of positive organizational behavior. The main purpose of the school is understanding the positive states of individuals, communities, organizations and interactions among them and revealing the positive states, processes and interactions that previous theories have overlooked.

The main purpose of this book is clarifying the significance of positive organizational behavior in organizations. While making analysis for different concepts related to positive organizational behavior, such as positive leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, resilience, mindfulness we tired to make qualified recommendations for the companies to increase their positivity which can lead to higher performance. Therefore, it can be said that this project makes a significant contribution to the literature by focusing on an important topic for the companies.

Target Audience and potential users of this book are defined below.

- Researchers
- Academicians
- Policy Makers
- Upright Students in the concerned fields
- Top managers of the companies

This book consists of 20 chapters. In Chapter 1, it is aimed to summarize the evolutionary process of organizational development by analyzing the differences and historical processes of organizational development interventions in order to present a comprehensive map to today's business world and academia. Chapter 2 synthesizes best practice principles of organizational behavioral analysis (OBM) interwoven within a cultural diversity framework with the Functional Systems Logic so as to enhance workplace management and productivity. Additionally, this chapter elucidates the conceptual framework of positive psychology as a compendium to OBM and cultural diversity in order for worker productivity to become reciprocally fashioned across the workplace; careful to reach diverse members. Chapter 3 chapter consists of seven different sections explaining the effects of coaching in boosting positivity and performance. In the first section, a general evaluation and the aim of the chapter is given. In the background section, the emergence of positive psychology and its reflections on the organizations, and the link between positivity and coaching is shared to point out why coaching can be considered as a positive organizational intervention. Then the history, concept and forms of coaching are presented. The studies in Turkish context are examined to emphasize the lack of studies on organizational coaching in the last part of the background section. In the third section, details regarding the methodology is given. In the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh sections; findings and discussions, practice implications, future research directions and conclusion parts are shared, respectively. Similarly, Chapter 4 provides a detailed review of published studies that have defined and measure mindfulness in the work context and examined the relationship between mindfulness and possible work-related outcomes such as performance and well-being. As well as work-related outcomes, mediator and moderator variables were taken into consideration to enhance understanding of how mindfulness affects each outcome. In Chapter 5 effects of mindfulness in executive coaching- a unique kind of intervention that encompasses practical and goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and tries to result in meaningful behavioral change in the executive- will be discussed in details.

On the one hand, Chapter 6 presents a holistic picture of what has been achieved so far and what needs to be done in the future, in terms of conceptualization of servant leadership and its application within organizational structures. Moreover, in Chapter 7 it is intended to analyze the relationship between servant leadership and work-related quality of life. It is also tried to find out the mediating impact of trust in leader in this relationship. Findings show that trust in leader has a mediator role in the relationship between servant leadership and work-related quality of life. Chapter 8 also discussed how transformational leadership and authentic leadership theories might help to enhance positive psychological abilities and positive attitudes of both leaders and their followers, and how these leadership theories would contribute to the development of the management-training programs.

Furthermore, Chapter 9 introduces a study that examines organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as voluntary acts with potential to support or limit innovation development processes such as idea generation, transformation and knowledge sharing. Additionally, Chapter 10 aimed to investigate the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment and, the mediating role of leader-member exchange in Turkey's cultural context.

In Chapter 11 effects of happiness on organizational citizenship behavior examined. And the mediator effects of resilience and intrinsic motivation has been elaborated. In Chapter 12, first of all an attempt has been made to elucidate the concept and development process of psychological Contract. After that, it is endeavored to highlight the positive impact of psychological contract on employees'' performances such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance, Organization Citizenship Behavior, Turnover Intentions.

In Chapter 13, striking examples of negative organizational practices were provided, and by emphasizing the characteristics only human beings can have, an attempt was made at drawing the attention to the fact that an organization can't be won -or rather, nothing can be gained in the medium and long term- without winning the people first. On the one hand, Chapter 14 focuses on working conditions of disabled workers with a POB approach. The chapter assumes that organizations can enhance performance of everyone by creating an inclusive culture surrounded by elements involving positive attitudes, equity, equality and beliefs of productivity.

On the one hand, Chapter 15 focuses keenly on the various domains centering round human resource management. Initially a detailed theoretical background regarding this construct has been presented followed by highlighting the components and objectives of strategizing human resource management. In Chapter 16 knowledge, knowledge types, individual learning, organizational learning, levels of learning and learning organization concepts are covered. And, different models for realizing the learning organization structure are narrated. Chapter 17 aimed to discuss the impact of the personality characteristics of a leader on the choice of conflict resolution styles as well as draw attention to the effect of a leader's conflict resolution style on the positive organizational climate to be established in an organization. Furthermore, Chapter 18 focuses on the concept of psychological capital one of the most important constructs created by positive organizational behavior scholars. Lastly, Chapter 20 aims to analyze customer expectations in European retail banking industry with a POB approach.

Without doubt, the main difference of this book is the fact that it attempts to explain a wide range of positive organizational behavior concepts with the help of empirical researches. It is also noteworthy that this is an inclusive book containing examples of the use of positive psychology and positive organizational mindset in a myriad of managerial areas. Moreover, the book has a multidisciplinary approach that tries to explain positive organizational behavior concepts with the help of other disciplines including management, psychology, human resources and even finance. Therefore, it is believed that this book makes an important contribution to the literature and attracts the attentions of industry experts.

Acknowledgment

As the editor of this book, I would like to acknowledge the help of all the people involved in this project and, more specifically, to the reviewers that took part in the review process. Without their support, this book would not have become a reality.

First, the editor would like to thank each one of the authors for their contributions. My sincere gratitude goes to the chapter's authors who contributed their time and expertise to this book.

Second, I want to acknowledge the valuable contributions of the reviewers regarding the improvement of quality, coherence, and content presentation of chapters.

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Chapter 1
The Evolution of Organizational Development Towards a Positive Approach

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ABSTRACT

Organizations should be able to cope with uncertainty and also adapt to technological, economic, political, and cultural changes in order to maintain their existence and to provide negative entropy. The main reason for organizational development is to help organizations respond to the new work life conditions. From a classical management approach to today's positive organization approach, numerous studies indicate that organizational development that ensures managers and employees perform their tasks more effectively is not an option; rather, it is a necessity for organizations. Organizational development predominantly provides the necessary atmosphere for conflict management, problem solving, and effective communication. Organizational development provides for anticipation of the organization and effective adaptation. This also makes organizational success possible by increasing the individual development and performance of employees.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational development (OD) interventions are affected by a series of theoretical approaches. One of the main approaches that guide the practices related to OD is the bureaucracity approach of Weber, known as the classical period theorists, emphasizing the organization of fair and rational rules and ensuring the chain of command. Afterwards the contingency approach can be listed as a contribution to the nonexistence of "a single correct" organizational structure and Lawrance and Lorsch's view on differentiation and integration. Another striking study is Zimbardo's test at Standford University in 1971 (an experiment that is not approved by the ethics committee of any university at this time) showing that people's behavior and behavior in an organization are decisive rather than their personalities. Also, motivation theories, especially Maslow, provide an important infrastructure for OD (Tosey, 2017).

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Additionally, the leading thinkers of organizations who are McGregor, Mayo, Argyris and Bennis multiple contributions and differentiations are summarized in Pietersen's study. According to this study, the main focus of Argyris's work is the individual well-being of the employees. Additionally, he defined McGregor as an action-oriented management theorist and mentioned his contributions as assumptions and values of human nature in parallel with the work of Argyris. Bennis convinced both managers and government leaders that organizational change is not a desire, but a necessity. And Mayo, whose works are in the focus of large scale but received long-standing methodological criticism, remembered the importance of socio-psychological factors. In summary of Pietersen, Mayo is a 'reform management researcher', McGregor a 'reform management theorist', Argyris a 'reform management consultant and therapist' and Bennis a 'fervent management reformer' (Pietersen, 2016).

The most popular work in the first evolution of OD is the Hawthorne research conducted by Mayo and his colleagues. The main finding of this widely known study is that the productivity of employees is influenced by social and human factors rather than monetary and business conditions (Tosey, 2017).

The researchers concluded that the increase in output was partly due to such experimental setups and experimenters. In the initial tests, some workers were defensive or skeptical, and therefore limited their production, while others were over-motivated to cooperate and increased their production. When planning the next tests, the researchers wanted to establish a relationship with the participants in order to enable them to carry out their work at a 'natural pace'. At the end of the study, however, the researchers had come to the conclusion that there could be involuntary manipulations causing the subjects to develop their overall productivity, giving birth to what was called the Hawthorne effect. The term Hawthorne effect was first introduced by French in 1953 and according to him the most interesting finding was only a significant increase in the production of private social status and social treatment (Wickström & Bendix, 2000). Although the Hawthorne effect is speculative, it has maintained its importance for many years in areas such as organizational psychology and sociology of the organization (Gillespie, 1993), the beginning of which has been many questions that need to be answered in the organizational field.

As a result of the mentioned (and also non-mentioned studies) organization development activities started in the 1960s, after which The American Education and Development Association opened the Department of Organizational Development in 1968. Following, Pepperdine University's first master's program, Case Western Reserve University's first doctoral program OD started to announce it as a scientific discipline that resulted in the teaching of leading figures such as Shein, Bennis and Argyris. (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

This paper is a review of OD literature focused on interventions and development in the historical process. Overall during the last century the concept has become very popular and essential for organizations. All interventions have some strengths and weaknesses and also contribute to new perspectives. In recent years books and journals have discussed the issue but few argue the causality from start to finish. For his purpose the chapter is designed to (1) summarize and explain the most known OD interventions (2) understand the difference between the interventions (3) to provide clues to practitioners in which conditions intervention is more effective.

CONCEPTUAL CONTEXT: THE ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Classical period definitions related to OD have primarily focused on the concepts of change and improvement. Warner Burke (1997) described OD as the process of planned change in organizational culture through the use of technology, research and theories of behavioral science. According to Michael Beer, OD increase the harmony between organizational structure, processes, strategy, working conditions and culture in order to develop new and creative organizational solutions and to improve the capacity for renewal of the organization (Beer, 1980). According to another definition, organization development is a total improvement system for the organization and everything around it (Cummings & Worley, 2014). Wendell L. French one of the writers of the first important work on OD, defined it as "a long range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal processes particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavior science, including action research" (1978, p. 14).

Common features of OD can be emphasized as the following (Cummings & Worley, 2009):

- OD is applied to the system as a whole; that is to the organization, to a single factory, to the department or to the working group. Other approaches' attention has been reduced to individuals, to a single product or to certain processes such as training, development or technological innovations.
- OD is based on behavior science knowledge and practices. This includes micro concepts such as leadership, group dynamics, business designs, and macro approaches such as strategy, organization design, and international relations. The behavioral science approach changes the fate of the organization by changing what people accept.
- OD concerns planned changes, but this is not a formal or; typical business planning, or even a technological invention. OD is a process of adaptation in order to plan and implement change rather than a detailed design, including how jobs should be done. This process involves planning and diagnosing organizational problems, where the plans are flexible, and the change is revised as new information on program developments that might come.
- OD involves the creation and later strengthening of change. It creates the first forces for the implementation of the exchange program within the organization and ensures that activities are stable and institutional in the long term.
- When the OD surrounds the strategy, structure and process changes, different programs can focus on one or more types of change.
- OD includes 2 approaches in order to improve the efficiency of the organization. (a) An active organization that can solve their own problems and; focus their attention and resources on succeeding in key objectives. OD also helps organizations to acquire the skills and knowledge they need to carry out these activities and manage them. (b) An effective organization has high performance, high efficiency, continuous improvement and a high-quality working life, including quality products and services. Organizational performance also involves responding to external group needs (shareholders, customers, suppliers, government).

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP LEVEL INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Related studies define many individual intervention techniques such as behavior modification, transactional analysis, laboratory training, process consultation etc. As well, team level interventions such as team building and third-party interventions. In this study, the most widely used and in the historical process the most influential interventions will be included. The general purpose of these interventions is focused on developing the capabilities and capacities of their members to fulfill the objectives of the organization (Dinçer, 2013).

Laboratory Training

Laboratory training is learning the interaction and developmental dynamics of participants in non-structural small groups, such as personal relationships, staff development, leadership and group dynamics. And in fact, laboratory training was first conducted in 1946 by Kurt Lewin at the MIT group dynamics research center (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

Although some researchers, such as Lee (2001), differentiate between T group related to National Education Laboratories and sensitivity education associated with Western Education Laboratories, there is no discernible difference between these training laboratories in practice (Highhouse, 2002). The concepts of trainings and T groups are considered identical in this study.

As studies and practices in this area began to become widespread, many researchers, particularly the studies of Blake & Mouton (1964, 1968), began to establish systematic theories that influenced organizational results (Buchanan, 1969). Thus, it became an important milestone in literature.

While the first use of OD to protect working teams, it was not used as widely for team building. T groups, one of the forms of education, is commonly used for personal development in an OD practice. It is usually conducted in the form of unplanned and unspecified guidance, with 10 to 12 people and an expert. Group interviews can last from 3 days to two weeks, with the main learning tool consisting of group experiences where the subject is focused on the purpose of creating a habitable society within the interaction of group members. Although it is applied in many different ways, the most commonly used form is 'stranger T-groups'. Generally, it is applied for 30-36 participants from many different organizations and usually accompanied by 3 trainers (French, 1995).

The objectives of the T-groups are described by Benne et al. (1964; cited in French and Cecil, 1995) as the following;

- Increasing awareness and sensitivity to emotional reactions and expressions towards oneself and others.
- Helping members understand the consequences of their behaviors using the feedback of their own and others' emotions.
- Creating personal values and goals in accordance with democratic and scientific understanding in problems, individual decisions and activities.
- A further objective is to develop a conceptual and theoretical understanding to mediate personal values, goals and behaviors related to internal factors and requirements.
- In addition, all laboratory programs aim to achieve the behavioral effectiveness around people.

Some of the researchers criticized T groups about having no scientific basis (e.g. Campbell & Dunnette, 1968). However, T groups are at least an education that can ensure the transfer of learning to work and increase the satisfaction level of the employee. It appears to be a very controversial subject in the development of the organization and seems to be studied for many years (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

Action Research and Survey Feedback

Other developments contributing to OD are action research and survey feedback. Survey research and feedback are customized forms of action research. The key component of action research is the systematic collection of survey data (Rothwell & Sullivan, 2005).

Action research began with applied studies by John Collier, Lewin and his co-workers, William Whyte, and Edith Hamilton. Results showed that research can be effective in organizational improvement activities if there is a parallel between studies and actions (Mahapatra, Pantula and Murthy, 2008; Mehta, 2009).

For this purpose, the joint efforts of the members of the organization and social scientists helped in collecting data about the functions of the organization, at which point analysis was made, and solutions were developed in order to find out the causes of the problems. Then, re-analysis was conducted to test the operability of the solutions. The circle of ‘problem detection - analysis - solution – analysis’ which makes data collection and action continuous has become a cycle. This process has been beneficial both for practitioners to develop scientific based solutions and to enable researchers to acquire new information on the subject (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

After the death of Lewin in 1947, the MIT Group Dynamics Research Center moved to Michigan and merged with the Survey Research Center to become a part of the Social Research Institute. Rensis Likert, who had a scientific approach to attitude measurements, was appointed as the head of the institute. The first work of the institute was the Likert and Mann’s study that measure the attitudes of management and employees in Detroit Edison. According to the results of this study, Likert and Mann have made important findings such as data collection templates, data feedback, action planning, implementation and data collection monitoring (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Quality of Work Life

The work of Eric Trist and his co-workers in the 1950s was the beginning of the socio-technical system theory, based on the human and technical consequences of the work, and the first steps of Quality of Work Life (QWL). After the increasing demand for civil rights and social responsibility in the 1960s including; legal practices (1963-fair labor standards law), successive academic studies, and firm practices, OWL ultimately became a very popular topic in the early 1970s. QWL expression was used to emphasize the low quality in business life, and employee participation was a continuation of the QWL movement. In the last 30 years, practices have focused on employee participation (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Goodman stated that the key components of QWL are the restructuring of multiple dimensions of the organization, and the creation of a mechanism to demonstrate and support change over time (French, 1995). QWL has focused on work arrangements to meet individual outcomes such as job satisfaction and mental health (Rose, 2006). Therefore, it developed and renewed the reward systems, workflows, management style, physical working conditions, and working conditions which affect the employee’s efficiency and satisfaction (Saraji, 2006).

Walton’s (1980) famous criteria for work arrangements are listed below (Akt. Rose, 2006):

- **Adequate and fair compensation:** Are sufficient payments made to maintain an acceptable standard of living, especially when compared to other jobs?
- **Safe and healthy working conditions:** How is the physical and mental working environment? Are physical conditions dangerous? How do conditions affect the health and comfort of employees?

- **Immediate opportunities to use and development human capacities:** How long does the work allow the employee to increase his / her skills and knowledge? How significant and important is the work done?
- **Opportunity for continued growth and security:** How can the acquired knowledge and skills be used in the future? What are the prospects for potential and future career development?
- **Social integration in the work organization:** Are there opportunities to communicate with others? Are there prejudices? Is there interpersonal openness and communication or equal opportunities?
- **Constitutionalism in the work organization:** What are the rights of the employees and how are they protected? How much respect is shown to employees? Can employees express their ideas honestly?
- **Work and total life space:** Is there a balance between work and outside work? Is there excessive stress? Does the business or company cause the employee to be sad or depressed?
- **Social relevance or work life:** Does the employee think that the organization acts in accordance with social responsibilities in terms of the waste generated in its products, in marketing activities, or in other activities?

After determining these criteria, QWL began to be perceived as an approach or method such as business enrichment, self-managed teams, workforce management committees, and certain techniques used for business development. However, in the mid-1970s when inflation and energy costs came to the fore, QWL's popularity in the first stage disappeared. Its popularity from 1979 has been the result of growing international competition. There are various practices and written works on this subject, for example, Ouchi's theory of Z is one of the best known. The second rise of QWL has emerged as more workers' participate (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Participation of employees is the efforts of the employee to develop into the shared vision and goals from the traditional culture, all of which he expresses as 'I am only working here, I am not the one who rules'. Volunteerism is the most important element in the participation of employees and there are four elements that support the participation of employees: power, information, knowledge and skills acquisition, and reward. These four elements should change at the same time, for instance if you give someone power and authority, you should also inform and include them in training programs (Harvey and Brown, 1996).

Finally, Deming, Juran and Crosby have achieved the final speed of efficiency about QWL with total quality movements. TQM is the newer and perhaps most comprehensive approach to system change. The quality concept is a long-term effort that affects all activities around the organization. Total quality is ensured when the reliability of the product or service production processes meet or exceed the expectations of the customer. The participation of members in the change process has led to TQM becoming a part of the organizational culture, especially in the 1990s (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Process Consultation

Schein (1999) describes the process consultancy as consulting activities that help the company to sense, understand and do what is necessary in the business environment. With this understanding, process consultants play the role of a real consultant who wants to teach how to fish from the role of a trade man who wants to continuously sell fish (Ceylan & Ağaoğlu, 2010).

An important aspect of the consultation process is to help the manager first define what the problem is and then decide what kind of assistance is needed. The process consultant tries to give an understanding of what is going on in the company, among the environment, and among others in the environment. First, human actions and interpersonal processes, which are seen in different forms in the organization need to be observed and learned. The better the process is to be understood and identified, the greater the possibility of finding solutions to technical problems. Process consulting gives importance to common diagnosis. The consultant acts on the assumption of teaching the business to diagnose the problems and thus acts on the assumption that future problems can be solved by the enterprise. So, when new problems occur, the business will be able to solve problems with new skills gained without consulting. The process consultant is an expert in the development of assistive relations and does not need to be an expert in production, marketing and finance. In these areas, it helps to find expert resources in these areas when it is necessary to solve the problems and teach companies how to benefit from experts in this field. (Cummings, 215).

Schein (1999) has identified 10 principles to assist Process Advisors in their relations;

- The goal is to help and support, making it feel very beneficial for mutual learning.
- Authority should be careful not to forget the reality of institutions.
- As an outsider it should always be assumed that there is a lack of information.
- It should not be forgotten that everything that is done is an intervention, so every action has a result.
- Both the problem and the solution belong to the client, and the task of the consultant is to support them instead of owning them.
- Since the owners of the institution dominate the flow of the institution, consultant processes must be adapted to the flow.
- Timing is very important.
- It is essential to be constructive, to evaluate opportunities and to work with confrontational interventions.
- Every situation and every case in the organization should be seen as a data source.
- It is essential that decisions are taken together so that it is possible to deal with the phases that are not solved.

While process consulting and action research have some similarities, there are significant differences between these two applications. The principal task of the consultant is to help relevant people in the institution during the diagnosis and support process, while the action researcher tries to find out what changes the organization should make in order to be more successful. When Shein first formulated the concept of process consulting and called it a ‘clinical’ model rather than a ‘expert’ or ‘doctor’, his main emphasis was on the needs of clients. So, the main emphasis is the researcher’s involvement in the client’s issue rather than involving the client in the researcher’s issue (Schein, 1995). That is, while the subject is an ‘institution official’ in process consultancy, the subject is a ‘researcher’ in action research.

Third-Party Interventions

Conflicts are neither good nor bad. Sometimes it enhances creativity and motivation; but also provides a better understanding of ideas. Conflicts can sometimes be solved on their own without any intervention, but sometimes interfere with the interoperability of people and the relationships necessary for the work. If there is a negative return, intervention in the conflict should occur (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Conflict management is a series of actions and counter-actions by the parties in the conflict by a third party to direct the conflict in a particular direction (Karip, 2000).

Lewicki, Weiss and Lewin (1992) state that there are six main approaches about conflict. Three of these approaches have academic background, while the other three approaches have more specific field applications. These approaches have psychological, sociological and economic origins, and according to the authors, there has been a significant cross-over between these six approaches. The authors are also affected by two or more of these approaches of social psychology and organizational behavior. In order to make it convenient, it has been limited by three approaches as micro-level conflict, negotiation and third party in their related studies.

While earlier approaches focused on the style and effectiveness of third-party intervention, such as arbitration, mediation and process consultation (Kagel, 1961, Stevens, 1963, Walton, 1969), third-party intervention in more contemporary approaches focused on the causes and dynamics of the conflict (Sheppard, 1984, cited in Lewicki, Weiss and Lewin, 1992). Fisher and Keashley (1991) mention the importance of conflict at the initial stage of conflict. Advisory meetings or consultation sessions to strengthen inter-party relations in milder conflicts could be used prior to the negotiation, while in cases of increased violence, the third party recommended power-used mediation should be used.

Third party interventions focus on conflicts between two or more people in the same organization. While consultants are constantly intervening in process consultancy and team building practices, in contrast to others in third-party interventions, consultants help the organization to resolve inter-individual conflicts. The interventions of the third party may vary and also should vary according to the causes of conflict, persons and places. Intervention should focus on the problem and aim to solve the underlying problems (Cummings & Worley, 2009). The third party may have resources such as information and technology that the conflicting parties do not have individually, and they may establish reassurance by reassuring them, despite the problem of prejudice and trust between the parties (Fisher & Keashley, 1991).

Third party interventions may intervene directly or indirectly in the dialogue between the conflicting parties. Direct intervention means that the third party negotiates with both parties before the dialogue, in contrast, indirect intervention contains to bring the conflicting parties to an impartial place and make arrangements such as the duration of the interview (Akçakaya, 2003).

Team Building

According to Buller (1986) team building is a planned intervention facilitated by a third-party consultant who develops a problem-solving capacity and solves the major problems of the parties. In another definition (Woodman and Sherwood, 1980), team building aims to improve team work by increasing role clarity as well as improving problem-solving procedures and skills, thereby increasing organizational effectiveness (Salas et al. 1999).

Team building includes all the techniques of doing business: communication skills, problem-solving skills, and all planned activities to improve team performance (Harvey and Brown, 1996). In addition to these general activities, some are used to solve more particular, specific, and limited problems (such as apathy or general apathy among members, loss of productivity, and low participation in meetings). In addition, team building can be applied to facilitate other OD interventions such as employee participation, business design, restructuring and strategic change (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

In the OD literature, there is no clear distinction between team building and process consultancy. The main reason for this is that many team-building activities involve process consultancy. However, process counseling is a more general approach that involves organizing relationships, and team building is a more specific approach for groups that can better handle their business and effectively resolve their problems involving process consultancy as well as more work-related interventions. Dyer (1977) has prepared a list to determine if there is a need for an organization to incorporate team building and to test whether the organization is ready for such an implementation. In short, if the problem is structural or technical, if there is an inter-group problem or an administrative error, or if there is a conflict between two people, team building is not an appropriate change strategy (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Leading theorists mention four basic tool building models: goal setting, interpersonal relationships, problem solving and role-making. The objective is to determine the goals, and accordingly, to establish individual and team targets. In this way, team members are expected to participate in action planning to determine ways to reach set goals. Interpersonal relationships focus on increased teamwork skills such as support, communication, and sharing of emotions, and team members are expected to develop confidence in each other. Problem solving emphasizes identifying main problems in the team, and team members are expected to take part in action planning to identify, implement and evaluate the solution of problems. Role clarification enables team members to better understand both their own and other members' roles. These models of team building can be found in different degrees depending on the need for any team building intervention (Salas et al., 1999).

ORGANIZATION WIDE INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organizational wide interventions lead to change in all or most of the organization. Survey feedback, System 4 management, and GRID OD are the most known and commonly used intervention techniques. So, the following the interventions are explained briefly.

Organization Confrontation Meeting

Confrontation meetings are the interventions in which all the resources of the organization are mobilized, priorities are determined, and inconveniences are explored to find out the problems of the organization (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Beckhard (1967) who is the researcher that owned the most comprehensive study about the confrontation meeting expressed these interventions as a wide area intervention.

Confrontation meetings are a classic OD intervention in which an OD consultant is entrusted to identify organizational problems and develop the processes needed to overcome discovered problems (Jaeger, 1986). Confrontation meetings consist of a half-day to full-day session with any team, and although it is possible to be applied in any kind of team, it is more effective in communities in which long-standing groups have formed. It is aimed at determining the difficulties faced by the teams rather than the conflict. In confrontation meetings, they discover how effective and healthy they are and try to reconcile the basic issues that cannot be effective (Anderson, 2011).

According to Beckhard, face-to-face meetings are effective when there is a need for the management group to examine their own work, when there is a big change in the organization, when the top management wants to improve the conditions quickly, or when there is a time limit and at the same time the senior management cooperates. At appropriate conditions and constraints, collecting and sharing data with face-to-face meetings instead of time-consuming methods such as collecting questionnaires is an effective alternative solution (Anderson, 2011).

The confrontation meeting is classified as a comprehensive intervention aimed at the entire organization by French and Bell but is based on consecutive group interviews. They follow six stages: climate identification, information gathering, information sharing, prioritization and group action planning, monitoring and evaluation of progress by the upper team. In order for this intervention to be successful, it is necessary to avoid uncertainty because many unpredictable data will be produced in the process (Jaeger, 1986).

System 4 Management

According to the System 4 management approach that is based on administrative and organizational activity the basic element of creating an effective and positive organization is the participative management style. Rensis Likert, who is the developer of system 4 management, defined four levels of the management of organizations according to the level of participation (in their studies 1961 and 1967).

The mentioned four basic forms of management and critical features of them are listed below.

System 1: exploitative authoritative management: All decisions are made at the top, and in general penalties and occasional reward tools are used to motivate employees. Communication is downward, and teamwork is limited. This management style leads to a high turnover rate and low productivity.

System 2: benevolent authoritative management: Contains most of the system 1's properties. While this management style supports downward communication, there is also a slight up-to-top communication within the organization. Although they tend to use more rewards to motivate employees, decisions are still at the top and the turnover rate is high.

System 3: consultative management: There is more bottom-up communication in this management style. Includes more emphasis on rewards than penalties. Although key decisions are made at the top, employees can influence decision-making processes. Productivity tends to be good under this management system, and turnover rate is moderate.

System 4: participative management: The approach of System 4, which Likert describes as the ideal management, employees play an active role in decision-making and participation in working groups ensure both satisfaction and work performance. Rewards are systematic, and communication is open at all levels. According to Likert, this system provides high efficiency, low absenteeism, and turnover rate. (Anderson, 2011).

System 4 managers have an understanding in which they trust their subordinates in every respect and give them the same confidence. System 4 managers value the views of their subordinates and take actions to effectively implement their ideas and provide feedback on their efforts. Characteristically, this management style considers subordinates and itself parts of a whole, supporting multifaceted communication and encouraging decision-making and even rewarding the ideas, efforts, and achievements that contribute to high performance (Sapru, 2013).

System 4 management interventions contain four main phrases. In the first phase the identification of the dynamics of the organization is necessary in order to reach the information about existing and ideal management system of the organization. In the following phrase, the data are collected by the survey method and the feedback about the results of the questionnaire given to the members of the organization. The feedback is useful for determining discrepancies between the existing and the ideal, and then the related persons create action plans to correct them (Anderson, 2011).

The improvement cycle proposed by Likert in order to increase organizational efficiency and improve the management style to system 4 includes the following stages (Sapru, 2013).

1. Instead of trying to change motivation and control with direct interventions, it will provide permanent and realistic solutions to try to change characteristics such as leadership and structural features. Because, when the reasons change, the results will change.
2. In order to prevent both the leaders and members of the organization from experiencing problems with interaction and adaptation, a gradual transition from System 1 to System 4 should be made.
3. When planning the action to be taken, all persons affected by all steps of the recovery cycle must be involved. It is important everyone's adaptation to the process for the success of the intervention.
4. In the action planning process, objective, non-personal evidence should be cited as much as possible.
5. It should be ensured that those who are in the strongest and most effective positions in the improvement program have active participation and take initiative in the process.
6. Action planning should be carried out in a supportive and helpful atmosphere.

In addition, Likert foresees that system 4 will not be adequate for efficiency now and efficiency in the future, and he defined a management system called System 5 where the authority and hierarchy are completely eliminated. Accordingly, authorities of the employee will only originate from their critical role and the way they affect the group they are related to (Sapru, 2013).

GRID Organization Development

Blake and Mouton's GRID theory (see the work in 1964 and 1969) is the most structured intervention of OD. GRID OD refers to the best single way of managing the entire organization, so it is completely the opposite of the modern theory of probability that, states the goals of managerial activities vary according to organizational reasons (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

GRID OD intervention ensures both individuals and groups understand their behaviors and the areas that need to be corrected by using certain diagnostic methods (Anderson, 2011). It was created based on corporate expertise and it states that planning and communication are the two most important criteria to be specialized. Planning is a symptom of a deeper problem, such as the lack of organizational strategy or a false logic. The main aim of Gird OD is to optimize planning by developing strategies for organizational expertise. Communication, however, is seen as a symptom of an underlying cause of the lack of knowledge within human behavior theories. The second objective of GRID theory is to provide necessary information for the effective management of communication in business (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Blake and Mouton have developed a Leadership GRID to enable them to understand and change their management style (Cummings & Worley, 2009). With the Leadership GRID, they define managers in two dimensions by focusing on people or results. 81 combinations are possible, with low emphasis-1, high emphasis-9 and a focus on the 5 basic management styles. They state that the most effective is the 9.9-management style that focuses on both the results and the individuals (Anderson, 2011).

The GRID OD is a process consisting of 6 stages which can last from 5 to 10 years (Anderson, 2011). The following stages are summarized (French and Cecil, 1995; Harvey and Brown, 1996).

1. **GRID Seminars:** In the GRID OD applications, all managers in the business practice management style, problem solving, criticism, communication styles etc. The aim of the stage is to provide learning about 9.9 managers.
2. **Developing Team Work:** The aim is that working teams learn how to manage their culture and how they will work in this environment. At this stage, the goal is to make team work perfect.
3. **Developing Intergroup Relations:** The focus of this phase is to develop the ideal model of intergroup relations rather than inefficient ways such as win-lose.
4. **Developing an Ideal Strategic Model:** The aim of this stage is to gain corporate logic and to make strategic corporate planning in order to achieve institutional expertise.
5. **Applying the Ideal Strategic Model:** The organization is re-organized towards transforming into the ideal strategic model. The components of institutionalization such as profit centers, geographic locations and product lines are indicated. It is the planning team that makes implementation of every ideal strategic model.
6. **Systematic Criticism:** At this stage the necessary measurements from the 1st stage to the 5th stage of GRID OD are made. What has been accomplished, what obstacles still exist, and what new opportunities have emerged. Stage 6 is the first stage of the new intervention until it reaches the required level.

Although there are few empirical findings (such as the findings of a study by Blake, Mouton, Barnes and Greiner in 1964) GRID OD programs have positive results in practice. Blake et al's (1964) study shows that efficiency increased by 30% compared to 3-year data and costs decreased by 14%. Management capabilities reported a 12% improvement by employees. In addition to increasing the effectiveness of management and team, GRID OD contributes greatly to increased organizational effectiveness as a whole (Harvey and Brown, 1996).

NEW DIRECTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Dialogic Organizational Development

After the 1980s, developments in the concept of OD started to be expressed as Dialogic OD by theorists such as Bushe and Marshak and is seen as a process of creating meaning as a result of dialogues from individual, group and organization level unlike the diagnostic OD which considers the organization as an open system (Bushe and Marshak, 2014).

There are multiple differences between dialogic and diagnostic OD applications. The most important ones are summarized below (Bushe and Marshak, 2015).

1. Diagnostic OD is an objective and scientific method that includes the identification and analysis of existing facts and forces before intervention. Conversely, dialogic OD is a process of social inquiry that creates awareness, knowledge, and new possibilities.
2. Contrary to the application of diagnostic OD to define, plan and manage the implementation of the change known as dissociation-orientation and re-freezing, dialogic OD considers the change to be managed in such a way as to enable all parties involved to make necessary arrangements for stability tht must be taken using common decisions processes.

3. According to the diagnostic OD, the OD counselor is a neutral facilitator who is separate from the system and working on the system. Dialogic OD defines the supervisor as a facilitator (or host) who is part of the system and who acts with it.

Dialogic OD focuses on emergence, narrative and generativity to promote or accelerate change. The emergence creates opportunities for new ideas and actions by breaking up the usual patterns. Narratives and discourses are important to change the stories and symbols that people use to make sense of their experiences. Productivity allows people to see old things in new ways and to take actions that were not previously thought of (Bushe and Marshak, 2016).

The dialogic OD consultant becomes part of the process, shaping the desired ongoing interaction and new stories that will be created within the organization. As a result, the consultant needs to focus on what he does or doesn't do, and how these actions and inertia contribute to organizational meaning. It is not possible to remain outside the system, even if he or she does not intervene; they are still part of the process of creating meaning (Bushe and Marshak, 2015).

The dialogic OD practitioner cares about communication and interactions within the organization both in formal settings and in informal areas (such as lunch) for social structuring and meaning. The OD practitioner considers the language, and at the same time, recognizes accepted and ignored ideas put forth by powerful parties. Interviews with the groups identified at this stage may be beneficial and dialogic OD practitioners can offer suggestions for different language and word images (Shön, 1973 cited in Bushe and Marshak, 2015).

As a result, the dialogic OD process involves three main objectives. The first is to facilitate dialogue interaction by supporting, questioning or influencing dialogue interactions of a person or group. The second is to establish a dialogue structure and process to achieve the purpose of the meeting. And finally, the design and facilitation of strategic processes with dialogue structures and meeting series will reflect situations outside the meeting in order to ensure loyalty to change. (Pearce and Pearce, 2000).

Leadership Development

The results of previous studies indicate that one of the two leaders is unable to meet the objectives of the position (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994). Recently, however, activities to improve leadership skills have increased. For example, a study comparing 1994 and 2014 OD interventions shows that leadership has recently been the top priority (Shull, Church and Burke, 2014).

There is no common definition of leadership development in the literature. The main reason for this is that the subject is a newly studied area. In almost all of the studies on leadership development, this concept is redefined. According to McCauley and his co-workers (1998), leadership development is "expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes".

Developments related to leadership development call attention to 2 key points. First, leadership development activities include those that evaluate a leader's attributes, such as multi-rater feedback, and determine the potential leadership structure for the organization. In this way, leaders' self-awareness and performance improvement support. The second important factor is related to OD itself. OD includes system and culture change that is at the organizational level; however, leadership development is a change at the individual level. Still, this distinction does not mean that leadership development is a different intervention than OD, and even the behaviors and practices for leadership development will lead the organization to the desired change (Burke and Noumair, 2015).

Related articles refer to many features and components for the development of leadership. It is important that interventions are designed in a way to allow realistic and practical development. In addition, focusing on other issues such as effective communication, analytical thinking, result orientation, integrativeness, and overall organizational outcomes will enable interventions to be more efficient (Kirchner and Akdere, 2014).

As summarized by Day (2001), many leadership training types such as 360 degrees feedback, coaching, mentoring, networks, job assignments, and action learning have been defined. An examination of its relevance shows that leadership coaching is an important component in many leadership development strategies. Leadership development coaching is based on the impact of managers on employees. Often seen as time consuming, it can add some difficulties in regards to acceptance by managers. Self-development programs are another component of leadership development. It is based on learning experiences to improve the manager's leadership capacity. The manager selects the necessary skills and methods to improve them. In cases where self-control and awareness are high, this method is successful. Learning with personal experiences is also a commonly seen leadership development component. As a result of the feedback received from the subordinates, it will be possible to provide continuous improvement by analyzing the cases in the past for future actions (Kirchner and Akdere, 2014).

Positive Psychological Development

Positive psychology theorists, unlike the traditional psychology approach, are based on not only correcting the problems and weaknesses but also building and developing strengths (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Positive psychology has emerged as a new point of view regarding the strengths of people, a view which does not contain an optimism that is far from realism (Gable and Haidt, 2005). Positive psychology aims to have a more positive and better quality of life in both the private and work-related lives of people, and most importantly, to build organizations that are aware of them.

There are three main approaches in organizational behavior that reflect positive psychology. These are positive organizational psychology (exp. Martin, 2005), positive organizational scholarship (exp. Cameron and Dutton, 2003), and positive organizational behavior (exp. Luthans, 2002). Among them, the most popular approach is positive organizational behavior and the positive attributes defined by this trend are expressed as positive psychological capital (PsyCap). According to the definition of Luthans and his colleagues who gave the concept to the field, positive psychological capital is "(1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3).

Luthans and coworkers contributed to the literature in a number of ways through a series of studies on this concept. In 2005, they stated that psychological capital was a concept beyond social and human capital in order to achieve a competitive advantage, and in 2007, they introduced the operational definition of the concept to the literature (Zhao and Hou, 2009). In addition to studying the relationship between the concept, the individual and organizational variables, one of the most important contributions of Luthans's studies are that they have determined that PsyCap is measurable, developed and manageable.

However, the dimensions of PsyCap (hope-self efficacy - optimism-resilience) have been studied in the literature as characteristics that can be developed on the basis of individual concepts (Avey, 2006). Leading theorists such as Bandura (1997) - self-efficacy, Snyder (2000) - hope, Masten and Reed (2002)- resilience and Seligman (2011)- optimism made important contributions to the literature about development of the concepts. Luthans and others built the PsyCap development concept and scaled the term based on these contributions.

In the study of Luthans et al. (2006, 2008 and 2010), it has been shown that micro interventions in the optimism, hope, resilience and self-efficacy capacities of the employees increase the whole positive psychological capital levels of the employees. In their first field study, Luthans (2006) conducted the short intervention of positive psychological capital with students as an experimental and control group study. In 2008, they focused on testing the effectiveness of face-to-face and online training. In 2010, they tested the impact of the performance on the feedback received from both the employee and the manager and found a positive effect in both cases. In addition, they looked at the question of whether there is an effect on the outcomes of the training by controlling the order of the treatment and found no difference about order. After these studies, the effects of micro interventions on positive capacities have been statistically significant and the studies carried out by different researchers have continued in subsequent years. Due to the fact that it is an effective, reliable, and time effective method in the literature, it is also a development activity which is respected in terms of low cost and high return in the business world.

According to the directives based on Luthans et al.' studies published in 2006, 2008 and 2010 the intervention in positive psychological capital should contain the following elements (1) First of all it should start with the conceptual expression of PsyCap and the concretization of the participants in the minds by supporting real life case studies. They suggested the use of 'modeling' to support this phase. (2) In the next stage, the trainer continues to support and involve the participants in order to ensure that the participants determine their personal goals and see their applicability. In this way, introspection is also provided. When they start thinking about themselves, when they imagine, they begin to mobilize their capacity for hope and optimism. (3) In addition, it is aimed at increasing the capacity of optimism through the development of hope and self-efficacy by creating a sense of social persuasion and achievement among the participants. In order to manage this, participants should share ideas about others' goals, think about situations that may prevent achievement and determine risks and alternative solutions to reach goals. At this stage, the interaction atmosphere requires that the participants support each other as social figures. (4) The activities aimed at improving the resilience capacity are focused at this stage. Through self-reflection studies, participants try to increase learning about problem solving and conflict management with processes such as sharing and re-interpretation of past experiences. At this stage both the resilience and optimistic capacity are improved. (5) In the final stage of the development program activities aimed at making the achievements practical and permanent are included with the purpose of reflecting these changes in the participants' business lives.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Parallel to the aim of the study, this paper presents a comprehensive understanding about the issue and a holistic approach to the phoneme. When the related literature is examined, it is clear that OD interventions developed with the understanding of classical approaches and new approaches based on contemporary paradigms differ in terms of basic assumptions and methods.

In the classical approach, while determining the organizational reasons of the problems, the development of new organizations also consider the effects of organizational problems on individuals. While the concept of classical OD emphasizes the need to solve the problems with traditional methods of diagnosis and invocation, the new OD emphasizes that there is no such binding and sometimes it can be solved with meaningful dialogues among the members. And according to the classical approach, change is the result of changing behaviors. The new development and management approaches see the source of change as communication (Marshak & Grant, 2008) positivism (see Luthans et al's studies, exp. 2006, 2008 and 2010), and most dominantly leadership (exp. Burke and Noumair, 2015).

However, being an OD consultant does not mean adopting one of them and ignoring others. And even the choices and actions vary considerably between circumstances and people. Eventually, each organization is a separate personality with its unique dynamics. Therefore, the holistic assimilation of these approaches is an important stage for the creation of successful separate prescriptions in each organization.

The main contribution of this study is to provide a holistic approach to methods for developing OD. In addition, the focus was on attracting practitioners' attention, and highlighting the differences in intervention methods and success conditions. Based on this study, there is no best method and the contribution of each is important within favorable conditions.

Above all, it is important to pay particular attention to OD interventions by senior management. It should be seen as investments made for the continuity of the organization rather than a cost item such as monetary and time loss. In addition, measurement and continuity of results related to OD activities are important to maximize the benefits to be achieved. As stated in the OD interventions, the involvement of the relevant parties in the process and full knowledge of the process is a prerequisite for the success of the process.

All OD interventions could not be included in an order to conclude the study in a specific context. Rather, the most common methods are included in the study. In addition, the aforementioned interventions are discussed within a certain limit. In future studies, intervention methods not included in this study can be included in the classifications. The success of OD interventions should be examined in more detail in the context of organizational characteristics. In addition, the comparison of interventions, in terms of factors such as organizational culture and leadership as key variables in the success of OD, may be another important contribution to the literature.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

GRID: A systematic summary of a subject by defining two dimensions as a line and column.

OD: It refers to activities carried out by managers of an organization or by external consultants, to analyze organizational problems or contribute to change or improvement.

PsyCap: A kind of individual capacity of having positive view and attribution to thoughts, events, and situations.

QWL: It contains activities make workplace a positive and satisfactory atmosphere for employees.

System 4: It is the model where Likert classifies management according to employee participation level.

T Group: It is a kind of training designed without topic and based on interaction among the group members.

TQM: It is an approach in which organizations adopt a quality-oriented philosophy.

Chapter 2
An Analysis of Organizational Behavior Diversity Management and Positive Psychology:
A Call to Action Utilizing the Functional Systems

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ABSTRACT

Organizational behavioral analysis has been utilized as a tool to deconstruct the behavior interactions, antecedents, and consequences that impact work productivity and performance across the workplace. Such an analysis has been helpful within the industry at assisting managers, leaders, and workers to measure workplace culture, morale, and productivity. Accordingly, in order for there to be maximum harmony and equilibrium within the workplace, there must also be happiness, contentment, and peace. This chapter synthesizes best practice principles of organizational behavioral analysis (OBM) interwoven within a cultural diversity framework with the functional systems logic so as to enhance workplace management and productivity. Additionally, this chapter elucidates the conceptual framework of positive psychology as a compendium to OBM and cultural diversity in order for worker productivity to become reciprocally fashioned across the workplace.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research chapter is to synthesize the best practice principles embossed within organizational behavior management's use of cultural diversity leading to positive workplace performance. As our world grows so too does the diversity within it. As such, the corporate world has not kept pace with the national trends in diversity and often lack racial, ethnic, language and sexual-gender based forms of diversity. This is especially apparent within the management ranks of organizations. To better prepare organizations for the changing world, I attempt to identify key factors that diversity brings to an

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organization. Next, I recommend an approach work places and organizations can utilize to measure and monitor its behaviors towards managing diversity through the use of a Functional Systems Approach within the framework of Organizational Behavioral Management (Johnson, Redmon and Mawhinney, 2001) that leads to positive results and equity amongst its employees. As our society grows in diversity, schools and organizations have been forced to keep up with the momentum. As such, OBM can provide both a theoretical and practical framework for measuring a corporation's effectiveness with managing and maintaining its diversity. This can be done through the use of Functional Systems logic as illustrated by the Human Performance Systems Framework (Tosti, 1997).

According to Johnston's famous Harvard review workplace diversity critique (1990) In the United States for example, the average white female is 33 years old and has (or will l have) 1.7 children. Corresponding figures for blacks are 28 and 2.4, and for Mexican-Americans, 26 and 2.9%. Additionally, many business and educational consultants, academics and business leaders have advocated that organizations respond to these trends with a "valuing diversity" approach. This approach enhances the ability for organizations to make diversity a goal alongside the goal of making money and profits many times from the same communities that their workforce does not reflect. Workplace diversity from a "valuing diversity" standpoint, helps organizations to hold a potential competitive advantage over those organizations that do not value diversity (Roosevelt, 1990). There are significant benefits for implementing a Valuing Diversity ethic across the workplace. These include: 1) cost, (2) resource acquisition, (3) marketing, (4) creativity, and (5) problem-solving. These are not only benefits but also strengthen a workplace's competiveness in a modern world. However, within this critique is a need for management to understand the complexities and needs of its workers and how a framework of positive psychology can enhance the environment, workplace community and worker productivity.

Sheldon and King (2001) maintain that Positive Psychology has a role in the daily lives of individuals, whether in work, play or family. As such, they argue that positive psychology is simply psychology and stands independent and intermingled just as other natural and social sciences try to do when one attempts to utilize science to describe the typical structure and natural functioning of their topics of interest. Also, just as other scientists express profound appreciation for their topic of study, the field of positive psychology has many foundational aspects as well. Positive psychology is thus an attempt to urge psychologists to adopt a more open and appreciative perspective regarding human potentials, motives, and capacities. Such an endeavor is surprisingly difficult within psychology's reductionist epistemological traditions, which train one to view positivity with suspicion, as a product of wishful thinking, denial, or hucksterism (Sheldon & King, 2001).

Positive psychology in summary is a Positive psychology is a science of positive aspects of human life, such as happiness, well-being and flourishing. Overall, Positive Psychology can be summarized in the words of its founder, Martin Seligman, as the scientific study of optimal human functioning [that] aims to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals and communities to thrive (Sheldon & King, 2001). More specifically, psychology has more often than not emphasized the shortcomings of individuals as compared with their potentials. However, Positive Psychology takes an approach that focuses on the individuals' potentials. Whereas, it is not targeted at fixing problems, but is focused on researching things that make life worth living instead. Positive Psychology therefore is concerned less with how to transform individuals, but rather on how to bring together what is present with what can be.

According to Frederickson, Positive Psychology plays many roles in the functioning of the individual, which carries over into the workplace (2001). Frederickson notes that Affect plays a critical role in feelings, mood and the psychology of the individual. This in turn can shape work relations, how one feels about the work space and the intersecting attitudes and dispositions about work that result. Affect as a more general concept, refers to consciously accessible feelings. Affect can also be present within emotions, it is also present within many other affective phenomena, including physical sensations, attitudes, moods, and even affective traits. Thus, emotions are distinct from affect in multiple ways (Frederickson, p.2; 2001). First, emotions are typically about some personally meaningful circumstance. Also, emotions are typically brief and implicate the multiple-component systems described above, whereas affect is often more long-lasting and may be salient only at the level of subjective experience. Additionally, emotions are often conceptualized as fitting into discrete categories of emotion families, like fear, anger, joy, and interest. Affect, by contrast, is often conceptualized as varying along two dimensions, either pleasantness and activation (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999) or positive and negative emotional activation (Frederickson, 2001).

THE WORKPLACE

When Positive Psychology is applied in the workplace, such a concept works to encourage leaders to reduce the use of fear-inducing motivation methods and promote more positive ones instead. In today's modern rushed-friendly corporate philosophy, work place stress and anxiety is at an all-time high, with anti-anxiety medications prescribed as the number one mood stabilizer (Cloos & Ferreira, 2009). Today's multifaceted workplace is ensnarled with stress that is often induced by longer hours and greater job expectations. Simple positive psychology-based techniques can aid in addressing the amount of stressors that perplex and overwhelm individuals currently seeing medication as one of the only ways out of the conundrum of medicate to work. Such techniques can aid the individual employee to simply enjoy her work more and avoid being hostage to negative emotions, and chemical dependency, such as opioids or OTC medications (Tao et al., 2015).

According to Cotton (2011), Positive Psychology has had a significant impact in the corporate world. For example, corporate programs have adopted and began to incorporate aspects of trainings across all industry sectors, such as leadership and organizational development programs that have incorporated positive psychology concepts at multiple levels of management. Areas of focus include psychological wellness, workplace wellbeing programs such as 'stress management' and also resilience building' workshops. These areas assist individuals, corporate managers and those working to improve workplace cultural diversity with the tools and conceptual framework necessary to utilize Positive Psychology alongside OBM.

Utilizing the organizational health framework, Hart and Cooper (2001) delineate how key individual and organizational factors interact to determine levels of employee wellbeing and organizational performance. This is in stark contrast to the traditional emphasis in the work stress literature on the consequences of negative work experiences, stressors, conflict and other work place stressors. The multi-prong approach using aspects of Positive Psychology highlight the role of positive work experiences and positive emotional responses. However, the authors also note that problems with wellbeing in the workplace may not necessarily be caused by adverse work experiences, but can also be caused by a low level of positive work experiences and positive emotional states (Cotton & Hart 2003). Cotton notes that there are Key drivers of wellbeing and organizational performance.

Since employee morale significantly influences a range of important workplace outcomes, Cotton highlights a few significant determinants of morale. Some aspects of this framework include supportive leadership and a positive and engaging workgroup climate. Cotton maintains that these factors have typically been found to explain approximately sixty percent of the variation in individual employee morale, and 80 percent of workgroup level morale (2011). The core elements of this framework are: (a) Empathy; (b) Clarity; (c) Learning; and (d) Engagement (2011). According to Cotton, ongoing organizational health research suggests that these four elements determine the overall quality of the team environment and significantly influence employee motivation, wellbeing, discretionary effort and customer experience.

According to Bowling (2010), vital engagement builds on the experience of flow over time to develop a deeper and meaningful relationship to work that is experienced as a calling (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003). Bowling suggest that Individuals who experience vital engagement are absorbed by their work, but the work has an intrinsic enjoyment which prevents burnout. Additionally, the meaning experienced by individuals who are engaged in a particular field, such as education or related service fields, can grow and build over time through the interaction with colleagues and communities of support resulting in a positive upward spiral. There is also a space for Hope Theory within the canon of Positive Psychology.

Bowling notes that Hope Theory is based upon the idea that depressed or otherwise clinical persons can improve their mental state by identifying a goal and focusing on how to achieve it. The difficulty of the goal, or its overall merit in a relative sense, is not important – the theory is that merely by taking action the person is taking steps toward getting better. However, this theoretical aspect of Hope Theory and Positive Psychology is not a new idea; the construct of hope as a motivating factor has been studied as long as the science of psychology has existed, and it is a process that is common to all psychotherapeutic interventions. Modern Hope Theorists require two elements to be present in its application in addition to the setting of a goal.

According to Lopez et al. (2004) the first element required to be present within this schema of Hope Theory is that the person must establish the pathways to achieve the goal i.e. the specific strategies that will be employed. This may requires resilience and a deeper level of understanding within the dimension of the issue playing out within the person's workplace. Second, the person must find ways to involve the mind as an agency of motivation. This entails setting a goal and establishing the physical ways he plans to accomplish it and the mental strategy he will use to stay motivated. In summary, Hope Theory provides a solid foundation for addressing the needs of person drowning in negative emotions. The critical distinction Bowling makes between positive psychology across hopes and goals is in the level of difficulty of the goal selected. Goal theory holds that the more difficult the goal, the greater the achievement. Pointedly, the higher the specificity of the goal the more likely it is to engender superior performance (Bowling, 2010).

OBM

Sulzer-Azaroff (2003) suggests that organizational behavior change depends on management of contingencies both local and wide-ranging. There are of course other factors that the author identifies that interfere with the successful implementation of behavior change within an organizational structure, but managing contingencies is by far the most important. The author contends that if one focuses only on the impact that local contingencies have on behavior change, then outside-of- work factors, such as pay, commute, workplace culture and more cannot support the long-lasting change that any program anticipates. Secondly, the author maintains that we need to also identify and analyze the functions of reinforcers currently in place within the organization juxtaposed with those that can be amassed in order to promote long-term organizational behavior change. Sulzer-Azaroff maintains that Organizational Behavior Management "OBM" is a better methodology to use in order to approach changing participant performance. Like traditional ABA, the researchers using this method begin by assessing the A-B-Cs in which they examine the performances (target behavior) of concern - the Behaviors or Bs; the ongoing consequences, or Cs of those behaviors; and the important antecedent conditions or events, the As in operation at present. The author maintains that the data shows that when managers recognize and improve the relations between the As, Bs and Cs, that success is the result.

In typical fashion, as with a school based approach, the OBM consultant conducts a series of workshops and assessments in order to collect baseline data. The process is similar to what educators do in order to begin a behavior change program in a school. After a series of observations, workshops, meetings, discussion of baseline data and the intervention (ABAB) and more, the consultant follows up with the organization in order to inquire about the success of the intervention, results and assess for any changes in the program, intended and unintended. In traditional education we might consider this method of follow up monitoring for maintenance and generalization of the target behavior.

However, the author suggest that sometimes there are obstacles that interfere with the successful implementation and operation/function of the intervention in the proposed OBM program. Sometimes here the consultant will need to try to understand and explain the reasons for these inconsistencies in results. The author suggest that sometimes factors such as change costs, in terms of time, effort or material resources can impact the successful implementation of the contingency and as such the overall success of the proposed organizational behavior change program. Additional considerations worth noting include differences in participants' learning histories, skill repertoires and contingencies of reinforcement. Another important consideration noted here was the importance of a cost-benefit analysis. The author notes that consultants and researchers and organizations need to ask if it would be worth investing an inordinate amount of time, money or effort, to achieve minimally additional gain. The author cites the phrase Metacontingencies to explain the latter, which are "Contingent relations between cultural practices and the effects of those practices for the group."

BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS AND OBM

Brethower (2002) describes behavioral systems analysis as an approach that draws from two disciplines and has ripe utility for use within various fields. Behavior analysis and generals systems theory are two similar and related approaches to organizational behavior management and functional analysis. Behavioral analysis and general systems theory assert that knowledge from both disciplines is important for practical work. Behavioral knowledge concerns how each person will act within a specific environment. Whereas general systems knowledge focuses on how organizations and other living systems function in today's complex world. The author suggests that both theoretical constructs have purpose and utility for practitioner use within our modern world.

Behavior analysis employs concepts that assists others to us understand how people function within the realities of the world in which they live and function. General systems concepts help us understand how that world works. Brethower suggests that if we conflate the two areas of knowledge then we might be able to a better job of developing people's potential and enabling schools and workplaces to function more effectively. Behavior analysis already has wide use and application. Behavioral analysis has been applied to individuals within a wide variety of families, schools, workplaces, communities, and cultures. It has been applied to help people develop functional related behavior programming across academic core concepts in schools and universities, as well as supporting functioning and work across corporations, industries and hospitals to name just a few. Additionally, behavior analysis has been used to support family relationships, functional behavior and students and adults with cognitive disabilities such as ASD and ADHD.

General systems theory has been applied in the study of forests, families, weather patterns, business and governmental organizations, and used across a number of other topics, settings and organizational set-ups. Accordingly, general systems theory was initially developed as a response to the evolution of scientific knowledge. Brethower notes that it was an attempt to identify concepts that were fundamentally similar across disciplines and specialty areas. Overall, the general systems theory has contributed greatly to the development of such as operations research, organizational theory, and environmental ecology.

The way the two theoretical constructs work together in harmony is fairly straight forward. The first questions centered on how can behavior analysis concepts and systems analysis concepts help figure out how to deal with a difficult practical issue? i.e. behavior issues in schools, health maintenance in hospitals and organizational dynamics in businesses. The focus within this framework is to improve the effectiveness of best practices whether it be in a classroom or school or business. As that work progressed, general systems people began developing special tools and tactics. After some time of success, this paradigmatic framework gained wider utility and has been incorporated into a dozen or so graduate training programs around the nation and around the world.

The historical antecedents of both disciplines are analyzed through the perspective of psychology. Behavioralists study behavior and people's response to the environment and reactions across those responses with different stimuli and antecedent events. As for general systems theory, it acts as a fundamental principle of all the social, natural, and biological sciences. The author provides an example of a behavior of a river. For example, how and where it flows is a function of environmental variables, the terrain through which it flows and how it flows relates to other variables within the environment and those related stimuli. The author resolves that the principle is important in part to show that behavior analysts are not alone in the belief that studying behavior is both practically important and scientifically respectable.

In summary and conclusion, behavior analysis and general systems theory are two similar and related approaches to organizational behavior management and functional analysis. Behavioral analysis and general systems theory assert that knowledge from both disciplines is important for practical work. Behavioral knowledge concerns how each person will act within a specific environment while general systems theory will explain the relationships between the person the variables within the antecedent condition. This schema supports the overall functionality of OBM with a diversity component and Positive Psychology utilized within the workplace.

CAUSAL BENEFITS THROUGH MANAGING DIVERSITY & POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

Cost savings of organizational changes can always be evaluated against the investment it costs to implement. Nevertheless, the data strongly suggests that managing diversity efforts have reduced absenteeism and turnover costs, as cited earlier. Data indicates that organizations that fail to make diversity a goal often fail overall within the niche market and can expect to suffer a significant competitive disadvantage compared to those that do. The data strongly suggests that managing diversity efforts have reduced absenteeism and turnover costs, as cited earlier (Etsy, 1990). Managing diversity through the use of OBM can also increase worker productivity and performance leading to happiness and sustainability (Froman, 2010). Froman notes that while there are no quick fixes to these complex and challenging problems, positive psychology, with its forward-looking orientation, suggests that the potential for a more hopeful, productive, and satisfying future can emerge for people who are struggling to find their way through these tough times. Additionally, living and working while leading productive and meaningful lives at the workplace provide an inner incentive for both employee and employer and leads to overall greater sustainability and productivity for all (Boyatzis et al. 2002; Dulewicz and Higgs 2003; Gardner and Stough 2002; Riggio and Reichard 2008).

Resource Acquisition entails attracting and retaining excellent employees from different demographic groups which also strengthens a company's competitiveness issue. For example, women and racially diverse minorities within the workforce are growing and this increase represents a proportional representation in the labor pool. As such, organizations must compete to hire and retain workers from these diverse groups. Organizations and companies now have multicultural offices similar to college campuses. These offices assure that there is a balance of workers across the organization and that this balance is proportional to the positions and opportunities that white workers have access to in the same workplace (Van Noordwijk & De Jong, 1986).

Marketing is another important factor for organizations who need to improve its diversity management strategies. Markets are becoming as diverse as the workforce. Selling goods and services is facilitated by a new and more modern diverse workforce. Companies with good local and global reputations tend to have more favorable positive public relations across all walks of life. Just as people, especially women and racially diverse minorities, may prefer to work for an employer who values diversity, they may also prefer to buy from such organizations (Goodyear, 1996). For example, in the Chinese culture, values such as a tradition of thrift, and teenagers' deference to their parent's wishes in making purchases, have been identified as affecting consumer behavior. While much of the research on cross-cultural differences in consumer behavior has traditionally focused on cross-national comparisons, this research is also relevant to current diversity trends within the United States (Redding, 1982).

Creativity is another important factor that plays into proper management of workplace cultural diversity and can help to improve the overall effectiveness of the corporation. Advocates of the value-in diversity hypothesis suggest that work team heterogeneity promotes creativity and innovation (Johnston, 1990). Johnston maintains that research tends to support this relationship. Relatedly, Kanter's study of innovation in organizations revealed that the most innovative companies were intentional in establishing heterogeneous teams to create a diverse marketplace of robust ideas while at the same time recognizing that a variety of viewpoints need to be brought to bear on critical workplace problems that can arise (Kanter, 1985). According to Youssef and Luthans (2007), hope, and, to a lesser extent, optimism and resilience, do differentially contribute to the various outcomes. Utility analysis supports the practical implications of the study results.

Engaged Problem Solving by members of diverse groups assists the company or corporation with providing a broader and richer base of experiences from which to draw. Managing diversity also has the potential to improve problem solving and decision making at the CIO and CFO levels of the corporation. Accordingly, dimensions of group diversity included personality measures, gender, sexual identity, race, class and language. In a hallmark study in OBM sixty-five percent of heterogeneous groups produced high quality solutions compared to only twenty-one percent of the homogeneous groups. This difference was considered to be statistically significant. The researchers noted that "mixing sexes and personalities appears to have freed members of these diverse groups from the traditional restraints of the solutions given in the problem (Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1985).

Accordingly, positive organizational behavior, or simply POB has been recognized as an approach that frames the importance of positivity to people and POB also recognizes the importance of organizational research such as positive affectivity (PA), positive reinforcement, procedural justice, job satisfaction and commitment, prosocial and organizational citizenship behavior to support workplace happiness and productivity. Similar to the thesis of positive psychology, and now its application to the workplace as POB, one can identify intersectionality across workplace behavior, self-evaluations and individual self-assessment that enhances one's position and relationship within the workplace. This becomes tantamount to workplace productivity and workplace inclusivity, especially given the current political climate of women's rights within the workplace, immigrant rights and equitable treatment of those with disabilities and those members of the LGTBQ communities (Breda & Manning, 2016; Mohr & Purdie-Vaughns, 2015; Prasad & Mills, 1997).

Youssef and Luthans maintain that POB as a tenant of Positive Psychology provides more stability and more of a state-trait continuum rather than a construct being either stable or not stable, either a trait or state. Accordingly, through utilizing POB within the workplace managers can provide a sense of stability across weeks, months, years, and even decades. According to the authors, the use of POB, along with recognized positive personality dimensions such as conscientiousness and core self- evaluations such as self-esteem, would seem to be placed at least toward the trait side of the continuum (p. 776). Froman suggests that the primary tenets of positive psychology in the workplace include Hope, Joy, Interest, Inspiration and Pride.

Froman notes that hope is an essential ingredient in nurturing the human spirit. It provides us with emotional strength. Accordingly, in the context of the workplace, hope has been considered essential in supporting and sustaining one's capacity as a worker to be resilient, to overcome adversity, and to bounce back in ways that strengthens their effectiveness (Youssef and Luthans, 2007). To this end, hope coupled with resilience, allows us to practice being more hopeful and keeping a positive perspective on life which also allows us to see opportunities as more likely to be open to us for job and life related pursuits. Froman also notes that some of the more profound experiences of joy and gratitude come to us in unexpected ways.

Unexpected acts of kindness can happen anywhere, including the workplace which enhance the positivity and outlook on the immediate and long-term future. One kind act can escalate into a stream of positive interactions within the workplace that also result in random acts of kindness that bring with them unintended consequences that have the ability to bring with them shared joy, happiness and optimism in a work-world full of uncertainty for many, and dread for others. From states that these kind-hearted and random acts that managers within the workplace can promote have the ability to bring with them true gratitude that is not about reciprocity, nor is it about being polite, or even indebted (p. 61). Further, something new may draw our attention and interest in ways that not only create excitement and joy, but fuel our motivation and maintain interest, inspiration and pride in our work and workplace thus leading to positive outcomes within our organizational structure.

Where there may be challenges, Froman suggests that there is also potential for growth. He notes that workers are inspired by new possibilities and new pathways that encourage them to want to find out where they may lead. In the workplace, when workers are assigned to a new job, or forced by circumstance to look for a new one, they are confronted with new challenges. These challenges can bring with them opportunities to learn new skills—skills that otherwise might not have been learned, had the job changes not occurred (p. 61). Hence, these experiences co-create a sense of readiness to take on new opportunities that may in turn lead to new challenges and successes. Froman maintains that we tend to feel ready to tap into this inner motivation and achieve a sense of excitement and purpose that co-workers may feel when they are thoroughly involved in their jobs. These aspects of positive psychology within the workplace coalesce nicely with understanding the needs of CLD workers who may not be at an advantage within the workplace to articulate or understand how to navigate their professional environment, partly due to language barriers, education and or exposure to a different set of norms and standards that may altogether be hidden or just unfamiliar to them (Breda & Manning, 2016; Mohr & Purdie-Vaughns, 2015; Prasad & Mills, 1997).

In summary, I have laid out five benefits for any organization to manage and maintain diversity and how its effective management can provide it with a more local and global competitive advantage. Any organization with an interests in maximizing the benefits and minimize the drawbacks of diversity, in terms of workgroup cohesiveness, interpersonal conflict, high worker turnover and other issues must not only create or refine itself as a multicultural organization, but must also measure its effectiveness through reflexive and systematic self-assessment and behavioral management based evaluation. The traditional organization of the past has been either completely monolithic (white, heterosexual and male) or plural Mixed-Straight (with majority culture heterosexual males and females with little other diversity). By contrast, the contemporary diversity focused multicultural organization is one where members of nontraditional backgrounds can contribute and achieve to their fullest potential. I have also identified a conceptual tenet of positive psychology known as positive organizational behavior, or simply POB and how this theoretical construct can enhance the workplace thus leading positive outcomes and worker diversity for all workers, in particular workers from CLD backgrounds and using an OBM approach. Inclusive of this inquiry were aspects of positive psychology outlined by From including how Hope, Joy, Interest, Inspiration and Pride can further enhance worker connectedness, productivity and happiness.

In order for organizations to lay out and achieve its fullest potential in order to benefit from the five organizational diversity principles examined here, there must be an evidenced based tool it uses in order to examine its own progress and potential. The Functional Systems logic as illustrated by the Human Performance Systems Framework can build upon and support needed assessments of the relationships that exist within the functional flow of the organization. This process in turn can further assist the organization to meet its goals and to manage its diversity framework while conducting Training, Research and Critical Self-Assessment through the framework of OBM with tenets of positive psychology.

FUNCTIONAL SYSTEMS LOGIC

In his seminal work within the field of OBM, Tosti (1997) contends that too many organizations have fallen due to offering solutions that aren't plausible or can work because they fail to recognize the needs of the people functioning within the workplace or institution. These solutions are often short-lived and lead to another failed reform. The author suggests that looking at two dimensions of the performance system can help leaders to develop a broader viewpoint of organizational performance.

A look at the Functional Systems logic as illustrated by the Human Performance Systems Framework can further build upon and support needed assessments of the relationships that exist within the functional flow of the organization. Whereas the Alignment Systems logic that underlies the Organizational Alignment Model can work to provide a way to examine the many causal relationships that fall across the organizational hierarchy of multiple systems and some sub-systems. Tosti (1997) contends that by examining the alignment of the three factors (Process, Practice and Power) with the mission and the results that managers and leaders can more easily address some of the most critical aspects of Organizational systems and as a result change both institutional and individual human behaviors.

Tosti reviewed the use of the Systems Approach by Brethower (1972; 2002). The Performance Systems model provides a framework that allowed them to examine any performance situation in terms of the influence of the five factors. The definitions for the five variables of the performer system included: Support, Direction Performer, Motivational Consequences and Feedback. Tosti suggests that by using a systems framework to structure the model helped clarify the relationships among the variables, as well as make the model more flexible

Tosti examined the use of the Performance Engineering Approach advocated by Gilbert (1996). There were two major advantages of the systems models noted herein. The first advantage is that it not only identifies classes of variables, but also provides insight into the interdependent relationships among the variables. The Second advantage is that systems models in general are scalable. That is, "systems logic" can be applied to individuals, to operations, to the administration of the whole organization and more broadly within the organization and throughout the community and other market systems. The development of another model that came about in the late 1970's, advocated by people like Geary Rummler (2004; 1995). Rummler had developed a method for looking at the entire organization that could identify key performance influences by looking at three major levels of organization: Level 1. Organizational/the Administration; Level 2. Operational/the Work; and Level 3. People/the Job.

Tosti argues that the functional systems logic is important at understanding how all of the components work together in one level of the organization. Further, the alignment systems logic allows the manager to analyze the relationships of components across multiple levels. Alignment of sub-systems is very critical to optimum performance of any organization. This is especially true of integrating aspects of positive psychology at multi-level entry points across the workplace continuum. On this view, POB is situated in level 1 whereas aspects of positive psychology including Hope, Joy, Interest, Inspiration and Pride can be placated in levels 2 and 3.

On this view, Training, Research and Critical Self-Assessment become a part of the Diversity Management Framework assessed under the Functional Systems Logic as a part of framework of OBM. The training can be implemented with fidelity by utilizing all of the diverse workers that are a part of the organization. Tosti suggests that managers should examine the Aligning Processes to use to implement the tactical strategy. This is done by making sure that the three levels of organizational complexity are vertically aligned to achieve results and follows through in the final design and execution of operational processes. Managers must include the Culture Factor (aligning practices) and determine the desired strategic processes inclusive of cultural practices, rather than adhere to offering lip-service stereotypes held about a "typical" minority within the workplace. Training allows the workers to become part of the decision making body, and to learn new skills within the organization.

Additionally, research is critical because current practices in OBM and Diversity (OBMD) create the validity of the interventions implemented here that are a part of the Functional Systems Logic Assessment. Research and practice become action research oriented and also relate to low level experimentation as suggested by Abernathy (1997). Lastly, the critical self-assessment component becomes a key strength in this system because reflection and assessment may assist the organization in determining if it is indeed avoiding disproportionality across positions within the workplace. As noted here earlier, this must be a conscious part of managing diversity and be structured so as to yield results through the productive outcomes of its diverse work force.

In summary, Tosti defined organizational power as the capacity to achieve desired results by either allocating or controlling resources and or influencing workers from diverse backgrounds to take the appropriate actions in order to achieve the end results of the organization in line with the institution's cultural and organizational best practices. Tosti also resolves that by understanding that every organization at its most basic level is a Human Performance System is critical for the success of any company overall. By looking more closely at both dimensions illustrated here of the performance system, managers can develop a broader viewpoint of organizational performance as it relates to managing its diversity and thus leading to positive outcomes behaviorally and psychologically.

In conclusion, an Organizations' ability to attract, retain, and motivate people from diverse cultural backgrounds, may lead to competitive advantages in cost structures and through maintaining the highest quality human resources. But, these workers must be happy, connected to the organizations' mission and have within them Hope, Joy, Interest, Inspiration and Pride. Further capitalizing on the potential benefits of cultural diversity in work groups, organizations may gain a competitive advantage in: 1) cost, (2) resource acquisition, (3) marketing, (4) creativity, and (5) problem-solving. Lastly, I have identified steps that organizations can take toward accomplishing the goal of OBMD through the use of a Functional Systems Logic Assessment (Moore et al., 1993;Sears et al., 1999; Tepper, 2000).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, an Organizations' ability to attract, retain, and motivate people from diverse cultural backgrounds, may lead to competitive advantages in cost structures and through maintaining the highest quality human resources. Further capitalizing on the potential benefits of cultural diversity and positive psychology in work groups, organizations may gain a competitive advantage in: 1) cost, (2) resource acquisition, (3) marketing, (4) creativity, and (5) problem-solving. Lastly, I have identified steps that organizations can take toward accomplishing the goal of OBMD through the use of a Functional Systems Logic Assessment (Moore et al., 1993;Sears et al., 1999; Tepper, 2000). Finally, by identifying meaningful connections between concepts of positive psychology and the workplace stressors can be controlled, especially in times economic upheaval, stress, and uncertainty. A deeper understanding has to be gained around the idea that organizations need to develop cultures of virtue, cultures built around principles of integrity, ethics, trust, and respect (Froman, 2010).

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Chapter 3
Boosting Positivity and Performance:
A Case Study of Organizational Coaching

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ABSTRACT

Due to the trauma of the global recession, there is a need to move away from predominantly negative theories of organizational behavior to positively oriented ones that focus on developing psychological capital to achieve employees' full potential. Many organizations look to rebuild organizational life and "positivity" generally, "positive psychology interventions" specifically have much to offer that is needed. So, organizational coaching is discussed as a positive intervention, triggering improved workplace performance based on a case study in this chapter. The main data for the analysis comes from 10 in-depth interviews with coaches and coachees from a leading company in Turkey, in which an integrative coaching system is in place. The analysis revealed that coaching has positive individual and organizational level effects and channel people's psychological capacities toward achieving self-awareness, self-development, increase in positivity, and result in improved performance. The characteristics, enablers, and challenges of an ideal coaching system were also explored.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations are experiencing fundamental changes in the labour market (Archer & Yates, 2017) and nature of work (Miller, 1998; Tehubijuluw, 2016) due to the trauma of the global recession (Garcea & Linley, 2011). In the light of these changes, work cannot be considered as an effort removed from personal development anymore. Managers, whom were solely seen as organizational actors giving orders and whose role had no impact on development of their subordinates at one time, are considered as guides for individual development generally (Leigh, 1997) and psychological capital development specifically. So, there is a need to focus on positive theories of organizational behavior and management rather than predominantly negative ones, to develop psychological capital that leads to achieving employees' full potential and end up with improved performance levels. In this contexti "positivity" and "coaching" as a positive psychology intervention offer what is needed (Garcea & Linley, 2011).

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It is evident in literature that organizational coaching has significant positive effects on both individual and organizational outcomes. However, most of these studies are either a review of the research on coaching (Grover & Furnham, 2016; Williams & Palmer, 2015; Stober, 2005) or evaluate coaching process from only the executives' perspectives, who are coached by external coaches (McGovern et al., 2001; Grant, Curtayne, & Burton, 2009). Howbeit, the perspectives of both parties should be taken into account to gain an in-depth insgiht regarding organizational coaching.

On the other hand, it is seen that there isn't any study on organizational coaching in the Turkish context specifically. A group of studies investigate the effects of cognitive coaching in education and academic life (Duman, 2013; Demir & Doğanay, 2010; Kılıç & Demir, 2012; Bal, Bal, & Demir, 2011), whereas there are a few studies on managerial coaching behavior (Bayram, Yıldırım, & Ergan, 2017; Kalkavan, 2014). However, none of these studies are considering the link between coaching and positive psychology, which are both related with the improvement of performance and development of the individual (Linley & Harrington, 2005). Thus, it is aimed to shed light on the organizational coaching as a positive intervention in the Turkish context in this chapter. Besides, it is aimed to fulfill the gap in literature regarding the characteristicts, enablers, challenges of an ideal organizational coaching system based on the views of both coachees and internal coaches.

This chapter consists of seven different sections. In this section, a general evaluation and the aim of the chapter is given. In the background section, the emergence of positive psychology and its reflections on the organizations, and the link between positivity and coaching is shared to point out why coaching can be considered as a positive organizational intervention. Then the history, concept and forms of coaching are presented. The studies in Turkish context are examined to emphasize the lack of studies on organizational coaching in the last part of the background section. In the third section, details regarding the methodology is given. In the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh sections; findings and discussions, practice implications, future research directions and conclusion parts are shared, respectively.

BACKGROUND

The Emergence of Positive Psychology and Its Reflections on the Workplaces

Positive psychology movement, which emerged in the late 1990s, reminds that psychology is not the study of mental illnesses and pathologies solely and highlights the other missions of it, such as actualizing the potential of individuals and making their lives more meaningful and fruitful (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p.14). It aims to shift the focus away from weaknesses of people to strenghts of them. Thus, it focuses on resilience rather than vulnerability; and is concerned with growth, prosperity and well-being rather than the remediation of illness (Luthans, 2002, p. 697). Positive psychology has led to two connected approaches, which implemented positive and strength-based managerial practices to the organizations (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 14).

The first one is the positive organizational scholarship (POS) approach, which focuses on positive organizational dynamics, that lead to increase in survival and effectiveness of organizations in adverse situations and crisis periods. POS focuses mainly on concepts such as compassion, forgiveness, virtue in organizations (Luthans, 2002, p. 698). It is deeply focused on understanding the integration of negative and positive conditions. How to interpret, manage and transform challenges and difficulties, in order to reveal the positive, is the major aim of POS (Cameron & Caza, 2004, p. 732).

The second one is positive organizational behavior (POB), which emphasizes the significance of positive psychological capacities and individual strengths that can be collectively managed for performance enhancement in organizations. POB identifies unique, state-like psychological capacities such as self-confidence/efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency, which are called as positive psychological capital collectively (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 15).

Self- confidence/efficacy is a person's confidence and belief in his/her skills to mobilize the mental resources, motivation and behavior patterns, which are necessary to perform a specific task successfully within a given context (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a, p. 66). So, the task and context specificity is the key to this definition. The research showed that self-efficacy has positive impact on organizational effectiveness, commitment and job satisfaction, whereas it is negatively related with turnover intention (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Besides, analyses by organizational scholars suggest that there is a relationship between self-confidence and improved performance levels (Alessandri, Borgogni, Schaufeli, Caprara, & Consiglio, 2015; Beattie, Woodman, Fakehy, & Dempsey, 2016).

Optimism is a way of attribution, which explains positive incidents through pervasive, internal and permanent causes whereas negative incidents through situation-specific, external and temporary ones (Luthans & Youssef, 2007, p. 331). This explanatory style allows people to take heart from the positive happenings in their lives, and increases both morale and self-esteem levels of them. Besides, it shields them from unfavorable life events and conditions such as despair, self-blame, guilt and depression (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 17). Optimism has been applied in organizational contexts and ended up with increase in performance levels (Medlin & Green, 2009) as it triggers motivation and positive emotions (Luthans, 2002).

Hope is a motivational factor that enables individuals to achieve their goals by providing them with internal determination and will. Individuals, with higher levels of hope, can generate other ways to achieve their goals when the original ways are blocked (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 17). Besides, hope has positive effects on organization applications generally (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007) and performance specifically (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Combs, Clapp-Smith, & Nadkarni, 2010;).

Finally, resiliency is being able to bounce back from failure, conflict, adversity and even beyond to achieve success (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2015). Resilient people can adapt to significant change and find meaning in their lives throughout the process (Ayyash-Abdo, Sanchez-Ruiz, & Barbari, 2016; Cooke, Cooper, Bartram, Wang, & Mei, 2016).

Coaching as a "Positive" Intervention

Positivity is defined as a system of premises, outcomes, processes, and implications, which are functioning adequately and adding sustainable value to both individuals and organizations according to the various stakeholders and observers (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2013, p. 149). This conceptualization covers many positive approaches, such as positive dynamics, traits, perspectives, states, processes and outcomes at various analysis levels (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015, p. 180).

In this context, the field of positive psychology is related with valued experiences such as; satisfaction, well-being, hope, contentment, optimism and happiness at the subjective level. It is related with positive personal traits, such as spirituality, perseverance, wisdom, the capacity for love, aesthetic sensibility, courage, originality, interpersonal skills, forgiveness at the individual level. Finally, it is related with the civic virtues and the organizations that lead people towards altruism, responsibility, tolerance, work ethic, civility, nurturance, moderation at the group level (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 5).

In line with the aforementioned conceptualization and reflections of positive psychology on the organizations, a positive psychology intervention can be any purposeful method and/or activity, such as training and coaching, which is based on the valuable experiences, creating positive individual traits and civic virtue as well as positive institutions (Meyers, van Woerkom, & Bakker, 2013, p. 620).

As coaching process emphasizes generation of solutions and development of strengths, rather than analysis of problems (Grant, 2003), and uses elements, which are similar to psychological capital interventions, it can be considered as a positive intevention in organizations (Meyers, et al., 2013; Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). For instance, it comprises goal setting and self-regulation, which are methods to cultivate hope and motivates people by enhancing self-confidence (Grant et al., 2009). Besides, coaching has other significant positive effects on both individual and organizational levels, such as; performance/skills, well-being, coping, long term adaptability, self-knowledge, self-confidence, resilience, burn out, goal orientation and achievement, work attitudes (Theeboom et al., 2014; Meyers, et al., 2013; Lew, Wolfred, Gislason, & Coan, 2003), productivity, quality, organizational strength, reduced conflict, increased job satisfaction, organizational stress (McGovern et al., 2001; Lew et al., 2003).

As the positive link of performance with well-being/happiness (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009), self-awareness (Okpara & Agwu, 2009), positive psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007) and its dimensions, such as self-confidence (Beattie et al., 2016), optimism (Medlin & Green, 2009), hope (Combs et al., 2010), resiliency (Cooke et al., 2016) is well established, it may also be expected to enhance performance through coaching interventions, which are stressing strengths.

An Overview of the History and Concept of Coaching

Griffith's (1926) book, entitled "The Psychology of Coaching" can be considered as the first systematic study, which focused on the psychology of coaching in the "sports field". On the other hand, Grant (2005) focuses on implications of coaching on workplaces generally and states that Gorby (1937) was one of the early scholars, who investigated workplace coaching. He described how senior employees aided younger ones in order to decrease waste and enhance profits of the company through coaching in his article (Williams & Palmer, 2015, p. 329).

Then, the concept of coaching as a "means of development" had come on the scene in the preliminary studies on the roles of managers in literature (Mintzberg, 1973), and coaching was mainly considered as a tool that managers could make use of to overcome the problems in workers' task performance (Feldman & Lankau, 2005, p. 830). Meanwhile, humanistic psychologists started to focus on motivational factors, specifically in the Theory of Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1954, 1968). The humanistic psychology approach led to the preliminary development of positive psychology and the foundation of coaching practices (Grant, 2007). The increasingly wide use of these practices triggered the contemporary commercial coaching industry (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008, p. 7; Williams & Palmer, 2015, p. 329). Now, coaching has become very popular in today's organizational life generally (Williams & Palmer, 2015; Grover & Furnham, 2016) and business life specifically (Sperry, 2013; Klopper & van Coller-Peter, 2018).

Coaching is used as a process for developing capabilities, skills and leadership, and improving performance as well as career management by most of the organizations. For instance, The Coaching Climate Survey (2011), done by Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD), proves this fact. The number of participants, who stated that coaching focuses on performance improvement increased from a quarter to nearly half, when compared to CIPD's survey in 2009. The profile of coaching was also tested by asking participants "what describes the role and contribution of coaching within their organizations in a best way". Most stated that it as an integral part of development and learning. Building skills and capability, career transition and improving personal effectiveness were mentioned among the key areas of coaching agenda as well.

Additionally, ICF Global Coaching Study (2016) represents ICF's largest industry research project with 15.380 valid survey responses from 137 countries. According to this study, 90% of coach practitioners said that they currently have active clients. Most of the coaches in various regions, such as Middle East, Latin America and the Caribbean believe to a large extent that coaching is able to influence social change. Managers were mentioned most frequently as clients. Nearly 23% of the coaches said that they mainly coached executives, with a further 19% selecting personal clients. The main problem emphasized by coaches was unaccredited people, who call themselves coaches. On the other hand, coach practitioners were most likely to identify increased awareness regarding the benefits of coaching system as an opportunity.

Despite of its popularity, there is not a universally agreed-upon definition of coaching. However, when variety of definitions of coaching by different authors and practitioners are analyzed, the common points of these definitions, such as "process", "one-to-one relationship between a coachee and a coach", "development", "self-awareness", "performance improvement" come on the scene (Peterson & Hicks, 1996; Joo, 2005; Pousa & Mathieu, 2010).

Besides, there are numerous schools of thought, such as those, who assert that coaching is "everything" that is done, which results in development and growth (Kinlaw, 1989; Hargrove, 2003) and those, who assert that coaching is a "particular" technique (Downey, 1999; Whitmore, 2002), emphasizing the importance of empowerment of the coachee through participating actively in the coaching process (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009, p. 32).

Based on the aforementioned common points, regarding definitions and schools of thought, the following definition is offered in this chapter: Coaching is a one-to-one relationship, which aims to achieve organizationally, professionally, and personally beneficial developmental goals by facilitating self-awareness of the coachee.

Forms of Coaching and Other Developmental Mechanisms

There are various forms of coaching mechanisms, as well as supportive systems, used in the case company. Thus, the following list differentiates these forms of coaching and other mechanisms to give an in-depth understanding, regarding the coaching system in place.

Career coaching emphasizes the identification of coachee's short and/or long-term career goals and aids the coachee to decide on career pathways (Stern, 2004, p. 154-162) whereas performance coaching emphasizes performance enhancement through building on behavioural strengths as well as acquiring new skills (Williams & Palmer, 2015, p. 338). Team coaching focuses on a "group" of people and enable them to use their collective resources in a coordinated manner to achieve team goals (Hackman & Wageman, 2005, p. 269).

Workplace mentoring takes place in an organizational context and it aims to develop less experienced individual, called as the mentee, both personally and professionally (Kram, 1985). A supervisor or another colleague within the organization but outside the mentee's chain of command, or a person in another institution may act as a mentor (Eby, 1997). On the other hand, in reverse mentoring younger employees pair with the senior colleagues and they act as mentors to share expertise with the senior colleagues. The aim of this process, more commonly, is to learn from the mentor's up-to-date insights, technological expertise and different generational viewpoints (Murphy, 2012, p. 549).

There are notable differences between coaching and mentoring. First, mentoring relationships emerge naturally when an individual agrees to take a person under his/her wing. However, coaching relationships are inherent parts of the job or position and determined by the structure of reporting relationships (MTD Training, 2010). Coaching focuses mainly on improving performance, generally for a short-term, in a specific skills area and the goals of each coaching session and the agenda are typically set with or at the suggestion of the professional coach. The coachee has ownership of the goal, whereas the coach has ownership of the process. In most cases, coach reports to the coachee what s/he has observed throughout the sessions. On the other hand mentoring takes a person as a whole and focuses mainly on the identification of the potential for the person. In most cases, mentoring is a long-term interaction, where the goals may change but are always set by the mentee. Thus, the mentee has the ownership of both the goal and the process (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2004).

Organizational Coaching and Positive Psychology in the Turkish Context

Coaching is a beneficial process for development of both individuals and organizations (Grant et al., 2010). However, the lack of systematic empirical research on the dynamics and outcomes of coaching processes and systems lead to doubts regarding its effectiveness. Besides, most of the studies on coaching are held by practitioners. Despite of their valuable information and insights, most of them are not trained in research methodologies. Thus, these studies mostly lack both a theoretical background and a use of validated outcome measures (Theeboom et al., 2013, p. 1). Therefore, positive psychology offers a strong basis for researching coaching and remedies to the lack of a theoretical background in coaching literature (Freire, 2013, p. 428).

When the studies in the Turkish context are examined, it becomes apparent that most of the studies investigate the impact of "cognitive coaching" on students' achievement and academic performance levels specifically (Duman, 2013; Demir and Doğanay, 2010); education and academic life generally (Kılıç and Demir, 2012; Bal et al., 2011). Besides, there are a few studies on "managerial coaching behavior" (Bayram et al., 2017; Kalkavan, 2014). Similarly, none of these researches are based on a robust theoretical background in line with abovementioned studies.

Consequently, there isn't any study on "organizational coaching" which can be considered as a positive intervention, triggering improved workplace performance via increasing positive organizational behaviours. Besides, the questions mentioned below remain still unanswered.

METHODOLOGY

Objectives and Research Questions

It is aimed to shed light on the organizational coaching system, as a positive intervention, in the Turkish context through finding answers to the questions mentioned below:

- What are the characteristics of an ideal organizational coaching system designed?
- What are the effects of organizational coaching?
- What are the enablers and challenges of organizational coaching implications?

- What might be the additonal mechanisms to foster the advantages of organizational coaching implications?

Data Collection

The main data for the analysis comes from 10 in-depth interviews with coaches and coachees from a leading company in telecom industry, in which an integrative organizational coaching system is in place. The form of the interviews was a semi-structured standardized interview format. The sample of this study was determined using maximum variety sampling method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994) because of its power to capture variation, consistency, and contradictions in responses. A diverse group of employees were targeted in terms of coaching, mentoring and managerial experiences, gender, age and departments to reach various perspectives.

Thus, three of the interviewees were males whereas seven of them were females. The average age of the interviewees was 34 years (range 25 to 43). The average years of work experience was 10 years (range 3 to 20) The participants were all working at different departments. Five of the participants were accredited internal coaches, whereas one of the internal coach was unaccredited. All of these coaches were once coachees in the context of the programme, so they can evaluate the coaching process from both the perspectives of a coach and a coachee. Two out of four coachees had participated in reverse mentoring programme, whereas the other two were just part of the programme as coachees.

All interviews were conducted based on the consent of the respondents and an interview protocol, which guided the implementation of the interviews to ensure consistency between them, was used to increase the reliability of the findings. The interviews duration was between 20 and 35 minutes and they were audio recorded with the consent of participants. They were fully transcribed by the author. MAXQDA 12 was used for qualitative content analysis.

An Overview of the Coaching Programme in the Case Company

In the early years of 2000s the "coaching programme" was initiated in Company A. However, the programme was not solely based on coaching processes despite of its name. It was a mix of mentoring, reverse mentoring, coaching and feedback mechanisms. In 2010's the programme was restructured with the assistance of an accredited coaching company and turned into a leadership programme.

In the context of this programme all of the employees having managerial roles are trained by internal accredited coaches to coach their subordinates. To become internal coaches there are some criteria, such as minimum years of experience, being an accredited coach, being head of a division or department. However, the managers, mostly team leaders, do not need to be accredited coaches to coach their subordinates or team members. All team members are coachees, whereas all team leaders are coaches. On the other hand, team leaders are coached by their managers as well. So, they have two roles simultaneously (coach and coachee) in the coaching system.

The forms of coaching applied are mostly career, performance and team coaching, which are designed in line with the company's human resources policies. This practice is implied with mentoring, reverse mentoring and feedback mechanisms as it has turned into a leadership programme, that aims to improve development and performance levels. However, the coaching mechanism is still in the heart of this integrative programme.

The performance of the coaching system is evaluated based on the written feedbacks of both coaches and coachees monthly. The management wants all of their employees to use coaching as a development tool and make it part of their lives.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of an Ideal Organizational Coaching System

In the context of the characteristics of an ideal organizational coaching system, six sub-themes emerged out of the comments of the interviewees. While the respondents were pointing out the characteristics, enablers and challenges of the system were also questioned to have an in-depth insight regarding an ideal system.

One-to-One Coaching: Both the coaches and coachees emphasized that one-to-one coaching is more effective than team coaching as both parties can interpret each other's body language. A few of the coaches stated that online one-to-one sessions are used as an alternative, when the coachees are at different locations. The following qualitative comments of a coach and a coachee, respectively, provide insights into why one-to-one coaching is considered as an "ideal" coaching approach: *You should realize that the person is a unique, meaningful whole, so you need to concentrate on him/her fully and capture all oral and nonverbal messages.*

I cannot express my self truly at team coaching sessions. One-to-one sessions are better.

Overcoming Time Pressures: Most of the interviewees stated that they have to deal with time pressures due to the dynamic environmental conditions, in which the company is operating. Despite of this dynamism, responding to change is critical and monthly targets should be met by the employees. Thus, both coaches and coachees have limited time to conduct coaching sessions and may not concentrate on the sessions fully. Thus, both coaches and coachees suggested that time schedules should be arranged based on workloads and made known to the parties concerned as early as possible, at least 1 week in advance and each session should be at least 40 minutes. Here are representative comments of a coach and a coachee, respectively: *Time is a major problem. The company is operating in a dynamic environment, the culture is dynamic, we need to be dynamic. As targets are critical, we cannot focus on coaching sessions. I cannot coach them effectively in 20 minutes.*

The frequency of interviews should be increased. We have monthly targets but when we have a session, the managers should revise workloads so we can concentrate on sessions fully without feeling time pressures.

Accredited Internal Coaches: All of the coaches emphasized that all internal coaches should be accredited ones. Besides, it is stated that the coachees need to be aware of the aim and essentials of coaching process via training programmes, so both parties may look from the same perspective towards this process. An unaccredited internal coach made these observations: *It should be implied effectively. We need to be professional, especially me. We are trained by the accredited coaches, however I am not an accredited coach. I believe myself but I need an observer and evaluation.*

Increasing Awareness Regarding Coaching/Mentoring: Most of the interviewees emphasized that awareness regarding coaching, mentoring mechanisms should be increased by pointing out various ways of doing this. For instance, a group of coaches emphasized that the awareness and consciousness levels about coaching and mentoring should be increased via programmes designed at a national level. On the other hand, other coaches stated that each organization, both profit seeking and non-profit ones, should have internal coaches and coaching system should be integrated into the Eduaction System of Turkey. A senior coach captured the sentiments of many of the interviewees: *Awareness regarding coaching should be increased at a national context and it starts with education. Each school needs a coach. When people don't know what it is then you cannot design an effective coaching mechanism. It should be integrated into the education system. People, who are already familiar with this mechanism in their early education, would be better coaches and coachees.*

Finally, a group of coachees mentioned about the differences among coaching, mentoring, feedback and performance evaluation sessions and emphasized that awareness regarding these differences should be increased at organizational implications. As one coachee stated: *Whenever I go to my team leader and talk to her, this automatic message comes and says that "a coaching session is conducted" even it is a small talk or just a feedback. The company has given us all the opportunities, such as a portal informing us about these mechanisms, but people are not willing to use them appropriately*.

Supportive Organizational Culture: A significant number of interviewees emphasized the importance of organizational culture to design an ideal organizational coaching system. They stated that the culture should be supportive and open to change. The following comments of a coach and a coachee, respectively captured the sentiments of the others: *Everyone has to be open to development and change in the company. When you are open to change and learn easily then coaching would be consistent with the culture of your company and an ideal tool.*

Ideal system is hard. It is dependent on the climate of the organization. For instance, in this company, everyhing changes so fast, so it is same for the coaching processes. You need to learn fast, train fast, you need to use both coaching and mentoring. Thus, it would change based on the ecosystem of the company. It should be a part of the culture. Training programmes solely are not enough.

Besides, coaches especially stated that the support of the management was one of the major enablers of the system. For instance, an internal coach stated: *We faced no obstacles while impementing the coaching programme because managers were very supportive and human-oriented. They believed in the effectiveness of this programme, then it became a culture.*

These statements are in parallel with the studies, pointing out that top management's values, ideology, skills, and leadership characteristics shape the organizational culture (Kane-Urrabazo, 2006; Parkes, Hodkiewicz, & Morrison, 2012).

Effective Implementation of Coaching Practices and Principles: A group of interviewees pointed out various principles and practices such as confidentiality, effective reporting systems, sharing succes stories, volunteerism and integrative system in which coaching and mentoring go hand in hand to design an ideal coaching system.

The coachees need to feel certain that their exchanges with the coach will be kept confidential and not affect their status and/or employment within the organization (De Vries, 2008: 5). Comments such as "*Coaching is based on trust as you need to share everything transparently. You need to create a trust climate, and ensure confidentiality with agreement"* and "*The success stories should be shared with* *organizational members based on their consent to encourage others via portals and online platforms. Online reporting systems should be designed to monitor the effectiveness of coaching process for both coaches and coachees"* suggest that the exchanges between coaches and coachees should be kept confidential, however to encourage others to participate in the programme, success stories should be also shared based on the consent of both parties via systematic reports.

The following qualitative comments provide insights into importance of volunteerism and an integrative system on effective implementation of coaching system, respectively: *Appropriate matching of the coach-coachee dyad is critical. However the volunteerism is important. Thus, firstly pilot sessions should be conducted to see if the coach-coachee matches are appropriate.*

The coaching sessions should be enriched with mentoring. With coaching they become aware of their career goals and performance levels. After this awareness, they want to hear your suggestions to plan their career or improve their performance. It should turn into mentoring at that point.

The Effects of Coaching Programme

Analysis revealed both individual and organizational level effects of the organizational coaching programme. Individual level effects are analyzed from the perspectives of both coachees and coaches, respectively.

The Effects of Coaching Programme on Coachees

In the context of the effects of the programme on coachees, three sub-themes emerged out of the comments of the respondents.

Increase in Positivity: All of the interviewees emphasized that there has been an increase in positive states, processes, perspectives and outcomes at coachees' lives, ending up with improved performance levels generally. A group of them referred to increase in self-efficacy/confidence, optimism, self-worth and well-being specifically. Here are representative and insightful comments of a coach and a coachee, respectively: *Coachees see the positive sides of the work with the help of coaching. Our country's conditions are apparent. They realize the strengths and weaknesses of this context generally and our company specifically. If we don't work on weaknesses and strengths, they are always inclined to see the negative sides. After this evaluation process, they realize that there are positive sides and mostly they are more. They start to base their judgements on facts, they become optimistic and self-confident based on awareness rather than assumptions.*

Coaching and reverse mentoring processes improved my self-confidence. I had a reverse mentoring experience with one of our executives and it was a pleasant experience. I felt happy and valuable. Since then, whenever she comes to our division, she recognizes me. That's motivating.

Self-awareness: Most of the respondents stated that the coaching and mentoring mechanisms had increased the coachees' self-awareness levels and end up with self-development as self-awareness is fundamental to personal development (Wales, 2002, p. 277) and the inital stage the self-development process (Knowdell, 1996). Comments of coachees shows this effect clearly: *Coaching and reverse mentoring systems have broaden my perspectives. I learned to look from various points to the same issues, problems.*

I recognized my development areas. Then I created a career plan with my coach. First phase was individual development. It affected my private life. I learned to observe relationships, I focused on my communication mistakes. Then in the second phase I focused on my career development.

Besides, all of the coaches especially emphasized that they aimed to increase self-awareness of their coachees to end up with positive individual and organizational outcomes. Here is a representative comment of an internal coach: *Our primary goal is increasing awareness. Self-aware employees know how to manage their performance, how to adapt themselves to working life and learn how to create a comfortable work setting for themselves. This process ends up with loyal, happy, motivated employees. As their motivation increases, their performance levels also increase.*

In parallel with this comment, as people's self-awareness levels increase, their understanding regarding their strengths, weaknesses, values, drives, emotions and their impact on others improve (Goleman, 1998: 4). The comment of a coachee represents the effect of coaching on self-awareness: *I couldn't express myself before because I was not aware of what I really expect from both my private life and work life. Now I can exactly say what I really want, what I am capable of and what my weaknesses are. I found my own development way with coaching.*

Besides, coachees become more aware of how their feelings affect them and how this might influence their desire and motivational level, their behaviour, their work, their impact on other individuals and ultimately their success (Wales, 2002, p. 277). The qualitative comments obtained from a coach made this point explicitly: *One of my coachees said that she would like to focus on an area but couldn't as she was not aware of her skills, potential and expertise. After coaching we realized that what she thought, regarding her wishes was totally different than what she really wanted. Now she knows what to do. She defined her aim and we are working on how to reach this aim. She always says that she has developed herself after these awareness efforts.*

Awareness Regarding Performance and Career Goals: Respondents emphasized that they observed increase in awareness regarding performance and career goals of coachees. In most cases, self-awareness extends to an individual's understanding of his/her values and goals. As they become more aware of themselves, they know where they are headed and why (Goleman, 1998, p. 4), so for instance they can reject a job offer or a position, which is appealing financially but does not match their values or career goals. As one of the senior coach experienced: *When we do coaching, as we are a part of an emotional society, we can affect their lives. They become aware of themselves, and why they behave such a way. It mostly ends up positive outcomes. However, a few of my coachees realized that their person-organization fit was low and they left. This may be considered as a negative outcome but it was a win-win one. The ones, who left were not happy and able to show their full potential, ending up with lower individual performance. We still keep in touch with them. They are happier and we fulfilled the positions with the ones, whose person-organization fit is higher.*

Besides, as Coe and his colleagues (2013) stated "Organizations are either hiring coaches or training their employees to be internal coaches to coach executives, leaders, and employees about the way they interact with others, understand the way they solve problems and help them clarify their career and performance goals". Here are representative and insightful comments of a coach and a coachee, respectively: *They learn to evaluate their performance. Their awareness regarding such questions, "Why their performance is poor or improving?", "With which key performance indicator do they have problems?" have increased. They find the answers and solutions themselves. This increases their self-efficacy and then performance levels.*

I was aware of what I want but I had no plan to reach my career goals. After coaching I realized what I should want, then I see where I am and where I should lead. I learned to define my career phases. Before coaching I thought that I was in an ocean, after coaching I feel as if I am in a small lake, which I am familiar with.

The Effects of Coaching Programme on Coaches

In the context of the effects of the programme on coaches, two sub-themes emerged out of the comments of the respondents.

Increase in Positivity: All of the coaches emphasized that there has been an increase in their positive perspectives generally and self-confidence levels specifically. As a young coach stated: *I changed the negative definitions into positive ones in my life. I have become a positive person: Optimism, positivity are my lifestyle now.*

Most of the coaches in this study, commented on the increase in their own self-confidence just like the coachees. Comments such as "*Your self-confidence level increases. You know how to lead your life and others' lives as well"* suggest that coaching increases confidence in oneself. Besides, it also increases a person's interest in others and other opportunities and improves relationships. This was supported by another senior female coach, who said that she had better relationships and more courage, and another younger male coach, who said he was more self-confident due to additional opportunities: *After coaching I know how to balance my relationships at both my private life and work life. I have a deeper understanding now. I don't experience work-life conflict anymore. I have two children and I coach them. I know how to direct them. I know how to interact with my team members. This gives me a courage and confidence*.

I know I have an additional profession. This increases my self-confidence. If I have to or want to leave the company, I can earn my living via coaching.

Self- Development: Most of the coaches stated that they developed themselves generally and their skills specifically while coaching. As an internal coach stated: *While coaching you develop as well. This is an exchange. You learn also from the coachees. I learned to see the full part of the glass rather than the empty part. I learned to actively listen and stay neutral.*

Besides, intrinsic motivation is an essential and desirable component for people who deal with their own development and learning in a proactive manner (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009, p. 36). This was supported by an internal coach, who said that her intrinsic motivation and development levels increased due to years of coaching experiences: *Coaching process is tailored for each person. However, when you do it for many years you know what are the expectations of and solutions for the coachees. You develop yourself. They cry sometimes, they want to leave but they are still with us. Being able to help them, keep them going on, developing my coaching skills give me inner motivation.*

The Effects of Coaching Programme on the Organization

In the context of the effects of the programme on the organization, one sub-theme emerged out of the comments of the respondents.

Increase in Organizational Performance: There is evidence in literature that employee satisfaction and commitment are predictors of organizational performance (Ostroff, 1992; Steyrer, Schiffinger, & Lang, 2008). Besides it is argued that commitment may result in higher performance and may decrease turnover rates (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Randall, 1987). Most of the interviewees emphasized that there has been an increase in satisfaction levels of both employees and clients after the coaching programme, thus leading to increase in organizational performance levels. As one of the internal coaches pointed out: *After the coaching programme both the coachee and the client satisfaction levels have increased. Both parties have felt the difference. The happier employees served better, the clients became happier and the performance of our company increased*.

Comments such as "*When the coaching machanism works well, you never loose your employees. You find the right place for them. So, our turnover rates are very low. We increase their awareness levels, then they realize that they are suitable for the company or position. If not, we find them alternative positions and opportunities. So their commitment and performance level increase as we try really hard for them*." suggest that coaching increases the commitment and performance levels of the employees, thus leading to decrease in the turnover rates and increase in the organizational performance levels.

PRACTICE IMPLICATIONS

This research revealed that that organizational coaching has both individual and organizational level effects and channel individuals' strengths, capabilities, and psychological capacities toward achieving self-awareness, self-development, increase in positivity, awareness regarding performance and career goals and thus, result in improved individual and organizational performance. Additionally, the positive effects of coaching on attitudes, such as job satisfaction and commitment were also found, leading to decrease in turnover rates and increase in organizational performance. Besides, the characteristics, enablers and challenges of an ideal coaching system were proposed to guide researchers, practitioners, human resources experts, coaches and coachees.

In this regard, to design an ideal organizational coaching mechanism, the following suggestions are offered based on the comments of the respondents:

- The coaching sessions should be conducted one-to-one, enriched with mentoring when necessary and time schedules should be arranged based on the workloads and made known to both coaches and coachees as early as possible.
- Internal coaches should be accredited ones to enable effective implementation of coaching practices and principles, whereas all coachees should be trained about the aim and essentials of coaching processes to clarify their expectations regarding such programmes.
- Both culture and management should be supportive, development-oriented and open to change to design and sustain an effective coaching mechanism.
  The fit between the organizational culture and the aims and principles of the coaching system should be considered to design and maintain an effective coaching mechanism.
- A trust climate should be created by ensuring the confidentiality of exchanges by coach-coachee dyads.
- Pilot sessions should be conducted to see if the coach-coachee match is appropriate. The dyads should be formed based on the consent of both parties.
- To evaluate the effectiveness of the programme and ensure its success, reporting systems should be designed and success stories of dyads should be shared to encourage others to participate in the programme.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

As there is limited studies on the experience of both coaches and coachees in the organizational context (see Rostron, 2011; Archer, & Yates, 2017), the case study method was used as it enables to document unique situations, and acts as a starting point at the preliminary phases of a new research direction (Yin, 2009). Narratives of both the coaches' and coachees' provided beneficial insights and in-depth information about the coaching process when compared to results that are offered by numerical data. However, they did not allow the researcher to make generalizable evaluations regarding the coaching systems or compare the results between different forms of coaching interventions. For further evaluation, it would be beneficial to find out if the findings would replicate in a larger scale study either in the same organization or in other organizational contexts, having coaching systems in place.

CONCLUSION

In the light of these comprehensive findings and literature review this study highlights that organizational coaching has positive individual and organizational-level effects.

Both coaches and coachees emphasized that there has been an increase in positivity, ending up with improved performance levels. In the context of positivity, increase in self-efficacy/confidence, self-development, optimism, self-worth and well-being were pointed out by the respondents specifically. The link between coaching and self-awareness levels was highly emphasized by both parties. Increased self-awareness ended up with increased self-development levels, leading to positive outcomes, such as happiness, higher performance and motivation levels. After the coaching programme it became apparent that the awareness regarding performance and career goals also increased and lead to a positive increase in performance levels of coachees. Finally, both coaches and coachees emphasized that there has been an increase in commitment, job satisfaction and client satistafacton levels, which lead to decrease in turnover rates and ultimately increase in organizational performance levels.

The characteristics, enablers and challenges of an ideal coaching system were also highlighted by the respondents. Thus, one-to-one coaching sessions that lead to effective and transparent communication, overcoming time pressures arising from demanding worklaods that leave insufficient time for sessions were specifically emphasized by coachees. Besides in the context of effective implementation of the programme the importance of accreditation for internal coaches, volunterism, effective matching criteria for coach-coachee dyads and reporting systems were highlighted to design an ideal system. All of the accredited coaches, and a group of coachees specifically pointed out the role of supportive organizational culture and management. In parallel with this, most of the internal coaches highlighted the importance of the fit between culture of the organization and the values, aims and principles of the coaching system to design and maintain an effective coaching mechanism. Finally, a group of coaches, who are active in various coaching associations pointed out that the awareness regarding the coaching system should be increased in early years of education and it should be an integral part of education system in Turkey.

Additionally, while some researchers distinguish personal coaching from organizational coaching, this research shows that this distinction becomes less obvious in practice. Both coaches and coachees emphasized that when coaching concerns performance issues, it may tap into various domains, such as work–life balance, personal factors and the expectations thus may have impact on both the personal and the professional functioning of the coachee. Besides, both parties emphasized that coaching cannot be purely applied as a single mechanism in Turkish organizations and it is better to design an organizational system, in which coaching and mentoring go hand in hand. To conclude, this study clearly shows that organizational coaching is a positive intervention that channel individuals' skills, strengths and psychological capacities toward achieving self-awareness, self-development, increasing positivity, and thus result in improved individual and workplace performance.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Coaching: A developmental intervention aiming to increase awareness regarding problems, and/or situations in general and self-awareness in specific.

Organizational Coaching: A positive organizational intervention that aims to improve organizational performance by triggering positive organizational behaviors.

Positive Organizational Intervention: A strengths-based intervention, which aims to increase individual and organizational performance.

Positive Organizational Scholarship: An approach that focuses on the positive dynamics in organizations.

Positive Organizational Behavior: An approach within organizational behavior that focuses on major individual strengths to increase organizational performance.

Positive Psychological Capital: Psychological resources, such as self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism, which are termed as “positive psychological capital” collectively.

Positive Psychology: A discipline that focuses on the well-being of people by triggering the strengths of them.

Chapter 4
A Literature Review on Mindfulness at Work Places:
Conceptualization, Measurement, and Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

Although there are remarkable researches from different fields, little research has focused on how mindfulness relates to work-related outcomes. Since it is a new concept in an organizational context, there is a need for more studies to clarify the conceptualization and measurement of mindfulness and enhance the understanding of its relationships with related work-outcomes. This present study provides a detailed review of published studies that have defined and measure mindfulness in the work context and examined the relationship between mindfulness and possible work-related outcomes such as performance and wellbeing. As well as work-related outcomes, mediator and moderator variables were taken into consideration to enhance understanding of how mindfulness affects each outcome.

INTRODUCTION

For centuries, many cultures mentioned the benefits of mindfulness – a psychological state in which one focuses attention on events occurring in the present moment (Brown and Ryan, 2003; Dane, 2011). While mindfulness is often associated with traditions that are more philosophical than scientific, remarkable researches from different fields (Dane and Brummel, 2013) such as: clinical and counseling psychology (Shapiro et al., 2008), social and personality psychology (Niemiec et al., 2010, Teper et al., 2013), education and business (Burke, 2010, Dane and Brummel, 2013), validate the critical role of mindfulness in shaping human behavior. Particular psychologists and medical practitioners have raised interest in this phenomena by using mindfulness meditation. Since the concept of mindfulness has become highly popular, Amazon.com has over 2,000 books on mindfulness, and PsycINFO includes over 2,000 articles, papers, and dissertations about mindfulness (Glomb et al., 2012)

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However, mindfulness also states the valuable meaning for organizations. Weick and Sutcliffe (2006) indicated that "all things are preceded by mind… and the mind indicates the complex of man's faculties involved in perceiving, remembering, considering, evaluating and deciding ..organizing and organizational learning are dependent on qualities of mind and the way those qualities interrelate". (p.515). From this perspective to focus on the mind may also help to understand behaviors in organizations. In recent years, organizations seem to understand the importance of mindfulness at workplaces that many organizations and corporations have started conducting mindfulness programs to their workforce. Companies including Aetna, General Mills, Google (Kelly and some universities such as Harvard business school, Stern School of Business at New York University, The U.S. Army have established mindfulness-based training programs to improve employee well-being and performance. (Hyland et al., 2015) Although this growing interest, academic researches investigating the potential benefits of mindfulness at work are still required. This

may be due to the difficulty of the conceptualization and operationalization of mindfulness that it is defined in different ways and there is a lack of consensus on the measurement of the construct.

While mindfulness has received relatively little investigation from a workplace perspective, it is suggested that it can carry unique variance beyond some work-related variables. For example, Dane and Brummel, (2013) considered that mindfulness and engagement are two very similar concepts. Dimensions of work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption) are highly related concepts with mental resources to tasks and events unfolding in the present moment. Since work engagement and its dimensions have been connected many positive work-related attitudes and behaviors such as job performance, satisfaction, turnover (Christian et al., 2011; Halbesleben, 2010; Salanova et al., 2005), it is reasonable to expect the similar relationship between mindfulness and work-related outcomes. Dane and Brummel, (2013) study findings support for a positive relationship between workplace mindfulness and job performance that remains significant even when accounting for the influence of three dimensions of work engagement on performance. Studies also indicated that mindfulness might have buffered individuals against mental-illness such as depression, anxiety, feelings of impulsiveness, and obsessive thought at work; however, these mental illnesses may cause lost work days, turnover, and absenteeism in the organizations (Auten and Fritz,2008). Thus understanding the role of mind and mindfulness in predicting possible work-related outcomes is crucial.

Generally, literature review studies help us to deepen our understanding of the concepts, highlights gap and guide future researches. Whereas limited literature review studies have examined mindfulness at work. For example, Allen et al. (2015) prepared a commentary that focused on a careful review of 27 published studies evaluating mindfulness-based training targeting employees. Very recently, Eby et al., (2019) extended Alllen et al., (2015) work and provided qualitative review and in-depth examination of 67 published studies that have focused mindfulness-based training interventions conducted with employees. It is suggested that reviews of mindfulness studies in work context fail to distinguish between lines of research focusing on mindful states, trait-based mindfulness, and mindfulness interventions. To isolate the effects of mindful state and trait-based mindfulness from mindfulness intervention, the present study examines mindfulness focusing on mindful state and trait-based mindfulness researches in terms of their conceptualizing, measurement and outcomes at workplaces. Glomb et al., 2015 was also clarified the construct and review the literature related to the effect of mindfulness on health, performance, and well-being at workplaces, we differently just focused work-related outcomes, but go in more detail by analyzing measurement types. This updated knowledge will help practitioners to understand how mindfulness predict positive attitudes and behaviors and what degree mindfulness relates to work outcomes. What is the different conceptualization of mindfulness? What a kind of measurement design authors prefer and which scales are used to measure the construct? Our review will be useful for researchers interested in examining relations between mindfulness and work-related attitude and behaviors. Documenting which various outcomes have been studied with mindfulness will help researchers to determine gaps in the literature and provide a basis for the future meta-analytic and empirical studies.

Conceptualization of Mindfulness

Before investigating the relationship of mindfulness with possible outcomes, the definition of the concept must be clarified. However, mindfulness has been handled by many disciplines and defined in different ways. Dane (2011) has gathered all these definitions together and tried to clarify the mindfulness concept. The definitions of mindfulness arranged according to the disciplines, and the given resource is shown in Table 1.

Although they are from different perspectives when the expressions in the definitions are examined, it is seen that mindfulness refers to the kind of attention and awareness given to the present moment. Awareness is the most crucial aspect of mindfulness (Brown et al.,2007) and defined as "the conscious registration of stimuli, including the five physical senses, the kinesthetic senses, and the activities of

Table 1. Definition of mindfulness

Author	Domain	Definition
Brown, Ryan, and Creswell (2007, p. 212)	Academia	"A receptive attention to and awareness of present moment events and experience."
M. Epstein (1995, p. 96)	Academia	"Bare attention in which moment-to-moment awareness of changing objects of perception is cultivated."
Hanh (1976, p. 11)	Buddhism	"Keeping one's consciousness alive to the present reality."
Harvey (2000, p. 38)	Academia	"A state of keen awareness of mental and physical phenomena as they arise within and around [oneself]."
Herndon (2008, p. 32)	Academia	"Being attentively present to what is happening in the here and now."
Kabat-Zinn (2005, p. 4)	Academia and medical practice	"Paying attention in a particular way: on purpose, in the present moment, and nonjudgmentally."
Lau et al. (2006, p. 1447)	Academia	"A mode, or state-like quality, that is maintained only when attention to experience is intentionally cultivated with an open, nonjudgmental orientation to experience."
Nyanaponika (1972, p. 5)	Buddhism	"The clear and single-minded awareness of what happens to us and in us at the successive moments of perception."
Rosch (2007, p. 259)	Academia	"A simple mental factor that can be present or absent in a moment of consciousness. It means to adhere, at that moment, to the object of consciousness with a clear mental focus."
Thondup (1996, p. 48)	Buddhism and academia	"Giving full attention to the present, without worries about the past or future."
Weick and Sutcliffe (2006, p. 518)	Academia	"Eastern mindfulness means having the ability to hang on to current objects, to remember them, and not to lose sight of them through distraction, wandering attention, associative thinking, explaining away, or rejection."

Source: Dane (2011)

the mind." Brown et al. (2007, p. 212). While, *attention was defined as* a process of focusing conscious awareness, and providing sensitivity to a selected experience, awareness works as radar at the background of consciousness and scans inner side and outer environment continuously (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Some researches indicated that attention and awareness are distinct components but they are so closely intertwined (Mikulas, 2011; VanDam et al.,2010). Consciousness covers both attention and awareness, and it is possible to be aware of without giving attention (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Differently, from attention, awareness lets individuals understand their thoughts and feelings; in this way, they can respond to them rather than reacting them (mindless action and that performance improves when coded information is differentiated more fully and more creatively. Such differentiation is a joint product Brown and Ryan 2003). In addition to the emphasis on the present and awareness, the definition of Lau et al. (2006) and Weick and Sutcliffe (2006) mentioned that mindfulness is also related to accepting the current situation without judgment and resistance. Thus it is clear from definitions that the second aspect of mindfulness is acceptance of emotions and thoughts that help to improved emotion regulation and executive control (Teper et al., 2013). Some definitions also mentioned the need the focus of attention to both insides (cognitions, feelings) and outside (environment, social interactions) (Harvey, 2000; Nyanaponika, 1972). Focusing both in and out can help an individual to see the reality without judgment and evaluation. However non-judgement doesn't mean to be indifferent to reality, rather it means to accept what is happening and take everything as it comes (Leroyt et al., 2013).

Definitions above, generally reflect the eastern mindfulness approach and give more emphasis on awareness, attention and non-judgemental observation. However, mindfulness also defined from different perspectives. There is also another definition of mindfulness given by Langer (1989) as ''active information processing'' (p. 138). According to Langer (1989) who assessed the concept from a Western line suggested that mindfulness is highly related to making a distinction. She argued that "routines induce of refining existing categories, adopting new categories, and developing greater awareness of multiple perspectives on context." (Weick and Sutcliffe, 2006, p.516). Langer described mindfulness as "mindfulness is focused on learning to switch modes of thinking rather than on meditation, and is also concerned with the process of noticing new things that involve seeing both similarities in things thought different and differences in things thought similar" (Langer 2005, p. 16). Smilarly, Krieger's (2005) evaluated mindfulness as a kind of information processing and defined as "mindfulness is a psychological state in which individuals engage in active information processing while performing their current tasks such that they are actively analyzing, categorizing, and making distinctions in data (p.127). Levinthal and Rerup (2006) described it "as high sensitivity of perception and high flexibility of behavior to respond to diverse, changing stimuli (p. 505). From this point of view, Mindfulness allows one to get rid of habitual and routine interpretation of stimuli that lead to mindlessness. In this manner, stimuli and information can be perceived and processed in a more creative and differentiated way, allowing the creation and refinement of categories, connections, and perspectives (Reb et al., 2014).

Another essential point in which the authors differentiate was the question of whether mindfulness is a meditation, state, ability or a trait (Reb et al., 2015). Although it is generally conceptualized as a state (Glomb et al., 2015), several studies have revealed that mindfulness is a feature that differs from person to person and although existing in the same environment, some individuals are more prone to being mindful than others (Baer et al., 2004; Brown and Ryan, 2003; Lau et al., 2006). Kabat-Zinn (2005) argued that the ability to have a mindful state is an inherent human capacity. In this sense like other psychological concepts mindfulness has been conceptualized as both state and trait level (Dane,2011).

There is also a confusion associated with the concept of mindfulness and its relation to meditation. Mindfulness and meditation are two terms generally used interchangeably. Traditions from the past and recent researches showed that mindfulness is a state which can be cultivated through various practices such as meditation, therapeutic techniques, and interventions and by this way individuals can be trained to develop the ability to achieve mindful states (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Nevertheless, Brown & Ryan (2003) has clarified that mindfulness does not always require meditation or intervention; individuals who have never meditated in their lives can have great ability to focuses attention on events occurring in the present moment.

Being in a state of mindfulness can be restricted in various ways; thus being absent-minded appears as a collective experience. For example, one can pull away from his attention and awareness from the present because of absorption in the past, or fantasies and anxieties about the future (Brown and Ryan, 2003). It was assessed as one of another aspect of (lack of) mindfulness (Mrazek et al. 2012; Brown and Ryan 2003). Under the lack of mindfulness situation, rules and routines are more likely predict our behavior, we are more tend to perform tasks automatically, and this can lead to mindless behavior (Smallwood and Schooler, 2006). For example, performing tasks on autopilot, daydreaming, worrying about the future, or ruminating about the past are characteristic of mindlessness (Brown and Ryan 2003). However, absent-mindedness is not the direct opposite construct of mindfulness. For example, one can pay attention to a movie in a lack of awareness that doing so (Reb et al., 2015).

When trying to understand the aspects of mindfulness concept, researchers also tried to explain what mindfulness is not and how it is distinguished from various constructs such as; emotional intelligence, self-awareness, and engagement (Dane and Brummel, 2013; Dane, 2011; Brown and Ryan, 2003). Dane (2011) suggested that mindfulness can be compared with various constructs according to two dimensions: 1) temporal orientation and 2) attentional breadth. Regarding temporal orientation, mindfulness is related to the “present attention,” and this may distinguish it from other constructs that are related to attention towards past or future. As second, attentional breadth is about the number and range of stimuli in a period, and mindfulness maybe considers very wide in attentional breadth. Based on these two dimensions, Dane (2011) compared mindfulness with several constructs; absorption, flow, mind wandering, counterfactual thinking, prospection, fantasizing. Absorption is one of the core dimension of job engagement and defined as “deeply attentive to and engage with a particular role, activity or task” (Dane, 2011 pg. 1001). Although like mindfulness, absorption consists of attention to the present moment, it distinguishes from mindfulness by involving narrow attentional breadth.

Similarly, mindfulness is different from the state of flow, in the same way, it is defined as a “high level of engagement in an optimally challenging activity that produces intense concentration and a strong feeling of control” (Dane, 2011, pg. 1001). Unlike mindfulness, in a state of flow, one highly focused on a narrow task and can’t detect other stimuli. Next, counterfactual thinking also distinguishes from mindfulness because it involves thinking about “what could have been” and focus on an alternative reality instead of the reality of the present. Prospection –focusing on future actions- and fantasizing –focus on events that might happen- are also distinguish from mindfulness in temporal orientation.

Dane and Brummel (2013) compared mindfulness and work engagement with considering its subdimensions. Work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by *vigor, dedication, and absorption* whereby vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work, and absorption refers to being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Schaufeli, 2013, pg.6). From the aspect of giving entirely mental resources to the present event and tasks, mindfulness and engagement are similar. However, mindfulness is a cognitive construct while vigor, dedication, and absorption are more effective qualities Thus work engagement has been compared with other work attitudes such as commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement (Dane and Brummel, 2013). Regarding their work-related outcomes, mindfulness and work-engagement seem to be both predictors of job performance. However, it is suggested that although they both affect job performance, their mechanisms to effect are very different (Dane and Brummel, 2013). While work engagement influence performance via increasing effort and motivation, mindfulness helps individuals to cope with challenges through self-regulation or stress and anxiety reduction.

Finally, several authors used the term "workplace mindfulness" which refers to "individuals who are mindful in their work settings". (Dane and Brummel, 2013, p.108). There are individual differences in the ability to have a mindful state. "This ability or enthusiasm has been termed as dispositional mindfulness" (Taylor and Millear, 2016, p.123). Thus some authors have preferred to used "dispositional mindfulness" term. (Taylor and Millear, 2016; Malinowski and Lim, 2015).

Although some individuals tend to be more mindful inherently, it is believed that workplace mindfulness may also be effected from working settings. Thus workplace mindfulness was assessed as a learnable concept, and it is determined by the interaction of individual and contextual properties just like other employee attitudes (Westerman and Vanka, 2005). In the following part of the study, workplace mindfulness and its outcomes are reviewed and summarized in related literature.

MINDFULNESS MEASUREMENT AND WORK RELATED OUTCOMES

Psychological researches suggested that mindfulness is associated with a variety of outcomes such as; well-being in terms of overall happiness, life satisfaction and environment satisfaction (Jacob and Brinkerhoff, 1999), openness to experience, attention, internal state awareness and negatively associated with social anxiety (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Kiken and Shook (2011) examined the relation between mindfulness and the tendency to weigh negative information more heavily than positive and suggested that mindfulness increases favorable judgments and reduces negativity bias. Studies also found that mindfulness help individuals with learning disabilities, reduce anxiety, enhance social skills and academic performance (Beauchemin et al., 2008; Shao & Karlicki,2009). Encouraged by these findings, organizational scholars have started to explore the role of mindfulness in organizations (e.g., Dane 2011; Glomb et al. 2011; Weick and Putnam 2006). Although empirical research on mindfulness in the workplace is quite limited, Well-being and the performance-related behaviors at work are two common work outcomes associated with the domains of mindfulness (Dane and Brummel, 2013). It is believed that mindfulness improves the work-related outcomes by providing self-regulation of thoughts, emotions, behaviors, and ability to control physiological reactions and these will lead to relationship quality, indicative of resiliency and improve task performance (Glomb et al.,2015).

In the literature, individual performance is one of the most associated variables with mindfulness. There is some evidence for the relationship between mindfulness and cognitive performance. Herndon (2008) indicated that trait mindfulness was associated with fewer cognitive failures (i.e., forgetting, distraction, blunders), which suggests that if mindfulness is associated with greater attention to external stimuli, and therefore, fewer cognitive failures, then a variety of favorable work outcomes are likely to follow including increased performance and fewer accidents (Glomb et al., 2015, p.142). The relationship between mindfulness and individual performance was explained by two reasons (Shao & Karlicki, 2009). First researches showed that mental focus was positively related with individual performance (Lee, et al., 2003) and from the view of motivation theory (Vroom, 1964) resilience to distractions help individual to sustain their efforts. Shao and Skarlicki (2009) suggested that to be aware of what is taking place in the present, lead one to focus, maintain and sustain attention and decrease stress, thus have a great potential to contribute to individual performance. Thus, more mindful employees may be able to achieve better expected work-related goals (Reb et al.,2015). There have been several types of researches that can provide evidence for the positive effect of mindfulness on individual performance at workplaces (Dane and Brummel, 2013; Ostafin and Kassman, 2012; Shao and Karlicki, 2009). However, Dane (2011) argued that mindfulness may not always provide positive outcomes. From the point of contingency theory, he suggested that mindfulness will effect task performance positively if the one operates in the dynamic work environment and has task expertise. Otherwise, the relationship between mindfulness and task performance may be negative in a static environment and lack of task expertise.

As work engagement has become one of the most desired positive attitudes in workplaces, the question of "is mindfulness cause more engaged employees at workplaces" was investigated by scholars (Malinowski and Lim, 2015; Leroy et al., 2013). Based on self-determination theory, work engagement may be related to mindfulness in two ways, directly and indirectly. Directly, mindfulness leads individuals to be more focus and attentive and indirectly increase an individual's authentic functioning. The second way needs internal awareness which helps employees to be true self and act sincerely, and this will bring the real potential and motivation and support engagement (Leroy et al., 2013).

It is suggested that the effect of mindfulness on organizational citizenship behavior or received and perceived social support may work through an individual's positive social connections. Mindfulness leads employees to react rather than a response to certain situations because it provides employees to be more in touch with oneself and also others. This increased empathy and response flexibility. These two are important facets related to mindfulness and help one to build positive social connections (Auten and Fritz, 2018).

Mindfulness also helps employees in balancing their different roles. According to role balance theory, Marks and MacDermid (1996) mentioned that "positive role balance is the tendency to approach every typical role and role partner with an attitude of attentiveness and care. The present moment alertness that is a part of mindfulness should enable individuals to fully immerse themselves with care and attentiveness while engaged in each role. This practice should facilitate perceived balance across roles". (Allen and Kiburz, 2012, p.373).

Mindfulness was also assessed as a new personal trait that can buffer burnout at workplaces (Taylor and Millear, 2016; Cohen-Katx et al., 2005). Since stress is seen as the most important reason of burnout (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), mindfulness may lead employees to pay attention to the present, reduce stress and burnout at workplaces (Taylor and Millear, 2016).

Studies also differentiated from each other in terms of their measurement methods. According to measurement methods, we can categorize studies in three groups; 1) Studies use scales to measure mindfulness as a trait (Allen and Kiburz, 2012; Dane and Brummel, 2013; Malinowski and Lim, 2015; Reb et al., 2015; Shao and Skarlicki, 2009, etc.) 2) Studies use some mindfulness intervention, such as the mindfulness-based stress reduction programs (Kabat-Zinn, J. 2003), this kind of studies generally coming from medicine and psychology field and excluded from the scope of this study, and finally 3) Studies use both scales and intervention (Cohen-Katx et al., 2005 ; Husheger et al., 2013; Leroy et al., 2013; Ostafin and Kassman, 2012). In survey and experimental research, 15-item mindful attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003) is the most preferred one-dimension scale and following this, 39-item Five Factor Mindfulness Questionnaire (Baer et al. 2006) is the second most commonly used scale to measure mindfulness. Researchers generally use regression, multiple regression and structural equation modeling techniques to analyze which constructs are predicted by mindfulness. Anova and t-test are generally used in studies which are consisting of intervention to compare groups. Detailed categorization in terms of measurement method can be seen in tTable2.

Dane and Brummel (2013) suggested that some of the studies adopted a collective, rather than individual, level of analysis (Rerup, 2009; Vogus and Welbourne, 2003; Weick et al., 1999) however more studies are needed focus on formative and individual accounts of mindfulness to enlarge the understanding of mindful concepts and its effect at workplaces. In the following section, studies aimed to understand mindfulness at workplaces in individual level have been summarized and discussed.

Dane and Brummel (2013) have investigated how mindfulness related to job performance, well-being and turnover in a dynamic work environment and collected data from American Chain Restaurants (n=102). Findings indicated a positive relationship between workplace mindfulness and job performance for all three work engagement dimensions. They also find support for a negative relationship between workplace mindfulness and turnover intention. However, this relationship becomes insignificant when accounting for the dimensions of work engagement.

Ostafin and Kassman (2012) conducted a study (n= 157) to examine the relationship between mindfulness and an individual's problem-solving performance. Participants completed a measure of trait mindfulness and a series of insight and non-insight problems. Results indicated that mindful awareness predicts performance on insight but not non-insight problem solving, was supported with a positive relationship between mindful awareness and insight problem-solving. Result also indicated that mindfulness training improves the insight problem-solving performance. These results were also the first to document a direct relation between mindfulness and creativity.

Shao & Karlicki, (2009) conducted a study on MBA students (n=149) to find out the relationship between mindfulness and individual performance. They suggested that gender and mindfulness interacted to predict performance. They have found a significant positive relationship with mindfulness and performance for women whereas the association was not significant for men.

Hülsheger et al., (2013) investigated the negative relationship between mindfulness and emotional exhaustion and a positive relationship between mindfulness and job satisfaction. The research was conducted in two separate studies. In the first study, the diary technique was used with 219 employees, and in the second study (n = 64) self-trained mindfulness intervention group and control group were compared. Study results revealed that employees participate the mindfulness intervention training have less emotional exhaustion and more satisfaction. Surface acting was found as a mediator in this causal effect.

Reb et al., (2015) conducted a field survey n=231 examined the relationship between two facets of mindfulness, awareness, and absent-mindedness with several work-related outcomes; Task performance, Job satisfaction, Emotional exhaustion, Organizational citizenship behavior, Psychological need satisfaction, and Deviance. Multiple Regression Analysis results indicated that employee awareness was a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta=0.45$, $p<0.001$), psychological need satisfaction ($\beta=0.29$, $p<0.05$), Emotional exhaustion ($\beta=-0.19$, $p=0.05$), task performance ($\beta=0.18$, $p<0.05$, and OCB ($\beta=0.29$, $p<0.05$), while absent-mindedness predicted Emotional exhaustion ($\beta=0.23$, $p<0.05$, task performance ($\beta=-0.19$, $p<0.05$) and deviance ($\beta=-0.31$, $p<0.01$).

Table 2. Conceptualization, measurement and work-related outcomes of mindfulness

Author	Conceptualization	Type of Measurement		Work-related outcome	Mediator/ moderator	Type of analysis	Results
		Scale	Intervention				
Allen and Kiburz, (2012)	Dispositional mindfulness	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	No	-Work-family balance	-Sleep quality -Vitality	Regression	Supported
Cohen-Katx et al., (2005)	Awareness and attention	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	Yes	-Burnout (emotional exhaustion) - Psychological distress	-	independent *t*-test	Supported for burnout
Dane and Brummel, (2013)	Workplace mindfulness	7-item Workplace mindfulness scale adapted from MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	No	-Job performance -Turnover Intention	-	Hierarchical regression	Supported
Husher et al., 2013	Awareness and attention	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	Yes	-Emotional exhaustion -Job satisfaction	-Surface acting	Structural Equation Modeling	Supported
Leroy et al., (2013)	Awareness and attention	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	Yes	-Work engagement	-Authentic functioning	Structural Equation Modeling	Supported Mediation effect (partially supported)
Malinowski and Lim, (2015)	Dispositional mindfulness	39-item self-report Five facet mindfulness Questionnaire (Baer et al., 2006).	No	-Work engagement -General well-being	-PsyCap -Positive affect	Structural Equation Modeling	Supported
Ostafin and Kassman, (2012)	Awareness and attention	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	Yes	-Problem-solving performance	-Positive affect -Mindfulness training	Correlation Anova	Supported
Reb et al., (2015)	-Employee awareness -Absent-mindedness	Two factors of the Five Factor Mindfulness Questionnaire adapted to the work context. (Baer et al. 2006)	No	-Emotional exhaustion, -Job satisfaction, -Psychological need satisfaction, -Task performance, -Organizational citizenship behaviors, -Deviance.	-	Multiple regression analyses	Partially supported

continues on following page

Table 2. Continued

Author	Conceptualization	Type of Measurement		Work-related outcome	Mediator/ moderator	Type of analysis	Results
		Scale	Intervention				
Reb et al., (2014)	-Awareness -Non-Judging	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	No	-Emotional exhaustion -Worklife balance -Overall job performance -Deviance -Job satisfaction -Task performance - Organizational citizenship behaviors	-Psychological need satisfaction	Structural Equation Modeling	Supported
Shao and Skarlicki, (2009)	Awareness and attention	15-item Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown and Ryan, 2003)	No	-Individual performance	Gender	-	Supported by women
Taylor and Millear, (2016)	Dispositional mindfulness	39-item self-report Five facet mindfulness Questionnaire (Baer et al., 2006).	No	-Burnout (emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy)	-	HierarchicalMultiple Regression	Partially Supported
Zhang et al., (2013)	Presence Acceptance	14-item Freiburg Mindfulness Inventory (FMI)	No	-Task performance -Safety performance	Task complexity (moderator)	Hierarchical multiple regression analysis	Partially supported.

Malinowski and Lim (2015) investigated the relationship between the multi-faceted construct of mindfulness (Acting aware, non-judging, describing, non-reacting) and two outcomes; work engagement and well-being (n=229). Results of the SEM analysis indicated that dispositional mindfulness is a predictor of both work-engagement and well-being. Further, "positive job-related effect" and "psychological capital" mediated these relationships.

Taylor and Millear (2016) investigated the relationship between mindfulness and burnout also by taking into account the sub-dimensions of both concepts. Five facets of mindfulness (observe, describe, act-aware, non-judge, non-react) and three components of burnout (emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy) have been analyzed on employees (n= 381). Results indicated different facets of that mindfulness were a predictor of different components of burnout. Furthermore, mindfulness examined together with other burnout predictors like workplace resources, workplace demand through Hierarchical Multiple Regression. It was indicated that "mindfulness could be considered as another personal source, in addition to the benefits of personal and workplace resources that the individual gives to prevent burnout" (Taylor and Millear, 2016, p.126).

Similarly, Cohen-Katx et al., (2005) searched the relationship between mindfulness and burnout on Nursing professionals which may be characterized by high stress. Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction (MBSR) program was conducted to nurses in clinical practice (n=14). Pre-intervention (T1),post-intervention (T2) and control groups have formed, and measurement results for each group have compared. Study results indicated that MBSR had caused an increase in mindful awareness and attention while a decrease in burnout.

Leroy et al., 2013) tested the relationship between mindfulness, Authentic functioning, and engagement. The study conducted longitudinal and data collected in the three-time period - Before the mindfulness training, just after the mindfulness training and four months later the mindfulness training-from six different organization. Results supported the positive relationship between mindfulness and work engagement and mediation role of Authentic functioning between this relationship has been supported for the dynamic relationship.

Zhang et al., (2013) adapted the Freiburg Mindfulness Inventory (FMI) and formed a two-dimensional scale consisting of presence and acceptance facets of mindfulness. Further, they investigated the effect of trait mindfulness on task and safety performance through a sample of 136 Chinese nuclear power plant operators. Task complexity examined as a moderator variable. Results indicated that trait mindfulness and task complexity interacted to influence performance. For high-complexity-task holders, the presence factor of trait mindfulness had a significant positive influence on their task and safety performance; for low complexity task holders, it had a negative influence on task performance but a non-significant influence on safety performance.

Finally, Reb et al., (2014), investigated how the leader's mindfulness affect the well-being and performance of employees. The study was different from other studies in terms of examining interpersonal influences. They collected data from both employees and supervisors (n=169) and tested the relationship between mindfulness and different facets of well-being such as job satisfaction and need satisfaction, and different dimensions of employee performance, such as in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. They also hypothesized that psychological need satisfaction mediates the relationship between supervisor mindfulness and employee performance. Results indicated that all hypothesized relationships were supported. This study revealed that supervisor mindfulness is a highly effective concept of employees well-being and performance outcomes.

CONCLUSION

The present study provides a detailed review of empirical studies from a workplace context and highlights the number of benefits. Examining workplace mindfulness and its relations indicated that mindfulness is a strong predictor of desired work attitudes and behaviors at workplaces. Job performance (overall, task, problem-solving) is one of the highly related constructs to mindfulness. Our review indicated that performance was followed by work-engagement, burnout, organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. These outcomes generally collected into two groups as; performance and well-being variables. This study also examines the mediator and moderator variables to understand deeply how mindfulness effect outcomes. The analysis mentioned that personal characteristics such as; gender (Shao and Skarlicki,2009) positive affect (Ostafin and Kassman, 2012; Malinowski and Lim, 2015) and some contextual characteristics such as task complexity, dynamic environment differentiated these relationships (Dane and Brummel, 2013). However little empirical research has focused on mediator and moderator variables.

Reviewing the literature in terms of mindfulness definitions provide differentiating it from other concepts and also understand what mindfulness is not. While defining the construct, authors generally use two facets of mindfulness; attention and awareness. This conceptualization was operationalized with one-dimension scale (MAAS, Brown and Ryan, 2003). It is seen that although many different facets of mindfulness have been discussed in the literature, only two-facet were operationalized. There is also a scale consisting of five facets of mindfulness (Baer et al., 2006) however it was used in very little empirical researches.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Although there are several studies investigating the relationship between mindfulness and other performance and well-being construct at work, it is pretty clear that there is still a serious potential for many positive outcomes associated with mindfulness. Literature review studies are useful to see the gaps. Besides this, similar concepts may give insight in terms of potential relations. For example, Dane and Brummel (2013) developed their hypothesis by inspiring from one of close concept, engagement.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

First of all, although there are considerable studies, it is suggested that more research needs to examine the function of mindfulness in organizational settings (Shao and Karlicki,2009). Except for a few authors (Dane and Brummel, 2013) studies generally focused on the outcomes; however, we know very little about the antecedence of mindfulness. It is suggested that "this is because most existing scales conceptualize mindfulness as a relatively stable trait, which exists in both state and trait versions, being a noteworthy exception). This approach de-emphasizes questions about antecedents" (Reb et al., 2015, p.113). Focusing on antecedence may help us to understand why individuals differ in workplace mindfulness. However, an individual's mindfulness not only affected by personal characteristics but also derived by organizational context. Many studies revealed that mindfulness interventions improve employees' mindfulness (Cohen-Katx et al., 2005; Husheger et al., 2013; Leroy et al., 2013; Ostafin and Kassman, 2012). Future researches may investigate how contextual factors improve mindfulness. Shao and Skarlicki, (2009) suggested examining the interactive effect of mindfulness with contextual factors in predict outcomes.

One another suggestion to future researches may be to conduct more cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Mindfulness by its nature is a constantly changing and evolving feature; thus to get more reliable results; it will be better to collect data in different periods.

Finally, it is suggested that mindfulness is not magic and it also has a "dark side." There have been no studies that investigate the negative effects. For example, studies indicated that mindfulness hurts experiencing pain (Kabat-Zinn, Lipworth, & Burney, 1985). As a result of facing emotions and thoughts sometimes may be challenging and painful for individual and requires support. It is possible to find out other situations that mindfulness work negatively in workplaces.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Employee Attitudes: An attitude is a psychological state of mind. In the workplace, employees can have either a positive or negative attitude about specific work tasks, products or services, co-workers or management, or the company as a whole.

Mindfulness Intervention: Regular mindfulness practice is believed to help further psychological insight and emotional healing, over time. Mindfulness-based interventions, generally aimed at relieving symptoms of stress, mental health concerns, and physical pain can be used to address and treat a range of symptoms and concerns.

SEM (Structural Equation Modeling): Structural equation modeling (sem) is a form of causal modeling that includes a diverse set of mathematical models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fit networks of constructs to data.

Chapter 5
Mindfulness and Mindful Coaching

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ABSTRACT

Effecting mental processes and shaping individual frameworks in perceiving present situation, mindfulness is a processes-oriented state of mind that can be considered as the capacity to be in the present moment in a nonjudgmental way. That is to say, it is a state of not being obsessed with preconceived assumptions, past experiences, and current anxieties. With the help of mindfulness, individuals learn how to direct and hold the focus of their attention internally without being "captured" by any present events, thoughts, and experiences. Although mindfulness is beneficial in many managerial areas, in this chapter, specifically, the effects of mindfulness in executive coaching—a unique kind of intervention that encompasses practical and goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and tries to result in meaningful behavioral change in the executive—will be discussed in detail.

INTRODUCTION

Ever increasing competitiveness of business environment increased the need for more competent leaders and executives and the reported success of coaching have encouraged many companies to benefit from this intervention. It is a unique kind of service provided by a coach to a coachee with the demand of a client mostly CEO, owner or HR manager of the company. In order to understand importance of coaching understanding its meaning is significant. One of the most famous definitions regarding the term coaching is Whitmore's definition. He suggests that: "Coaching is unlocking people's potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping people to learn rather than teaching them" (Whitmore, 1992, p. 10). Respecting people's ideas and feelings encompasses the core of the intervention. In this method, participants feel that they are not viewed as a soulless standard part of the business machine (Enescu and Popescu, 2012). More generally, Peterson and Hicks (1996) defines coaching as 'the process of equipping people with the necessary tools, know how and insight they need to develop themselves and become more effective'' (p. 14). Pervasive understandings regarding coaching suggests that the nature

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of coaching can be viewed as a collaborative relationship formed between a coach and the coachee with the aim of attaining professional or personal development outcomes which are valued by the coachee (Spence and Grant, 2007). In other words, it is a process wherein outsourced suppliers of candor provides the coachee with the objective feedback required for their growth (Sherman and Freas, 2004).

Coaching is a unique kind of intervention that does not end with gaining a satisfactory level of self-awareness. It is a kind of active learning process which enables continuous transfer of essential communication and relationship skills (Sheerman and Freas, 2004). During coaching breaking routine cycles are very important. According to Peterson (1996) in order to break the habit cycle the coach helps the coachee in identifying and anticipating specific situations wherein previous, ineffective habits and routines are detected and given up. Secondly, coach helps individuals learn and practice novel, more effective behaviors. And thirdly, the coach and the coachee work together in order to set specific goals that they can use their new skills. And lastly, these two parts reflect on their experiences and past knowledge that results in continuous learning. In this paper, it is assumed that mindfulness of both the coach and the coachee will effect the efficiency and effectiveness of the coaching process.

As used in this article, mindfulness is a state of consciousness that is an inherent human capacity, that ensures to be mindful at one point or another (Kabat- Zinn, 2005). It can also be considered as a kind of energy that helps people understand the conditions necessary for happiness which are already present in their own selves. Although, mindfulness has its roots in Eastern meditative traditions and popular among Eastern cultures, today it is also discussed and practiced in other cultures especially in Western World. Owing to the fact that popularity of Buddhist thought is spreading all over the world, spiritual concepts including mindfulnes take place in academic studies. In traditional Buddhist belief system, mindfulness is an ancient concept describing attentive thinking style. It is about directing one's attention. It is a method for being aware of the moment and concentrating fully on the present events. Mostly during thinking, we are lost in past memories or future expectations. Namely, our minds wander among our memories and fantasies or even anxieties. Mindfulness, which will be described in more details in the next section, helps us manage these thoughts and make us prefer to be at the present moment. But, it is not the same thing with giving up thinking, it is rather being aware of what we are thinking and results of these thoughts so that we can manage our minds more effectively (Kabat-Zinn, 2002).

MINDFULNESS

Mindfulness is a practice having its roots in Buddhist and other similar meditative traditions. In fact, it teaches somehow the art of "non-doing" in order to perceived the reality correctly (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). In our daily routines, we are derived by the illusion and the safety of "knowing". However, we only catch a small part of reality or even worse we may misunderstand the reality. In this point, mindfulness can be considered as a channel to the realization and acceptance of the "not-knowing". Namely, it is a kind of a lens that makes us perceive the world as it is (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007). In the extant literature four main components of mindfulness are pervasive. These are awareness, attention, time and acceptance (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007). Awareness is one's cognitive abilities that helps constantly monitoring internal and external stimuli.On the other hand, attention is the ability to focus to a specific phenomenon. And, time explains the present time interval now. Acceptance is being non-judgemental and objective; and the ability to absorb the reality as it is, without disappointment (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007).

Mindfulness can be described as the awareness resulting from paying attention, in the present moment, and objectively unfolding of one's previous experience moment by moment (Kabat-Zinn, 2003). Mindfulness represents a specific level of consciousness experience characterized by increased awareness and an acceptance of present situation, and involves several cognitive, physiological, affective, and behavioral uses for those who wants to improve it. Moreover, it is useful in facilitating controlling echelon of events that individuals have not experienced previously. Being aware of discriminatory details mindful people are good at understanding the connections between situations, ideas and people. Opposite of mindfulness is the feelings of being lost in the present moment, feeling disconnected with the current time or place, and obsessed with previous events and memories, or fearing the future. It is like functioning in an 'automatic pilot' mode (Langer, 2000). Mindless people are inclined to be obsessed with the past. They tend to have single and inflexible perspective. Being fully awake, mindful individuals experience being in the here and now. Mindfulness can be considered as a kind of experience involving feelings of serenity stemming from a sense of oneness between mind and body. Thus, a mindful individual is not predominated by rules and regulations he is only guided by them (Passmore, 2009).

Mindfulness gives way to greater sensitivity regarding context and creates the opportunity to have greater control over people's own lives (Langer, 2000). Individual mindfulness is possible with the help of regular connection with one's senses and through focusing objectively on the 'here and now' experiences of life (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Moreover, mindfulness creates a more inclusive and it can be considered as an authentic experience of the present time interval, enhancing the level of regular level of pleasantness, increases quality of life and contributes to a meaningfulness of the life (Seligman, 2002). In this point, Weick and Sutcliffe (2001) also claim that mindfulness helps people catch the unexpected earlier. Thus, when individuals engage in mindfulness, they gain the capacity to avoid forming limiting mindsets. They become more open to to alternative ways of perceiving and thinking. Mindfulness is benefical in business life too. In mindful workplaces people experience higher levels of well-being and resilience (Chaskalson, 2011). Moreover, in these organizations people experience lower levels of stress and their absenteeism rates are lower; they show higher levels of engagement; they are more productive; they engage in lower levels of conflict; they have higher levels of job satisfaction, creativity and innovation and lower levels of employee turnover (Chaskalson, 2011).

Moreover, it is also an important concept in the organizational level. In organizations, mindfulness involves interpreting weak signals, differentiation of previous knowledge, and reframing accustomed ways of doing business, and by this way increasing ways of accomplishing a specific task (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2008). Mindfully focusing on a specific task requires living in the here and now but at the same time not losing one's attention regarding past or future (Baer, Smith, & Allen, 2004). That is why, mindfulness is useful in enabling people to understand and manage juxtapositions of cases that they have not met before. On the contrarily, mindless individuals are mostly not totally attentive to the present moment and to the task environment, and they can not notice all the details properly (Veil, 2011:126). That is why, mindfulness is quite significant in noticing unexpected threats to well being that has the probability to escalate out of control. Jordan, Messner and Becker (2009) claims that mindfulness allows questioning of expectations and knowledge and examines the compatibility of routines in complex and and unpredictable settings (Jordan, Mesnerr and Becker, 2009). By the help of mindfulness, individuals get accustomed to questioning both their own knowledge and actions and other people's knowledge and actions (Brauner and Becker 2006).

On the one hand, mindfulness can be considered as more experiential and less analytical compared to classical wakefulness. Mindfulness gives the opportunity to disengage one's mind from habitual and potentially dangerous obsessions (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007). Being mindful, with the help of deliberate practices have significant effects on individual psychology (Lutz et al., 2008). In the extant literature, related research shows the mental process mechanisms wherein mindful practices and mindful way of thinking increases physical and mental health including decreased levels of rumination, increased emotional balance, high levels of attention, high levels of awareness, and less ego-focused thinking (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Desrosiers et al., 2013; Jain et al., 2007; Sanders & Lam, 2010). In the extant literature we can come across studies showing the positive effect of mindfulness on cognitive processes. For example; According to Cahn and Polich (2006), extensive meditation training contributes to improvements on cognitive performance. In an other study, conducted by Jha et. al. (2007) it is proven that long-term meditation practices contributes to higher levels of attention.

According to Lawson (2011) there are some easy daily methods and routines to practice mindfulness. For example; avoiding multitasking, namely doing one task at a time. Resting and listening to your own body, practicing gratitude and getting help when offered are important in gaining a more mindful state of mind. In order to catch mindfulness in daily work life Kabat-Zinn (2002) also recommends some simple activities. For example: Taking 5-30 minutes breaks in the morning in order to be quiet and meditate by just siting or lying down and listening to ourselves or listening to the sounds of nature. Or while driving to office giving up playing the radio and being only with one's oneself. Or using short breaks to truly relax rather than just "pausing". In routine breaks rather than smoking with colleagues taking a short walk and trying to calm down and relax. And may be changing one's environment at lunch. And trying to stop and rest for at least 1-3 minutes every work hour. In fact, Kabat-Zinn (2002) tries to make us understand the importance of pausing and feeling our selves in order to be more aware of our present state of mind. Without doubt, other kinds of pausing the daily routines and fuss of life and soothing is also possible. For example, stopping the work for daily prayers is a blessing for a Muslim in order to calm down his soul. It is a special occasion that can be considered as a kind of inhalation, dividing the day at periodic intervals that shut the door to the daily stress of life and opens a window for healing and soothing both the mind and the soul. Or for a Christian, going to Church every weak for routine prayers is also a unique occasion that calms the mind and regulates the thoughts. Leaving the worldly anxieties and thoughts behind, the individual spending a specific time interval in the church renovates his/her soul and turns to his/her daily activities with a freshened soul and mind. Similarly, a Yoga practitioner, while practicing Yoga, gives a break to him/herself and listens to his/her own inner voice and soothes wandering thoughts. Practitioner, listens to his own body and feels his inner self.

A variety of other techniques can be used in practicing meditation in order to alter how one manages the stream of thoughts and feelings to relax both his/her body and mind. But nearly all kinds of meditation techniques have these common components: a quiet place wherein there are few distractions; the habit of having a comfortable posture; (c) high levels of attentiveness; and lastly a quite open and objective state of mind in which one thoughts and ideas wander naturally without prejudge (Robins, et al., 2014). With the help of mindfulness meditation moments of life can be experienced with less distraction, confusion and stress (Kabat-Zinn, 2002). It increases self awareness regarding the moment and the surrounding (Wallace, 2006). In fact, MBSR, namely, mindfulness based stress reduction technique is the most frequently studied mindfulness intervention, which was developed by Kabat-Zinn (1982). Originally it is a kind of stress-reduction program to address chronic pain. MBSR can be considered as a structured program encompassing eight sessions each lasting about 2-3 hours. The program includes breath meditation, s special yoga session, an other session for body scanning, and discussion sessions regarding stress perception and how to cope with stress. In MBSR participants also have daily homework including mindfulness meditation, yoga, and various "inquiry" exercises that increase individual's ability to live more mindfully (Robins, et al., 2014). In this point, mindfulness meditation can be accepted as an effective modality for cultivating mindfulness. It is a method for calming the mind and refining awareness and concentration (Kabat- Zinn, 2002). It can also be helpful in increasing awareness of people at workplace. Michael Chaskalson (2011) suggests that people benefiting from MBSR are better in managing their thoughts and feelings thus they are more effective at work (Robinson et al., 2014). There are other studies supporting this relationship. For example; according to Nyklícek and Kuijpers, (2008), MBSR programs, that are usually applied for 8 weeks have been found to improve mood of individuals and has a positive impact on their affective processes.

Besides mindfulness meditations, there are also other kinds of training methods that can improve attention and self- regulation. Attention Training (AT) is one of these methods increasing awareness regarding the present moment. Attention Training means practicing in conflict-related tasks or other kinds of tasks encompassing highly detailed executive control mechanisms (Tang and Posner, 2009). In these tasks, mostly repetitive trials involving executive control are used and directed attention and effortful control in order to train specific networks related to the functioning of brain are required (Tang and Posner, 2009). Attention training has the assumption that individuals' attentional abilities can be improved with the help of activating specific aspects of attention through a stimulus drill approach (Sohlberg, et al., 2003). Namely, repeated stimulation of attentional systems through graded attention exercises ensures changes in attentional capabilities (Sohlberg, et al., 2003).

Due to its positive effects on helping individuals and groups mindfulness is used in a wide variety of fields including, clinical psychotherapy, sports, education and human resources interventions. In the next section we will focus on the use of mindfulness in executive coaching.

EXECUTIVE COACHING

The broader field of coaching includes a vast areas of application including life planning, career counseling, health and nutritional advice, and individual development etc. (Sherman and Freas, 2004). Although most experts claim that coaching is a one on one relationship, researchers such as Kets de Vries (2005) claims that coaching in groups can be preferred as an advantageous and useful intervention tool for behavior change as well. The specific kind of consultation focused on senior executives in organizations is called as executive coaching (Kilburg, 1996). Executive coaching is a highly personal one-on-one relationship between the coach and the coachee, namely mostly the senior executive. Owing to the ever increasing workplace demands, popularity of executive coaching is growing. Traditionally, executive coaching is viewed as a method to reach high performance and to link individual performance of the executive with organizational performance (Ellinger, Ellinger, and Keller, 2003). Executive coaching should be useful in integrating personal development and organizational needs. This approach can help executives adapt to their new roles in their organizations, reduce their tendency to engage in destructive behaviors, enhance their inclinations to be a team player, align them to collective goals, and support positive organizational change. Different from many business processes trying to reduce information to abstractions, in the technique of executive coaching, honor and individual dignity of coachees are considered very important (Sheerman and Freas, 2004). In executive coaching role of coaches is helping "coachees"—the people being coached—in producing meaningful business results for their organizations (Sherman and Freas, 2004). Executive coaching helps the coachees namely the executives with the opportunity to develop their leadership skills, their interpersonal skills, and turn out to be more skillful in leading their teams through business transformation (Niemes, 2002).

According to Joo (2005), the antecedents for success of the coaching process are the characteristics of coach and coachee and organizational support, the coaching approach used in the process, the coaching relationship between coach and the coachee, and feedback receptivity of the process are significant factors in the coaching process. In the process behavioral changes that includes self-awareness and learning are aimed and as distal outcomes, namely as the ultimate purposes of executive coaching, individual success and organizational success are targeted. With this aim, executive coaching, targets helping leaders adapt to new responsibilities, decrease the level of deviant behaviors, increase teamwork, align individual's goals to organizational goals, and support organizational development (Joo, 2005). According to Jarvis (2004), in the individual level executive coaching is useful in enhancing problem solving capabilities, managerial and interpersonal skills, higher levels of self confidence, adaptability, higher quality of work-private life balance, and reduced levels of tendency to experience stress. In executive coaching process, the organization, the executive, and the coach work together in order to reach maximum learning and effectiveness (Ennis et al., 2003). Since most executive coaching interventions are time bound, between 5 and 15 sessions, during the intervention, the coach should behave mindfully to get down to the real work issues in the context of the organizational system of the business without losing time. He should care about both the coachee and the business without losing details.

MINDFUL COACHING

As mentioned before, coaching is a short-term interactive intervention between a coach and an executive leading to improved levels of leadership effectiveness through increased self-awareness and behavioral change (Kombakaran, et. al., 2008). Coaching is an attempt to help people recognize and act on their real choices that are already available to them. It is useful in helping people see their limitations in their own way of thinking and encouraging them to think in novel ways. Coach's role in coaching process is making coachees recognize and act on the real choices that are available to them (Anderson, 2009). Namely, coaching is a goal-focused activity; in which clients demand the process since they think, there is a problem they need to solve or a target they aim to reach. And mindfulness take place in this process as a tool for enhancing effectiveness of the process (Grant, 2013). According to Stern (2004), in order to be accepted as a competent and useful partner by the cochee, the coach should be, self-confident, independent, patient but also action oriented, trustworthy, confidential, and genuine. During coaching process mindfulness effects mindsets of all the stakeholders in the process. It effects, the coach, the client and their relationship and ensures a more fertile ground for the client's potential to flourish.

Mindfulness can be beneficial in many managerial process and human resources practices including coaching (Cavanagh and Spence, 2013). Through mindfulness, staying in the moment, being non-judgmental towards people and events, decreasing emotional arousals and achieving inner calm are aimed (Collard and Walsch, 2008). Due to the fact that mindfulness is a state of awareness characterized by high quality attentional skills and a nonevaluative objective attitude toward events and people (Malinowski and Lim, 2015), it creates a more inclusive and authentic approach, and contributes to slowing down and having a macro and objective approach in evaluating events. And on the one hand, it is developed as an individual concept. It reflects learning process encompassing high levels of awareness regarding circumstances of a specific situation (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Due to the lack of satisfactory transfer in learning and lack of sustained behavioral change in organizations, the need for more context-specific and individualized learning increased (Bacon & Spear, 2003) and coaching took on this duty as one part of many corporations' development strategy. In the executive coaching process, we are talking about a triangular relationship including the coach, the coachee and the client. In this triangle; Coach is the one who provides one-on-one coaching. Coachee is the the one who gets this service; that is, he is the executive manager. And, client is the stakeholders, who provides this service for the development of the executive. For example: Owner of the business, HR manager or a more senior executive. Mindfulness can be helpful in facilitating the coaching process for the two important parts of the activity- the cochee and the coach. In fact, mindfulness reflects psychological core processes such as emotional and cognitive flexibility (Malinowski, 2012) and this makes both the coach and the coachee open to new information. Furthermore, mindfulness is significant in providing novel frameworks, making people open their eyes to reality in more objective ways, since, it is a state of mind wherein individuals purposely step back from the current situation, from imposing their rules and routines on the current situations and trying to see the reality in a more inclusive and authentic way (Passmore, 2009).

During coaching process, mindfulness skills can be applied as a strategy to enhance relaxation of both parts - the coach and the client. And they can be used in the process at diverse levels. During coaching, mindfulness can be seen as an important tool in ensuring necessary atmosphere for a nonjudgmental process, contributing to being true to oneself for both partners of the process (Collard and Walsch, 2008). And it can be regarded as an inclusive and authentic approach providing the right tools for the coach to experience reality and remain non-judgmental. That is to say it is useful for maintaining genuineness and authenticity. Moreover, it can contribute to emphatic understanding of the other part. Although, it does not necessarily provide a vision of reality from clients' point of view, it can provide an inclusive picture of events and relationships. On the one hand, in the coaching process mindfulness can also promote creativity (Langer, 2000) and can be useful especially in the point that the client may need to give shape to potential outcomes out of their (coach & coachee) current understanding of reality. Moreover, both parts can benefit from mindfulness techniques to focus on the present moment, to leave behind the pressures and the burden of past experiences and commitments prior to the meeting and leaving behind subjectivities stemming from previous coaching sessions (Langer, 2000). Furthermore, mindfulness is also a very effective supplementary tool for the coaching process because mindful coaches are good at creating a perfect form of conscious and comfortable relationship between the coach and the coachee. They simultaneous attract attentions to themselves, to their coachee, and to the relationship between them. And they create high level awareness regarding the mental, emotional, and relational dynamics occurring in the moment (Baer, 2003).

On the one hand, Brotman, Liberi, and Wasylyshyn (1998) claim that executive coaches should have the capacity to actively listen to people. In this point active listening is having the patience to hear people fully, accurately restating opinions of others even when they do not think in the same way with the coachees. Since coaching is a highly individualized relationship wherein each person has a unique knowledge base, learning pace, and learning style (Witherspoon and White, 2006), both the coach and the coachee should have a high levels of mindfulness in order to benefit from the relationship. Moreover, in order to have an efficient relationship, the coach should have a satisfying level of awareness regarding the context including, the business, management style in the company, and political principles of the company, which is easier to catch with a mindful mind. A mindful coach can catch the details easily, can understand the whole context with a high quality integrity and will not be prejudiced.

But how does mindfulness achieve these effects on coaching process? Considering awareness of parts, we can talk about three main contributions of mindfulness on the coaching process: 1) By creating an empty mind for both the coach and the coachee. For the coach, an empty mind has a soothing effect. In fact, for a coach, a busy mind sabotages coachs' efforts to let others express themselves. 2) By ensuring non-reactivity. Mindfulness help coaches feel that, in the coaching process, they are operating in a vast cognitive and emotional space with their coachees and they should not react, no matter there is a provocation or not. The mindful coach is capable of creating an emotional space without land mines, during mindful coaching sessions, coachee isn't worried about being manipulated. Session is not dominated by the coach. 3) By creating an atmosphere of permissive attention. The coach is helpful in drawing the attention of the coachee to those things of importance to him and makes this without using coercion. He is capable of ensuring voluntary involvement of the coachee in the process (Riddle, 2012).

In effective coaching, full focus and attention of both coach and the coachee are very important. Without doubt, ensuring this is very difficult since our lives often have blurred boundaries and pressures in our work and private life frequently distorted with unnecessary worries and confusions. In this point, mindfulness can be regarded as a solution due to the fact that it focuses one's attention to the present moment". Since at the present moment, a much narrower range of options that can distract are available during coaching sessions, both the coachee and the coach can fully concentrate o their session (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007). In other words, mindfulness has the ability to provide the coach and the coachee with the opportunity to focus their full attention to their present session, thus increasing their effectiveness and contributes to the quality of the session.

Mindfulness can also be helpful for the coach for preparation before the session starts. Coaches often rush from one coaching session to another. And focusing on the new session can sometimes be difficult and time consuming. Mindfulness can be helpful in this kind of situations (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007). Some coaches already use this method to prepare for the new session. For example, Passmore uses a four-minute mindfulness meditation to prepare for each new session. This meditation includes some breathing exercises, a body-scan, followed by a review of the notes from the previous session. On the other hand, it is also helpful in maintaining focus of the coach during the session. It hinders wandering of mind. Mindfulness brings the mind of coach back to focus on the coachee, whenever his mind starts to wander unconciously (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007). Furthermore, a coach should be able to remain emotionally detached. He should have the ability to experience the emotions of his coachee, but he should not to be flooded by them. In order to manage this, mindfulness helps the coach maintain a state mind that both enables empathizing and also ensuring constructive challenge which is also possible through mindfulness (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007).

Segal et al. (2002) suggest that among mindful teachings, a coach can benefit from; the principle of concentration, namely, the ability to focus full attention on the present moment; awareness, the consciousness principle regarding the fact that life is "as is"; acceptance, that is acceptance of the fact that life is not sufficient or perfect that is why in order to be happy and successful one should accept it with its negativities; decentering principle, namely, the ability to see thoughts and feelings just as thoughts and feelings and not as exact realities and lastly, one of the most famous principles of mindfulness researchers, "being" rather than "doing". In this point "doing" means making an action; "being" means feeling all the details, being aware and conscious about the moment when doing that action. For example, doing is riding. Being is feeling the wind on your face when you are riding or feeling the pain on your leg when you are tired of too much riding.

CONCLUSION

Mindfulness encompasses focusing one's attention in a nonjudgmental and objective way on the events occurring in the present moment, unlike states of mind that pays attention to past events, fantasies, plans, or worries without awareness of one's own behaviors (Baer, Smith, & Allen, 2004). On the one hand, it focuses on the process of each situation rather than probable outcomes (Veil, 2011). When individuals become aware of what is going on at present, they give up living at automatic pilot mode (Baer et al., 2006). They truly understand the process. They understand and feel all the details and gain the capacity to read between the lines. At automatic pilot mode, events and people around us and our thoughts, feelings, and sensations related to them triggers old routines and ways of thinking that are mostly unhelpful in finding novel solutions to problems and difficult tasks, thus often give way to a worsening mood (Kabat-Zinn, 2002). With the help of mindfulness, we become more aware of the present moment we catch the opportunity to respond to situations and try meaningful solutions to problems, think more creatively and work more effectively (Kabat-Zinn, 2002). Furthermore, Mindfulness can be considered as an approach which is more inclusive and authentic, and creates the opportunity for both individuals and organizations to 'slow down' and see the full range of the exact moment as it truly is (Marianetti and Passmore, 2009). Engaging in moments of inner stillness and by this way creating opportunities to step out of the overwhelming flow, gives individuals the chance to regain strength and clarity of thought and in return gives the chance to rejoin the flow more harmoniously (Marianetti and Passmore, 2009). In this point, we suggest that, with all these properties mentioned above, it can be used as an important tool in the executive coaching process.

As stated before, coaching is an intervention that helps individuals know themselves better, live the moment more consciously, and contribute to their surroundings more richly (Sheerman and Freas, 2004). And specifically, executive coaching increases an organization's greatest investment, the executive, by helping him learn and make the most of that learning (Witherspoon and White, 2006). Coachee's self efficacy is a very important determinant of the success of the coaching relationship (de Haan et. al., 2016). He can focus on his powerful sides more easily if he can behave mindfully. By the help of a mindful state of mind, his past unsuccessful experiences can not find a way to distort his previous perceptions. During the coaching process when the coachee is attentive, he experiments the change process ensured by the coaching session as a set of smooth and natural transitions rather than radical changes (Unescu and Pupescu, 2012). That is to say, he can naturally internalize the changes that he gains with the help of the coach.

Since mindfulness is a state of mind that is learnt and cultivated through continuous practice and intimate dedication (Passmore and Marianetti, 2007), the coach should help the coache in practicing this state of mind. Of course, it may take time, but as they practice mindfulness it will be helpful for both of them in increasing their attention level and experiencing the present moment with a higher quality. Without doubt, assuming mindfulness as an answer to all kinds of problems would be unmeaningful, but that is true that with a clear mind provided by mindfulness one can make more objective and meaningful inferences (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). In sum, blending coaching with mindfulness serve considerable benefits and opportunities. When the coach has a mindful state of mind, he can prepare to the sessions more quickly and easily. And when the coachee has a mindful state of mind, he can concentrate on the session more conveniently and his attention can not disperse easily. That is to say, they can both experience a more fruitful session and effects of the session can last longer.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND SOLUTIONS

The purpose of executive coaching is enhancing the coachee's, namely the executive's behavioral change through enhanced self-awareness and increased learning capacity, and these progressions ultimately contribute to executive's and his organizational's success (Bozer, et al., 2014). As Chaskalson (2011) suggests, we are not supposed to choose between economic prosperity and human well-being. Namely, in order to have an effective and successful executive there is no need to give up spiritual well being of the executive. Spiritual wellbeing and stability of the executive can be ensured by mindfulness techniques. Mindfulness contributes to spiritual well being of individuals through high levels of awareness and psychological balance. It is the calmness of mind effecting the balance of the soul positively. This state of calmness, awareness and stability will make the executive more peaceful as well as more successful which in turn will contribute to satisfaction of followers and success of the organization.

FURTHER RESEARCH

In further studies, longitudinal empirical researches can be designed in order to understand and prove the positive effects of mindfulness in the coaching process. Moreover, this research design can be applied in different cultural contexts as a cross cultural study. On the other hand, effects of different mindfulness practices can be tested in a special research design. For example; effects of mindfulness meditation and attention training can be compared in increasing effectiveness of mindfulness in coaching process.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Coach: Someone whose job is to teach people to improve at a sport, skill, or school subject.

Coachee: A person who receives training from a coach, especially in business or office practice.

Coaching: It is is a short-term interactive intervention between a coach and an executive leading to improved levels of leadership effectiveness through increased self-awareness and behavioral change.

Mindful Coaching: It is where mindfulness and coaching meet in a harmonic way. In mindfulness people learn to shift from doing mode into being mode. Mindfulness fancies being mode more, namely being still and compassionate, whereas coaching prefers doing mode, namely having goals and action plans. The combination, however, enhances both.

Mindfulness: A mental state achieved by focusing one's awareness on the present moment, while calmly acknowledging and accepting one's feelings, thoughts, and bodily sensations, used as a therapeutic technique.

Chapter 6
Servant Leadership Within the Context of Organizational Efficacy

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ABSTRACT

Notwithstanding the proliferation of studies on servant leadership in the last decades, there is still a lack of coherence and clarity around the concept, its nature, and how it can lead practice within organizational structures and processes. The authors provide an integrative and comprehensive discussion on servant leadership by examining the related literature, and in so doing expand knowledge in the field in four different ways. First, they provide an introduction describing the change in paradigms of management, followed by a brief evaluation of leadership. Second, they discuss the developmental process of servant leadership throughout decades. Third, they map various definitions and dimensions of servant leadership and different approaches towards the concept. Fourth, they provide discussion on the role of servant leadership approach within organizational structures. All in all, this review presents a holistic picture of where attempts have been and where they should go into the future in terms of conceptualization of servant leadership and its application within organizational structures.

INTRODUCTION

The traditional managerial approaches are shaped around managerial principles rather than leadership approaches and principles. The essence of the traditional managerial approaches relies on the understanding that change is rarely possible and, therefore, the mission of organizations should be to maintain the current status of the organizational systems in a stable manner. In this approach, instead of a collaborative and team-based approach, the managers and staff are divided into two groups: the manager elite and their followers. Therefore, in these approaches managers do not possess the tendency to share responsibility

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and jurisdiction with their followers. Instead, they prefer getting tasks done in a hierarchical and commanding manner. As a result, the role of managers in traditional approaches is to take decisions, make plans, indicate objectives when needed and expect staff members to realize these aims.

On the other hand, the contemporary leadership approaches are acknowledged as more modern approaches and followed by a number of management schemes. In a modern world, according to these approaches, it is rarely possible to maintain status quo in organizations and keep them in an unchanged, stable and enclosed climate. The reason for this is that the pace of change is more rapid compared to past. While the rapid pace of change brings some challenges, it also provides opportunities in terms of innovation, creativity, collaboration, difference and flexibility. Therefore, institutions should be designed in ways that they contain more flexibility and diversity, adapt to change and convert new situations into opportunities. Combined with the fact that almost all institutional structures are currently at the edge of chaos, organizational structures that ignore change and transformation can rarely sustain their existence in the modern world. With this in mind, today's managers of institutions need to be aware of change and be equipped with leadership qualities and potentials that facilitate transformation and change. These qualities may be obtained through leadership attitudes and practices which aim to motivate individuals to work through influence, rather than authority.

A BRIEF EVALUATION OF LEADERSHIP

The main qualities that need to be possessed by a manager can be identified under the concept of organizational leadership. In that sense, leadership employs a perspective based on targeting the most superior, enduring development and progress, and assuming responsibility to make changes when needed. Such a perspective finds more meaning by the establishment of a bond and relationship between the leader and those being led. Thus, leadership at an organizational level represents the effort to gather workers under shared objectives and activate them towards a shared vision.

Schafer (2002) states that leadership can be evaluated within a cluster of several dimensions. However the main element needs to focus on communication. Communication skills enable leaders to manage through persuasion and inspiration rather than hierarchical and coercive methods. This enablement helps to build a sense of belongingness, fidelity and cooperation between leaders and their followers during management while it can base a foundation for non-bureaucratic management systems.

In a number of leadership research, leadership is defined as a strong influence. Yukl (2006) defined leadership as a combination of traits involving personal traits, influence, relationships and managerial positions. Spears (1998) also defines leadership as the cluster of behaviors related to character, motivation and relationships with people. According to Greenleaf (1991), a group leader has a higher intuition than others, in terms of deciding upon what should be done now and in the future as well as leading towards improvement in the organization. Covey (2002) focuses on the four main roles of leadership. These are modeling, building shared vision and values, adaptation towards collaboration and empowering followers. Bennis and Nanus (1985) state that an effective leader should possess qualities involving focusing on a vision, communicating effectively, building trust, and being transparent towards their followers. In addition, Bolman and Deal (2003) argue that leadership is the sum of ethical behaviors which search for beyond what exists. Studies conducted on leadership investigate the influence of leaders on workers and how they build social and communicative relationships with them. This means that leadership depends on the leader-worker communication and the quality of their communication.

Greenleaf (1991, 1995) focuses on the leader-follower relationship and considers effective leadership within the context of efforts made towards shared needs of the organization and individuals. These efforts focus on providing services to meet individual needs and reconcile these needs with the objectives of the institutions. Greenleaf (1977), who developed the servant leadership approach, proposes that leaders pay attention to the needs of their followers, work to meet these needs with no mutual expectations, and therefore, build strong relationships which will facilitate efficacy of the leader.

For Senge (2001), leadership involves the task of assigning directions for people, the capacity to take decisions and a feeling of responsibility towards followers. Within the new leadership paradigm, according to Senge, the leader is a good designer, assumes responsibility of their followers and instructs them when needed. Having emphasized these qualities, Senge maintains that servant leadership is based on building relations and serving others and, therefore, shares similarities with the new leadership paradigm. For example, DeFour (2001) argues that, school principals who fulfill their roles within a servant leadership perspective, can work to construct a school that works around common aims and collaboration. This is relevant to the role of school principals as main decision-makers. It is reasonable to argue that when school leaders associate this role with a perspective that shares responsibilities and focuses on workers, effective relations can develop within the institution.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP APPROACH

Before defining the servant leadership approach, we find benefit in providing a brief description of the process and steps in the emergence of the concept. In its contemporary usage and understanding, Robert Greenleaf was the first author to use the term "servant leadership". After graduation from college, Greenleaf started to work in the AT&T Company, assuming various roles in the departments of training and management. Building on these experiences accumulated during his career, Greenleaf published his first study entitled "The Servant Leader".

In addition to the contribution of his experiential accumulation within a managerial and research career lasting almost a half century, Greenleaf was inspired by Herman Hesse's story "Journey to the East" while identifying the concept of servant leadership (Greanleaf, 1977). The story is based on a mystical journey of a group of individuals. The main character in the story is Leo. Throughout the entire journey, Leo is busy with serving other group members, working with a high level of motivation and enjoying what he is doing. This effort is appreciated by other individuals in the journey, leaving a strong positive impact on them and cultivating a sense of belongingness, respect and loyalty towards Leo. As a result, the passengers feel safe and peaceful throughout journey until Leo disappears. However, after Leo abandons the group, members in the journey fall into the void, feel disoriented and lost, and struggle in vain. In the story, the group members who lose Leo are depicted as unable to maintain their lives without Leo (Hesse, 1957).

The story of Leo and his friends became a significant inspiration for Greenleaf's idea of servant leadership. The main idea behind the story is that individuals in a group expect one of the members to volunteer and assume the responsibility of others without expecting anything in return. Consequently, the individual who assumes the role of serving others may leave a strong impact on other group members and lead them towards a shared direction. Having been inspired by the ideas of this story, and stating that an ideal leader first serves, then leads, Greenleaf argues that carrying out the role of leadership, or influencing group members, requires that the leader serves the members. Thus, Greenleaf's definition of leadership centers on this conceptualization. For Greenleaf (1977), servant leaders, as Leo does, serve naturally and willingly without any expectation or agenda, and, consequently, are acknowledged as natural leaders thanks to the impact they leave on their followers.

Greenleaf's (1977) conceptualization of servant leadership was based on serving others. According to this conceptualization, servant leadership involves feelings of naturalness and willingness while providing services to others. For Greenleaf (1977), the servant leader should first serve naturally with no expectation and, then, should be acknowledged as a natural leader thanks to the influence left on the followers. In addition, servant leadership is a leadership style based on serving others in an intimate and friendly manner. Therefore, the servant leader understands the needs of their followers, meets these needs and supports the individuals to work in a satisfied manner. Greenleaf argues that servant leadership is different to large extent from leadership styles that first aim to lead, and then, have people follow the leader by leaving an influence on them. On the other hand, leaders who adopt servanthood in their practice possess the natural and intimate feeling that they should assess and respond to the needs of individuals, rather than leading people in a purposive and planned manner. In this approach, leadership is defined as a natural and inner human process.

Greenleaf argues that one of the main characteristics of servant leadership is stewardship which can be defined as protecting followers, taking care of them, feeling responsible for them, and being sensitive to their needs. In other words, this concept involves the leader's commitment towards assuming the responsibility of serving to meet the followers' needs. This responsibility also involves protection and service provision. Block (1993) describes this situation as assuming responsibility without any anxiety or expectation in return. The servant leader, in that sense, is directed towards the needs of others without any feelings of obligation, expectation and pressure. The reason for this is that such a direction works based on an inner motivation, not on any account or expectation (Crippen, 2005). This situation involves the servant leader's struggle to be open towards followers and persuade them rather than controlling them. That is to say, it is known by the servant leader that followers work for the wellbeing of the society, not for the leader. In that sense, the leader prioritizes the service given to others and is conscious of the broader objectives of the members in the organization (Blanchard, 1995; Covey, 1994). This approach involves the leader's set of behaviors that include prioritizing the followers' interests and needs and considering them before him or her (Spears, 1995).

The servant leadership approach emphasizes the leader's character and traits and the services provided directly to their followers. Serving others can gain functionality and leave a stronger effect only when it is combined with a strong personality and character. Therefore, for the servant leader, serving others is an inner and natural lifestyle combining personality traits and social relationships rather than a cluster of strategic behaviors. This combination of naturalness and intimacy is strengthened by the approval and appreciation of others, leading to the establishment of a strong bond between the leader and their followers. Along similar lines with this approach, Greenleaf (1977) states that servant leadership is a lifelong inner journey. Thus, it is reasonable to maintain that purposive and outcome-based approaches that rely on expectations may not be effective and get meaning mutually by the target individuals. This characteristic of servant leadership is based on the principle that the problems of others should be solved (altruism) and their needs should be met (service). In this leadership style, the main motivation is the happiness of others, solving their problems and supporting them. Thus, the servant leader in this style is happy with providing service to others rather than considering leadership as an assignment. Emphasizing this aspect, Greenleaf (1977) describes servant leadership as a natural feeling of prioritizing others rather than the self, and therefore, serving them. Having said this, while it is possible to base the idea of servant leadership on the research carried out by Greenleaf (1977), Keith (2008) argues that leaders in the history that influenced others in various religious and cultural aspects, provided services by focusing on the needs of individuals and communities and in that way, left significant impact on the society.

The servant leadership approach is still popular among researchers because this approach gains functionality at different areas and its many aspects can operate at practical levels. Some of these research studies evaluate and discuss servant leadership at the conceptual level. Having been carried out at this level, studies by Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1995) can be counted amongst the first. Another research area that includes studies on servant leadership involves quantitative studies regarding measurement of servant leadership and its relationships with other related areas (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Ekinci, 2015; Patterson, 2003; Russel & Stone, 2003). The third research includes servant leadership studies that are more complex and holistic in nature and involves modeling and meta-analysis (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2016). In addition to the research studies conducted on servant leadership, the principles and values of this approach are integrated within the cultures and practices of various fields.

The fields and organizational structures that adopt principles of the servant leadership approach vary. Spears (2002) categorizes these structures into six classes: The first is the implementation of servant leadership at the organizational level as a philosophical approach and model. Today, a number of institutions (hospitals, religious institutions, educational organizations, financial and non-financial institutions) are re-structured in line with the needs of the individuals they serve and adopt principles of servant leadership involving flexible and group based management approaches.

The second area where servant leadership approaches are implemented is the institutions in which managers and members of the managing board are trained around principles and priorities of servant leadership. Greenleaf, in his publication titled as "Trustees as Servant Leader", advocates that managerial board members need to question whom they serve and why they serve them (Spears, 1993). The third area of practice is the social leadership organizations (Bryant, 2003; Greanleaf, 2002). Such organizations generally aim at personal improvement and social development while they practice around servant leadership principles.

The fourth area where servant leadership principles are adopted is the experimental training practices towards servant leadership. These practices include research and instruction that have an experimental aspect and usually called learning by doing. This aspect has a significant place within the learning experiences of students. Looking to the related literature, the experiential aspect of servant leadership is often defined as "service learning". Service learning involves principles of service provision and has become a popular instructional approach especially in the United States (Jacoby, 2014). The fifth area involves educational curricula that target development of servant leaders at universities, business and civic organizations. While servant leadership courses are offered in bachelor's programs of a number of universities in the United States, they are offered as a separate course or certificate program at post-graduate level or within programs targeting business organizations.

The final area of practice is the personal development and change programs. These programs aim at equipping individuals with service-based skills that contribute to professionalization and personal, emotional and intellectual development. As seen, training programs that focus on training servant leaders occupy a significant scope among attitude and skill based programs. Considering the high number of research studies that involve servant leadership and the practical framework it offers, it is safe to claim that servant leadership possesses an intensive usage potential in business and non-profit organizations (Parris & Peachey, 2013), clerical organizations (Greanleaf, 1996), health and educational institutions (Ekinci, 2015; Waterman, 2011), and tourism (Ling, Lin, & Wu, 2017).

Definitions of servant leadership are generally influenced by studies that evaluate Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership approach at the theoretical level. These definitions are based on studies that conceptualize dimensions defining the personality, attitudes and behaviors of servant leaders. Measures of servant leadership, qualitative studies and conceptual analyses have generally put forward overlapping dimensions. These dimensions can be listed as empathy, support, listening, altruism, humility, honesty and justice.

DEFINITIONS AND DIMENSIONS OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

A significant proportion of the research studies conducted on servant leadership identify servant leadership in a loose way, especially when it comes to describing the reasons and nature of how leaders treat their followers. The most typical definition of servant leadership is one of the most quoted paragraphs by Greenleaf, which reads partly, "The Servant-Leader is servant first … It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead." Although this statement is considered as the initial and most dependable definition regarding servant leadership, it could not provide sufficient ground for experimental research to rely on. The need for such a ground led to the proliferation of multiple conceptual studies regarding servant leadership where each author stretched the definitions and indicators to fit their own arguments. For example, Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, and Liden (2018) remind MacKenzie's (2003) argument that it is difficult to set a relationship between two constructs when either of these constructs is not defined well. The case is similar for servant leadership. An analysis of the relevant literature resulted in the conclusion that there are various poor and inadequate conceptualizations around the concept, while the research involving measurement is often methodologically weak. As a result, in the majority of these studies, the credibility of the hypotheses and therefore, the validity of these studies were significantly poor. Eva et al. (2018) claim that these drawbacks in the conceptual and methodological aspects of servant leadership research exacerbated the strength of these studies and did not allow them to be represented in well-known journals compared to studies conducted on other theories of leadership such as situational or transformative leadership. Building on this gap, Eva et al. (2018) introduces a new definition for the concept of servant leadership: "Servant leadership is an other-oriented approach to leadership manifested through one-on-one prioritizing of follower individual needs and interests, and outward reorienting of their concern for self towards concern for others within the organization and the larger community." (p. 113).

The studies regarding servant leadership in the related literature are usually multidimensional. The main rationale for this tendency is that servant leadership involves a behavioral, relational and emotional infrastructure, and therefore, measuring servant leadership in a one-dimensional structure is difficult (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011). Thus, while investigating the studies, one can see that servant leadership is scrutinized with different dimensions that are conceptually close and related to each other. A significant portion of the conceptual definitions are made based on either the dimensions identified within the studies that aim to measure servant leadership or elaborations concerning the service-based quality of leadership behaviors. In that sense, definitions often focus on the inner motivation to serve others (service, stewardship, altruism, modesty) (Patterson, 2003; Russel & Stone, 2002), behavioral style (performing accurate behaviors, being sensitive to others, setting goals) (Dierendonck, 2010) and some paradigms (conceptualization, vision) (Patterson, 2003; Spears, 1995). Analyzing the studies that aim to measure servant leadership and its conceptual definitions, it can be seen that the starting point of the conceptual definitions is the emphasis on servant leaders' behaviors involving considering and prioritizing others, altruism and an instinctual motivation to serve people. Although Greenleaf agrees with this perspective, he does not make a definition of servant leadership. Instead, he presents a framework that involves the issues and behaviors regarding servant leadership.

Lary Spears (1995), head of Greenleaf Servant Leadership Center located in the United States, lists ten dimensions of servant leadership. These are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, building community, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, and commitment to the growth of people. Laub (1999) states that servant leadership is characterized by six dimensions: providing leadership, building community, displaying authenticity, developing people, valuing people, and sharing leadership. Russel and Stone (2002) claim that the servant leaders possess nine exclusive characteristics: vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others and empowerment. Russell and Stone (2002) also identified 11 characteristics of servant leadership. These characteristics which they defined as accompanying attributes involved competence, communication, teaching, credibility, visibility, listening, influence, persuasion, encouragement, stewardship, and delegation.

Another attempt to define servant leadership and its dimensions was made by Patterson (2003) who argued that servant leadership included seven elements. These were altruism, love, vision, humility, empowerment, trust, and service. In their servant leadership assessment instrument, Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) stated that servant leadership was made up of five dimensions: empowerment, love, humility, trust, and vision. However, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) asserted that the definitions made so far were inadequate and that the construct of servant leadership required a more clear-cut interpretation. Consequently, they came up with a definition of servant leadership that involves five dimensions: emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, altruistic calling, and organizational stewardship. More recently, Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Handerson (2008) were critical of the literature on servant leadership and were not satisfied with the definitions of the concept made until then. The authors conducted literature review and came up with nine dimensions of servant leadership which they listed as helping subordinates grow, creating value for the community, putting subordinates first, emotional healing, empowering, behaving ethically, forming relationships with immediate followers, and servanthood.

According to Dierendonck (2010), Greenleaf did not provide an integrated definition of servant leadership, and therefore, the recent years have witnessed a proliferation of many interpretations of the concept which illustrate a comprehensive scope of behaviors. He distinguished six dimensions of servant leadership that include humility, empowering and developing people, authenticity, providing direction, interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship. Finally, Ekinci (2015) developed a tool for identifying and measuring servant leadership behaviors among school managers. The tool involved a construct of five dimensions including humility, empathy, integrity, altruist behaviors, and justice.

A significant element of the conceptual discussion concerning servant leadership is whether servant leadership should be considered as a behavioral or personal quality. Considering Greenleaf's (1977) approach which was the first in the literature and emphasized the aspects of "inner motivation" and "natural behavior", it is possible to conceptualize servant leadership as a behavioral aspect of the general personality of an individual.

In light of the discussions regarding the definitions and conceptualizations of servant leadership, it is possible to define the concept as a leadership approach involving leaders' attempts to serve their followers emotionally and behaviorally, help to solve their problems, share their happy and upset moments, support and encourage them, empathize with them, treat them in a just way, trust them and do these with feelings of intimacy and naturalness (Ekinci, 2015).

DIFFERENT APPROACHES TOWARDS SERVANT LEADERSHIP

The servant leadership approach may sometimes be misinterpreted and, therefore, lead to inappropriate understandings. The direct meaning of servant leadership involves the leader who serves. Therefore, in cultures where the practice of slavery and employment of slaves and women as housemaids for ages which is contrary to the contemporary understanding may be one of the reasons for the misinterpretation of the concept (Spears, 2002). In addition, contrary to the traditional management approaches, the servant leadership approach focuses on the needs of followers and the interaction resulting from the services provided by the leader. The traditional approach views the servant leadership style as too flexible, ineffective and insufficient in reaching solutions. Such interpretation is more prevalent especially in the army and some other business organizations, where the hierarchical structure is too strict. However, considering the institutions where human relations shape the organizational structure (educational organizations, institutions of health, non-governmental organizations), it is safe to argue that qualities such as focusing on individual needs, establishing a community at an institutional level, strengthening communication and social relations, and addressing the hearts of the workers, provide the servant leadership approach with a high value.

The servant leadership approach is sometimes confused with transformational leadership and ethical leadership approaches. Although not accepted at a wide range, some researchers view servant leadership as the improved version of transformational leadership (Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007). However, while transformational leadership addresses organizational objectives and goals, the servant leader is more tended to focus on individuals that follow him/her (Stone, Russel, & Patterson, 2004). The transformational leader identifies the organizational goals and aims to achieve organizational goals by empowering and supporting the workers (Yukl, 1998). On the other hand, the servant leader goes beyond the behaviors and attempts required by transformational leadership, firstly defines the needs of the workers, and therefore, ensures that the organizational goals are met. Montagno and Kuzmenko (2004) state that servant leadership possesses a more special quality than transformational leadership. According to them, the role of servant leadership is to engage in spiritual cultural production whereas transformational leadership has a function of empowered dynamic cultural production. The cultural structure produced by the servant leadership makes it possible to reach the institutional objectives by contributing to the development of individuals, and thus, the organization.

The servant leadership approach contains the ethical aspects of ethical leadership. However, it possesses different characteristics, too. Sergiovanni (2000) states that servant leadership is based on ethical foundations. In that sense, ethical qualities are an indispensable aspect of servant leadership (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2010). However, the servant leader prioritizes serving their followers at the first place, in addition to clinging to ethical principles. The ethical leader, on the other hand, emphasizes the need to suggest his/her followers what is right and what is wrong as a model and an inspiratory source (Guy, 1990). Along similar lines, Brown et al. (2005) define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (p. 120). As seen in this approach, rather than serving others, the ethical leader focuses on the integration and usage of a model of basic ethical principles within organizational elements and mechanisms. However, when analyzed in terms of organizational processes, servant leadership coincides to a large extent with transformational and ethical leadership and possesses a high potential for use. Yet, both related approaches possess value in terms of organizational processes and coincide with the servant leadership approach.

THE ROLE OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP WITHIN ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESSES

Recently, organizational theories have focused on the way inputs and processes serve to achieve desired outcomes more than they did before. The importance given to the systemic elements also led to a focus on organizational efficacy, the way members in an organization come together, share common beliefs and work towards achievement of similar ends. Organizational efficacy is located as a category within the wide cluster of collective efficacy (Bandura, 2000). Achieving efficacy is a requirement for almost all organizations because it reinforces organizational development, contributes to the quality of organizational processes and influences key elements such as the level of production, satisfaction with job and happiness among members (Capone & Petrillo, 2015).

At the organizational level, setting up shared norms and transmitting the ultimate aims of the organization to all personnel is one of the significant roles of leadership. Achieving this task, therefore, requires the understanding that developing a clear definition of effective leadership is crucial for organizational efficacy in the future (Gupta, McDaniel, & Herath, 2005). Along similar lines, the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) (2009) provides a definition of leadership as a construct that ensures determination and achievement of organizational goals, construction of norms and strategies that maintain this achievement in the long run and personal effort to ensure that the organizations's management mechanisms are sustained and continually improved.

For the last twenty years, the servant leadership approach has sparked considerable interest within the organizational and leadership literature and been subject to a considerable number of research studies (Dennis & Winston, 2003; Ekinci, 2015; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 1998). A significant portion of these studies include research conducted on the usage of servant leadership in educational and health institutions, business organizations, non-profit and non-governmental organizations.

When looked at the researchers who examined the dimensions of servant leadership, one can see that they generally focus on the personal and emotional aspects of the leaders as well as their behaviors and characteristics around these aspects. It is usually agreed that the servant leadership approach is based on the impact of the services provided by and built on the personality traits and behavioral outcomes of the leader. Therefore, it can be maintained that this approach can result in positive outcomes when it is implemented in organizations where the managerial body adopts a humanistic perspective and the relations are based on humanitarian outlook (Ekinci, 2015).

Development of a servant leadership culture in a workplace requires that the needs of employees are targeted and met by their leaders. In an organizational culture based on servant leadership, servant leaders give priority to develop autonomous followers who are free, perform moral behaviors, think wisely, and live healthily. In addition to the various work-related outcomes it offers, a culture of servant leadership also equips employees with necessary skills to assume several leadership roles and perform leadership behaviors in organizations. As servant leaders prioritize development of their followers' leadership capacity, their followers, in turn, are more likely to assume informal leadership roles within the team-work they engage by assisting their team members and attempting to meet their desires and needs (Greenleaf, 1977). This is related to the power of servant leaders in transforming their employees into servant leaders who are autonomous moral agents.

One can argue that when employees adopt the leadership style in their organizations they are more tended to value the principles and practices of that particular style. As they feel that their needs are met and they receive services they need, they are more inclined to perform behaviors such as citizenship and high performance that are useful both for the organization and the leader (Ehrhart, 2004). Their feelings of satisfaction with the services is also visible on the high level of communication with the leaders and their enhanced performance in teamwork groups (Liden et al., 2008). In order to enhance the capacity of leaders along with servanthood and establish a culture where leaders-employee relationship is established among large and diverse groups, organizations may offer training of how to develop a servant leadership style. Thus, an organization based on servant leadership culture involves a climate which motivates employees, empowers them and results in high work-related performance.

One of the most important elements of servant leadership is the impact of the services on the hearts of the followers because servant leadership predicts that the focal point of the process of service provision is the individual. With this in mind, the function and scope of servant leadership in organizational processes is determined to a large extent by the level which the service provision is based on the needs of the followers and the relationships among individuals. For example, it is sensible to claim that the need for servant leaders in business organizations where engineering, technological and mechanical aspects are more dominant is lower compared to non-profit and non-governmental organizations, education and health institutions, security and tourism companies. In other words, in organizations where human relations are more determinant and intensive servant leadership can be utilized as a functional approach and lead to effective outcomes.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) argue that there are various factors in the success level of an organization, however, effective leadership is more important than other factors and can create a bigger difference within the institution. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) claim that effective leaders structure their leadership behaviors and skills in ways that respond to the needs and expectations of the community they address. The reason for this is that the efficacy of the leaders is influenced and determined majorly by the perceptions of their followers towards them. Building on this, the leaders may attempt to influence their followers in a positive way and keep in mind that this attempt requires being sensitive to the needs of the followers. It is commonly known that individuals have a tendency to develop positive perceptions towards people who understand them and respond to their expectations positively. This tendency is related with the fact that servant leadership predicts a linear attachment and relationship between the leader and the follower. In line with Hersey and Blanchard (1982), according to Sergiovanni (2006), leadership in organizational contexts should be founded on ethical values and focus on the emotions and needs of individuals. When it comes to Howard (2005), "leadership is the process of communication (verbal & non-verbal) that involves coaching, motivating/inspiring, directing/guiding, and supporting/counseling others" (p. 385). The elements existing in this definition are significant dimensions coinciding with the nature of servant leadership.

A functional and effective leadership approach in organizational processes is characterized with the priority given to meet the needs of followers and establish an intimate family environment. The servant leader, similarly, assumes the role of a parent who supports, protects and builds relations, adopts an employee-based approach, and struggles to create a climate whereby organizational and individual objectives overlap. In that sense, servant leadership can be seen as an effective organizational leadership and managerial model (Crippen, 2005). Along similar lines, Sergiovanni (2006) puts forward that servant leadership is meaningful in all organizations where human relations are particularly important and valuable. Within the aforementioned research, leadership qualities that enable effective organizational procedures center around the main qualities of servant leadership: effective communication, ethical values, empathy, supporting and empowering staff members, taking care of them, protecting their rights and serving them.

Identifying the needs of employees and providing services to them is a basic component of the servant leadership approach (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). In that sense, "providing services" is the underlying and definitive key concept of servant leadership. Focusing on the needs of followers is the prioritized area while it inspires the leader to build collaboration, commitment, team work and social capital within the organization. By facilitating such outputs, servant leadership can possess a critical value in terms of organizational structures.

According to Hussain and Ali (2012), servant leadership involves five dimensions. These are empowerment, love, vision, trust and humility. The authors examined the relationships between servant leadership and work performance. Findings indicated that servant leadership made significant contributions to work performance both in total and at the dimensional level. These findings were obtained from data collected in business organizations operating in engineering and technical areas. With this in mind, one can predict that outcomes that can be obtained from civic services and non-profit organizations may yield more positive findings.

Sergiovanni (2006) underlines the shared traits of servant leadership and the role of effective managers in organizations. For Sergiovanni (2006), leaders assume the role of a volunteer staff in organizational and social structures where human relations are particularly important because the basic role of a leader is to ensure that services planned at the institutional level are realized as planned. In this process, the leader, firstly, assesses the needs and expectations of the staff members and the community and, secondly, ensures that the institutional practices produce effective and quality services. Moreover, in order to enhance the efficacy of organizational practices, the leader focuses on the elements which can lead to outputs at a desired quality level and provides services addressing the needs and expectations of internal and external stakeholders that can activate these elements. While the leader can provide the required services at an individual level, they can also activate institutional and environmental resources and, therefore, achieve the mission of producing commitment and motivation among stakeholders. Therefore, it is safe to argue that servant leadership is closely linked to effective leadership at the institutional level.

Acquiring leadership skills which involve behavioral aspects to a large extent require a significant training process. Therefore, determining the servant leadership behaviors that should be performed by managers at the organizational level and developing a servant leadership training model based on this is highly important. The servant leadership literature includes studies that mostly examine the relationships between servant leadership and organizational constructs. In addition, determination of the servant leadership behaviors through measures and scales is another important practice. The role of Robert K. Greenleaf Center in the United States, which carries out research on servant leadership and organizes trainings within the field of servant leadership, is particularly significant.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study provides conceptual discussion on the servant leadership style and relates it to organizational performance. Through this study, it has been acknowledged that servant leadership may have an impact on organizational efficacy. Servant leadership has many advantages for organizations: Followers of servant leaders are influenced by servant leadership behaviors, empowered, encouraged for enhanced performance, are communicated with, and listened by their leaders.

The concept of leadership has changed significantly from one that involves hierarchical management schemes to a style that includes effective behaviors and offers a supportive environment for human development. The classical leadership theories that were characterized with the principle that understanding and practices of leadership must be controlled by power, do not raise the standards of organizational leadership. However, when the understanding and practices of leadership are service-based, employees' success is promoted and members of the organization work towards positive outcomes.

In an era when organizations are growing more complexities and getting more diverse in nature, the need for leadership paradigms that can respond to these changes has increased. The literature accumulated till now shows that the servant leadership style, thanks to its dynamic nature, promotes organizational performance through the mediating effect of its dynamic nature and effective dimensions. In a number of research conducted in profit-based, nonprofit-based, and service organization, servant leadership has proved to be effective. However, there is still a need to test the implementation aspect of this leadership theory in different organizational contexts in order to measure the extent to which the theory works in practice and the various internal and external elements that influence its effectiveness. There is also more need to enhance the understanding of the servant leadership approach and behaviors in organizations, as well as the contribution of this approach to development of desirable organizational climates and improved organizational outcomes.

SOLUTIONS AND RECCOMMENDATIONS

In today's organizational structures, it is an obligation that institutions go beyond provision of payment and personnel affairs only, do not ignore that humans are social beings, and develop sensitiveness to cultivate feelings of belongingness, valuableness, and trust in a value-based organizational climate. Unless this can be achieved, organizational structures may face deprivation of the contribution made by positive attitudes and behaviors involving qualified and expert workforce, institutional belongingness, organizational citizenship and employee loyalty. That is to say, the quality of a workplace not only affects the physical structure and climate of the environment but also determines the organizational well-being in terms of its psychosocial dynamics (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The servant leadership approach has a significant value within organizational contexts (Russell & Stone, 2002). However, there is a need to build organizational cultures and implement practices that include elements of servant leadership. Organization outcomes are likely to improve when cultures and practices involve humanistic values, staff empowerment, productivity and participation, ethical practice, and trust to others. There are some steps to be taken to achieve this task. First, conceptual discussions on servant leadership need to go beyond the conceptualizations and definitions made up to now and seek for new ways for the understanding and analysis of servant leadership. Second, alternative ways of thinking on servant leadership are also needed to enhance our understandings of contexts of how servant leadership affects followers, teams, and organizations. Finally, in order to guide high quality research that will contribute to the field, there is a high need for methodological guidelines and procedures (Eva et al., 2018).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

While investigating the servant leadership literature, at first sight, one can be convinced that much research has been conducted to advance this theory. However, although significant advancement has been recorded for the last two decades, the majority of the researchers that investigate servant leadership are in agreement with the fact that there are still considerable gaps and there is a high need for more research on servant leadership (Eva et al., 2018; Laub, 2004; Sendjaya, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2000). For example, Stone et al. (2003, p. 358) described this case by claiming that scientific investigations on servant leadership conducted till then were at the early maturation level. Therefore, there is a high need for scrutinizing servant leadership in detail especially at the organizational level in terms of achievement of preferred outcomes (Laub, 2004). In addition, Sergiovanni (2000) highlights the lack of research in the leadership literature and claims that there is a need for a stronger research tendency regarding servant leadership particularly when it comes to the importance and determinative effect of the human relations contained by the approach. Sendjaya (2003) also thinks in line. Underlying the critical value of the servant leadership approach, Sendjaya (2003) claims that the servant leadership approach needs to be supported by elegant and deep qualitative and quantitative research studies if the aim is to conceptualize servant leadership as a theoretically strong approach which also possesses a strong practical aspect. Finally, there is an urgent need for more robust and quality research to strongly claim that servant leadership leads to high organizational performance.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Efficacy: It is the ability to produce a desired or intended result.

Leadership: It is the art of motivating a group of people to act towards achieving a common purpose.

Organization: It is an organized group of people with a particular purpose, such as a business or government department.

Organizational Efficacy: Organizational efficacy involves the combined beliefs of a group of individuals to act as a whole and the desired outcomes emerging out of these actions.

Servant Leadership: It is a leadership philosophy in which the main goal of the leader is to serve. This is different from traditional leadership where the leader's main focus is the thriving of their company or organizations.

Chapter 7

Servant Leadership and Work-Related Quality of Life in Organizations:

Mediating Role of Trust in Leader

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ABSTRACT

In today's business environment, employees' wellbeing and innovative work behaviors are popular. For this reason, antecedents of positive outcomes engage the attention of scholars. This study analyzes the relations between servant leadership, trust in leader, and work-related quality of life. It also explores the mediation role of trust in leader in the relationship between servant leadership and work-related quality of life. Findings of the study show that trust in leader has a mediator role in the relationship between servant leadership and work-related quality of life.

INTRODUCTION

Servant leadership is generally considered as a leadership type that implements good practices for employees' development and well-being (Drury,2004). Servant leadership also targets to make a better society which is comprised of developed people (Spears,2004). Dennis and Winston (2003) stated the core philosophy of servant leadership as enhancement of followers' skills and abilities. According to the scholars, with the positive approaches of servant leaders it is expected to increase employees' performance and work capabilities. Servant leaders generally aim to i) enhance organizational sustainability ii) develop individual prosperity for a better society (Trastek et al., 2014; van Dierendonck and Nuijten,

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2011). According to van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) servant leaders make a creative work environment that employees feel esteemed and comfortable. Servant leaders connect with the activities that increase well-being of employees and satisfaction (Page and Wong, 2000). Furthermore, enhancement of well-being of employees triggers the development of quality of life in the workplace. Servant leaders ensure and share opportunities for employees concerns to encourage and develop them. This approach supports perception of trust in leader (Whitener et al., 1998). Baykal and colleagues (2018) also found that servant leadership is positively related with employees' innovativeness and performance. According to upper explanations, in this book chapter it is mentioned about servant leadership, leaders trust and work related quality of life concepts. Moreover, it is tried to define relationships between research variables.

BACKGROUND

Servant Leadership

In today's business atmosphere it is expected to shape organizations with employee-centered and ethic implementations for a sustainable existence. Role of scandals and problems of big organizations that had hard working conditions and styles influenced the significance of this situation. Besides, development of service related industries with orientation of team works increased human involvements and social relations in organizations. Moreover, Positive Organizational Scholarship emphasized the importance of positive antecedents in the organizations to have positive results. In this context, it is well known that, leadership has a major role on personal and institutional outcomes' efficiency (Macik-Frey, Quick and Cooper, 2009). Servant leadership is one of the most attractive concept in Management and Behavior related literature in last years. Servant leadership catches the scholar's attention. For this reason, empirical studies connected with the relationships between servant leadership and employee behaviors or job outcomes have increased. (Chan and Mak, 2014; Dierendonck, 2011; Neubert et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2008).

The philosophy of servant leadership goes back to the Greenleaf's (1977) opinions which takes place in *Servant as a Leader* (book). Besides, servant leadership concept was built close to religious theology. It is well known that "servant" is an important concept for most of religions and non-religion ideologies (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002).

Governing idea of servant leadership comes from the "servant" term. For this reason, servant leadership is announced as doing and serving something for other's goodness and enhancement (Schwarz et al,2016; Sendjaya et al.,2008). Dierendonck (2011) also expressed the key component of the relation between followers and leaders as a "service" concept. Serving for employees' requirements makes a leader as a servant leader. "Servant" is a self-interest of a leader. When employees believe that their leaders are supportive for them, they do the best of them in the job. Graham (1991) determined that social responsibility in management of employees triggers the occurrence of servant leadership. Moreover, servant leaders pay special attention on employee's needs (Stone, Russell and Patterson, 2004). Servant leaders provide positive opportunities for employees in the workplace for their development (Avolio et al., 2004). Employee performance and effectiveness are also positively influenced by the servant leadership (Dierendonck, 2011).

Servant leadership is formed as leader's behaviors related with serving to employees that results as a trust in leader (Chan and Mak, 2014). Servant leaders' ethical and moral behaviors are comprised of specific focus on staff's needs, prepared targets for their development, helping subordinates for career planning, encouragement employees to upgrade their skills (Barbuto and Wheeler,2006; Stone et al., 2004). Servant leaders listen employees' problems to find a solution for them. He/She fulfill the employees' request for their development and happiness. Employees feel valuable themselves with the care of servant leaders. Mentorship is also a significant behavior of servant leaders (Schwarz et al., 2016; Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Servant leaders are considered as influencers on the perception of employees. Servant leaders are also seen as role model for them. Social learning theory explains why servant leaders leave a mark on employees' behaviors. According to this theory, employees observe and maintain leader's behaviors, attitudes, style and approaches. For this reason, if leader's behaviors and styles on the servant mode, employees also learn better attitudes (Bandura, 1977; Liden et al., 2014).

Greenleaf (1977) determined key aspects about servant leaders like; well listening and understanding, initiative, capability for withdraw, imagination, empathy ability, awareness and foresight, persuade-communication-conceptualization abilities. Spears (1995, 1998) also classified servant leadership features as being good at listening, awareness, foresight, commitment to people, stewardship, building community, conceptualization, persuasion and empathy. Russell and Stone (2002) also mentioned about servant leadership and determined functional attributes (characteristics about leader and leader's behavior in the workplace that have major role in the perceptions of employees and shape the relations between leader and members) that comprised of honesty, trust, integrity, vision, modelling, service, empowerment, pioneering, appreciation employees. Furthermore, scholars listed accompanying attributes which are related with functional attributes. Credibility, competence, communication, visibility, persuasion, listening, influence, stewardship teaching, encouragement, delegation and listening are consisting of accompanying attributes of servant leadership. Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) classified servant leadership model under relational (credibility, trust, influence) and behavioral (vision, service) components. Sipe and Frick (2009) listed servant leader's general traits as; put employees first, vision holder, good communicator and use of exert moral authority. Graham (1991) also listed features and traits of servant leadership as; humility, autonomy, moral development, relational power and leader's service orientation (Chan and Mak, 2014). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) and Spears (2004) also defined features of servant leader's characteristics as; awareness, stewardship, persuasion, listening, healing, foresight, empathy, community building, commitment for the development, conceptualizing. Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008) classified servant leader's behaviors as; value creation for followers, helping employees for their development, empowerment and acting ethically.

Wong and Page (2003) evaluated servant leadership under some dimensions as; servanthood, team-building, empowering, leading, integrity, shared decision making, abuse of power, developing others. Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora (2008) classified conceptual factors of servant leadership as; authentic self (humility, security, integrity, accountability, vulnerability), transcendental spirituality (religiousness, sense of mission, interconnectedness, wholeness),covenantal relationship (collaboration, availability, acceptance, equality) voluntary subordination (acts of service, being a servant), responsible morality (moral action, moral reasoning) and transforming influence (modelling, vision, trust, mentoring, empowerment). Dierendonck (2011) summarized servant leadership related studies and determined key characteristics and behaviors of servant leadership. According to him developing and empowering followers, authenticity, humility, providing direction, interpersonal acceptance and stewardship are considered as key characteristics and behaviors of servant leaders.

Trust in Organizations

Trust is one of the most significant notion of Behavior related literature. The concept of trust is defined as positive expectations kept by a group or individual about someone's word, statement, action or decision that may be relied upon (Lewicki, McAllister, and Bies, 1998; Rotter, 1967). Although we do not have control of the situation, we would be willing to take the risk that he would not disappoint us (Robbins and Judge, 2011). Furthermore, trust is a concept that focuses on "predictability". If a person trusts to someone or a group he/she knows the results of the related acts and implementations will be as expected (Dannhauser and Boshoff, 2006). More comprehensive definition of trust is made by Greenwood (2006) who defined concept as the dependence by individual, group, or company, regarding a willingly accepted task on the part of someone else, group or company, to behave in a way that is ethically excusable-that is, undertake right decisions and activities based upon ethical principles of analysis- towards all others concerned in a joint effort or economic exchange.

From organizational point of view, trust is a necessary element for obtaining company goals and objectives. Individuals and groups build trust as relying on each other to achieve and maintain expected organizational tasks and duties (Northfield, 2014). When an employment contract is made, the employer is expected to pay legally when the time comes, according to the requirements of the job or project description. However, the spread of responsibility in today's rapidly restructured institutions, the working style of the team means that these contracts do not have long-term and fixed relations. On the contrary, it relies on trust relationships as never before (Robbins and Judge, 2011).

The concept of organizational trust can be considered as a combination of employee trust to his colleagues, company or the manager of the department. The improvement of the organizational trust of the person serves the beneficial results both for the employee and the company (Tepe Küçükoğlu, 2015). In literature, there are studies which investigate trust from different perspectives such as interpersonal trust (McAllister, 1995), trust in leader (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990), trust in organization (Boe, 2002), inter-organizational trust (Wei, Wong, and Lai, 2012). Interpersonal trust stands on individual's belief about another person's words, behaviors or decisions to be true (McAllister, 1995). Besides, trust in leader is an employees' voluntariness for becoming vulnerable to his executive's control (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995). It is well known that trust starts from top management level and spread through the organization (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990). Trust in organization also means the overall trustworthiness of the employee towards the organization he/she works for and his/her opinion that the activities of the organization will benefit him/her or at least have no negative outcome (Tan and Tan, 2000). Trust is developed and strengthened by the time and it is an outcome of continuous effort (Northfield, 2014). In addition to that, inter-organizational trust is defined as confidence of goodwill between partner firms' organizational members (Wei et al., 2012).

Trust is also divided in two main dimensions as affect and cognitive based trust. Leader's helpful and caring behaviors about employees create affect based trust in the perception of employees. On the other side, cognitive based trust is comprised of cognitive related perceptions about other's reliability (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

Literature supports that trust has impact on various organizational outcomes such as turnover intentions, work engagement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Laschinger, Finegan, and Shamian, 2002; Hassan and Ahmed, 2011; Wang and Hsieh, 2013; Lee et al., 2013; Kashyap and Rangnekar, 2016). Trust is considered also a significant mediating factor that explains the relationship among different elements (Kashyap and Rangnekar, 2016).

Trust Building

Interaction between employees and leader has a major role on trust building. For this reason, leadership and trust relation has engaged the scholar's attention (Seto and Sarros, 2016). Long and Sıtkın (2006), introduce trust building and control activities for leaders. According to Mishra and Morrissey (1990), most important factors while establishing trust in an organization are evaluated as; presence of an open communication environment, participation of employees in decisions, sharing important and critical information for the company and sharing of emotions and feelings correctly.

Northfield (2014) determined that trust development process has four consecutive steps. This process starts with role trust and then continues with practice trust. Role trust is based on leader's role expectations and practice trust includes actions that can be awaited and decided according to these expectations. As a result of accumulated investigations and experiences with regard to the leader's manner that estimated over time, integrative trust process begins. When the intentions of the leader's actions can be accurately understood, interpreted and associated with corresponding beliefs-values, integrative trust behavior develops. As the leader's values, policies and manners are comprehended by employees as appropriate, acceptable trust is easily created between sides.

Building trust between leader and employee also depends on various positive business situations. According to the research results, the most important items are listed below (Robbins and Judge, 2011):

1. Trust encourages risk taking. For example, the employee takes a risk when he or she is outside the usual way of doing business or believes in the manager's word. In both cases, the trust relationship plays a facilitating role.
2. Trust facilitates information exchange. The most important reason why employees cannot express themselves is not feeling psychologically safe while explaining their opinions. If the managers listen to the ideas of the employees and guide them, the employees can express their opinions more easily.
3. Groups in an atmosphere of trust are more effective. When a leader creates a reliable environment, the members will be more helpful to each other and show more effort for each other. Otherwise, members will approach to each other with suspicion and protect themselves, and then the group communication will be limited.
4. Trust increases productivity. Employees who rely on their leaders perform more efficiently. In the environment of insecurity, employees first focus on their own interests and do not serve common goals.

Trust in Leader

Today's work environment expects that leaders required to be proactive and solution based (Kashyap and Rangnekar, 2016). Therefore, employees trust in leaders become a significant fact in institutional system. Moreover, leader's behaviors powerfully increase the trust relations (Ferrin and Dirks, 2002). If you show a project you're working on to your manager, it means you're confident that he won't steal your idea. Or you should trust that your overtime will be taken into account in performance evaluation. Confidence-based volunteer employee contribution is absolutely necessary in today's enterprises where fewer jobs are identified and documented. And only a trusted leader can encourage his employees to develop themselves and realize their potential (Robbins and Judge, 2011). Employees seek a trustworthy relationship with their leaders and this relationship between employees and executives is crucial, moreover lack of trust can affect productivity significantly (Islamoglu, Birsel, and Börü, 2012).

Attention to the notion of trust in leader has been existed at least forty years, with early investigation in books. In the meantime, trust that employees have in their leaders has become significant issue in applied psychology and connected literature (Ferrin and Dirks, 2002). In this context, employee's reaction towards leader's encouragement is shaped with "trust in leader" (Ng and Chua, 2006). When leaders interested in with subordinates' progress, necessities, well-being; subordinates are also intending to trust in leader because of their good imagination about them (Seto and Sarros, 2016; Geib and Swenson, 2013). Moreover, Nyhan (2000) stated that trust showed the confidence level between sides. If a person trusts to another one he believes that behaviors will be acted as ethic and predictable. For that reason, leader's communication style, support, attitude, behavior will be influential on trust existence between superior and subordinates (Joseph and Winston, 2005). Social Exchange Theory also states that the power of communication and relation quality between employee and leader demonstrates strong trust level one to another (Cohen et al., 2012).

Trust is not just about the leader. Employee characteristics also affect the formation of trust. Formation of trust is shaped by three basic features. These are; integrity, benevolence and ability (Colquitt, Scott and Lepine, 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). The most substantial one is seen as sustainability and completeness of faithfulness and honesty. Benevolence means that the trusted person takes your interests into account and it includes care and support. Ability is the technical and personal knowledge and skills of the individual. It is a factor that favors the belief that the leader can achieve the job (Robbins and Judge, 2011). On the other side, leaders who violate employees' psychological contracts show that they are unreliable. In organizations with such leaders, commitment, productivity, performance and satisfaction levels are low, and turnover intention can be high (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, and Bravo, 2007). Consequently, the results of this situation are negative for the company. Also, if trust is lost it is difficult or impossible to recover depending on the extent of the breach of trust.

Relationships between Leadership, Servant Leadership, Trust and Trust in Leader

According to the literature; justice, leadership, organizational support, culture and openness to communication are some of the antecedents of the trust (Joseph and Winston, 2005). Firstly, the benefit of trust to an organization is at the highest level when it becomes widespread in all hierarchical levels, from senior management to department managers and employees. Therefore, leadership has a key role in creating trust (Starnes, Truhon and Mccarthy, 2010). Martinez and Dorfman (1998) assigned 6 main perspectives of the role of leaders, one of them was to build good connections formed by confidence, trust and reliance. In particular, senior and mid-level managers have a primary responsibility for creating trust because of their hierarchical advantages and some key information. (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990). Moreover, trust in leader is a significant concept in several leadership theories. According to research results; transformational leadership and trust has a positive correlation (Podsakoff vd., 1990; Tschannen-Moran, 2003), trust in leader is a mediating factor between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and in-role performance (Bartram and Casimir, 2007), authentic leadership contribute to employee's trust in leadership (Hassan and Ahmed, 2018; Wang and Hsieh, 2013).

In addition to upper explanations, leadership and trust have a mutual relationship, that means one do not occur without the other (Martin, 1999). In most of the studies servant leadership is connected with trust (Beck, 2014; Schaubroeck, Lam and Peng, 2011, Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). Joseph and Winston (2005) mentioned about how servant leaders increase trust and summarized the responses as; empowering, encouragement, honoring, coaching, mentoring employees to develop their skills and capabilities. By this appropriate management model, it is aimed to build a trust oriented climate in the organization that is able to increase both organizational performance and individual work related life quality. Kerfoot (2001) also underlined the power of trustful relationship between servant leaders and follower.

Trust is a vital component for perception of servant leadership since leader's behaviors have valuable impact on trust building (Beck,2014; Dannhauser,2009; Sarkus,1996; Farling, Stone, and Winston, 1999; Mayer, Davisand Schoorman,1995) Servant leaders establish a relation base confidence that includes confidence, reliance and trust (Martinez and Dorfman, 1998).

Greenleaf (1977) defined some essential attributes of servant leaders including initiatory, understanding and listening, talent of persuade, imagination, the ability to build community, ability to withdraw, the ability to conceptualize, empathy and acceptance, perception, prescience, awareness, healing and serving. He also added that leaders who behave as servant are looks like more trustworthy. Chan and Mak (2014) emphasized that high level of qualified servant leadership turns to strong perception of trust in leader by employees. Servant leaders aim to serve for the betterment of employees that reacts as the trust in leaders by them. Moreover, encouragement of employee for future developments also has major role on trust in leader (Chan and Mak,2014). According to Farling and colleagues (1999) trust is an important consequence of servant leadership.

Work Related Quality of Life-WRQoL

In 1930's and 1940's, there occurred a demand for better working conditions as increasing union movements. Then, work related quality of life(WRQoL) started to call attention because of the troubles and hardships in working environment in late 1950's. In early definitions of this notion emphasized individiuals' retroaction to the work mostly at the focus on mental health and work related satisfaction (Cummings and Vorley, 2009; Walton, 1973). In 1970s, this concept includes and ensures autonomy in work, cooperation and self-involvement with the idea of perfect fit between social and technical requirements of employees within organizations (Adhikari and Gautam, 2010). Between 1979 and 1989, the term work related quality of life implied better conditions at work, job security, sufficient and fair compensation. Subsequently, it was broadening to contain job enlargement and equal employment opportunities (Hsu and Kernohan, 2006).

WRQoL is described as general quality of individual's life that is effected by work (Fontinha, Van Laar, and Easton, 2018). It also includes basic techniques and approaches to improve working life (Hsu and Kernohan, 2006). Moreover, WRQoL is a multi-dimensional concept and include some work related elements that connected with motivation, satisfaction, job security, productivity, safety and well-being, competence development and job involvement(Shahbazi et al., 2011). According to Pot and Koningsveld (2009), work related quality of life covers job autonomy and teamwork at work organizations, competence development in human resource management, participation, trust, control in style of management and ergonomics in workplace. Achievement of work related quality of life initiatives depends on some factors which includes trust and openness, participative management, information management and organizational culture (Adhikari and Gautam, 2010).

Employee needs and values should be taken into consideration to increase work related quality of life. Employees' personal goals should be taken into account and efforts should be made to integrate these goals with the organizational objectives (Muller, Jooste and Bezuidenhout, 2006).

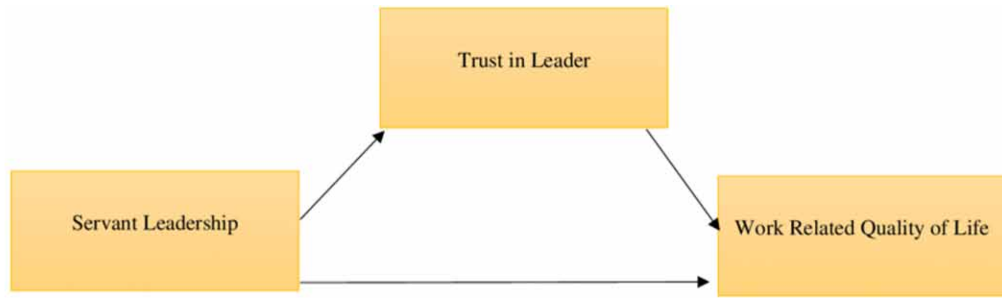
Well known WRQoL scale measures various factors including both work and non-work life domains, home and work interface, working conditions, well-being,, consisting of job and career satisfaction, stress at work and control at work which is mostly used in healthcare and education sectors (Edwards vd., 2009; Laar, Edwards and Easton, 2007). According to the literature, WRQoL-related components are considered as; appropriate, sufficient and fair compensation, improving individual's capacity, safe and healthy working environment, development and security opportunities, balance between work and private life, social integration, social relevance and constitutionalism (Duyan, Aytaç, Akyıldız, and Van Laar, 2013).

There exist some studies in literature that analyses the relationship between work related quality of life and organizational behavior variables. For instance, Moghimi et al. (2013) analyzed the relationships between organizational justice components and quality of work life. They performed a survey study among 264 employees within public organizations and reported positive correlation. Another research performed by Pot and Koningsveld (2009), an evaluation of studies which investigates results of programs on workplace development in European countries. They pointed out a interactions between organizational performance and quality of working life. Gillet et al. (2013) also carried out a survey study with participation of 343 nurses from various clinics in France. Their perceptions were asked about their quality of work life level, organizational justice, and work engagement. Scholars found that, organizational justice elements; distributive justice and interactional justice are both positively estimated nurses' quality of work life. Moreover, nurses' quality of work life positively affected their work engagement. A similar research belongs to Gifford et al. (2002) made a research among nurses and found that organizational culture has a positive effect on quality of work life factors. Besides, Tahreem and Shazia (2015) took a research to ensure relationship between WRQoL and organizational cynicism. They obtained data of executives with minimum 3 years of experience from various companies. The result of this research pointed out that cognitive and affective cynicism of organizational cynicism dimensions have significant negative relationship with WRQoL dimensions which are general well- being, control at work, job career satisfaction, employee engagement, working conditions, stress at work and homework interface. Demir (2011) indicated a negative impact of quality of work life on organizational deviance. Moreover, scholar reported moderation role of work related quality on the effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intention. Finally, Duyan (2012) analyzed the effect of servant leadership on WRQoL of employees from various occupational groups. He found that WRQoL has a partial mediation effect between servant leadership and job related well-being.

METHODOLOGY

This chapter targets to reveal out the relationship between servant leadership and WRQoL. Moreover, it is aimed to define the mediation effect of the trust in leader in this relationship. In literature there is limited research on relationship between servant leadership, WRQoL and trust in leader. Therefore, this chapter aims to fill the gap in literature about servant leadership, trust-in leader and work related quality of life. Accordance with these purposes, it was mentioned about the conceptual framework regarding to the variables. In the theoretical section, servant leadership, trust in organization, trust building, trust in

Figure 1.



leader, work related quality of life and relationships between variables were explained detailed. In this part, scientific methodology is discussed and statistical tests and analyses are expressed. Lastly, findings are assessed with the theoretical point of view.

In accordance with the research model, hypothesis of the study is explained as;

H1: Trust in leader has a mediating role in the relationship between servant leadership and WRQoL.

The sample of this study includes logistics related public and private sectors employees who work in Istanbul customs bonded area. Employee number in the chosen two corporations was reported by the human resource management related departments. Accordance with sample size formulation it was found that minimum 222 questionnaires is appropriate for sampling. It was used convenience sampling method and 500 questionnaires were sent to participants. After 15 days, it was obtained 272 valid questionnaires.

The validity and reliability analyses were conducted before hypothesis testing. It was also used LISREL 8.8 International Program to analyze the factorial structures of the scales. The Goodness of Fit Indices demonstrate that the scales used in this study are compatible with their foreseen theoretical structures. Moreover, the validity of scales and the other analysis were tested by IBM SPSS Statistics 21 Program. Pearson Correlation Test was used to find out the relations between servant leadership, trust in leader and work related quality of life. Differences between demographic variables were analyzed by Anova and Independent Samples T-test Analysis.

It was also used normality tests, Skewness-Kurtosis values and diagrams i) to reveal out the normal distribution assumptions ii) to provide parametric analysis assumptions.

In this book chapter, survey instrument comprised of four parts. First part is related with items of Servant Leadership Scale which was built by Dennis and Winston (2003). Second part includes trust in leader scale which has 8 items and belongs to (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997). Third part is comprised of Work Related Quality of Life- WRQoL scale items developed by (Laar vd., 2007). Last part also includes demographical information questions about participants like marital status, gender, age, experience status and education.

RESULTS

According to results of statistical analyses made by SPSS 21.00 Programme, means of variables were obtained as; servant leadership 3.42, trust in leader 3.51 and work related quality of life 3.63. Moreover, standard deviations of variables were also found as servant leadership 0.90, trust in leader 1.12 and work related quality of life as 0.96. It was also used Pearson Correlation coefficients to discuss the relationships between variables. In this context, the relationship between servant leadership and trust in leader is found as significant and positive (r=0.685). Moreover, the relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life is also seen as significant and positive(r=0.618). Finally, the relationship between trust in leader and work related quality of life has a statistically significant, positive and high degree (r=0.737). It should be underlined that correlation coefficients between variables are significant at the level of 0.01.

In this study, it was also practised on Cronbach's Alpha value in order to analyse the reliabilities of measures. According to the reliability analyses, it was revealed out that all scales have good Cronbach's alpha values as; servant leadership (α=0.885), trust in leader (α=0.970) and work related quality of life (α=931). On the other hand, it was used LISREL 8.8 International Programme to test the factorial structures of the scales. Findings show that scales have acceptable construct validities with good indices (Lomax and Schumacker,2004) which are shown in Table 2.

This chapter purposed to reveal out the mediator role of trust in leader in the relationship between servant leadership and WRQoL. With this aim, it was used hierarchic regression analyses accordance with Baron and Kenny's (1986) three steps model. In the first step, there should be a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life. In the second step, there should be a significant relationship between servant leadership and trust in leader. In the last step, i) trust in leader and work related quality of life need to be significantly related and ii) the relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life also has to decrease under the existence of trust in leader. In the last step if the model turns to meaningless ($p > 0.005$) it is called as full mediation; while if model keeps significant ($p < 0.005$) but the beta value of the servant leadership is declined it is appreciated as

Table 1. Means and correlations of variables

	Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3
1	Servant Leadership	3.42	.90			0.618**
2	Trust in Leader	3.51	1.12	0.685**		
3	Work Related Quality of Life	3.63	.96		0.737**	

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis results of scales

Variables	X^2	df	X^2/ df	RMSEA	NFI	NNFI	IFI	CFI	GFI
Servant Leadership	100.33	29	3.45	0.06	0.95	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.92
Trust in Leader	150.40	42	3.58	0.08	0.96	0.95	0.97	0.97	0.90
Work Related Quality of Life	90.48	19	4.76	0.08	0.93	0.94	0.92	0.91	0.90

partial mediation (Gürbüz,2019). Accordance with the regression analyses findings, all suppositions of the mediation model was confirmed. In this study, it is observed that the model turns to meaningless (p = 0.230; p>0.05) that is called full mediating may be significant in this relationship. Moreover, % 38.2 of the deviance in work related quality of life can be explained by servant leadership. It should be note that this value increases to %54.2 with the entrance of trust in leader to the model.

It is also required to benefit Sobel test results to empower the regression analysis findings about mediation effect. For this purpose, unstandardized beta and standard error coefficients were used to calculate Sobel, Aroian and Goodman tests. It was used an online Sobel Test Calculator. Findings show that mediator role of trust in leader is significant (Z Score= 11.715 is > 1.96 and p value is 0.000) in the relationship between servant leadership and WRQoL.

Table 3. Hierarchic regression analysis results

Hypothesis 1: First Step Regression Analyses **Dependent Variable:** Work Related Quality of Life			
Independent Variable:	***Beta***	***t***	***p***
Servant Leadership	0.618	12.912	0.000
	R^2:	F:	*p*
	0.382	166.709	0.000
Hypothesis 1: Second Step Regression Analyses **Dependent Variable:** Trust in Leader			
Independent Variable:	***Beta***	***t***	***p***
Servant Leadership	0.685	15.465	0.000
	R^2:	F:	*p*
	0.470	239.166	0.000
Hypothesis 1: Third Step Regression Analyses **Dependent Variable:** Work Related Quality of Life			
Independent Variable:	***Beta***	***t***	***p***
Servant Leadership	0.059	1.203	0.230
Trust in Leader		14.473	
	0.705		0.000
	Adjusted R^2:	F:	*p*
	0.542	161.330	0.000

Table 4. Sobel test results

Input		**Test Statistic**	**Standard Error**	***p*-value**
a:0.848	Sobel Test:	11.717550	0.0249	0.000
b:0.631	Aroian Test:	11.707153	0.0249	0.000
S_a: 0.055	Goodman Test:	11.727975	0.0248	0.000
S_b. 0.035				

In the last stage of the study, it was benefit from T-test and Anova tests to find out any difference on research variables (servant leadership, trust in leader and work related quality of life) for gender, marital status, age, education, company type and also experience. Findings demonstrate that there was no significant difference for research variables according to T-test results in terms of gender, marital status and institution type. Additionally, also no significant difference was found in the results of the Anova test for research variables regarding age groups, education and experience.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the findings of the study it is seen that trust-in leader has a full mediator role in the relationship between servant leadership and WRQoL. Behaviors and attitudes of servant leaders that aim well-being of employees enhance trust in leader. For this reason, to maintain and sustain organizational and individual success and well-being it is required positive management approaches that build trust between subordinates and supervisor. It is also well known that most of human life takes place in work environment. In this context, rise of work related quality of life positively impact the employees' performance, satisfaction, engagement and commitment that triggers organizational development. It is advised to build trust between employees and leaders to have a sustainable performance and well-being in this strong competition business environment.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In this chapter, it was purposed to find out the relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life. Furthermore, it was targeted to prove mediation role of trust in leader in this relationship. Reference to the results, research hypothesis was supported. However, it could not find any significant differences between groups about research variables. For future studies this research can be repeated as adding this model on other leadership styles such as democratic leadership, authentic leadership or transformational leadership in order to find out any differences. Next studies also should focus on demographic variables related models that comprised of more comprehensive sample size.

CONCLUSION

Servant leadership determines to have positive individual, organizational, group level and national outcomes (Jaiswal and Dhar, 2015). Trust is an important variable in most of servant leadership related studies that investigate the antecedents of individual and organizational outcomes (Farling et al., 1999; Russell and Stone, 2002; Page and Wong, 2000; Sendjava and Sarros, 2002; Joseph and Winston, 2005). Sendjaya and Pekerti (2010) revealed out that servant leadership is related with trust in leader. Seto and Sarros (2016) found that there is a strong and positive relation between trust in leader and servant leadership in a study of participation with 318 Canadian employees. Another study in China with the participation of 218 employees, it was found that trust in leader has a mediation role in the relationship between perceived servant leadership and employees job satisfaction (Chan and Mak, 2014). Schwarz, Newman, Cooper and Eva (2016) showed that servant leadership positively impact employees job performance.

Chughtai (2018) obtained from his study with the participation of 160 employees in Pakistan that servant leadership has positive impact on employees' life satisfaction. Wang, Kwan and Zhou (2017) also revealed out that servant leadership and work-family balance is positively correlated and identification with leader also has a mediator role in this relation. Besides, Li and colleagues (2018) found that servant leadership has a positive impact on employees' life satisfaction and workplace affect mediates relationship between variables. Jaiswal and Dhar's(2015) also demonstrated that servant leadership and employee creativity is positively correlated and trust in leader also has a mediation effect in this relationship.

Reference to the upper findings, in this study it was purposed to find out the relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life. Furthermore, it was targeted to prove mediation role of trust in leader in this relationship. For these purposes research model and hypothesis were designed. Questionnaire forms were formed and sent to the participants. Later, analyses were done with the valid data's accordance with statistical assumptions. Results indicate that there is a positive and medium level relationship between servant leadership and work related quality of life and % 38 of the deviance in the work related quality can be explained by servant leadership. Moreover, trust in leader has a mediation role in this relation. This role was also supported with Sobel test results.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Servant Leadership: Servant leadership is considered as a leadership style that implements good practices for employees' development and well-being. Serving for employees' requirements makes a leader as a servant leader.

Trust in Leader: Employee's reaction towards leader's encouragement is shaped with "trust in leader". When leaders interested in with subordinates' progress, necessities, well-being; subordinates are also intending to trust in leader because of their good imagination about them.

Work-Related Quality of Life: This concept is described as general quality of individual's life that is affected by work. It also includes basic techniques and approaches to improve working life.

Chapter 8
Transformational Leadership and Authentic Leadership as Practical Implications of Positive Organizational Psychology

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ABSTRACT

A large body of evidence suggests that leadership can be learned, and followers may respond to such learned behavior positively. Indeed, motivation, engagement, health, and wellbeing of employees in an organisation depend on the quality of the managers to a great extent. In this context, managers need to be equipped with the skills and behaviors both to engage and to protect the health and wellbeing of their teams. In this chapter, the theoretical backgrounds of transformational leadership and authentic leadership are explained, and these theories are compared and contrasted with each other. It also discusses how these leadership theories might help to enhance positive psychological abilities and positive attitudes of both leaders and their followers, and how these leadership theories contribute to the development of the management-training programs.

INTRODUCTION

Seligman, founder of the positive psychology movement explains his epiphany over the speech of his daughter: *"From the time I was three to the time I was five, I was a whiner. I whined every day. When I turned five, I decided not to whine anymore. That was the hardest thing I've ever done. And if I can stop whining, you can stop being such a grouch"* (Seligman, 2002a, p.3). Then, he realized that raising children is should be more about identifying and nurturing their strongest qualities instead of just concentrating or fixing what is wrong with them (Luthans, 2002a). The idea of catalysing human resource strengths and psychological capacities rather than their pathologies and dysfunctions make them improve the quality

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of their lives (Luthans, 2002b), and lead to be blossomed of the positive psychology movement among various disciplines (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). This positive movement has reflected to the workplaces and organizational scholars, as well (Dutton, 2003; Luthans, 2002a, 2002b).

In recent decades, positive-based approaches and constructs such as employee wellbeing, reinforcement, procedural justice, job satisfaction, commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour etc. have been widely studied within the context of positive organizational scholarship. On the other hand, there is also a topic that is frequently studied is positive organizational behaviour which exclusively focuses on psychological resource capacities (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). This new perspective, guided by theory and research, has brought about pleasant concepts such as trust, hope, optimism, happiness and resilience to traditional organizational behaviour (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). Indeed, positive psychological capital as an umbrella term of positive organizational behaviour is a psychologically positive development of individuals and taking on challenging tasks, having the confidence (self-efficacy) in order to be able to deal with them, to think positively about being successful in the present and in the future (optimism) striving to be successful within the framework of targets and re-reviewing the paths to the targets when necessary (hope) is defined as being self-recovering and resuming (psychological resilience) to succeed, even if it is surrounded by problems and troubles (Luthans, & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). Positive organizational behaviour aims to increase the organizational performance, especially performance of managers and leaders by using the capacity of positive psychology within the organization (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Wright, 2003). The concept is a dynamic to make efficient use of human resources from an organizational point of view, and to facilitate the superior performance (Nilsson, 2015; Donaldson & Ko, 2010). Through positive organizational behaviour, employees focused on their capacities and capabilities, and efforts were initiated to develop them (Nelson & Cooper, 2007).

Positive organizational behaviour aims to improve human resource and increase organizational performance by optimally blending positive and negative factors. Positive organizational behaviour focuses on situational variables that can be developed through proactive management and workplace interventions instead of belief-based, fixed and qualitative variables (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Both positive organizational scholarship and positive organizational behaviour approaches follow similar routes under the leadership of the positive psychology movement, but the main topics they are interested in differ from each other by the degree of emphasis on the importance of performance development and analysis methods (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Donaldson and Ko (2010, p.179) summarizes the main distinctions among positive organizational behaviour and positive organizational scholarship: (a) while positive organizational behaviour examines individual psychological characteristics and their impact on performance development, positive organizational scholarship generally deals with positive perspectives in organizational dimension (b) positive organizational behaviour studies primarily consist of micro and meso (small and medium) analyses based on data obtained from questionnaire forms; on the other hand, in the positive organizational scholarship approach, qualitative and quantitative research methods are used in organizational (macro) level (c) while the positive organizational behaviour approach works by inductive method (from individual to organization), positive organizational scholarship adopts deductive method. Besides, Donaldson and Ko (2010) suggest positive organizational psychology as an inclusionary term that covers both positive organizational behaviour and positive organizational scholarship in terms of research topics and the level of analysis. The term includes positive subjective experience, positive individual traits, and positive institutions (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Linley et al., 2006).

Pawelski (2016) argues the meaning of positive in positive psychology in his descriptive analysis and dwells on three possibilities from the literature: positive is the absence of the negative and/or; the negative is the absence of the positive and/or; the positive and the negative are two independently definable dimensions. Then, he refers to Seligman (2002b) and explains the positive and the negative are irreducible sides of the zero point (definable neutral point). According to Seligman (2002b) the zero point ensures a useful way of identifying positive topographies, positive target populations, and positive processes. In the meantime, Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) positive refers to the elevating processes and outcomes, and positive organizational scholarship is primarily concerned with the positive aspects of the organizational context that influence employee's thriving (p.149).

In their conceptual paper Mills, Fleck, and Kozikowski (2013) have pointed out the shortage of positive psychology interventions at workplaces. Authors highlighted the need for increased research regarding comprehensive and practice-based overviews to be justified the practical implications of positive organizational psychology at workplaces. With this chapter, it is aimed to contribute filling this gap regarding practical implications of positive organizational psychology. Accordingly, transformational leadership and authentic leadership are considered as positive practical implications, and their usage in the development of the management-training programs were explained. Thus, first of all, the theoretical backgrounds of transformational leadership and authentic leadership were explained, and these theories were compared and contrasted with each other. Then, it was also discussed that how these leadership theories might help to enhance positive psychological abilities and positive attitudes of both leaders and their followers. Finally, it was argued that how they would contribute to the development of the management-training programs.

BACKGROUND

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is defined as *"generating enthusiasm for a 'vision', a high level of individualised consideration, creating opportunities for employees' development, setting high expectations for performance, and acting as a role model to gain the respect, admiration and trust of employees"* (Lewis et al., 2012, p.220). Transformational Leadership Theory has been among the most influential leadership theories of the last two decades which highlights the direct impact of leaders on individual followers (Zwingmann et al., 2014) and research demonstrates a positive relationship between transformational leadership and followers' attitudes and behaviours. Transformational leadership strengthens individual followers to enhance their full potential, develop their abilities and skills, and improve their self-efficacy and self-esteem (Kovjanic et al., 2013). Shin and Zhou (2003) have suggested that transformational leadership can also boost intrinsic motivation which provides enjoyment of focused and continued engagement (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Similarly, Masi and Cooke (2000) have found that transformational leadership has positive effects on subordinate motivation. Barbuto Jr. (2005) provided evidence that a leader who is inspired by self-concept-internal motivation is likely to value individual employees and the inherent strengths and contributions each makes.

If people are motivated to perform certain kinds of work or to engage in certain types of behaviour for the sheer fun of it, then intrinsic process motivation is occurring. For this source of motivation, the work itself acts as the incentive because workers enjoy what they are doing. (Barbuto Jr., 2005, p.28)

Transformational models define leadership in terms of the effects on followers. That is, followers experience a sense of significance, motivation and commitment to leader ideals. But if there is a dark side to leadership, followers must surely carry some responsibility in recognising and addressing these darker issues (Clements & Washbush, 1999). As an enthusiast of transformational leadership, Conger (1990) states that:

Though we tend to think of positive outcomes associated with leaders, certain risks or liabilities are also entailed. The very behaviours that distinguish leaders from managers also have the potential to produce problematic or even disastrous outcomes for their organization. (Conger, 1990, p.44)

Generally transformational leadership includes behaviours associated with being an effective charismatic role model, expressing a fascinating vision, encouraging common goals, setting high performance expectations, and providing individual support and intellectual stimulation for followers (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich 2001). This type of leadership contributes significantly to both the performance of the followers and the success of the organization (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009; Hardy et al., 2010; Al-Omari, & Hung, 2012; Carleton, Barling, & Trivisonno, 2018). The most important feature of the leader in the transformational leadership approach is to lead and manage the change efforts that are required in the organization (Korek, Felfe, & Zaepernick-Rothe, 2010). In this leadership approach, the leader creates changes in the organizational structure of the organization (Para-González, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Martínez-Lorente, 2018). Instead of the tendency to maintain current status of the organization within the structure, transformational leaders set individuals big goals to motivate them to perform beyond what they can, and put forward changes that will unite these goals (Cho, & Dansereau, 2010; Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders ensure that followers achieve their goals, aspirations and expectations they perform above their usual capacity (Kovjanic et al., 2013). Transformational leaders bring vision to employees. To contribute to this vision, transformational leaders teach their followers to trust themselves and make them believe that they can do more than they think they can (Rafferty, & Griffin, 2004; Bass, 1990).

Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership is defined as *"a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development"* (Avolio et al., 2009, p.424). According to Walumbwa et al. (2011) authentic leadership is based on the notion of trust and transparency. Authentic leaders give importance to ethics and moral values, behave consistently, and create an ethical and reliable culture within the organization. One of the main reasons for the emergence of authentic leadership is that it is understood that there should be a leadership with ethical value for long-term efficiency and success in organizations (Toor & Ofori, 2009). Leaders who have high ethics and moral levels know what the moral problems and they are able to provide solutions to such problems (May et al., 2003). Thus, trust, reliability, honesty, integrity, moral and ethical values and principles are among the key features of authentic leadership (George and Sims, 2007). Hannah, Avolio, and Walumbwa (2011) has also focused on the moral courage which states the tendency to use moral principles to overcome danger or risks as an important force to be perceived an authentic leader, and they explains:

We suggest that the conation to act ethically, as represented by moral courage, will help explain why one actor will step up and act while another who arrives at the same ethical judgment in the same situation will stand by and fail to act. (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011, p.556)

George (2003) has developed a model to describe five dimensions of authentic leadership that are purpose and passion, values and behavior, relationships and connectedness, self-discipline and consistency, and heart and compassion. (pursuing purpose with passion, practicing solid values, leading with heart, establishing enduring relationships, and demonstrating self-discipline) Then, other four dimensions described by Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang (2005), and each are associated with an observable characteristic: self-awareness, unbiased processing, authentic behavior/acting and authentic relational orientation. More comprehensively, Walumbwa et al. (2008) have tested a model and developed a questionnaire to measure authentic leadership. Their findings demonstrated four dimension for the authentic leadership that are: leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. All of these classifications point out ethical based positive attributes and behaviors. Authentic leaders lead their behavior based on their own values and beliefs, they support their followers

to share their beliefs and values (Yammarino et al., 2008). In addition to having a tendency to support employees, authentic leaders also create a high level of trust in employees through individual identification since they are transparent and clear (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). As a matter of fact, there is an evidence that authentic leadership enhances employee trust and positively affect followers' work behaviours and attitudes. (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Alok and Israel (2012) illustrated that authentic leadership is positively related with work engagement, while Darvish and Rezaei (2011) found the significant impact of authentic leadership on job satisfaction and team commitment. Similarly, Ilies et al. (2005) emphasised the influences of authenticity and authentic leadership on leader and follower eudemonic wellbeing. Additionally, there is an evidence that authentic leadership promotes employees' psychological capital and creativity (Rego et al., 2012).

Self-knowledge and self-consistency have been suggested as key antecedents of authentic leadership by Peus et al. (2012). According to authors leaders who clearly know their values, convictions, personal strengths and weaknesses may behave more authentically as well as experience higher levels of positive affect and well-being. Besides, values and actions of leaders have to be consistent to be perceived as an authentic leader. Their findings also showed that followers' satisfaction with supervisor, organizational commitment, and extra effort as well as perceived team effectiveness might be considered as outcomes of authentic leadership. Indeed, authentic leaders aware of their own weaknesses, they are motivated by self-validation and personal development goals, and they do not compromise their principles (Bishop, 2013).

Comparing and Contrasting the Transformational Leadership and Authentic Leadership

Though, authentic leadership is most likely related to genuine transformational leadership and may serve as a "root construct" of this and other forms of positive leadership (Banks et al., 2016), some differences between transformational leadership and authentic leadership can be seen. For example, while transformational leadership deals with developing the purpose of performing leadership roles of followers, authentic leadership focuses on developing their sense of self (Leroy et al., 2012). Yet, transformational leaders by definition paint powerful visions and stimulate creativity among followers within an organisation. In contrast to transformational leadership, in particular, authentic leadership may not necessarily be charismatic or inspirational. Authentic leaders provide durable relationships, and lead with purpose, meaning and values; but drawing powerful visions, having charisma and stimulating creativity among followers within an organisation may be expected from transformational leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p.329).

We believe the key distinction is that authentic leaders are anchored by their own deep sense of self; they know where they stand on important issues, values and beliefs. With that base they stay their course and convey to others, oftentimes through actions, not just words, what they represent in terms of principles, values and ethics. Transformational leaders may also have this deep sense of self joining our two views of leadership, or they may be able to transform others and organizations, through a powerful, positive vision, an intellectually stimulating idea, attention to uplifting the needs of followers and by having a clear sense of purpose. (Avolio & Gardner,2005, p.329).

Authentic leaders share similarities with transformational leaders regarding their self-confidence, hopefulness, resilience, and high moral standards. However, authentic leaders are only conducive to changes as role models instead of striving to make serious changes and transformations as transformational leaders (Banks et al., 2016). Also, it is not important for authentic leaders to be charismatic like the transformational leaders (illies, morgeson, & nahrgang, 2005).

The Importance of the Management Training Development Programmes as an Organisational Development Intervention

In order to overcome the challenges of dynamic business environments where fierce competition occurs and to address the internal firm-level requirements (i.e. effectiveness and efficiency in operations and processes) to achieve sustained competitive advantage, firms need to change, thus they engage in organisational development interventions (Anderson, 2017; Bradford & Burke, 2004; Cummings & Worley, 2014; Sminia & Van Nistelrooij, 2006). Organisational development refers to "any practice that serves to deliberately improve problem solving and renewal processes in organisations" (Romme, 2011, p. 9). Similarly, Anderson (2017) defines organisational development as "the process of increasing organisational effectiveness and facilitating personal and organisational change through the use of interventions driven by social and behavioural science knowledge" (p. 3). Therefore, organisational development is commonly considered in the organisation literature as "a prominent system-wide approach to planned organisational change based on behavioural science" (Kuna & Nadiv, 2018, p. 848) and it aims to "facilitate organisational learning" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012; Lien, Hung, & McLean, 2007) and to "improve the way organisations work" (Bradford & Burke, 2005, Cummings & Worley, 2014).

As a continuous process, organisational development can be conducted by a single intervention or a series of interventions over time at different levels such as individual, team, organisational or even multiple organisational (large-scale) levels (Burke, 2017; Cummings & Worley, 2014). The classification of interventions is not limited to level basis. A number of intervention categories reflecting the nature and content of the actions, such as the interventions that are related to human resource practices, restructuring/re-engineering, technology and strategy are frequently mentioned in the literature (LaMontagne et al, 2007; van Aken, 2007; Foss, 2003; Roberts et al., 2017; Akca, 2019). Furthermore, Liu (2011) categorises the types of interventions as primary interventions which aim to treat and rehabilitate the main sources of problems and secondary interventions that deal with symptoms of the main problem(s). Therefore, understanding and defining the root causes of a problem and its symptoms thoroughly is critically important for an occupational psychologist or any practitioner to select and implement the most suitable intervention type. The intervention method selected must be consistent with the strategic goals and should align with the objectives that the organisation desires to reach (Mikkelsen, Saksvik, & Landsbergis, 2000; Andert, 2011).

As a requirement of the dynamic and competitive global business context, organisations try to become more flexible, agile, and quick in decision making. In parallel, there has been a raising awareness that all managers, even employees need to act as leaders and/or decision-making authorities in their control areas. Therefore, organisations should conduct a series of activities to increase employees' managerial and leadership capabilities through training and experience as a part of organisational development (Cacioppe, 1998; Day, 2000). Especially, people with managerial roles are likely to demand further formal and/or informal trainings to maximise their technical competence and leadership skills on the way of becoming effective leaders (Collins & Holton, 2004; Eigel and Kuhnert, 2005). In this context, several interventions such as empowerment, management training and leadership development programmes can provide significant benefits to develop the leadership skills of executives and their subordinates (Mabey, 2013; Berkovich, 2014). Thus, identification of the necessary leadership style which can address the relevant needs of an organisation might be very beneficial.

In this chapter, it was aimed to review training of transformational leadership and authentic leadership as a positive psychology intervention. Previously, Kelloway and Barling (2010) have pointed that leadership development should be considered as a viable and effective primary intervention in occupational health psychology. Authors have proposed that leadership intervention studies provide us to understand causal linkages between leadership styles and occupational health psychology outcomes. In addition, Berkovich (2014) has stated that the notion of dialogue should be at the center of the authentic leadership development programs and identified eight components of these programs that are self-exposure, open-mindedness, empathy, care, respect, critical thinking, contact, and mutuality. Furthermore, Avolio et al. (2010) have reviewed the authentic leadership development literature and offered heritability of leadership and history of leadership interventions as the factors involved in genuine leadership development. Bass and Riggio (2006) have suggested that transformational leadership development should focus not only on specific and narrow skills of leaders, but also their values and self-concepts. Similarly, McCleskey (2014) has highlighted that transformational leadership development requires a broadly established educational process, targeting values, self-concepts, and moral reasoning of leaders. Kirkbride (2006) have examined the innovative full range leadership model which *attempts to depict the whole range of leadership styles from non-leadership to the more transformational styles* (p.24) to develop transformational leadership within organizations and found that transformational leadership can be successfully taught by a development process.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Over the past decades, the effects of leadership typologies and behaviours in overcoming organisational problems has received considerable attention from scholars (e.g. Woolley, Caza, & Levy, 2011; Kovjanic et al., 2013; Wong & Laschinger, 2013). Although there is no single definition or concept of leadership that satisfies everyone, as a common consensus in the literature states that leadership is the ability to lead others toward a common goal and capacity to influence people. Research (Wong & Laschinger, 2013) suggests that successful leaders don't invariably behave in identical ways. They may act in different manners, even in similar situations, and may show different personalities and characteristics. As a matter of fact, different leadership qualities may be needed in different circumstances.

Although some leaders (e.g., Ataturk, Castro and Ghandi) who were born as authentic, visionary or charismatic leaders did not need any training to become a leader, training and development programmes can help managers to explore and develop their potential of becoming a leader. A large body of evidence suggests that leadership can be learned and followers may respond to such learned behaviour positively. Therefore, both transformational leadership and authentic leadership can be applied to the management training programmes. However, against the similarities of these two concepts, the differences between them are more noteworthy. So, their applications to the management trainee programmes may differ. For example, ethical decision-making can occupy much place to enhance authentic leadership development than transformational leadership development.

Transformational leaders inspire, energise, and intellectually stimulate their employees. Transformational leadership can be learned, and it can —and should —be the subject of management training and development. (Bernard Bass, 1990, p.)

Bass (1990) argued that through training, managers can learn the techniques and obtain the qualities they need to become a transformational leader. Evidence suggests that developing management capability in this area can make a major contribution to achieving sustainable employee engagement, health and well-being (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Shuck & Herd, 2012). It is known that leadership development is not simply a matter of choosing the right model and running a 'training' event since developing manager skills and identity is a process that evolves over time and requires a range of elements/activities (de Charon, 2003). Besides, applying and sustaining newly learned behaviour in the workplace is not easy which needs support, and the context in which managers work will have a major impact on how they actually behave. Thus, there is not only one or a unifying model to design an effective management trainee programme. However, the research conducted by the Affinity Health at Work (CIPD, 2017) present us three main implications to foster positive manager behaviour, especially in transformational leadership development programmes. These are:

- Providing effective management development programmes,
- Supporting managers to transfer their learning into their day-to-day management approach,
- Creating an organisational context that supports this way of managing people, with the aim of achieving high levels of employee engagement, health and wellbeing.

Similarly, Shamir and Elian (2005) have developed a model which describes the components of authentic leadership development. These are:

- Development of a leader identity as a central component of the person's self-concept,
- Development of self-knowledge and self-concept clarity, including clarity about values and convictions,
- Development of goals that are concordant with the self-concept,
- Increasing self-expressive behaviour, namely consistency between leader behaviours and the leader's self-concept.

Even if there are different approaches as proposed on implication of both transformational leadership and authentic leadership to the development programmes, some common points should be considered whichever (transformational leadership or authentic leadership) model is selected. First of all, individual differences, such as demographics and personality variables and also national culture should be considered when developing a management trainee programme (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). For instance, what might be seen as authentic or ethical in United Kingdom may be perceived completely different by Japanese people and this may definitely affect the development of authentic leadership. Moreover, authentic leadership includes value-based elements and may be shaped by culture and/or family experiences and relatedly it may be difficult to alter ethical behaviours in adults (Cooper et al., 2005). Secondly, all types of leadership developments have to be based on a valid theoretical model. Also, these development interventions should be continuous since generally one-time-training events may not be effective. Additionally, both transformational leadership and authentic leadership may be highly context dependent. For this reason, a supportive organisational context is essential to be able to obtain successful and sustainable results from these programs. As Avolio and Wernsing (2007) stated, the readiness of participants to development is vitally important for the success of the interventions. As a final point, the success of the development programme needs to be assessed and the impact of training on behaviour change or performance at all levels needs to be measured (Cooper et al., 2005).

FURTHER RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

Empirical studies have already showed that leadership has an important role on the organizational performance (Teece et al., 1997; Rowe et al., 2005; Tarabishy et al., 2005; Jing and Avery, 2008). However, even previous studies have demonstrated the relationship between leadership behaviours and organizational performance, there is still need to explain why and how leadership affects performance in terms of both individual and organizational contexts. Especially, positive forms of leadership such as transformational or authentic can be considered in this context. Although some studies have already showed the impact of transformational and/or authentic leadership on performance (Dvir et al., 2002; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012; Wong, & Laschinger, 2013), further empirical investigation is required to determine how these leadership theories might help to enhance positive psychological abilities and positive attitudes of both leaders and their followers. Furthermore, Mills, Fleck, and Kozikowski (2013) have pointed out the shortage of positive psychology interventions at workplaces. Authors highlighted the need for increased research regarding comprehensive and practice-based overviews to be justified the practical implications of positive organizational psychology at workplaces. With this chapter, it was aimed to contribute filling this gap regarding transformational leadership and authentic leadership as practical implications of positive organizational psychology. In this chapter, the question of how transformational leadership and authentic leadership theories would practically contribute to the development of the management-training programs was discussed. Nevertheless, by carrying out much more practice-based studies, it would be possible to ascertain the impact of positive psychology interventions on organizational outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Positive organizational behaviour, which has emerged as a reflection of positive psychology movement in organizational field in recent years, focuses on measurable and developable positive psychological abilities of employees (Ko & Donaldson, 2011). Indeed, motivation, engagement, health and wellbeing of employees in an organisation depend on the quality of the managers to a great extent. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory claims that the quality of the relationship between the leader and the subordinate influences performance related outcomes (Wang et al., 2014). High quality LMX supports employee engagement, satisfaction and positive effect on leader behaviours, while low quality LMX is associated with negative organisational outcomes (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007). Antonakis and House (2014) suggest that the leader influences followers by creating an interest on them; understanding their abilities, skills, and needs; and providing them with customised coaching and mentoring. In this context, managers need to be equipped with the skills and behaviours both to engage, and to protect the health and wellbeing of their teams. To achieve this, organisations need to provide the most effective programmes which enable managers to develop their competencies. Hence, leadership training programs can improve positive leader behaviours (Mills, Fleck, & Kozikowski, 2013). For example, there is an evidence that transformational leadership interventions can enhance leadership behaviours perceptions and organisational commitment of followers as well as financial performance (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Also, Hannah, Avolio, and Walumbwa (2011) suggest that since moral courage is positively related authentic leadership, training programs to enhance moral courage might be very effective for organisations.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Authentic Leadership: A type of leadership style which emphasizes the positive psychological capacities as well as moral and ethics values with greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors.

Management Development Training Programs: Programs especially for qualified employees to help enhance their managerial skills.

Organizational Development: Practices that serves to deliberately improve problem solving and renewal processes in organizations.

Transformational Leadership: A type of leadership style which emphasizes generating enthusiasm for a vision, and acting as a role model to gain the respect, admiration, and trust of employees.

Chapter 9
Friends or Foes:
Dynamics Between OCBs, Contexts, and Innovation Development

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ABSTRACT

Organizations benefit from innovation development through new or improved products, processes, and systems that enable growth, superior performance, and higher adaptability to change in their external environment. This chapter introduces a study that examines organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as voluntary acts with potential to support or limit innovation development processes such as idea generation, transformation, and knowledge sharing. The dynamic between organizational contexts, OCBs, and their role in fostering or inhibiting innovation development has been examined using a systematic review of evidence with a realist theoretical framework. Results show that dependent on various contextual characteristics, OCBs act as facilitators or inhibitors of processes that lead to innovative outcomes. Even when a growth strategy based on innovation is not actively pursued, some OCBs can enhance leaders' efforts to adapt their organizations to the external environment as long as they maintain a climate in which ideas can be voiced and transformed into innovative solutions.

INTRODUCTION

Innovation is viewed as a process of developing an idea into a product, service, organizational model, or management system that makes something new or improved. Researchers and practitioners agree that in business, innovation management is key to a company's ability to take advantage of perceived opportunities for growth and to adapt to the external environment while pursuing long term sustainability (Grant, 2005; Jones, 2001; Kirschbaum, 2005; Rogers, 2003). Successful management of an innovation development process depends on organizational cultures, climates and structures supporting creativity (Ford &

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Gioia, 2000; Dyer, Gregersen, & Christensen, 2009; Gibson, 2015), and effective, systematic knowledge sharing (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Rost, 2011; Jain, Jain & Jain, 2015; Han, Han & Brass, 2014).

An increasingly popular strategy in the innovation compendium is to grow organizations and accommodate changes in the external environmental by developing and managing organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Research suggests a growing interest in OCBs' construct as innovative and spontaneous behaviors that are discretionary and not directly or explicitly recognized by a formal reward system (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). While the research on OCBs has increased dramatically in the past years, a rapid search of empirical evidence led to results that show a fragmented picture related to its actual influence on organizational innovation development processes. In some studies, OCBs have a positive influence on employees' engagement in processes leading to innovation development (Podsakoff et al., 2000), but there is also evidence suggesting OCBs as possible inhibitors of creativity and knowledge sharing (Turnipseed, Turnipseed, Agut, Peiro & Grau, 2009). Since innovation development depends on employees' willingness to voice new ideas (Rodriguez & Hechanova, 2014) and share knowledge (Husted & Michailova, 2002), having a more clear understanding of OCB's influence on employee's engagement in organizational innovation is critical for managers who are focused on growing their company using innovation as a strategy or approach to seeking solutions and improve performance.

This chapter introduces a study that contributes to filling the existing research gap by analyzing the interaction between OCBs and innovation management processes directed toward transforming new ideas into innovative outcomes. Our aim is to provide practitioners with a better understanding of how different organizational citizenship behaviors can facilitate or inhibit efforts to innovate.

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS AND INNOVATION DEVELOPMENT

Successful innovation depends on leaders' commitment to attract and empower creative employees, enabling them to express different perspectives and ideas and to question and challenge orthodoxies (Dyer et al., 2009; Gibson, 2015). Employees express different perspectives or ideas that might be perceived as disruptive in psychologically safe environments in which difference is valued (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; Peretz, Levi, & Fried, 2015; Stock, Six, & Zacharias, 2013). Additionally, for new ideas to be generated and transformed into innovations, leaders need to support the development of trustworthy relationships (Post, De Lia, DiTomaso, Tirpak, & Borwankar, 2009; Rost, 2011; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998) as well as collaborative social networks that enable access to resources and effective knowledge sharing (Burt, 2000; Rost, 2011; Rogers, 2003). A critical review of theoretical and empirical studies shows that behaviors associated with OCBs such as helping, consciousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, can help enhance team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness; reduce intergroup conflict; and aid the dissemination of knowledge in the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This research also suggests a possible positive influence of OCBs on innovation development processes, as these behaviors reflect willingness to cooperate (Organ, 1990), and innovation depends on collaborative relationships that allow rapid knowledge transfer (Kanter, 1985).

However, OCBs can also inhibit innovation development if they enhance group cohesiveness and lead to relationships that motivate employees to engage in hostile knowledge sharing behaviors, such as knowledge hoarding or knowledge rejecting (Husted & Michailova, 2002). When individuals are seeking concurrence amongst themselves, they may strive for the shortest path, finding a 'groupthink' mentality (Janis, 2011). Indeed, research shows that while trustworthy relationships may enhance the solidarity benefits needed in knowledge sharing, strong ties can also have a negative impact on the innovation process (Jain, R., Jain, C., & Jain, P., 2015; Rost, 2011). Furthermore, shared mindsets are detrimental to group innovation as it inhibits the expression of new ideas (Post et al., 2009), and strong group affinity inhibits external knowledge absorption and the quality of knowledge shared internally (Husted & Michailova, 2002).

Civic virtue, an OCB which in certain circumstances has a positive influence on organizational performance, can also become a barrier in an innovation process. When employees in boundary-spanning positions feel safe to provide constructive criticism, they can contribute to an innovative process that leads to adapting the organization to changes in the external environment (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). However, this study also found that employees engaging in these behaviors when not in a boundary-spanning role do not have the same positive influence on performance. Giacalone and Promislo (2013) concluded that there are social contexts in which virtuous employees standing on principle that might negatively impact the positive self-image of others are perceived as threatening, and those exhibiting caring, helping behaviors are ridiculed and perceived as naïve and gullible. These perceptions might interfere in an innovation process that depends on valuing different ideas and perspectives.

Considering the need to innovate and adapt organizations to change in the external environment, it is important for managers to have access to information that would clarify how and under what circumstances OCBs would support innovation development processes and when those behaviors might inhibit organizational innovativeness. To examine this issue, our research analyzed the circumstances in which OCBs support or inhibit processes associated with innovation development, such as creativity empowerment as well as knowledge sharing.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Innovation requires creativity and the generation of new ideas, followed by the diffusion, adoption, and transformation of said ideas into new products, services, or processes. Rogers (2003) posited that the actual innovation-decision process begins with the knowledge gained when a decision-making unit learns about an idea and develops an understanding of its functionality. This is the initiation stage of an organizational innovation process; information is gathered, conceptualized, and included in a plan to adopt and implement the innovative idea (Rogers, 2003). Next, the new idea moves into the transformation stage, which consists of all the elements required to develop it into an innovation. This includes modifying and fitting the innovative idea to organizational structures as well as altering organizational processes in a dynamic change that leads to its transformation into an innovative outcome (Ansari, Fiss, & Zajac, 2010; Rogers, 2003). Creativity emerges synergistically through group members' interaction and therefore, it depends on the level of members' empowerment to express new ideas as well as the level of social capital, which facilitates the sharing of information (Taggar, 2002; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Furthermore, the social capital plays a critical role in the innovation development processes as trustworthy relationships facilitate effective knowledge sharing that supports the idea transformation into an innovative outcome (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Rost, 2011; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).

Innovation Development and Contexts

Relationship trust levels and community/departmental norms are the two key characteristics of social interactions that determine the conditions under which members decide to share information (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998), how information is perceived and interpreted, as well as if a new idea is accepted and included in a process of transformation (Rogers, 2003; Rost, 2011). Rost's (2011) study found a significant relationship between strong ties based on trust and mutual benefit expectations and engagement in the innovation development process. However, he also found that strong relationships and high group cohesiveness impede the development of innovation in organizations. West and Wallace's research (1991) indicated that creativity is higher in less cohesive groups, but the transformation of new ideas into innovation requires higher levels of collaboration through trustworthy relationships. On the other hand, Husted and Michailova (2002) argued that knowledge sharing is dependent on context, and in highly hierarchical environments, employees will refrain from sharing knowledge, fearing loss of power or negative consequences from superiors unable to accept that they can learn from those in the lower levels of their organization.

Additionally, norms guiding the behaviors of members in a social system influence the expression and transformation of new ideas as they "tell individuals what behaviors they are expected to perform" (Rogers, 2003, p. 26). Norms guiding group members towards developing trustworthy relationships based on mutual respect and sharing knowledge through collaboration in an open and psychologically safe environment create a context conducive to new ideas being shared and transformed into innovative outcomes (Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2015; Rodriguez & Hechanova, 2014; Stock, Six & Zacharias, 2013). Furthermore, organizations with flexible structures create a collaborative learning environment in which members focus on taking advantage of external opportunities and are more supportive of innovation development than are those with a more rigid structure and an internal orientation (Büschgens, Bausch, & Balkin, 2013; Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2015). Accordingly, this research posited that contexts in which members are encouraged to have an external orientation and to develop relationships guided by norms supporting trust development and learning-based collaboration in a psychologically safe climate facilitate the expression and transformation of new ideas into innovations. In contrast, highly hierarchical environments in which group members have an internal focus and are expected to comply and follow well- established rules and routines limit ideas generation and transformation processes and therefore, inhibit innovation development.

OCBs and Contexts Supporting or Limiting Innovation Development

The organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) construct, developed originally by Organ (1997), consists of five affiliative dimensions: altruism in the form of helping behaviors, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. These affiliative dimensions influence the interactions between members as well as their decisions to engage voluntarily in activities that influence the level of trust and collaboration in relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Since creativity and knowledge sharing depend on trustworthy relationships between members who bring a diversity of perspectives into their organizations (Rogers, 2003; Rost, 2011), this research analyzed OCBs' influence on idea generation and knowledge sharing involved in transformation processes in different organizational contexts.

According to Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994), OCBs are the result of covenant relationships between employees and their organizations developed on trust, shared values, and open-ended commitment, with the loyalty level employees feel for their organizations mediating the level of exhibited OCBs. Theorists have argued that in change processes such as those associated with innovation development, OCBs reflect employees' buy-in and their engagement in extra-role behaviors, indicating a willingness to face possible inconveniences associated with uncertainty as well as their commitment to contributing to their organization's efforts to grow and ensure long-term sustainability (Carter, Armenakis, Field, & Mossholder, 2013). Therefore, considering that innovation-related ventures are characterized by uncertainty, knowledge-intensity, and ambiguity as organizations strive to respond to external change with the development of new products or services (Kanter, 2085, Garud & Van De Ven, 1992; Husted & Vintergaard, 2004), OCBs can have a positive impact on innovation development.

Employees display civic virtue through their willingness to participate in governance- related activities and their efforts to look out for their company by monitoring the environment for threats and opportunities (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Identifying and taking advantage of opportunities are civic virtue-related behaviors with a potentially positive influence on leadership's innovation management efforts as employees exhibiting these behaviors can contribute to the process of generating and sharing new ideas. Helping behavior, the most important form of citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000), relates to voluntarily helping others with work-related problems and is associated with altruism, peacemaking, and cheerleading. In a collaborative effort to transform innovative ideas into new solutions, helping behavior can lead to enhanced performance through a more intensive knowledge exchange. Additionally, sportsmanship, the willingness to tolerate inconveniences and maintain a positive attitude while sacrificing personal interest for the good of the group (Podsakoff et al., 2000), can contribute to the open, psychologically safe climate needed in an innovation development process in which divergent ideas must be shared. Similarly, being courteous would help maintain a positive climate when different ideas are debated in a creative process in which every opinion should be considered. Finally, consciousness seems to act as a particularly important OCB for successful innovation processes as it is associated with inducing change by taking on extra responsibilities and engaging in "voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one's task or the organization's performance persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524). Consciousness can positively influence the ideas generation as well as the idea transformation process through extra knowledge diffusion efforts. Therefore, OCBs can positively drive creativity and innovation development processes, contributing to new ideas generation as well as enhanced knowledge sharing and ideas transformation through collaboration in environments supportive of diverse perspectives. Based on these descriptions of OCBs and their potential impact, this study proposed that in contexts supportive of innovation development, OCBs contribute to the safe, positive climate and collaborative relationships and therefore, enhance new ideas generation and intensify knowledge sharing, which lead to ideas being transformed into innovative outcomes (reference P 1 in Table 1).

On the other hand, OCBs can also act as barriers to innovation development when helping, sportsmanship, and courtesy have a negative impact on employees' ability to express ideas freely, and question orthodoxies without fear of offending. Cooperative behavior is associated with agreeableness, but those engaging in change-related communication can be viewed as discourteous (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). Therefore, OCBs focused on maintaining existing working relationships can lead to a level of group cohesiveness that would be detrimental to voicing ideas (Van Dyne et al., 1995) and sharing knowledge in the innovation development process (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Rost, 2011). Additionally, Husted and

Table 1. Propositions summary

Ps	Context	Mechanism	Outcome
P 1	**Conducive to Innovation** External orientation. Valuing diversity and innovation. Psychologically safe climate supporting ideas expression. Norms that encourage trustworthy relationship development and collaborative learning.	**OCBs support innovation** Helping behaviors contribute to a process of shaping ideas/innovation, knowledge/skill sharing through empowering collaborative relationships. Sportsmanship enables reflection and perspective taking in a positive environment. Civic virtue enables effective knowledge sharing and opportunity identification.	Effective ideas generation and transformation into innovative outcomes.
P 2	**Constraining Innovation** Highly hierarchical. Internally oriented. Relationships guided by norms focused on compliance.	**OCBs inhibit innovation** Helping and civic virtue lead to highly cohesive groups, possible groupthink. Sportsmanship, consciousness can interfere with open communication processes and contribute to negative climate. Helping behaviors can disempower those in relationships in which partners are not perceived equal and thus, inhibit knowledge sharing.	Weak innovative outcomes due to limited expression of ideas and knowledge sharing.

Michailova (2002) argued that in uncertain environments in which individuals value strong relationships, knowledge sharing would be inhibited by individuals' fears that their messages might be misinterpreted. Furthermore, Kai Chi et al. (2014) found that the OCBs of employees driven by controlled motivation can at some point lead to deviant behaviors. This study also showed that when individuals feel compelled by external forces to engage in OCBs, they develop a sense of psychological entitlement which licenses bad deeds towards co-workers and/or the organization, therefore having a potential negative impact on trustworthiness and knowledge sharing between employees. As a result, the second proposition in this study (reference P 2 in Table 1) asserted that in hierarchical, uncertain contexts, in which values and norms emphasize compliance and stability, OCBs raise the level of group cohesiveness and relationship strength, and therefore, inhibit the expression of new ideas and knowledge transfer necessary for effective innovation development processes. Table 1 presents a summary of propositions drawn from this theoretical background review.

The theoretical framework introduced above describes two main patterns of interactions in which OCBs act as mechanisms that lead to supporting or inhibiting innovation development processes in organizations. Pawson and Tilley (2004) argued that interventions are embedded in the social systems, and studying behavior or social conditions requires a careful evaluation of the entire system of social relationships forming the social reality that surrounds an intervention. This study follows a CMO model in which the context (C) is defined as the organizational environment as influenced by cultural values, norms, and climate, and the organizational structure as strategy supportive of innovation development; the mechanism (M) is OCBs acting as facilitators or inhibitors of the innovation development process, and the outcome (O) is the resulting innovative (or not) outcomes based on successful (or not) ideas generation and knowledge sharing that leads to their transformation into innovations. The generative explanation in realist program theory guided this research process and research review (Wong, Greenbalgh, Westhorp, Buckingham & Pawson, 2013).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A seven-step systematic review process was implemented to ensure a rigorous and transparent evidence-based research process. A realistic epistemological view and a heterogeneous body of primary research led towards using a configurative approach to synthesizing the data. This method enabled the interpretation of the findings through a "critical approach to reading the literature" as well as an inductive tactic to searching and answering the research question (Gough, Oliver & Thomas, 2012, p. 44). Because configurative reviews and realist syntheses are developed in an effort to respond to questions that explore theories in different contexts, this approach was adopted with an aim to analyze the dynamic interaction between OCBs and innovation management processes in the organization.

Inclusion-Exclusion Criteria and The Search Process

In responding to the research question in a rigorous and transparent manner, and to identify research based evidence, the search process was limited to studies published in peer-reviewed, academic journals, in English. The OneSearch tool was used to search the electronic databases included in University of Maryland Global Campus' Library as well as the following management related databases: ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete, Emerald Fulltext, and Management Reviews. Several combinations of the following key words resulted in a total of 322 initial results: "organizational citizenship behaviors*", innovation, "innovation management", "OCB*", "innovation develop*". After an evaluation of titles, abstracts as well as elimination of duplicates, 23 studies were included in the quality assessment and 21 studies qualified for inclusion in data extraction and analysis. A PRISMA diagram was used to map-out "the number of records identified, included and excluded, and the reasons for exclusions" (PRISMA, n.d.). A list containing the 21 studies' citations is found in Table 2 in the Appendix.

Studies Quality Appraisal

The quality assessment tool employed for this study used a modified TAPUPAS framework aiming to judge trustworthiness, value and relevance (Harden & Gough, 2012). Developed as a framework to assess the quality of knowledge in social science (Pawson, Boaz, Grayson, Long & Barnes, 2003), this method was considered most appropriate to evaluate the evidence included in this study and ensure its internal validity. Relevance and transparency of research was assessed along six dimensions included in Pawson et al.'s (2003) TAPUPAS framework: transparency, accuracy, purposivity, utility, propriety, and accessibility. A brief description of each dimension is included in Table 3 in the Appendix. The Weight of Evidence (WoE) in Table 4 in the Appendix was used to judge the preponderance of evidence and support a decision process related to what and how the information contributes to answering the research question in this study (Gough, 2007).

Coding and Findings Extraction

The 21 studies selected for inclusion in the analysis and synthesis were coded as part of the data processing stage of this systematic review (Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012). An open coding approach was used to facilitate an iterative process, allowing the researchers to move between studies while interrogating the review question repeatedly (Oliver & Sutcliffe, 2012). MaxQDA, a qualitative research analysis software which facilitates an efficient coding process and information management system (MaxQDA, 2014) was used to analyze the coded segments. The following section presents the main findings that inform this study's conceptual model.

REVIEW OF EVIDENCE

The following section consults the empirical evidence and analyzes how OCBs interact with innovation development processes in different organizational contexts. Using the CMO model, the dynamics of OCBs with idea generation and knowledge sharing are explored in the reviewed empirical literature in relation with two main contexts, supporting and inhibiting organizational innovation. A findings matrix has been developed and included in Table 2 in the Appendix.

The Influence of Contextual Strategy, Climate, and OCBs on Innovation Development Processes

Multiple empirical evidence reviewed in this research study suggested a strong positive influence of OCBs enacted in contexts supportive of organizational innovation on processes leading to innovative outcomes. Yoon et al.'s (2011) study of 35 companies implementing a new system that required increased innovative capacity for its success found that OCBs significantly contributed to knowledge sharing and innovation. While consciousness and sportsmanship behaviors were significantly correlated with the quality of information diffused and transformed during this new system implementation, a strong relationship was found between civic virtue behaviors and their support of innovation related activities. Choi et al. (2009) also analyzed OCBs influenced by learning goals, with a focus on problem solving and the contextual factors supporting them. They found a strong vision and an innovative climate to be the two workplace characteristics strongly related to change-oriented OCBs that lead to innovative outcomes. The importance of an affective climate was also found in Zhang et al.'s (2012) study, which showed that employees did not demonstrate innovation- supporting OCBs unless they felt an affective commitment towards their employer. Similarly, Shahin, Naftchali, and Pool's (2014) empirical study showed a strong correlation between an innovative climate and OCBs as well as a positive relationship between OCBs and collaboration and learning that lead to superior organizational knowledge and performance. However, Wojtczuk-Turek and Turek's (2016) research points to person-organization (P-O) fit a key mediator in the relationship between a supportive climate and innovative work behaviors, with affiliative OCBs such as altruism or courtesy helping create a friendly environment conducive to developing the positive social relations necessary for a good P-O fit. Furthermore, in a context influenced by a transformational leadership, inspiring employees to work towards a changing vision and use inflows and outflows of knowledge to accelerate the innovation process, OCBs led to superior performance of new product development teams (Tai et al., 2014) and positive influence on open innovation processes (Naqshbandi, Garib Singh, & Ma, 2016). Although Naqshbandi, Garib Singh and Ma (2016) found sportsmanship to be the only OCB contributing to in-bound open innovation processes that capture external knowledge to improve internal processes, all OCBs had a positive influence on out-bound open innovation, allowing these firms to market their innovations more effectively. This empirical evidence suggests a positive relationship between a context in which leadership promotes innovative strategies, empowering cultures, and supportive climates, and OCBs facilitating new ideas generation and quality knowledge sharing that leads to such new ideas being transformed into superior innovative outcomes.

Further research shows that a context supporting problem solving and affective employee commitment leads to employees' helping behaviors showing a significant positive impact on engagement in innovation development processes (Xerri & Brunetto, 2013). Liu et al. (2010) found a strong association between OCBs and business unit performance in identifying external opportunities and threats in uncertain environments when management teams were highly empowered to make decisions. Wen-Hai, Yang, and Chang's (2012), as well as Guzman and Espejo (2019), provide empirical evidence also showing that employees engage in OCBs behaviors related to the diffusion and adoption of an innovative process in an uncertain environment only when committed to and feeling supported during the change process. Similarly, Choi et al. (2009) found that the influence of change-oriented OCB was mediated by the level of felt responsibility for supporting change as well as the level of psychological empowerment. A study of OCBs' influence on innovation in small businesses also showed a significant positive relationship between leadership supporting civic virtue development and employees expressing their opinions, engaging in debates, and looking out for business interests and innovation development in small businesses (Yan et al., 2009). This research is aligned with Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier and Snow's (2009) empirical evidence showing that organizational psychological capital, encompassing employees' hope, optimism and resiliency, fully mediates their decisions to engage in OCBs. Graham, Van Dyne, Tjosvold, Yu, and Taylor (2013) also found employees engaging in change-oriented OCBs, such as investing time and energy to making innovative suggestions when they felt empowered and believed that their efforts would make a difference. Empowering contexts also led to change-oriented behaviors, such as making suggestions and voicing new ideas in an effort to contribute to problem solving, which ultimately resulted in innovative outcomes (Schermuly, Meyer, & Dämmer, 2013). These studies support the proposition that in innovative contexts in which members are empowered to engage in learning and problem-solving collaborative relationships, OCBs facilitate the process of generating and transforming new ideas through engagement in the expression of innovative ideas and quality information sharing that lead to potentially superior innovative outcomes.

Contextual Norms, Relationships, OCBs and Innovation Development

Evidence reviewed also points to contextual situations in which norms lead to OCBs acting as inhibitors of innovation development process. An empirical study exploring OCBs associated with loyalty, obedience, and participation in a bureaucratic organization encouraging innovation found evidence confirming the positive relationship between OCBs and innovative ideas generation through enhanced employee participation (Turnipseed, Turnipseed, Agut, Peiro & Grau, 2009). However, findings also showed that OCBs related to obedience and loyalty were negatively linked to risk-taking and discretionarily sharing new ideas. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) also found that OCBs oriented towards supporting change can disrupt social relationships in contexts in which norms support stability and status quo maintenance, and Choi et al.'s (2009) study showed that overly supportive group leadership did not contribute to change-oriented OCBs. Choi et al. concluded that, helping, courtesy, and compliance oriented behaviors inhibited the free expression of opinions and contributed to a group cohesiveness level that prevented members from engaging in divergent idea sharing. Yan et al. (2009) also found a negative relationship between helping behaviors and innovation development in a context in which leaders placed an emphasis on relationship-oriented behaviors in the small business environment. This empirical evidence suggests that even when the expression of new ideas is encouraged, in bureaucratic contexts in which employees are expected to adhere to rules and maintain harmonious relationships, OCBs associated with loyalty and obedience offset the extra-role participation that leads to idea generation and knowledge sharing and act as inhibitors of innovation development process and climate.

In contrast, Lilly and Durr (2012) found a significant relationship between managers who focused on relationship building, showed appreciation for employees' performance and consideration for their feelings and the expression of such OCBs as civic virtue and loyalty. Similar to Wen-Hai et al.'s (2012) and Hwang & Choi's (2017) research, this study shows a positive relationship between employees engaging in affiliative OCBs and their attitudes towards diffusing and adopting new technology (Lilly & Durr, 2012). Additionally, Graham et al. (2013) found a strong relationship between employees' commitment and their engagement in gathering information as a form of affiliative civic virtue leading to increased cooperation, and Tai et al.'s (2014) research showed a positive relationship between transformational leadership focused on interpersonal relationships and OCBs facilitating superior new product development. Furthermore, in organizations implementing high-performance work systems (HPWS), "human resource practices designed to enhance employee's skills, commitment and productivity," employees did not engage in innovation-supporting OCBs, such as relationship building and expression of new ideas, unless they already felt an affective commitment towards their company (Zhang et al., 2012, p. 423). These studies suggested that in environments in which collaborative behaviors are encouraged and affective relationships are developed between the company and employees, OCBs contribute positively towards enhanced innovative outcomes.

However, Lilly and Durr (2012) did not find a relationship between supervisors emphasizing task behaviors and employees' OCBs, and suggested that only relationship-orientated leaders are able to foster such OCBs behaviors as civic virtue and loyalty that lead to a successful innovation diffusion process. Similarly, Carter, Armenakis, Field, and Mossholder (2013) found that the leader-member (LM) relationship quality mediates the influence transformational leaders have on OCBs and on subordinates' task performance. The quality of a relationship, assessed as the social exchanges developed based on trust, respect, and shared responsibilities, was significantly associated with OCBs. This study found a significant correlation between all dimensions of OCB and task performance during incremental change processes. OCBs also facilitate new product development under transactional leadership oriented towards relationships established in social contracts aiming to maintain the stability of the organization (Tai et al., 2014). These findings suggest that while a leader's ability to develop a shared vision is important (Chan, Pearce & Ensley, 2004), the quality of leader-employee relationships and a leader's ability to develop a sense of identification with the company goals play a critical role in the process of OCBs acting as facilitators of innovative ideas diffusion and transformation during innovation development. Van Der Vegt, Van Vliert, and Oosterhof's (2013) research also found evidence to support this claim. This study showed that in highly interdependent and functionally diverse teams, members' identification with their team moderates their engagement in such OCBs as helping and loyal behaviors that can enhance the process of transforming new ideas into innovative outcomes. This evidence shows that in contexts characterized by norms supporting relationships focused on maintaining stability, OCBs can have a negative influence on the free expression and diffusion of new ideas in highly hierarchical bureaucratic organizations. However, OCBs can facilitate knowledge transfer in contexts supporting innovation development even if norms guide relationships towards maintaining organizational stability (Hwang

& Choi, 2017). On the other hand, depending on the quality of the relationships in contexts promoting collaboration and team identification, OCBs can support idea diffusion and transformation processes and facilitate innovation development processes.

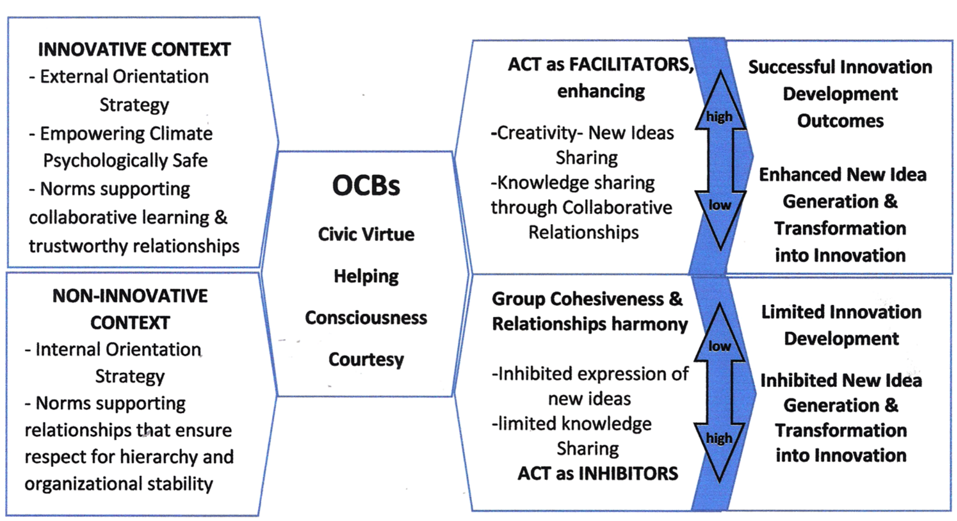
CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Empirical evidence reviewed and included in the earlier section informed the conceptual model in Figure 1, a framework that provides a visual representation of the dynamic relationships between OCBs and innovation development processes operating under different organizational contexts.

FINDINGS SYNTHESIS

Evidence reviewed in this study shows a dynamic relationship between OCBs and their influence on innovation development processes under different contextual characteristics. As the findings matrix in Table 2 in the Appendix shows, several empirical studies provide evidence to support the proposition that in innovation-oriented contexts, OCBs facilitate processes leading to successful innovation development, such as generating new ideas and transforming them into innovative outcomes (Chan, Pearce & Ensley, 2004; Choi et. al., 2009; Schermuly, Meyer, & Dämmer, 2013; Wen-Hai et al., 2012; Xerri & Brunetto, 2013; Yan et al., 2009). Although pursuing an innovative strategy based on an external orientation is a key characteristic of an innovative context (Liu et al., 2009), evidence reviewed suggests that OCBs enhance idea generation and knowledge sharing only when strategy is supported by an empowering climate (Choi, 2009; Gooty et al., 2009; Shahin, Naftchali & Pool, 2014; Zhang et al., 2012) and a good person-organization fit (Wojtczuk-Turek & Turek, 2016). Empirical findings show that in contexts supportive of innovation development, employees' civic virtue leads to engagement in extra-participation during idea generation processes (Choi et al., 2009; Graham et al., 2013; Schermuly, Meyer & Däm-

Figure 1. Dynamics between OCBs, contexts and innovation development processes



mer, 2013; Wen-Hai et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2009) and in helping and persevering during collaborative processes in which knowledge is transformed into new solutions (Schermuly, Meyer, & Dämmer, 2013; Xerri & Brunetto, 2013; Wojtczuk-Turek & Turek, 2016). Additionally, sportsmanship is an important OCBs in a complex, in-bound open-innovation process that involves a high degree of uncertainty, helping employees to maintain a positive attitude and overcome setbacks without complaining and impacting the organizational climate negatively (Naqshbandi, Garib Singh, & Ma, 2016). Hwang and Choi (2017) also found that employees engage only in affective OCBs such as altruism and courtesy in contexts supportive of innovations processes meant to adapt the organization to external change. Therefore, in a climate in which employees develop affective commitment and are empowered to engage in problem-solving and collaborative relationships, OCBs support their efforts to overcome challenges associated with functional diversity, and therefore, contribute to enhanced creativity and knowledge sharing in the process of transforming ideas into innovative outcomes. As visually displayed in the conceptual model above, the more innovation-oriented and supporting are the organizational contexts, the higher the level of OCBs acting as facilitators of creativity, collaboration, and knowledge sharing relationships that lead to innovative outcomes.

In addition, empirical findings show that OCBs also facilitate innovation development processes in contexts focused on stability when leaders promote trustworthy relationships and show appreciation for employees' efforts to find innovative solutions to improve organizational performance (Carter et al, 2013; Lilly & Durr, 2012; Wen-Hai et al., 2012; Tai et al., 2014; Wojtczuk-Turek & Turek, 2016). Companies motivating employees to voice their opinions benefit from management innovation when those employees believe that the ideas transformation process is endorsed and supported with resources (Guzman & Espejo, 2019). In such contexts, civic virtue and loyalty support information gathering (Graham et al., 2013) and knowledge sharing processes (Lilly & Durr, 2012; Tai et al., 2014; Van Der Vegt, Van Vliert & Oosterhof, 2013), while affiliative OCBs help increase P-O fit and motivate engagement in innovation development (Wojtczuk-Turek & Turek, 2016). This evidence supports Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) research showing OCBs enhancing team spirit and relationships conducive to dissemination of knowledge and Rost's (2011) findings that strong relationships are key to innovation development in organizations. As depicted in the conceptual model above, in trustworthy relationships acting in groups experiencing lower cohesiveness, OCBs contribute positively to processes that lead to innovative outcomes, supporting the knowledge sharing necessary in the transformation of new ideas. In contrast, Rost (2011) found an inverse bell curved relationship between the strength of relationships and creation of innovation, and West and Wallace (1991) found highly cohesive groups to inhibit creativity. Therefore, the conceptual model shows that as group cohesiveness and expectations of harmonious relationships increase, OCBs become inhibitors in processes aiming to generate new ideas and share knowledge in order to transform such ideas into innovative outcomes.

Finally, empirical evidence was found to also support the proposition that in bureaucratic contexts, in which leadership places an emphasis on hierarchy, stability, and group cohesiveness, OCBs become inhibitors of new ideas generation and knowledge sharing processes (Choi et al., 2009; Turnipseed et al., 2009). In these environments, OCBs that lead to loyalty and obedience inhibited ideas and knowledge sharing (Turnipseed et al., 2009). Furthermore, helping and courteous behaviors led employees to refrain from voicing opinions and sharing knowledge in an effort to maintaining harmonious relationships (Choi et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2009). These studies support Husted and Michailova's (2002) argument that employees do not engage in sharing ideas when they believe that such action might threaten their good standing in the relationship or group. Although few studies explored OCBs' role in further inhibiting innovation development in highly hierarchical contexts and cohesive groups, the evidence reviewed suggests that OCBs may support knowledge hording or rejecting behaviors, which limit the development of innovation.

CONCLUSION

This systematic review of empirical research puts forward evidence that shows how organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) influence processes associated with the development of innovation in organizations, such as idea generation and transformation. Innovation development depends on employees' creativity, on their engagement in ideas generation, on a supportive climate and a social structure through which knowledge is shared in a process of transforming new ideas into innovative outcomes. Creativity, as a process of connecting team members' perspectives and knowledge to collectively generate new ideas, is a social construct embedded in particular contexts that facilitate idea generation, transformation, and knowledge transfer. Additionally, transforming creative ideas into innovative products, services, or systems depends on leadership ability to develop structures supporting collaboration and trustful relationships, in which knowledge and information are shared effectively between members with diverse backgrounds. Notwithstanding, the heterogeneity needed to enhance group creativity creates challenges in the knowledge sharing process, as individuals prefer to exchange information with others perceived as similar, not different. Our research found evidence exhibiting a strong positive relationship between contexts influenced by strategies and climates supportive of innovation development and the OCBs role in enhancing processes of generating new ideas, sharing knowledge, and transforming new ideas into innovations.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

OCBs act as mechanisms that can promote or inhibit the two main innovation development processes, affecting both the direction and strength of the relationship between organizational context and innovative outcomes. In contexts facilitating innovation, OCBs add extra support to idea generation and knowledge sharing processes, empowering individuals with diverse perspectives and backgrounds to contribute to transforming new ideas into innovative outcomes. In empowering climates, where leaders present a strong vision for innovation and change and promote collaborative relationships, employees feel supported and will engage in OCBs such as civic virtue, consciousness and sportsmanship that enhance new idea generation and the collaboration that supports ideas transformation processes. When employees believe that their ideas and extra-effort will make a difference and the organization will commit the resources necessary to support the innovation process, they are more willing to engage in OCBs that will enhance the innovative outcome. In these contexts, employees' altruism and courtesy will add to the quality of the social relationships and increase the person-organization fit level that supports ideas generation and transformation. Additionally, in these environments, helping and consciousness contribute to a high-quality knowledge sharing process that facilitates innovation development while sportsmanship increases resilience during challenging innovation processes.

Managers who lead stable, internally oriented organizations can also benefit from their employees' engagement in OCBs that contribute to innovation and improved organizational performance as long as they successfully develop employees' affective commitment and a psychologically safe climate conducive to knowledge sharing in problem solving processes. Supporting employees' development of an affective commitment to the organization is important; evidence shows that when employees do not feel affectively committed, they only engage in affiliative OCBs, motivated by a desire to maintain their standing with the group or relationships with leaders and peers during an innovation development process. This can take employees on a slippery slope since in contexts supportive of highly harmonious relationships and cohesive groups, OCBs can support groupthink and act as inhibitors in an innovation development process.

While most research examined in this study focused on the role OCBs have in supporting innovation, some evidence also showed that these behaviors can perform an inhibiting role in contexts that are not conducive to innovation. High levels of group cohesiveness, and a desire to preserve strong relationships with peers and leaders can inhibit employees' willingness to play the 'devil's advocate' role necessary in an idea generation and transformation process. Additionally, leaders who value hierarchy and promote relationships stability, create structures that limit employees' ability to engage in knowledge sharing. While incremental innovation can take place when leaders facilitate knowledge sharing in stable environments and employees display an affective commitment to the organization, this only happens if group cohesiveness is low and good leader-member relationships support the ideas transformation process. Therefore, OCBs contribute positively to an innovation development process in inhibiting environments only when leaders empower employees to voice their opinions and provide the organizational resources that motivate them to engage in ideas transformation. Facilitating an innovative process is equally important to ensure sustainability of bureaucratic organizations not conducive to innovation since problem solving and adaptation to the external environment also depends on effective ideas generation and transformation processes.

Managers and leaders who pursue innovation development strategies to grow and ensure long term sustainability need to pay careful attention to how their organizational structures, cultures and climates influence their employees' willingness to engage in OCBs that support this strategy. Providing a vision that promotes innovation and change is important but not sufficient to motivate OCBs engagement in an innovation development process. Managers must demonstrate commitment by providing resources, supporting collaborative efforts and promoting relationships that lead to effective ideas generation and transformation processes. Ultimately, it is important that leaders recognize the role OCBs have in enhancing innovation development, discourage those that inhibit effective contributions, and support engagement in behaviors that heighten the level of organizational innovativeness.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The empirical evidence found and analyzed in this research overwhelmingly supported the interaction between OCBs and their influence on the idea generation and knowledge sharing in innovation supportive contexts. The evidence analyzing OCBs in contexts where innovation development processes are limited due to structural and cultural characteristics of the organization, is sparse. Therefore, further empirical research is necessary in contexts not conducive to innovation to better understand the role of different OCBs as motivators in the process of voicing new ideas or sharing knowledge. Additionally, research examining the relationship between individual OCBs dimensions and their influence on innovation related processes would help leaders with making more informed decisions related to identifying which dimensions are most important in improving their organization's innovation capacity.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Civic Virtue: Reflects employees' willingness to participate in governance-related activities and efforts to monitor the environment for threats and opportunities.

Conscientiousness: An employee's willingness to go beyond minimally required levels of performance and to take initiative aimed at improving group performance.

Helping Behaviors: Employees who voluntarily help others with work related problems.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs): Voluntary behaviors that are the result of informal covenant relationships between employees and their organizations.

Sportsmanship: Refers to an employee's willingness to tolerate inconveniences and maintain a positive attitude, while sacrificing personal interest for the good of the group or the organization.

APPENDIX

Table 2. Studies Included in Analysis: Synthesis and Findings Matrix

	Systematicaly Reviewed		CONTEXT								MECHANISM		OUTCOMES	
			Strat egy		Values		Climate		Norms		OCBs		Innova tion	Develop ment
	Empirical studies	**Samples**	innova tive	non-innov ative	external & relations	internal & relation	empow ering	non-empow ering	support ive	non-support ive	facilitate	inhibit	Enhanc e	Limited
1	Carter, Armenakis, Feild & Mossholder (2013)	sample of 251 employees and their 78 managers			1	1					1		1	
2	Chan (2003)	sample of 197 business graduate students	1				1				1		1	
3	Choi, Tjosvold, Hui et al. (2009)	2040 employees in 177 work units, R&D & functional depts.	1	0	1		1			0	1	0	1	0
4	Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier & Snow (2009)	190 group members	1				1				1			
5	Graham, Van Dyne, Tjosvold, Yu & Taylor (2013)	245 employees and their supervisors	1		1		1				1		1	
6	Guzman, F. A., & Espejo, A. (2019)	S1- 62 work units in 36 SMEs, in Chile; S2- 100 US business professionals	1			1			1				1	
7	Hwang & Choi (2017)	480 gov. employees in Korea	1			1	1				1		1	
8	Lilly & Durr (2012)	343 survey participants	1		1	0	1		1,0		1,0		1,0	
9	Liu, Gong, Liu, Shipton et al. (2010)	109 Bus of a telecom company	1						1		1		1	
10	Naqshbandi, Garib Singh, & Ma (2016)	339 responses, 133 Malaysian firms in four high-tech ind.	1		1				1		1		1	
11	Schermuly, Meyer & Dämmer (2013)	sample of 225 employees			1		1		1		1		1	
12	Shahin, Naftchali & Pool (2014)	321 valid questionnaires					1		1		1		1	
13	Tai, Chang, Hong, Chen, Love & Dustin (2014)	210 valid questionnaires	1	0					1,0		1		1,0	
14	Turnipseed, Turnipseed, Agut, Peiro & Grau (2009)	143 employees in a financial firm		0						0				0
15	Van Der Vegt, Van Vliert & Oosterhof (2013)	129 members, 20 multidisciplinary project teams					1		1	0	1	0		
16	Wojtczuk-Turek, A., & Turek, D. (2016)	246 employees, 76 companies in Poland	1			1	1,0	1	0		1		1	0
17	Wen-Hai, Feng-Hua Yang & Chih-Kai Chang (2012)	345 questionnaires, employees in airforce admin	1		1				1		1		1	
18	Xerri & Brunetto (2013)	210 employees in public and private hospitals in Australia	1								1		1	
19	Yan, Yan, Agarwal, Bailey et al. (2009)	206 small businesses	1	0	1		1			0	1	0	1	0
20	Yoon, Armstrong, Flood, Guthrie et al. (2011)	152 questionnaires from 35s innovating firms	1						1				1	
21	Zhang, Fan, Zhu, Cordes et al. (2012)	sample of 700 employees in China	1				1				1		1	

Table 3. TAPUPAS Framework Dimensions

#	TAPUPAS Dimension	Description
1	Transparency	whether the reader has access to understanding the underlining reasons for the study and weather the aims and each steps of the arguments are clarified (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 6)
2	Accuracy	whether the knowledge claims are supported by the relevant and appropriate information (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 6)
3.	Purposivity	whether the methods and approaches used in the studies were appropriate to answer the research question, “fit for purpose” and comprehensively described for other researchers to replicate or build upon (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 6)
4	Utility	whether knowledge is generated is useful for the decision setting for which it was intended, “fit for use” (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 6)
5	Propriety	whether knowledge was created “legally, ethically and with care for all relevant stakeholders” (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 6)
6	Accessibility	whether reasoning behind evidence synthesis and the findings were presented in a way that is understandable by the knowledge user while ensuring transparency and possible revisions (Pawson et al., 2003, p. 5)

Source: Pawson et al. (2003); Gough (2007)

Table 4. Quality Assessment Tool

Quality Assessment Criteria and Weight of Evidence					
WoE A,B,C	**Assessment Dimension**	**None = 0**	**Low = 1**	**Medium = 2**	**High = 3**
Evidence A	Transparency	Not enough information to assess	Weak information to provide clarity	Sufficient information to provide some clarity	Strong information to provide clarity and understanding
	Accuracy	Not enough information	Weak connection between findings and the supporting data	Findings partially supported by data and information	Findings strongly supported
	Accessibility	Not enough information	Low level of accessibility for practitioners	Sufficient level of accessibility for a practitioner user	Good level of accessibility for a practitioner user
Evidence B	Purposivity	Not enough information	Inappropriate choice of methods	Appropriate choice of methods but cannot be replicated	Appropriate choice of methods and replicable
Evidence C	Utility	Not enough information	Evidence provided is not useful for a practitioner	Evidence provided is partially useful for a practitioner	Evidence provided is highly relevant for a practitioner
	Property	Not enough information	There are legal or ethical issues due to the way the study was conducted	There are some possible ethical issues due to the way the study was conducted	Demonstrates consideration of possible ethical implications of conducting research related to PwDs.
Total Weight of Evidence					

Source: Pawson et al. (2003); Gough (2007)

Chapter 10
Compulsory Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Commitment:
The Role of Leader-Member Exchange

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ABSTRACT

Organizational citizenship behavior means the extra role behavior of employee that is not in the role description. Managers expect from employees to show organizational citizenship behavior for benefits to the organization. This expectation may become an obligation over time, and an employee can perceive managers and co-workers' expectations for extra role behavior as a compulsory that will affect an employee's organizational attitudes and behaviors. This study's aim is to investigate the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment and, the mediating role of leader-member exchange in Turkey's cultural context. The data were gathered from the 222 employees in a public organization by convenience sample method at two points in time. Regression-based path analyses were conducted to explore the relationship between the variables. According to the results, compulsory citizenship behavior had a negative effect on organizational commitment and leader-member exchange fully mediated this effect.

INTRODUCTION

Employees' extra role behavior offers a significantly positive effect on an organization's efficiency and effectiveness. Employees can perform voluntary extra role behavior without expectation for return. (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Organizational citizenship behavior is a discretionary behavior and not a precisely defined formal reward system (Organ, 1988). Because organizational citizenship behavior holds

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benefits for an organization, the supervisors and co-workers force an employee to show more extra role behavior. Most employees make concessions to the supervisor's pressure for extra-role since they use as a strategic tool to reach personal goals and making requests in the future. Thus, the voluntary nature of organizational citizenship behavior can be experienced as compulsory in practice. Compulsory citizenship behavior (CCB) is the employee's participation in additional-tasks that are contrary to their wish. It is a negative aspect of organizational citizenship behavior that arises from the social structure of the organization (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; 2007).

This study has a twofold contribution. Firstly, previous research has shown that compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on employees and organizations, such as reducing overall organizational performance and effectiveness, increasing job stress, causing staff to seek other employment and engaging in deviance behavior (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; 2007). Present studies have not yet confirmed the theoretical foundations of the connection between compulsory citizenship behavior and its outcomes, especially on employee's commitment to the organization. Thus, there is a need to investigate the link between compulsory citizenship behavior and commitment to the organization. Secondly, more important for us, previous studies have extensively made in Western and North-American countries which are individualistic and low power distance countries. Turkey is a good model of collectivistic and high power distance country (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In a collectivist culture, the benefits of the community are more primary than individual benefits. Commitment towards a group and acting in compliance with group needs are more important than individual achievement (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994). The request of extra-role behavior out of employees' willing can be perceived differently from Western countries in collectivistic cultures, like as Turkey. Collectivistic culture may affect the perception of compulsory citizenship behavior in Turkey.

There is an interactional relationship between culture and management. In Turkish culture, hierarchy, age, and power specify the relationship between the supervisor and subordinates. The manager's requests for the extra role may have different consequences for the employees, in a cultural context perceived differently from the West (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Thus, compulsory citizenship behavior and its effects must also be tested in a collective and high power distance culture.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) describes the quality of affiliation among managers and employees, shapes the reciprocal attitudes and behaviors of leaders and subordinates. The way parties to the leader-member relationship engage in extra role behavior is ultimately affected by whether such work is considered compulsory or voluntary (Organ, 1988; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

A wide range of studies has examined the effect of culture on the leadership style. These studies generally suggest that leadership style changes according to Western and Eastern cultures. In collectivistic and high-power distance cultures, as in Turkey, have a powerful paternalistic leadership (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Aycan (2006) stated that paternalism is compatible with collectivism and high-power distance cultures and is a general leadership style in Turkey (Ali, 1993). Paternalism and leader-member relationship are a related theory, and there is a significant relationship between them. Leader-member exchange theory suggests that the quality of leader-member exchange relationship effects on the attitudes and behavior of employees. Limited time and resources could affect the supervisor interactions with subordinates and, some employees take more rewards and interest regarding the others. Agency theory stated that supervisor and employees try to expand their own benefits and, both of them attempt to reduce the costs and risks related to the working relationship. In-group members offer to the supervisor time, information, subordinates support, loyalty and, expect some benefits like better performance rating, power and supervisor support. Thus, in-group subordinates have higher level of engagement and a reciprocal recognition (Engle & Lord, 1997). The extra-role behavior, organizational commitment, participation in decisions, support from organization or leader, career opportunities are reciprocally expected by leader and subordinate because of a high quality of leader-member relationship (Deluga & Perry, 1991). Another theory explaining the leader and members exchange relationship is the attribution theory (Heider, 1958). Individuals try to understand the behavior of others by looking for the cause of this behavior. Employees will search for external situational reasons for the extra-role pressure from the supervisor in accordance with the leader-member exchange relationship. Strengthened positive effect by the high-leader-member relationship may ensure to maintain the organizational commitment (Fairhurst, 1993). According to paternalistic leadership, social exchange theory, agency theory, and attribution theory, the leader-member relationship may mediate the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment.

To increase the understanding of compulsory citizenship behavior concept in a manner of collectivistic and high distance power country, this paper stands an empirical study for the effect of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational commitment and the following research questions. Do an employees' organizational commitment decrease when they perceive managerial or social pressure as obliging extra-role behaviors in Turkey? In the scope of paternalistic leadership, how does leader-member relationship affect the affiliation between compulsory citizenship behavior and commitment?

To this end, data from a public organization was collected and assessed. Regression-based path analyses were performed in order to test the impact of compulsory citizenship behavior on the organizational commitment and the mediating effect of leader-member relationship. Within this scope, firstly, the hypotheses were developed according to the theoretical foundation, and secondly, a measurement and research model tested according to sample, then analyses were performed. Finally, a discussion on the results, managerial implications, limitations, and potential further studies have been provided.

THEORY

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment can be expressed as a behavioral or psychological decision to stay in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational commitment is an essential determinant of employees' attitudes and behaviors. Employees who have higher commitment may put higher in-role and extra-role performance and higher attendance. Organizational scholars have mostly studied organizational commitment and its antecedents and outcomes since the 1960s. Scholars have described and assessed organizational commitment with three main approaches. A first approach is *Becker's (1960) calculative approach* that means the gathering of valued investments of employees. When one leaves the organization, investments of him/her will become worthless. The risk of losing commits the employee to the organization. The attitudinal approach, as a second approach, suggests employees commit to the organization because they want to maintain as a membership, believe in the organization aim and, eagerness to make effort for the benefit of the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) firstly advocated that organizational commitment have two different dimensions, the affective commitment and continuance commitment. The affective commitment states that employees have positive perception and recognition with the group's beliefs and aims. The authors subsequently added the normative commitment that shows employees' perception of responsibility to stay in the organization as a new dimension. Most of the studies have done with three dimensions of organizational commitment but recently have shown the validity and reliability of three dimensions are questionable. Some researchers suggest that organizational commitment should be examined with four dimensions (subscales of continuance commitment); while others think that, it should be taken with one dimension. Another distinction of commitment is the multiple-commitment concept not only commitment to organizational but also the commitment to the job, the group, and the supervisor (Cohen, 2014). Thus, the other commitment concepts can provide a better understanding of the commitment to the organization approach. Jaworski and Kohli (1993) considered the organizational commitment as one dimension and developed a measurement with 7-item. Its item include of Meyer and Allen (1991) three dimensions. In this study, the authors took the commitment as a one construct and engagement to the organization.

Increasing and maintaining the organizational commitment of employees is important for managers due to how extensively such behavior increases the organization's effectiveness. High commitment to the organization has a constructive effect on organizational consequences such as increasing employee motivation and performance and decreasing employee turnover. Conversely, low commitment causes an increase in deviant behavior and intentions to leave. There are many studies, which have investigated the effect of organizational commitment on various organizational outcomes, though relatively few of these have examined antecedents. To understand how can be created high organizational commitment of employees, its antecedents must also be investigated (Morrow, 2011).

The studies have shown organizational citizenship behavior is positively related to organizational commitment (Cohen, 2014). Employees show more organizational citizenship behavior when they have a high commitment to their organization. When employees are compulsory for extra role behavior, their intention to leave increases and organizational commitment decreases (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior refers to employee voluntary behaviors considered to provide extra benefits for the organization. These discretionary extra-role behaviors, when generally expected by managers and/or coworkers, can be perceived as necessary by an employee and when this occurs, its voluntary nature may become seemingly compulsive (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Organizational citizenship behavior is encouraged by managers since such behavior benefits an organization at no extra cost. Managers can promote organizational citizenship behavior when job descriptions and formal role requirements are clearly defined and distinct from informal and instant work requirements, however it is not always so easy to achieve this. Having direct or indirect pressure on an employee for the effectiveness of an organization or career expectations by managers and coworkers (Tepper, 2000), or having accepted informal and special requests for taking straight appraisal or strategic purposes by employees can create an environment for compulsory citizenship behavior (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006).

Although there are similarities between organizational citizenship behavior and compulsory citizenship behavior, there are fundamental differences. Both behaviors are an extra role for the benefit of the organization, but organizational citizenship behavior arises from volunteerism of employees while compulsory citizenship behavior comes from obligatory of contextual factors. The basic motivation of organizational citizenship behavior is due to the personality or responsibility of the individual, such as altruism and self-esteem, and that the employees act as "good soldier" for the benefit of the organization (Organ, 1988). Some of the researchers state that the employees could show organizational citizenship behavior not only for prosocial concern but also for organizational interest and impression management.

The employees could show an extra role as a "good actor" to achieve individual goals. Therefore, organizational citizenship behavior may be behaviors outside of the prosocial motives and, the employees act for the benefit of themselves, not the organization. Those behaviors may have negative consequences for both themselves and the organization (Rioux & Penner, 2001). The formal reward system of the organization does not provide employees with various benefits in exchange for organizational citizenship behavior but the failure to comply with compulsory citizenship expectations may have negative consequences (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Doing extra-role with prosocial instinct may affect the decision of the supervisor on organizational outcomes such as performance appraisal, promotion and allocation of reward. This may put pressure on employees who do not volunteer about extra role behavior. The perception of compulsory citizenship behavior may strengthen because of the supervisor expectation from the employees to volunteer for extra-role behavior and employees desire to affect the decision of the supervisor on organizational outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006).

The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and other organizational variables as outcomes and antecedents have been examined extensively (Dalal, 2005). The relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational variables, especially their effect on outcomes such as job stress, organizational policy, negligent behaviors, intention to leave, burnout, innovative behaviors, job satisfaction and performance have not been studied much, these are gaps which must be bridged (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Appraisal systems, leadership styles, coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and organizational climates effective in the formation of employee perceptions of compulsory citizenship behavior have an effect on organizational commitment in general (Morrow, 2011). Organizational citizenship behavior does not offer a direct formal reward for employee, but the informal results it yields are just as socially accepted and respected by others. When organizational citizenship behavior becomes compulsory, failing to engage in it may hold informal negative consequences (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). According to social exchange theory, positive exchange relationships lead to constructive employee attitudes and behavior. When employees perceive compulsive attitudes and behaviors from their managers and coworkers for extra-role behaviors, their organizational commitment may be negatively affected.

Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-member exchange theory suggested that the quality of a leader and members' relationship changes whether leader and his/her members' relationship high or low. The quality of leader-member relationship impact on attitudes and behaviors of both of them (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). The leader-member interaction theory utilizes the social exchange theory to explain the relationship between the leader and member and the links between leadership processes and organizational outcomes. According to leader-member relationship theory, the quality of the relationship between subordinates and leaders determines reciprocal expectations.

Because of limited time and resources and hierarchal structure of the organization, the supervisor cannot establish the same interactions with all subordinates. Thus, the supervisor may require trusted subordinates among all member to accomplish organizational purposes with the most effective and efficient way. The previous studies suggest that subordinates could be divided as the in- and the out-group. A high-quality leader relationship for subordinates means to be in-group, which is associated with the perception of being trusted and valued. In-group members are separated from external group members, the first one receives more interest and resources from the leader in the context of agency theory. It explains the form of economic exchange relationships between the two agents. According to agency theory, supervisor and employees try to expand their own benefits and, both of them attempt to reduce the costs and risks related to the working relationship. In-group members offer the supervisor some advantages like time, information, subordinates support, loyalty and expect some benefits like better performance rating, power, supervisor support. Because of these, subordinates have greater commitment and a higher level of mutual recognition. The extra-role behavior, organizational commitment, participation in decisions, support from organization or leader, career opportunities are reciprocally expected by leader and subordinate because of high quality of leader-member relationship (Deluga & Perry, 1991).

In the scope of social exchange and agency theory, the pressure from the supervisor for extra-role behavior diminishes the perception of the exchange relationship between the supervisor and employees. Thus, being compulsory for extra-role behavior may negatively affect the leader-member exchange relationship.

In-group members will follow two rules: the contractual rules that determine formal business relationships and LMX rules that adjust the exchange between the supervisor and the in-group members. A high-quality leader-member relationship provides the in-group to attain organization aims in scope of informal relationships (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000).

Another theory explaining the leader and members exchange relationship is the attribution theory. According to the attribution theory (Heider, 1958), individuals try to understand the behavior of others by looking for the cause of this behavior. One seeks cues to make sense of the present behavior of others by comparing them with their past behaviors. Conducts which consistent with past behavior usually are attributed to a dispositional factor, though conducts, which inconsistent with past behaviors are, attributed a situational factor (Furst & Cable, 2008).

By means of the attribution theory, this study assumes employees will search for external situational reasons for the extra-role pressure from the supervisor in accordance with leader-member exchange relationship. Strengthened positive effect by the high-leader-member relationship may ensure to maintain the organizational commitment. (Fairhurst, 1993). Leader-member relationship as an important means for the attribution process will affect the perception of employees about the pressure for extra-role and they will regard it as a situational factor and, maintain the commitment to the organization. Thus, a high-quality leader-member exchange relationship may positively affect the organizational commitment.

In sum, the extra-role pressure may negatively affect leader-member relationship and, in-group members may attribute the supervisor's pressure for extra-role to the external situational factors and, remain loyal to the organization. A high-quality leader-member exchange may mediate the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment. The mediating effect of leader-member exchange on the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment has investigated.

The researchers have used differently scale to measure the leader-member exchange relationship. The previous studies assessed the leader-member relationship with one construct. Later studies measured the leader-member relationship with multidimensional (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This multidimensional scale used different empirical studies in Western but also used in Turkey (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006; Erdoğan & Liden, 2006). In cross-cultural studies, the leader-member scale developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) had good reliability and validity in the Turkish sample. However, the scale was considered with one-factor with 12 items rather than four-factors in these factors. Although Bas et al. (2010) showed that the Turkish version of the scale had good validity and reliability with the multidimensional construct; the authors consider the leader-member exchange relationship's scale as one-factor and, used this structure.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been developed according to the above information, conceptual approaches, and empirical researches.

H1: Compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on organizational commitment.
H2: Leader-member relationship has the mediating effect on the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment.

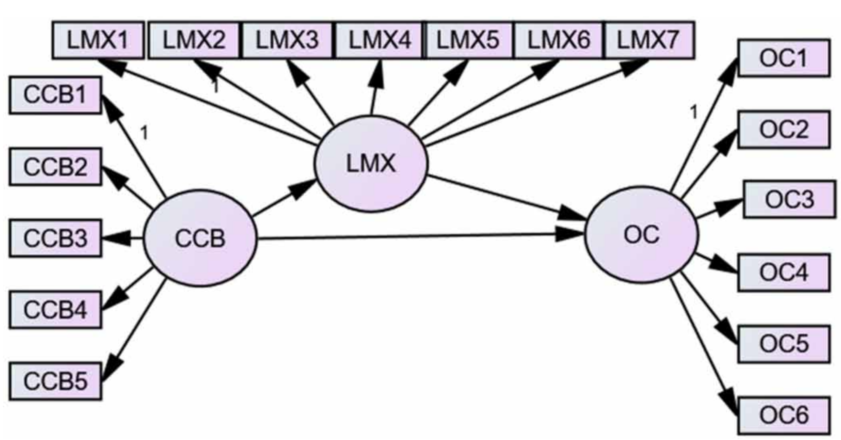
METHOD

The impact of compulsory citizenship behavior on the organizational commitment and the role of leader-member relationship in this relationship were examined. In the context of the theoretical basis described above, the following theoretical model is created (Figure 1). Pretest of the theoretical model which 118 participants involved and was presented in 26th National Management and Organization Congress (May., 2018, Turkey) showed that variables have significant relationships.

Sample and Procedure

The sample of the research consisted of public employees. A public organization was selected because these are generally large-scale institutions, and due to their bureaucratic structure, there are clear job definitions, supervisors and employee relationships and, regular performance appraisals. The data was gathered from 235 employees from public organization by convenience method. The public organization ensures the security of the country. The organization is a mechanic and, has a hierarchical structure. Employees are assigned to the task units in different parts of the country at several periods. Employees can appointment in metropolitan cities; they can also work in small cities. The majority of the employees can work in a row in the provincial regions. In the organization, the standardization is high, the rules are certain and the non-compliance with the rules may have great sanctions for the employees.

Figure 1. The research model



The participants of the sample were informed that their identities would not be requested and there is not a wrong or right answer. Thus, an attempt was made to offset the social desirability effect and employee concerns about questions. Using cross-sectional data may cause common method variance issues. In order to avoid common method variance (CMV) issues, temporal separation of the scales were applied (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). First, the authors conducted the survey, which includes indicator variables (five items of compulsory citizenship behavior scale and seven items of leader-member relationship scale). In this process, special code was assigned for every participant. After three days, second survey, which includes criterion variable (six items of organizational commitment scale), was applied according to assigned code. A single-factor model was created to control for CMV. It did not have good fit indices, and its standardized factor estimates were lower than the theoretical model. Thus, CMV is not an important issue for this study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

The sample consisted of 61% male and 39% female. 5% of participants are under 25 years of age, 49% of these were between 26-35 years of age, 31% of them were between 36-45 years of age and 15% of them were over 45 years old. 18% had collage education and 62% had bachelor's degree, while 20% had a master's degree.

Instruments

The data were collected by compulsory citizenship behavior, leader-member relationship and organizational commitment scale with five-point Likert (1: Strongly disagree; 5: Strongly agree). The researchers measured compulsory citizenship behavior using the scale that was developed by Vigado-Gadot (2007) and adapted by Gürsoy and Köksal (2018). To measure the quality of the relationship between the leader and the employees, leader-member relationship scale with one-factor structure developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) and adapted to Turkish by Gurboyoglu (2009) was used. Organizational commitment scale developed by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) was used and adapted by Sesen (2010) to measure organizational commitment. It has also one-factor with six items.

Model specification and model identification: For checking whether the developed theoretical model (Figure 1) is the best model for the sample, exploratory structural equational model (SEM) specification search was performed with AMOS by making optional all items and paths in the model. Specification search is not recommended because confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is not an exploratory analysis. The purpose of the specification search is to identify how to modify the theoretical model for a better-fit index in the scope of research theory (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). It generated 172 alternatives models (31of them are unidentified), and depicted theoretical model has the best model fit indices among those alternatives (Parameters: 39, df: 132, C: 398.45, C–df: 266.45, AIC 0: 134.45, BCC 0: 109.62, BIC 0: 0.00, C/df: 3.02, p:0.00).

All scales used in the study have a single factor, and the compulsory citizenship behavior, leader-member relationship and organizational commitment scales consist of five-item, seven-item, and six-item respectively. Given the number of items, the measurement models were over-identified (order condition), and the communalities exceeded .6 (ranging from .687-.901), and no problems appeared for identification because the developed theoretical models have as a minimum five items for each factor (rank condition). Thus, it was considered that the models were identified and the sample size was sufficient to allow maximum likelihood estimation. In the analyzing process, 235 collected data were examined, 13 outlier responses were removed, and there was no missing value in the remaining data (N=222).

Measurement model validity: The measurement model and construct validity were tested by CFA. To compare measurement model validity, the overall model fit was examined. After drawn covariance error terms which justified by the theory (between LMX3 - LMX5, LMX4 - LMX5, LMX6 - LMX7, and CCB3 - CCB1), the CFA which inferred the presented theoretical model gives a justly good fit (C: 313,531; df.128; C/df: 2,449; CFI: 0,945; RMSEA: 0,081). According to the sample size of the study (N: 222), overall model fit is acceptable.

Construct validity: For assessing to construct validity, the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model were investigated. To test convergent validity, the standardized factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) were examined. Hence all estimates are above .7 ($p<0,001$) the results confirm the convergent validity of the measurement model (Table 1). The authors compared all AVE estimates for each construct with the squared inter-construct correlations related that construct. The squared inter-construct correlation, which means maximum shared variance (MSV) between the factors, should be less than AVE estimates. All MSV estimates are less than AVE in the measurement model (Table 1). This examination showed discriminant validity of the construct. Hence, the measured variables and the error terms do not contain any cross-loadings, in other words, the measurement model is congeneric, the discriminant validity is supported (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). According to the result of the convergent and discriminant validity estimates of the measurement model, it was considered construct validity is sufficient to further examinations.

Analyses

AMOS 21.0 and SPSS 23.0 programs were used to test the hypotheses. It was considered that the study's sample size is sufficient but small for SEM (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010), thus the authors decided to perform regression-based path analysis to test the relationship between the variables (Hayes, 2013). The mediating effect and indirect effect can be estimated with bootstrapping by PROCESS macro in SPSS.

Results

The mean, standard deviation and Pearson correlation value of the variables were shown in Table 2. The mean of the employees' perception of the compulsory citizenship behavior was below the average point. The mean of the leader-member relationship and organizational commitment were slightly above the average point. While compulsory citizenship behavior had a negative moderate correlation with leader-member relationship, and it had a negative low correlation with organizational commitment. Leader-member relationship had a positive moderate correlation with the organizational commitment.

The hypotheses were tested with regression analyses. The results of the effect of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational commitment, and the mediating effect of leader-member relationship, were shown in Table 3.

The results showed that compulsory citizenship behavior had a negative meaningful impact on organizational loyalty. This means that the commitment to the organization of the employees was negatively influenced because of the extra role pressure from the managers and/or the social environment. 8% of the variance change was explained by compulsory citizenship behavior. According to this result, the first Hypothesis was supported.

Table 1. Standardized factor loadings, AVE, CR and MSV estimates

Items	CCB	LMX	OC
CCB1	0,93		
CCB2	0,92		
CCB3	0,88		
CCB4	0,8		
CCB5	0,93		
LMX1		0,93	
LMX2		0,87	
LMX3		0,88	
LMX4		0,86	
LMX5		0,84	
LMX6		0,89	
LMX7		0,95	
OC1			0,89
OC2			0,81
OC3			0,93
OC4			0,91
OC5			0,90
OC6			0,86
AVE	0,82	0,78	0,79
CR	0,95	0,96	0,95
MSV	0,34	0,23	0,34

Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro in SPSS was used to test the mediating impact of leader-member relationship. The mediating analyses results showed that leader-member relationship had a full mediating effect on the link between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational loyalty. The significance of the mediating effect was confirmed by Sobel (1982) test ($z=-5.2611$, $p<0.01$). In addition, indirect effect of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational commitment was examined by bootstrapping (number of bootstrap samples is 5000). The results were shown in Table 3. compulsory citizenship behavior had a meaningful indirect effect on organizational loyalty (indirect effect=-0.2792, $p<0.01$). In agreement with the results, Hypothesis 2 was thus accepted.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and correlation results (N=222)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1.CCB	2,73	0,96	(0,95)		
2.LMX	3,30	0,97	-0,56*	(0,96)	
3.OC	3,83	1,06	-0,28*	0,46*	(0,95)

* p<0,01 (2-tailed), (Cronbach Alpha Score)

Table 3. Regression and mediation analyses results (PROCESS Findings)

		β	SD	t	p	R2
LMX	Constant CCB	4,88 -0,57	0,15 0,05	31,36 -11,33	0,000 0,000	0,32
OC	Constant LMX CCB	2,33 0,48 -0,03	0,45 0,08 0,08	5,17 5,96 -0,47	0,000 0,000 0,634	0,21
Total Effect						
OC	Constant CCB	4,70 -0,31	0,19 0,07	23,53 -4,30	0,000 0,000	0,08
Indirect Effect						
Effect		Boot SE		Boot LLCI		Boot ULCI
-0,27		0,05		-0,40		-0,18

DISCUSSION

Organizational citizenship behavior, which is free-willed by nature, may become compulsory because of pressure from supervisors and/or co-workers. Compulsory citizenship behavior has an impact on organizational outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006), and extensively examined in the West and North American countries which have individualistic and low-power distance cultures (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). To test the compulsory citizenship behavior concept in Turkey where a collectivistic and high-power culture, the impact of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational loyalty was examined. The results showed that compulsory citizenship behavior significantly reduces the organizational commitment of employees regarding the sample. However, its impact on organizational commitment is not high. Explained variance in the depended variable is only 8%. The reason for this may be a collectivistic culture in Turkey. In a collectivist culture, commitment to the group is essential (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994) thus extra-role pressure from supervisors and/or co-workers may become acceptable for the sake of the community.

In this study, the mediating effect of the quality of leader-member exchange on the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment was also examined. When there was a leader-member exchange, the impact of compulsory behavior was found as insignificant and organizational commitment appears to have been positively reinforced. In other words, leader-member relationship fully mediated the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational commitment.

The study's result is in agreement with the similar studies in the literature. Vigoda-Gadot (2007) stated that compulsory citizenship behavior has negative effects on organizational outcomes such as stress, intention to leave, contradictory workplace behaviors, and burnout, which reduce organizational performance and effectiveness. Compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior, while organizational identification has a mediating effect and interactional justice has a moderating effect on this relationship. Bolino (1999) claims that compulsory citizenship behavior increases stress, work-family conflict, and burnout among employees. Topcu et al. (2017) showed that compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on job performance and the quality of interaction of a leader partially mediated this relationship.

Liu, Zhao, and Sheard (2017) examined the link between organizational citizenship pressure and work-family conflict and the mediating role of compulsory citizenship behavior and the moderating role of job autonomy on 312 employees in China. They found that compulsory citizenship behavior mediated the relationship between citizenship pressure and work family conflict. Zhao, Peng, Han, Sheard, and Hudson (2013) investigated the effect of abusive supervision on compulsory citizenship behavior and the mediating role of psychological safety on 434 employees in China. They found that abusive supervision has a positive effect on compulsory citizenship behavior and, psychological safety fully mediated this relationship.

He, Peng, Zhao, and Estay (2017) with collecting the data from 293 employees at two-points in China investigated the impact of compulsory citizenship behavior on silence and the moderating role of supervisor and employee "guanxi" and the mediating role of moral disengagement. The "guanxi" means the nonwork-related relationship of supervisor with employees. They stated that compulsory citizenship pressure causes more employees silence and "guanxi" diminishes this adverse effect. A strong relationship with the supervisor could revoke the negative effects of compulsory citizenship behavior on employees' attitudes and behavior.

Peng and Zhao (2012) with gathering data from 450 supervisor-employees dyads in China examined compulsory citizenship behavior how affects the organizational attitudes and behavior of employees and the mediating affect of psychological contract violation and the moderating effect of Chinese traditionality. The study's result revealed that compulsory citizenship behavior has negative effect on contextual performance and organizational commitment and psychological contract violation partially mediated the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and contextual performance.

The researches, which studied in China, are important because the Turkey's culture is similar with the China's culture. Both of them are collectivist and, paternalistic leadership is important in these cultures (Peng & Zhao, 2012; Aycan, 2006; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Farh & Cheng, 2000). Thus, the results of compulsory citizenship behavior studies in China are supported this study's result. The result of this study showed that leader-member exchange relationship makes the adverse effect of compulsory citizenship pressure on organizational commitment insignificant and, He, Peng, Zhao, and Estay (2017) found a high level of the "guanxi", which its structure is similar to the construct of leader-member exchange relationship, diminishes the adverse effect of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational silence.

Past studies show a significant relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and leader-member relationship (Scott, Craven, & Green, 2006; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Paternalistic leadership in a collectivist culture identifies members' expectations from the leader. When there is a qualified leader-member relationship, employees will try to find out external reasons for the extra-role pressure in the scope of attribution theory. So that the negative effects of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational commitment will become insignificant.

The results of the study should be evaluated within the scope of the sample. The sample of the study consists of employees in the public organization, which is a large organization responsible for country security. It has unit all over the country. Employees work in these regions according to their profession. The organization has a high degree of centralization and, managers have a higher power. According to the manager's decision, employees may be assigned to tasks they do not want or assigned to other cities before their turn come. The manager has a power of punishment that will have negative consequences for the employees, as well as a reward power that will have positive results. The executives have the authority to award such as overseas missions, financial rewards, and high-level duties to the subordinates. The high reward authority of the supervisor increases the possibility of the instrumental extra role behavior of employees (Zhang, Liao, & Zhao, 2011). To influence the distribution decisions of the supervisor, coworkers may show the instrumental extra role behaviors hence the employee may feel pressure to show extra-role behavior. Moreover, the supervisor may inspect this situation with questions such as "why don't you stay for overtime work while your friend is working overtime?" and, this may create the pressure for extra-role. Further, if the employees do not show an extra-role behavior the supervisor could threaten the employees with assigning low-status duties, and assigning to the cities with difficult task places. This strengthens the perception of compulsory citizenship pressure and decreases loyalty to organization of the employees. In fact, working as an official in public institutions provides employees with more job security than employees in the private sector. In a duty such as official, it may be thought that the pressures on the supervisor compulsory citizenship pressure may be underestimated. The job guarantee provided to officials can be a matter of discussion when the behaviors included in the in-role description are done as it should. From this point of view, it can be thought that the supervisor extra-role pressure will not have much effect on the official working in other public institutions. However, the public organization where the research is conducted in an institution is different from the other public institutions with its organizational structure. The employees must usually submit the supervisor pressure for extra-role behavior because of him/her power and the pressure of coworkers' for extra-role through their instrumental citizenship behaviors. When compulsory citizenship behavior pressure becomes like a routine for employees, they may show more negative organizational attitudes and behaviors over time. This study showed that compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on organizational commitment in the context of the sample.

Another result of the study is that the negative effect of compulsory citizenship behavior on organizational commitment becomes meaningless by the leader-member exchange relationship, in other words, the leader-member relationship has a full mediating effect in this relationship. When this result is evaluated within the scope of the sample, The employees who are the in-group member of the supervisor may attribute the reason of the supervisor pressure to the external factors and, within the context of paternalistic leadership theory, may think that the supervisor would protect his/her benefits in the long term. In addition, there is a high power distance between the employees and the supervisor. The decision of the leader cannot be questioned and, the dominating organizational belief is the leader will always protect the employees' benefits in the long terms within the scope of paternalistic leadership. It can be stated that the compulsory citizenship pressures do not diminish the organizational commitment for the in-group employees because they believe that managers will make decisions for benefits of them in the long-term.

The study's findings enhance compulsory citizenship behavior–organizational commitment relationship research by contributing a cross-cultural empirical analysis in Turkey meaning. The findings may provide a better identification of the compulsory citizenship behavior issue from a cultural perspective.

The extra role behavior of employees offers a significant positive impact on the effectiveness of the organization. Employees can do voluntary extra role behavior without the expectation of return. Organizational citizenship behavior is a voluntary behavior. Because organizational citizenship behavior benefits an organization, supervisors and co-workers force an employee to perform more extra-role behaviors. Most of the employees could accept the extra-role pressure of the supervisor as they use it as a strategic tool to achieve personal goals. Therefore, the voluntary nature of organizational citizenship behavior can be experienced as necessary in practice. Compulsory citizenship behavior is the participation in additional duties that are contrary to the wish of the employee. It is a negative aspect of organizational citizenship behavior arising from the social structure of the organization. Findings of the study may be useful for managers and researchers. Because of increased competition, managers may expect extra-role behavior from employees in order to increase organizational effectiveness and encourage them in this regard. This may also cause voluntary behavior to be perceived as compulsory over time. This study reveals that compulsory citizenship behavior has a negative effect on organizational outcomes. Managers can reduce the negative impacts of compulsory citizenship behavior on the organizational commitment through leader-member relationship while maintaining the extra role expectations for organizational effectiveness. A high-quality leader-member exchange relationship could reduce or reverse the unfavorable effect of compulsory citizenship behaviors. Thus, managers should expect to have more voluntary behavior by establishing high quality relationships with their employees. In Turkey culture, while the direct effect of compulsory citizenship behavior decreases employees' loyalty to the organization, the presence of leader-member exchange relationship renders this effect meaningless and reduces its indirect effect.

This study has a number of limitations, however. The first limitation pertains to the issue of generalizing. Since the data were collected by convenience sampling method, the findings cannot be generalized more precisely. The second limitation concerns the compulsory citizenship behavior measurement, as this does not sufficiently take account of the sorts and sources of compulsory citizenship behavior in the workplace. The lack of social desirable effect is the final limitation.

The findings of study should be confirmed other studies. Future studies may investigate other antecedents and outcomes of compulsory citizenship behavior in Turkey. For example, future research could analyze the relationship between compulsory citizenship behavior and organizational culture and structure, abusive behavior, political behavior, and impression management to improve our knowledge of compulsory citizenship behavior and its antecedents in a collectivist culture.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

CCB: Compulsory citizenship behavior is a negative aspect of organizational citizenship behavior that arises from the social structure of the organization and, means that an employee's participation in compulsory extra-role behaviors that are often contrary to their will.

LMX: It is the quality of leader-member relationship, which influence attitudes, and behaviors of both of them.

OC: Organizational commitment is a behavioral or psychological decision to stay in an organization.

Regression-Based Path Analysis: It uses ordinary least squares technique and considers fixed effects, continuous outcomes, and the absence of random measurement error.

Chapter 11
The Effect of Happiness at Work on Organizational Citizenship Behavior:
The Role of Intrinsic Motivation and Resilience

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ABSTRACT

In this study, an attempt was made on the basis of happiness at work to assess the possible effects in the organizational context within the scope of positive organizational behavior. To that end, the focus was on the effect of happiness at work on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and the role of intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience in this interaction. Department managers of 4- and 5-star hotels operating in Antalya province of Turkey were selected as the sample of this study. A total of 243 department managers were reached within this scope. Descriptive statistics, correlation, and bootstrap regression analyses were used during the analysis of the data that were collected in the study. Based on the study, the presence of low and moderate levels of significant relationships were found between all the variables. Moreover, as a result of the mediation tests that were conducted, the effect of happiness at work on OCB was observed to be mediated by intrinsic motivation. Psychological resilience was found not to have any role in this interaction.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization and competition force organizations into development and transformation. Human resources are the most important asset of an organization. Employees spend a large part of their day at the workplace. This is why the working environment is highly important for employees (Bozyiğit and Durmuş, 2018). High comfort levels of employees at the work place and their happiness are reflected in the job they perform positively.

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Until recently, there has not been many studies regarding the happiness at work (Luthans 2002). However, with the effects of the positive psychology movement, the antecedents and consequences of the happiness at work started to get the attention of researchers working in the field of organizational behavior (Fisher, 2010: 384).

Happy employees will provide the maximum contribution to their workplace by using their knowledge, skills and capacities much more productively. Positive feelings at the workplace and increased quality of positive interactions with coworkers and managers will also increase the employee's willingness to do more for the organization (Alparslan, 2016: 206). In this context, in addition to being affected by the feelings and thought of the employee outside of their work environment, happiness at work is defined as their satisfaction with the workplace and their job, positive thoughts and feelings about the job, and experiencing of these more frequently than negative ones (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011: 180). The state of emotional well-being is discussed differently than the attitudes of job satisfaction which have a significant place in organizational behavior (Wright and Doherty, 1998: 481). While job satisfaction involves a feeling and an attitude towards the job, happiness at work is not limited to a feeling (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995).

Especially studies in the field of positive psychology referred to motivation as the desire and willingness that comes from inside to direct, mobilize, accelerate the existing movement or showing effort (Latham and Pinder, 2005: 486). Motivation researchers accepted external control, encouragement, punishment and reward as the sources of motivation before the 20th century (Steers et al., 2004: 383). Those who were interested in interpersonal relationships looked at motivation from a different point of view and focused on the interesting and fun nature of the job itself (Grant, 2008: 49). They based this view on free will and intrinsic motivation theories (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 55). It is emphasized that the own fun and interesting nature of the job itself forms the willingness to show effort, and therefore in intrinsic motivation, the presence of outcomes such as reward and recognition that come from the job itself create the willingness to show effort (Brief and Aldag, 1977: 498).

Psychological resilience, which is discussed as a dimension of the concept of psychological capital, has an important role in studies on positive organizational behavior. The concept of psychological resilience may be defined as the individual's healthy continuation of life and hopeful view of the future against the traumas, threats, tragedies and familial and relational problems, health-related problems (Luthar et al., 2000: 550) and negativities such as workplace or economic problems (Fleming and Ledogar, 2008: 7). Studies on determining the general characteristics of healthy individuals have an important role in preventing possible negativities and interfering with these (Arslan, 2015: 3). Individuals with high levels of psychological resilience are people who are able to return to their previous status fast after overcoming a trauma (Baltacı and Karataş, 2014: 459). While this is a quality that comes from birth for some individuals, some learn it as a result of the problems they encounter later (Basım and Çetin, 2011: 2).

"Extra role behaviors" which are among the definitions of organizational citizenship behaviors were examined by Barnard in 1930s and discussed alongside the concept of volunteerism (Ortiz, 1999: 4). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) entered the business administration literature for the first time in 1983 and has recently become one of the most frequently studied topics (Bateman and Organ, 1983). OCB was defined by Organ (1988: 5) the individual's display of an effort and extra role behavior in a discretionary way beyond the standards and job definitions that are determined for themselves.

Greenberg and Baron (2003: 372) explained the concept of OCB as an employee going beyond the formal obligations determined by the organization and doing more than what is demanded. In similarity to this definition, Meyer and Allen defined OCB as a series of behaviors where the individual spends efforts beyond the requirements of their position (DeLoria, 2001: 23). OCB is explained with theories on Leader-Member Exchange, Social Exchange and Agency. OCB was examined under five dimensions as altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Organ, 1988).

This study tested the research model and hypotheses developed based on theorical and conceptual relationships in the contexts of positive psychology as happiness at work, psychological resilience, intrinsic motivation and organizational citizenship behavior and investigated the relationships and effects among these.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Happiness at Work

One of the emotions that people find most important in their lives is happiness. Accomplishing happiness is considered to be an important and valuable target in many societies (Fisher, 2010: 384). As a matter of fact, Aristotle has also expressed that happiness is the main goal of people and that all people seek happiness (Büyükdüvenci, 1993: 41). One of the important areas of human life is employment. Therefore, employees' being happy at the workplace is stated to be closely related to their being satisfied with and happy at their jobs and their lives (Saari and Judge, 2004: 399).

Recent studies in the field of positive psychology argue that directing employees to what is psychologically positive will help improve and manage the strength and performance of human resources (Luthans, 2002). One of the concepts of positive organizational behavior discussed in this context is happiness at work (Luthans, 2002: 57). Being happy at work is a fundamental element for a person to be satisfied with life. Because work is an inseparable part of a person's identity, the role undertaken in the work life is considered as one of the most important tools for the person to feel valuable and have self-esteem.

Happiness at work is defined by both a hedonic and a eudaemonic perspective (Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie, 2012). The hedonic approach focuses on subjective well-being by pointing to positive emotions and the level of influence of these emotions (Diener and Seligman, 2004: 21). On the other hand, the eudaemonic perspective is interpreted as being in constant satisfaction with life and trying, to that end, to do the right thing with the desire to achieve individual goals, by considering happiness independently from emotions (Warr, 2007: 10). One of the sources of happiness, happiness at work, refers to employees' being satisfied with the workplace and with their work, and experiencing more positive emotions and thoughts towards the work than the negative ones (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011: 180). In other words, happiness at work means an individual's work and life satisfaction and the subjective well-being at the workplace (Bhattacharjee and Bhattcharjee, 2010: 114). Employees who are happy at work use the resources given to them in the best way possible, easily overcome challenges, become more active in work life, exhibit high performance, and sustain their potential and capacity. Moreover, employees who are happy at work have been found to be more energetic, intend to work in that workplace for longer, be more productive, and ask for fewer sick leaves than those who are unhappy at work (Pryce-Jones and Lindsay, 2014: 130).

Recent research on happiness at work have shown that employee happiness at work is influenced by *personal characteristics* such as marital status, age and self-esteem; by *interpersonal relations* such as social support, respect and interaction with colleagues; and by *organizational factors* such as work characteristics and working conditions (Buaklee et al., 2017: 207). In another study, the determinants of happiness at work have been stated to be employee satisfaction with work, achieving goals, the presence of common values in the organization, interaction with colleagues, the quality of work life and leadership styles (Chaiprasit and Santidhiraku, 2011: 191). Erdoğan et al. (2012: 1040) have suggested that employee happiness at work can vary depending on the satisfaction with the work environment, employee opinions about the manager to whom they report, work characteristics, the individual-environment harmony and career development opportunities.

Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation has been defined as the force that directs people to do a job (Simons and Enz, 1995: 21), the internal state related to revealing and maintaining goal-oriented behaviors (Smith, 1999: 265) and a desire to do a job (Robbins and Judge, 2003: 33). According to Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, intrinsic motivation — which include the motivation tools that are related to the content of the work and that motivate the employee— is the motivation resulting from the work itself that does not require any reward from outside. The individual with intrinsic motivation is interested in activities without the need for rewards or pressures, and acts freely and with his or her will (Deci et al., 1991: 328).

Intrinsic motivation is also defined as a sense of pleasure and satisfaction with the work itself and the way it is done, which emerges from internal influences (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 56). Behaviors originating from intrinsic motivation are aimed at satisfaction, contentedness and enjoyment in life and are considered a hedonist approach in this respect (Nurcahyo et al., 2011: 236).

Intrinsic motivational tools include factors such as engaging and challenging work, work independence, importance of work for employees, participation in work, responsibility, diversity, creativity, opportunities for individuals to use their abilities and skills, and satisfactory feedback about the person's performance (Mottaz, 1985: 366). Intrinsic motivation tools when no motivation can be provided through any visible reward other than the work being done. Intrinsic motivation is the reactions to the needs of the individual felt within the individual. Curiosity, the need to know, the desire to be adequate, and the desire to develop and achieve can be shown to be examples of intrinsic motivation.

Psychological Resilience

Historically, the concept of psychological resilience originates from the medical field, and psychological resilience research in behavioral sciences has begun to emerge in the 1970s (Masten and Obradovic, 2006: 13). Individuals are faced with many adverse situations, and devastating, traumatic and stressful life events throughout their lifetimes. People who experience these adverse experiences differ in their reactions or strategies to cope with these situations. The ability of individuals to recover and rapidly return to their normal lives has been explained by the concept of psychological resilience in the positive psychology approach (Doğan, 2015: 93).

Psychological resilience in terms of positive organizational behavior is also addressed as a dimension of the concept of positive psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007: 542). Psychological resilience is the ability to cope with an unexpected adverse situation and uncertainty (Luthans et al., 2006: 391). However, psychological resilience is defined as the positive personal psychological capacity possessed by people who do not feel overwhelmed by a problematic situation, uncertainty, conflict, increased responsibility and failure and who recover from such situations (Luthans, 2002: 702). Psychological resilience is also expressed as the ability to adapt to difficult conditions, achieve positive results and gain success even if such conditions come up (Fraser et al., 1999: 136). Psychological resilience is used to express three basic cases: (1) identifying high-risk individuals who overcome existing challenges and develop better than expected, (2) pointing to the ability of an individual to adapt quickly in the face of stressful life experiences, and (3) explaining the common individual characteristics and differences that play an important role in getting rid of and recovering from the possible effects of psychological trauma (Masten, 1994: 7–8).

In the literature, psychological resilience is studied under the risk, preventive and outcome factors. The presence of preventive factors sometimes reduces risk factors (Rutter, 1987: 317), or preventive factors can help the individual react constructively to a disaster despite the risk factors that exist (Alexander, 2013: 2710). Consequently, these factors are related to each other.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Although OCB has been conceptualized much earlier than the concept of positive organizational behavior, the fact that it has very positive aspects in terms of the individual and organization has resulted in its being considered in positive organizational behavior (Bolino et al., 2013: 542). OCBs are the personal behaviors that are expected and desired by an organization and that contribute to the organizational effectiveness; and they are defined as voluntary and extra role behaviors that contribute to the efficient fulfillment of all functions of the organization for which the person works, regardless of the rewards determined by the organization (Organ, 1988: 4). The voluntary and extra role behavior stated in the definition has been expressed as elective behaviors which do not involve a positive expectation, which the employee is not obligated to do, and for which he or she does not have to face sanctions if he or she does not do (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 513).

In the historical process, there have been various changes in the components of the OCB concept. Ultimately, the dimensions defined by Podsakoff et al. (2000) have also been accepted in the literature in recent years. These dimensions are examined in five dimensions, consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

Altruism: These are the behaviors that involve assisting the adaptation process of a newly recruited employee and alleviating and voluntarily contributing to the workload of colleagues at appropriate times (Smith et al., 2008). However, helping colleagues, acting as a mediator, and behaving in a way that does not disturb others when solving work-related problems are considered among altruistic behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 517). Employees who help each other in work-related issues may also demonstrate altruistic behaviors by allowing the administrator to spend more time on productive tasks such as strategic planning, improving business processes, and securing valuable resources (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997: 135). It is one of the most frequently repeated OCBs.

Courtesy: These are the behaviors of employees of an organization that involve being controlled and considerate, and helping other workers avoid problems by calculating the impact of any behavior on others before they do the behavior. Behaviors such as the following are considered as courtesy: reminding the situations that should be done but forgotten by workers, their advising each other, their warning each other not to do mistakes, informing others in important situations, and consulting before applying the decisions that affect others (Organ, 1988: 12; Podsakoff et al., 2000: 513).

Conscientiousness: It is associated with workers' volunteering and striving to contribute to the continuance of activities of the organization beyond their job definitions (Organ, 1988: 13). The following can be considered among conscientiousness behaviors: to comply with the rules with a desire to maintain order in the organization, to be conscious of the task, to be at work in a timely manner, to work in a stable way, not to extend break times — or to use them to the benefit of the organization —, to try to protect the organization against external threats, to regularly participate in meetings held, to fulfill the tasks even if the weather or their health does not permit, to try to complete a given task without asking for additional fees even if the working hours are over, and to pay attention to use resources economically (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 514).

Sportsmanship: These are the behaviors that lead employees to the efforts to improve organizational effectiveness by avoiding behaviors such as to complain about other employees, find flaws, or bemoan. Examples of sportsmanship include behaviors such as not to aggrandize problems, not to complain about work-related issues, not to blame, to tolerate organizational problems, to act in a way that does not cause tension and debate in relations with friends in troubled periods, and to be respectful of them (Organ, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Civic Virtue: It refers to the constructive participation of workers in organizational decisions. The dimension of civic virtue describes the sub-activities that employees perform to ensure the continuity of the organization, to increase its effectiveness and to sustain its existence (Deluga, 1994: 317). The dimension of civic virtue, which is caused by a sense of responsibility in the person, is that the employee who feels responsible for the organization voluntarily participates in all kinds of meetings related to the organization and thereby contributes to the organization (Basım and Şeşen, 2006: 87).

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Happiness at Work: OCB

Happiness at work includes three levels of attitude consisting of evaluation of the characteristics of the work, the significance of the work and positive emotions about the work. Therefore, happiness at work is considered to be the precursor of positive behaviors. According to the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory, employees exhibit prosocial behaviors by developing positive attitudes to protect business resources (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017: 474). However, happy employees tend to help colleagues, act empathetically and respectfully, and exhibit OCB (Avey et al., 2008). Employees who are happy at work get closer to each other, and their social interactions increase. These positive relations may occur in the form of helping, demonstrating courtesy, and blocking behaviors that could harm others. Earlier research based on this theoretical framework has revealed that happiness at work influences OCB (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017). Accordingly, the following hypothesis was developed:

H_1: Happiness at work is positively and significantly related to OCB.

Happiness at Work: Intrinsic Motivation

Employees' having positive emotions in the workplace has a function that reveals positive consequences for their work. Considering the Broaden-and-Build Theory in the context of a work, if individuals are cheerful in the work environment, have a high sense of satisfaction and feel happy, their feelings, attitudes and thoughts towards the work also get enhanced, and their productivity and positive behaviors are improved (Fredrickson, 1998: 306). The development and increase of positive emotions and behaviors are very important because they also lead to the development of employees mentally and psychologically. However, although no study was found to investigate the impact of happiness at work on intrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985) has stated that motivational behaviors are displayed when a person experiences enjoyable and personally interesting positive emotions that lead to flow experience. However, it has been noted that the sense of happiness has an effect on the increase in the benefits of motivation. Based on this information, the following hypothesis was developed:

H_2: Happiness at work is positively and significantly related to intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic Motivation: OCB

OCB and intrinsic motivation are two concepts that demonstrate similar features. Employees demonstrate OCB for different reasons. However, intrinsic motivation has a directing effect for employees to demonstrate such behaviors. In other words, the intrinsic motivation that the employee has causes his or her to show prosocial behavior (Finkelstein, 2011: 23). Individuals with high intrinsic motivation try to do the work they enjoy and establish an environment for it. Moreover, these people think that OCB gives them fun and enjoyment, with reference to the intrinsic motivation process (Barbuto and Story, 2011: 26). Furthermore, according to the Self-Determination Theory, employees develop an intrinsic motivation for the work they perform in the areas they think the organization needs. However, they are motivated to show extra role behavior by feeling more vibrant and energetic towards their colleagues and the organization (Wayne et al., 2002). Indeed, a positive correlation was found between intrinsic motivation and OCB (Uzunbacak et al., 2018). In this context, the following hypothesis was established:

H_3: Intrinsic motivation is positively and significantly related to OCB.

Happiness at Work: Psychological Resilience

Many research studies that have been conducted in the context of the Broaden-and-Build Theory (Frederickson, 2006) have revealed that happy employees achieve positive results about their lives, such as health, success and living long. The events that are positive and beneficial for employees have been claimed to make them psychologically resilient (Aspinwall, 2001). In a study carried out by Choi and Lee (2014), subjective happiness and happiness at work were found to depend on the level of psychological capital. In other words, as the perception of positive emotions such as work-related happiness gets enhanced, the perceptions of the psychological capital of employees are also found to get enhanced. Considering other empirical research, a positive correlation was found between workplace happiness and psychological capital (Etikariena, 2018: 368). Based on this information, the following hypothesis was established:

H_4: Happiness at work is positively and significantly related to psychological resilience.

Psychological Resilience: OCB

The relationship between psychological resilience and OCB is explained according to the theory of JD-R. According to the theory, psychological resilience is considered as the positive emotion possessed by the employee for the protection of the work resources, affecting the psychologically resilient employees' exhibition of psychological and positive organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment and OCB (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Employees' feeling psychologically resilient to cope with difficult situations and not showing any intimidation by taking support from this power lead to business relationships that yield positive results (Hu et al., 2011). Positive correlations have been found between psychological resilience and OCB in studies carried out to explain this relationship (Paul et al.,2016). In another research study conducted to determine how business attitudes and behaviors are related to psychological capital, psychological capital has been found to affect OCB (Avey et al., 2010). According to the results of a research study on the precursors of psychological capital carried out by Wang et al. (2018), the lower dimensions of psychological capital have been found to have positive effects on OCB. In this framework, the following hypothesis was established:

H_5: Psychological resilience is positively and significantly related to OCB.

The Mediating Role of Intrinsic Motivation and Psychological Resilience

In the context of the Broaden-and-Build Theory and Self-Determination Theory, positive emotions experienced in the workplace have a positive effect on the motivation of the employees and this effect is stated to lead to positive work outcomes such as OCB (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Frederickson, 2006). Indeed, in the research study conducted by Batistelli et al (2013), which is one of the limited research studies on the role of intrinsic motivation, it was found that intrinsic motivation has a mediating role between organizational support, OCB and its dimensions. In light of this theoretical framework, intrinsic motivation is considered to have a positive mediating role in the relationship between happiness at work and OCB.

H_6: Intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between happiness at work and OCB.

According to the results of research on positive organizational behavior, happiness (well-being) levels of individuals manifest positive emotions and behaviors (Luthans and Youssef, 2004). According to the JD-R theory, employees can exhibit extra role behaviors to sustain positive emotions such as satisfaction with and happiness about work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Employees will exhibit positive behaviors by trying to be psychologically stronger to avoid losing their resources provided by the organization and by coping with the difficulties that they face (Hu and Schaufeli, 2011). Indeed, the relationship between organizational climate and employee performance, which is one of the key elements of happiness at work, has been found to be mediated by psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2008). In another study, psychological capital has been found to have a mediating role between perceived leadership styles and OCB (Walumbwa et al., 2011). From this viewpoint, happiness at work, defined as having positive feelings about the workplace, is considered to affect positive work outcomes through psychological resilience, which is one of the sub-dimensions of psychological capital.

H_7: Psychological resilience mediates the relationship between happiness at work and OCB.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

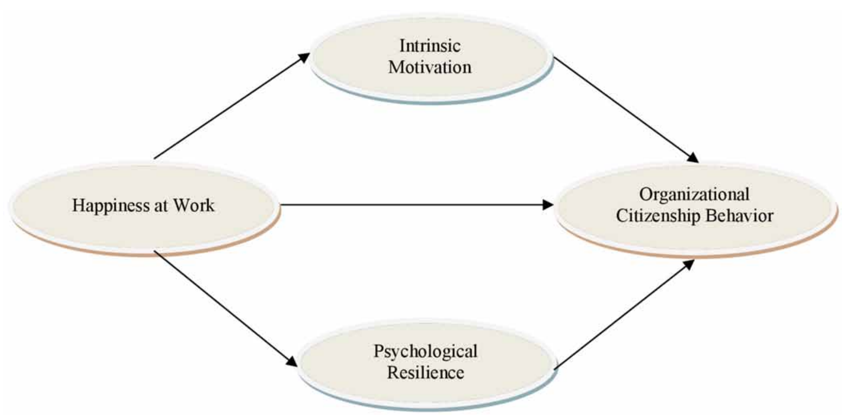
Research Aim and Model

It has been long known that employees' feeling happy in the organizational life has many positive consequences. From this point of view, in this study, happiness at work, OCB, intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience variables were discussed. Relationships between these variables were examined within the framework of the positive organizational behavior approach. In this study, an attempt was made to determine how intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience played a mediating role in the effect of happiness at work on OCB. The research model created in this scope containing the mediating effects is shown in Figure 1.

Research Sample

In this study, department managers working in the tourism sector were evaluated as a sample. In the scope of the study, an attempt was made to reach the managers who served in departments such as front office, food and beverages, housekeeping, kitchen, security, accounting, public relations, human resources, technical service, procurement, sales and marketing, and activities. In this respect, as a result of a review of the list of "Facilities with Tourism Operation License" on the Internet page of the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the Directorate General of Investments and Enterprises, it was found that there were 518 four- and five-star hotels in Antalya province. These facilities were contacted and asked whether they would participate in the study. Consequently, the study was carried out in a total of 52 hotels, consisting of 32 five-star and 20 four-star facilities, which positively responded to the call for participation. The department managers who worked in these facilities in question were sent an online questionnaire form prepared electronically and were asked to answer within a week. In this context, a second e-mail was sent a week after the first e-mail as a reminder, and the data collection process was completed within two weeks in this way. There was a total of 487 department managers working in 52 facilities. Of these department managers, 243 participated in the survey study. The return rate of the surveys was 49.8%. As a result of the examinations, 6 of the participants were found to fill the forms

Figure 1. Model of the Research



randomly or mark the same degree of participation. The data obtained from 7 participants were excluded as they included outlier values. As a result of the exclusion of these forms, the study was carried out through a total of 230 valid questionnaire forms. The convenience sampling technique, one of the random sampling methods, was used to collect data in the study.

According to Kline (1998), it is recommended that the number of people in the sample should be over 200 to perform a structural equation modeling analysis. Again, Kline (1998) has argued that ideally reaching subjects 10 times the number of variables or - if the reduction in reliability of the results is acceptable - 5 times the number of variables is sufficient for sample selection. When the number of subjects in the sample was examined in this framework, it can be said that the number of people reached was adequate and had the ability to represent the population.

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the tourism sector employees who agreed to participate in the study.

Of the hotel employees who participated in the study, 35.7% were female, and 64.3% were male. Moreover, 60.8% of the employees were married while 39.2% of them were single. When the participants were evaluated in terms of educational level, 14.8% were high school graduates, 17% had an associate degree, 55.7% had a bachelor's degree, 10.4% had a master's degree, and 2.2% had a PhD degree. Of the participants, 56% were working in five-star hotels, and 44% were working in four-star ones. The average age of the employees was calculated to be 37.1 (SD = 9.50), and the age distribution varied between 28 and 63. The average years of experience of the department managers in the sector was 15.6 years (SD = 7.57).

Measures

The field study method and the questionnaire technique were used to collect the data of the study. The reason for choosing this method is that it gives the opportunity to easily and cheaply collect large amounts of data from a large group in a short period of time. In line with the purpose of the study, 4 different

Table 1. Information regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants

Variables		N	%
Gender	Female	82	35.7
	Male	148	64.3
Maritial Status	Married	140	60.8
	Single	90	39.2
Educational Qualification	High School	34	14.8
	Associate degree	39	17.0
	Bachelor Degree	128	55.7
	Master's Degree	24	10.4
	Doctorate	5	2.2
Star Rating	Four	129	56.0
	Five	101	44.0
Total		**230**	**100.0**

scales were utilized to measure the levels of relationship and influence between variables. Detailed information about the scales is given below.

Happiness at Work Scale: The scale, adapted by Alparslan (2016) in the context of the workplace, is based on the "WHO (five) Well-Being Index" (1998 version) created by the World Health Organization (WHO). The scale consists of 5 items and single dimension. The scale has six-point Likert items (1= Never, 6= Always). One of the items on the scale is reversed. In his study, Alparslan (2016) found the internal consistency coefficient of the scale to be .83. "I am doing the tasks that I love and that I intrigues me in the workplace" can be given as an example of an item on the scale.

Intrinsic Motivation Scale: The "Intrinsic Motivation Scale" developed by Kuvaas (2006) and adapted to Turkish by Yücel Batmaz and Gürer (2016) is a 6-item and single-dimensional measurement instrument. There are no reversed items on the scale. The participants responded to the statements according to a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). In their study, Yücel Batmaz and Gürer (2016) found the internal consistency coefficient of the scale to be .78. "The tasks I fulfill when working in the workplace motivates me to work harder" can be given as an example of an item on the scale.

Brief Resilience Scale: When measuring psychological resilience, the single-dimensional scale consisting of 6 items, which was developed by Smith et al. (2008) and was examined for validity and reliability in Turkish by Doğan (2015), was used. Three items on the scale are reversed. The participants responded to the statements according to a five-point Likert scale (1 = Not Applicable, 5 = Fully Applicable). In his study, Doğan found the internal consistency coefficient of the scale to be .83. "It takes a long time for me to get rid of the effects of negativity in my life" can be given as an example of an item on the scale.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale: The final scale used in the study was the "Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale." The scale was adapted to Turkish by Basım and Şeşen (2006). The original scale was developed by Williams and Shiaw (1999) and Vey and Campbell (2004). The scale consists of 19 items and 5 dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue). There are no reversed items on the scale. The participants responded to the statements according to a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). "I would help a company employee who is dealing with excessive workload" can be given as an example of an item on the scale. Basım and Şeşen (2006) reported that the internal consistency coefficient of the OCB dimensions varied between .75 and .86, and the overall reliability of the scale was .89.

Data Analysis

The SPSS 22 and AMOS 21 software programs were used to analyze the data obtained from the scales. In the first phase of the data analysis, first of all, the missing data were determined, and the data set was made suitable for analysis by assigning serial means. Then, an outlier analysis was performed. The outlier analysis was performed as a single-variable and multi-variable outlier inspection for each item. In the single-variable outlier analysis, standardized z-scores were examined, and 7 observations outside the range of -3 and +3 were excluded from the study. Multi-variable outliers were examined by calculating the value of Mahalanobis distance, and no outlier was found at the .001 significance level.

Q-Q charts and histograms in addition to Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients of the data were used to determine whether the normality assumption of the data was met. Accordingly, the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients of all of the items were found to be between +1 and -1. Moreover, the graphical examination revealed that each item was fairly close to the normal distribution and did not deviate from the normal distribution. As a result of these findings, the normality assumption was considered to be met.

Frequencies, percentages and means were calculated to summarize the raw data and get an overview of the distribution after the outlier analysis and normality tests were carried out. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the validity of the scales, and internal consistency coefficients were calculated for the reliability of the scales. Apart from these, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients analysis was utilized to reveal the relationships between variables. Structural equation modeling was used to test the hypotheses.

Validity and Reliability

Because all the scales used in the study were previously adapted to Turkish, the construct validity of the scales was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) only. The maximum likelihood technique was used in all analyses. Using CFA, it is assessed how well the data fit the model. In order to demonstrate the degree of such fit, a number of fit indices are used in the literature. These fit indices include the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). These fit indices can take values between zero and one, and the closer the value is to one, the better the fit is. Researchers have indicated what the fit indices for the validity of the model should be and what values they should take. Accordingly, considering the optimal values, GFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI values should be at least at the .90 level, and the AGFI value should be .80 and above to indicate that the fit is good. In the literature, the Chi-Square Goodness test value is also an important index used to determine the fit. Accordingly, if χ^2/df (Chi-square/degrees of freedom) is smaller than 2, it shows a perfect fit, and if it is between 2 and 5, it shows an acceptable fit (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993; Kline, 1998). Finally, if the value of Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), which was used in this study and which is also shown to be one of the most important fit indices in the literature, is equal to .05 or smaller, it shows a perfect fit. The values less than .08 indicate an acceptable fit, while a value greater than .10 refers to a poor fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992).

Table 2 shows the results of CFA conducted using the AMOS 21 software program to test the construct validity of the data collection instruments used in the study.

Considering Table 2, based on the first level of CFA analysis, the happiness at work, intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience scales were found to have fit indices that could be considered to be excellent goodness of fit values. These 3 scales were each confirmed to have the single-dimensional original structure. No modifications were made to these scales. The first-order 5-factor structure of the OCB scale was confirmed, and a second-order CFA was conducted to use the scale as a single-factor

Table 2. Values for goodness of fit of the scales

Scales	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Happiness at Work	1.19	.99	.97	.99	.99	.99	.029
Intrinsic Motivation	.77	.99	.97	.99	1.00	1.00	.012
Psychological Resilience	1.36	.98	.96	.98	.99	.99	.040
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Second order)	2.39	.90	.85	.91	.92	.90	.078

scale in this study. Accordingly, considering the goodness of fit values of the scale seen in Table 2, it was seen that the values were within acceptable limits. None of the items of the OCB scale were excluded from the analysis either. Modifications were made in the alturism and civic virtue dimensions of the scale, one in each, and the second-order single-factor structure of the scale was confirmed.

After it was understood that all the scales were structurally valid scales, internal consistency coefficients were calculated to measure their reliability levels. Accordingly, the results are shown in Table 3.

When Table 3 was examined, the internal consistency coefficients obtained for all variables were found to be greater than the acceptable limit of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). In the light of all this information, it was concluded that all the scales used in the study were structurally valid and reliable scales.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Relationships between Variables

Table 4 shows the arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of the variables utilized in the study and the results of the Pearson correlation analysis.

When Table 4 was examined, the arithmetic mean value of happiness at work levels of the department managers was found to be 4.29 (SD = 0.864), which was slightly above the middle level. When the intrinsic motivation level of the department managers was examined, they were found to score an arithmetic mean value of 3.69 (SD = 0.707), which was a slightly higher value than the middle level, just as in the happiness at work. Given the structure of the sector they were in and their positions, the psychological resilience of the department managers can be expected to be high. However, as can be seen in Table 4, the levels of psychological resilience of the department managers were lower than expected with an average value of 3.43 (SD = 0.828). In Table 4, finally, when the managers' OCB level was ex-

Table 3. Internal consistency coefficients of the scales

Variables	Number of Item	α
Happiness at Work	5	.71
Intrinsic Motivation	6	.75
Psychological Resilience	6	.88
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	19	.88

Table 4. Descriptive statistics and relationships between variables

Variables (N= 230)	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Happiness at Work	4.29	.864	(.71)			
2. Intrinsic Motivation	3.69	.707	.15*	(.75)		
3. Psychological Resilience	3.43	.828	.64**	.14*	(.88)	
4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior	4.11	.496	.22**	.50**	.23**	(.88)

** are significant at p< .01; * are significant at p< .05. Values in parentheses show the reliability coefficients of the dimensions.

amined, it was determined to be the variable with the highest average in all variables with an arithmetic mean value of 4.11 (SD = 0.496).

When the Pearson correlation analysis results in Table 3 were examined, all variables that were included in the study were found to have positive correlations at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$ significance levels, with low and moderate effect levels. When the relationships were examined one by one, happiness at work was found to have a positive and significant correlation with intrinsic motivation ($r = .15$, $p < .05$), psychological resilience ($r = .64$, $p < .01$) and OCB ($r = .22$, $p < .01$). Similar correlations also existed between intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience ($r = .14$, $p < .05$), and between intrinsic motivation and OCB ($r = .50$, $p < .01$). Finally, a positive correlation between psychological resilience and OCB ($r = .23$, $p < .01$) was also identified.

Findings of the Hypothesis Testing

A structural equation model was used to test the hypotheses developed in the study. To that end, the hypotheses represented as relationships between the variables were tested using the AMOS 21 software program. In this context, the structural model was established with the variables observed after the measurement model was supported. According to the results of the structural equation model, the data were found to excellently fit the model ($\chi 2/df = .57$, GFI = .97, AGFI = .95, NFI = .99, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .015). Table 5 shows the standardized path coefficients found in the analysis of the structural model.

When Table 5 was examined, the effects of happiness at work on intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .151$, $p < .05$) and psychological resilience ($\beta = .733$, $p < .001$) were found to be significant. As can be seen from the table, the effects of intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .351$, $p < .001$) and psychological resilience ($\beta = .101$, $p < .01$) on OCB were also significant. In Table 5, finally, it is seen that the effect of happiness at work on OCB ($\beta = .047$, $p > .05$) was not significant. In the light of this information, the hypotheses H_2, H_3, H_4 and H_5 developed within the scope of the study were accepted, whereas the hypothesis H_1 was rejected.

When the effect of happiness at work on OCB was evaluated as a separate model, the effect ($\chi 2/df = 2.58$, GFI = .93; AGFI = .91, NFI = .96, TLI = .97, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .042) was found to be positive and significant ($\beta = .221$, $p < .01$). As stated above, this effect was found not to be significant in the path analysis carried out in line with the research model (Table 5). This brings to mind the mediating effect as described in the theoretical framework. Although this situation violates the first condition of the causal steps approach of Baron and Kenny (1986), it is not seen by various authors as a barrier to investigate the mediating role of the mediating variable (Hayes, 2009).

Table 5. Path analysis result

Effects	β	SE
Intrinsic Motivation <--- Happiness at Work	.151*	.062
Psychological Resilience <--- Happiness at Work	.733***	.057
Organizational Citizenship Behavior <--- Intrinsic Motivation	.351***	.040
Organizational Citizenship Behavior <--- Psychological Resilience	.101**	.034
Organizational Citizenship Behavior <--- Happiness at Work	.047	.050

*** are significant at p< .001; ** are significant at p< .01; * are significant at p< .05.

Table 6. Mediation role of intrinsic motivation

Mediation Role of Intrinsic Motivation	Std. Total Effect	Std. Direct Effect	Std. Indirect Effect	BC 95% CI		2-tailed Sig.
				Lower	Upper	
Organizational Citizenship Behavior <--- Happiness at Work	.221	.145	.076	.096	.341	.001

Table 7. Mediation role of psychological resilience

Mediation Role of Psychological Resilience	Std. Total Effect	Std. Direct Effect	Std. Indirect Effect	BC 95% CI		2-tailed Sig.
				Lower	Upper	
Organizational Citizenship Behavior <--- Happiness at Work	.221	.121	.100	-.019	.210	.092

In this case, analyses were carried out by establishing 2 separate structural models for the mediating effects. The mediating role of intrinsic motivation was tested in the first model, and the mediating role of psychological resilience was tested in the second model. The goodness of fit values for these models were $\chi 2/df = .89$, GFI = .95, AGFI = .93, NFI = .98, TLI = .98, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .022, and $\chi 2/df = .97$, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, NFI = .99, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .019, respectively. The results of the structural equation models for the mediating effects are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

The bootstrap method was used to test the mediation hypotheses. Through the bootstrap method, which makes it possible to resample data sets that are too large from the current data set, the 230-person sample size was recreated to be 5,000 in the 95% confidence interval, as recommended. When Tables 6 and 7 were examined, both the intrinsic motivation and psychological resilience variables were found to have an indirect effect on the happiness at work and OCB relationship. However, it was necessary to determine whether this effect was significant. To do that, the values of the bootstrap confidence interval should be examined. If the lower and upper confidence interval values that correspond to the indirect effect value do not cover zero, the indirect effect is deemed to be significant, and it is understood that the mediating effect has occurred. When Table 6 was examined in the light of this information, the indirect effect of intrinsic motivation was significant in the happiness at work and OCB relationship ($\beta = .076$, BC 95% CI [.096, .341]). When Table 7 was examined, this effect emerged to be insignificant, although psychological resilience had an indirect effect on the happiness at work and OCB relationship ($\beta = .100$, BC 95% CI [-.019, .210]). In this context, while the hypothesis H_6 was accepted, the hypothesis H_7 was rejected.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The most important limitation of the study was that it was carried out as a cross-sectional design. Longitudinal studies are needed to determine the causality of the proposed model and to clarify the established relations. However, the research sample consisted of tourism employees. Tourism is a service-oriented sector with periodic occupation and high labor turnover. In order to determine whether these relations originate from the characteristics of the sector, it is necessary to carry out the study in the public sector as well as in educational and health enterprises.

Finally, the consequences of happiness at work were discussed in this study. However, in order to fully understand the effects of happiness at work, it is recommended to investigate its relationships with organizational support perception, personality variables, person-organization fit, work-family conflict, work-family enrichment and leadership styles, which are considered to be the antecedents of happiness at work. Moreover, the effects of happiness at work on employee performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit work, and innovative business behavior can also be investigated.

CONCLUSION

Although the interest in studies on positive psychology and positive organizational behavior has increased in recent years, especially the studies on happiness focus mainly on subjective happiness. However, it is seen that there are not enough studies on happiness in work life, which occupies an important place in the lives of individuals. With this study, an attempt was made to understand how happy employees felt in the workplace, and the effects of happiness at work on employees' psychological resilience, intrinsic motivation and OCB based on the theory.

According to the results of the study, it was found that happiness at work significantly influenced intrinsic motivation, and influenced OCB through intrinsic motivation. These findings are in line with similar studies (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017; Batistelli, 2013). Moreover, happiness at work significantly and positively affected psychological resilience, and psychological resilience significantly and positively affected OCB. These results also support the results of earlier studies (Etikariena, 2018; Wang et al, 2018; Paul et al.,2016). However, the mediating effect of psychological resilience could not be confirmed. The most important contribution of this study to the literature was that intrinsic motivation, psychological resilience and OCB were consequences of happiness at work, and the mediating effect of intrinsic motivation was proven.

Happiness at work had the highest impact on psychological resilience. This is because, experiencing positive emotions in the work environment should be considered as a sign of employees' satisfaction with the work. In other words, the ability to cope with difficulties and the ability to overcome problems emerge more prominently if employees are happy at work.

Psychological capital of employees is one of the important assets of organizations. For this reason, if employees have stronger psychological capitals, they can more easily cope with personal and organizational problems. This will result in increased positive work outcomes. Therefore, in order to improve happiness at work, which was determined to be one of the precursors of psychological capital, it is necessary to improve working conditions, ensure justice in human resources practices, establish a rewarding system, and provide organizational support. However, the motivation level of employees correlated with their performances and positive work outcomes. Therefore, in order for employees to demonstrate the desired performance, their motivation has to be improved by meeting their expectations such as working in good working conditions, and being respected and valued, and by making them feel happy.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Altruism: Voluntary behaviors that have been demonstrated by the employee.

Civic Virtue: An understanding of supporting the development of the organization by showing individual initiative.

Conscientiousness: Employees exhibit a role behavior beyond the minimum expected role behavior.

Courtesy: Informing other employees before making decisions that affect their work.

Happines at Work: Refers to have positive feelings, attitudes and thoughts about work.

Intrinsic Motivation: The innate motivation of the employee without the expectation of reward.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Behaving beyond formal requirements for the benefit of the organization.

Psychological Resilience: The ability of the individual to cope with the negative events encountered.

Sportmanship: Willingness to work in a positive manner without complaining in the face of difficulties and difficulties encountered in the organization.

Chapter 12
Impact of Psychological Contract on Employees' Performance:
A Review

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ABSTRACT

The performance of employees defines the competitive advantage of the company in current ferocious competition, and it affects the long-standing growth of the company. If a company inspires its workforce merely by the means of financial contract, then the company will not be in the position to gain the effective and efficient performances from its employees. Because apart from this financial contract, psychological contract also upsets attitudes and performance of the employees at the workplace. The spirit of the firms is the employees, and the implementation of the psychological contract can effectually decrease the turnover rate of employees and consequently increase their efficiency at the workplace. In the current chapter, first of all an attempt has been made to elucidate the concept and development process of psychological contract. After that it is endeavored to highlight the positive impact of psychological contract on employees' performances such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, organization citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions.

INTRODUCTION

In the year 1960, there was a time when the word psychological contract was appeared for very first time. Since then investigators and researchers have been discovering this concept incessantly. (Kotter, J. P. 1973., Portwood, J. D., Miller, E. L 1976., & Nicholson, N.,& Johns, G. 1985). Argyris (1960) spoke about the concealed and informal unspoken settlement between the supervisor and workers. Levinson et al. (1962) demarcated psychological contract as an unrecorded contract that factually means a psycho-

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logical contract between employer and employees without any formal letter contained anticipations. This was used to highlight internal and unseen anticipations, which headed the formation of the relationship.

Schein stated psychological contract as a set of unprinted anticipations amongst organization fellows, and he separated psychological contract into two stages: individuals and organizations. Further, Kotter posited that psychological contract was a concealed contract amongst organizations and persons including about what they were due, what they deserved. These type of philosophies represent that the psychological contract is a type of shared understanding amid employee and employers. The researchers who believed the opinion of two-way anticipations were named as Classical School; in the meantime, all the philosophies in harmony with two-way anticipations were termed comprehensive description of the psychological contract. Rousseau, an American scholar redefined the psychological contract as a type of trust about joint accountability between employees and employer. Further, Robinson stressed out that this type of trust is the promise, understanding and perception on interchange connection between employees' contribution such as hard-work, capability, faithfulness etc. and inducements offered by the employer such as reimbursement, advancement, job security, etc. (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Morrison further recognized this notion. He stated that the psychological contract was generally demarcated as a set of confidences held by personnel about shared accountabilities. These confidences were grounded on making sense of promise, though the organization may not recognize them. Overall, two diverse descriptions of the psychological contract have been given. The comprehensive meaning is the understanding about mutual accountabilities in exchange relationship amongst employer and employees subjectively in harmony with the all types of promises whether written, verbal or under the rules of the company whereas the contracted meaning is a set of confidences that were created under the understanding of company policy, practice and culture or the reinforcement by agents' promises, sometimes the agents might not be conscious.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

Generally, there are three phase under of psychological contract. The first phase is primarily the theoretic expansion of the notion (Kotter, 1973., Argyris, 1960 & Schein, 1965). These readings propose that workforces' and employers anticipations make the psychological contract. Next phase starts with the redefinition of the concept given by Rousseau's. Rousseau (1989) suggests the contract is merely a worker's anticipations (Rousseau, 1989).Guzzo et. Al., (1994) and Sugalski, (1995) stated the role of psychological contract in employment. As per Rousseau (2004), there are some features of the psychological contract such as volunteer choice, joint accountability on the part of both employees and employers.

The third phase stresses upon the results of psychological contract contentment. For instance, Turnley, (1999), inspected the effect of psychological contract towards the extraction, liberty of speech, faithfulness & neglect behaviors. In the current years, theoretical and experiential studies generally focus on one feature of the subsequent fields such as scrutinize the motives for the break of the psychological contract, investigate the connection amid break & breach of psychological contract & observe the penalties of its violation.

DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

MacNeil (1985) proposed two-dimensional structure and contract is separated into two groups such as transactional and relational. Transactional psychological contract is apprehensive about the structure of short-term economic issues whereas Relational psychological contract is employment covers both socio-emotional frankness structure.

Further Robinson, Kraatz, Rousseau (1994) revealed based on his study that there are two important factors such as transactional factor and relational factor. Transactional factor reveals the staff to perform intensely, doing job responsibilities outer the cost, in interchange for good recompense, inducements, learning and career development opportunities, grounded upon contractual relations. Relational factor states the personnel to work for long run, faithful and eager to consent the cost of inner work modification, in interchange for long-term job safety based on emotional exchange based associations. Personnel must take the accountability for their individual opinions and company accountabilities in this procedure.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS MODELS

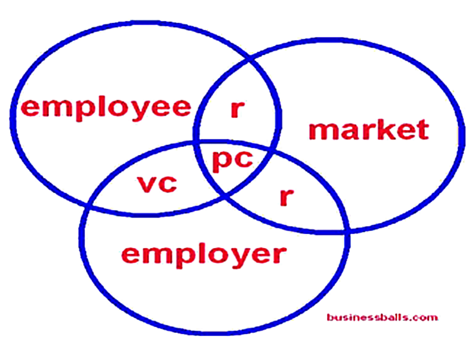
Psychological contract can be more understood with the help of following models.

Venn Model

This model represents a multifaceted interpretation of the Psychological Contract, comprising outside stimuli, which are frequently overlooked while applying Psychological Contracts philosophy. This is useful in demonstrating all kinds of situations where two or more connected parts interrelate. The following model delivers an easy interpretation of the contents working in Psychological Contract.

Above Diagram represents "vc = visible contract – this is the normal transcribed service responsibilities for employees as well as employers to carry out duties securely and properly in exchange for a good salary, generally holidays also. pc = psychological contract – this is concealed, understood, unprinted, and takes account of the relationship references (r) amid employee and market that comprises other outside factors and also the employer's relationship with the market (also r), and the visible contract (vc)". In this diagram the writing parts is only the visible contract (vc) which is translucent and rest aspects are subject to perceptions until or unless they are being elucidated.

Figure 1. Psychological contract model



Iceberg Model

Iceberg model is a valuable to exemplify the vital phases and stimuluses inside Psychological Contracts theory. It is also useful for trainers and leaders for elucidating and discovering the concept and its individual sense for persons.

Ninety percent of the model is concealed underneath the water, which states that maximum observations of the contract are unrecorded and concealed. This representation matches the Psychological Contract very well. It is specially so for low-ranking employees in organizations, where shared anticipations usually have little discernibility & lucidity. Hence, in this case we might envisage ninety-five percent or may be ninety-nine percent of the iceberg model is submerged. The Psychological Contract is probable to be more understood & noticeable with profounder inputs and rewards in case of the connection amid the rational employer and its employees, particularly proficient and fruitful workforce. Hence, in this case sixty percent or even seventy percent of the model is submerged. The above discussed percentage are not scientific it just elucidate the manner the model performs. Model spreads expediently so that the 'sky' and the 'sea' embody outside and marketplace forces acting on employee and employer, affecting the balance, and the upsurge or collapse of the iceberg. With the upliftment of the achievement, maturity and knowledge of the employees there will be rise in the iceberg. Gradually higher contributions & recompenses arise from being unseen or muddled perceptions below from the water line, to become noticeable mutual contractual agreement above the water line. This procedure could also function in contrary, though in a healthy situation both parties i.e. employees and employers wish the iceberg to upsurge.

Figure 2. Psychological contracts 'iceberg' model

Left hand of the above figure describes employees' inputs. Employees' inputs are the anticipations and expectations of the employers form their employees. These expectations can be noticeable & contractually settled, or presumed, supposed, inferred, etc., and unrecorded, or possible anticipations contingent on performance and opportunity that not essentially applicable to all employees and employers.

Right hand of the above figure states the different type of recompenses offered by the employers. Employers' rewards are the employees' anticipations that again can be noticeable & contractually settled, supposed or inferred etc. They would usually be unrecorded. These potential inputs not essentially appropriate to all workforces and organization.

"Work and Pay" lies above the water level that signifies the primary service contract i.e. the traditional contract means financial compensation for work. The traditional compensations is same as the "vc" section discussed in the above Venn diagram which is the noticeable service contract which is usually the written responsibilities for both employees and employers. Iceberg model represents the exchange between simple work & pay. However, in reality maximum of the employees are formally accountable for other types of inputs and are allowed for several welfares apart from the pay alone, therefore, in this respect the iceberg here signifies a very simple condition.

Black Arrows in the model signify market impacts at the workplace environment, particularly to the situation that is clear, noticeable, and recognized, etc. These stimuli usually contain particulars likewise market demand of persons who are highly competent to perform the task.

Red arrows signify the propensity of the model to increase along with the development in the job as well as the degree of the victory & maturity of the employer. In case of highly matured, knowledgeable & achievement oriented employees there would be a tendency to perceive their personal icebergs increasing and the concealed contractual factors would become noticeable. Employees usually desire the iceberg to be increased and employers wish to be associated with such type of employees. Employees want that the concealed unrecorded facets of the Psychological Contract that be underneath to be relevant, noticeable and formalized contract wise. An intensifying iceberg indicates increased involvement in the job by the employees towards the company that is usually compensated with progressively profounder recompenses & profits.

Underneath the water line - ninety percent of the iceberg, which is below the surface, contains the concealed insights that intensely affect clarification of the Psychological Contract, particularly held with the employees. These insights associate with the 'pc' part of the Venn model. The place where Psychological Contract is mainly concealed and jointly uncertain, then it can be imagined that the iceberg being more than ninety percent submerged. The place where the Contract is improved and stronger it can be imagined that only sixty-seventy percent of the iceberg is submerged.

The successive list of aspects represented below the water line on left and right side is not conclusive and carry same worth. It offers a direction to the concept, not a systematic list of correspondingly harmonized factors. It gives a wide clue of comparative importance of the aspects in both lists.

Blue arrows signify concealed factors effecting both parties i.e. employees & employers and particularly their views and outlooks towards each other. These perceptions might be noticeable & obviously recognized by one side and not to the other unless exposed & elucidated in a clear cut way. Numerous concealed stimuli are not well recognized by either side. Most of these factors vary erratically, but several are comparatively perpetual and can simply be explained. Some factors are concealed because they are problematic for anyone to realize or forecast. It is a matter of wonder for some employers and leaders that how all these concealed and subjective factors could probably be recognized. Actually, these factors cannot be in complete terms however, they could be made clearer if management attitude & approaches endeavor for good open optimistic teamwork between both the parties.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Due to the quick fluctuations in the industries, it has become mandatory for the companies to modify, meet and acclimate to these variations that upsurges employees' stress at the workplace. Moreover, due to the quick change in the life styles has also altered the values of employees. Most of the employees desire the good change in their contracts and liberty to numerous additional choices. Due to this, there has been observed the reduction in employees' commitment level and job satisfaction towards the companies that can distract managers of companies. Therefore, it has become essential for the companies to keep healthy relationship with their human assets. Therefore, the psychological contract has become a main apprehension for researchers. Assimilating psychological contract and employee's engagement is a novel direction in knowledge worker management. Due to quick change in the market place and the resulting organizational change have intensely altered the service association between companies and workforces. It shakes the psychological contract between company and workforces. The declining faith and obligation amid company and employees, there is a decrease in the level of job satisfaction and consequently high employee turnover rate has extremely affected the performance of the organizations. Therefore, to retain an effective workforce in this cutthroat competition, organizations need an effective Human Resource management System (HRM). It contains dense contracts amid organization and its workforces, outside the contract which is in writing, stipulating their prospects, principles, abilities, and responsibilities amid employees and employers. Psychological contract deals with the examination of its key features and the identification of its phases of development. This contract are based upon the mental representation, which are based on employees' perception. This type of contract aid the employees and the organizations to avoid a complex employment relationship. Both parties viz. the employees and employers comprehend very obviously about the terms and conditions.

KEY OBJECTIVES OF THE CHAPTER

Over-all objective of the current chapter is to inspect the impact of psychological contract on employee outcomes. Specific objectives are recognized as:

1. To discuss the impact of psychological contract on job satisfaction
2. To discuss the impact of psychological contract on employee commitment
3. To Discuss the Impact of psychological contract on job Performance
4. To Discuss the Impact of psychological contract on Organizational Citizenship Behavior
5. To Discuss the Impact of psychological contract on Turnover Intentions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptualizing the Psychological Contract

After studying a lot of reviews and interview discussions the word psychological work contract was used to define the reciprocated respect amid employees and employers by the Argyris (1960). Employers reinforced their employees' informal norms, which they had experienced beforehand being elevated to their supervisors positions. Further, Levinson, et al. (1962) also used the word psychological contract to define the perceived association among employers and employees. Levinson et al., (1962) revealed that employees supposed a number of indirect and tacit anticipations from their employer. They demarcated psychological contracts as "a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be even dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other". Though owning alike characteristics, there were variances between Argyris' (1960) and Levinson et al.'s (1962) conceptualization of psychological contracts (Roehling, 1997). For instance, Argyris observed the contract as an employee group-level phenomenon (i.e., culture) whereas Levinson and colleagues observed that each worker had distinct beliefs concerning the psychological contract. Throughout the succeeding few periods, little consideration was given to the conceptualization of psychological contracts (for two exceptions see Kotter, 1973, and Schein, 1965).

The Effect of Psychological Contract on Employee Performance

Psychological Contract has very positive outcomes towards workplace attitudes, which increase the employee's performance.

Psychological Contract and Job Satisfaction

Oshagbemi, (2003) stated that job satisfaction is an imperative trait that firms wish from their employees. Inner and outer stirring aspects such as influence the amount of job satisfaction: supervision, relationships within group and the amount to which persons prosper or fail at their workplace (Armstrong, 2001). Individuals are encouraged to realize their objectives and would be pleased if they realize these aims. "Job satisfaction refers to the attitude and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favorable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction and negative and unfavorable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction" (Armstrong, 2006),

Job satisfaction reveals instant emotional responses to the job and its aspects and these feelings and perceptions are formed after employee join the organization. It grows gradually with the understanding of the job and its aspects, company's objectives and performance anticipations and their significances. The kind of understanding, behind job satisfaction is not instant; it needs introduction to a diversity of company constituent's external of the job itself.

Hoppock (1935, as cited in Jam & Fathima, 2006)) stated, "There is a strong relationship between worker's emotional adjustment (psychological contract) and levels of job satisfaction. Furthermore violation of the transactional obligations such as pay, benefits and promotions of the psychological contract result in decrease in job satisfaction (Anderson & Schalk, 1998)".

Due to the resemblance between the outcomes of job dissatisfaction, and violation of psychological contract, researches furthermore recommended that satisfaction partly arbitrates the association amid violation and commitment (Turnley and Feldman, 2000). Psychological contracts are better understood in case of its violation (Rousseau, 1989). And consequently, it becomes one of the strongest reason for researcher to further investigate psychological contract' breach and violation. As it can meaningfully shake employees' behavior, their approach, level of job satisfaction and obligation towards the company. Theory of Psychological Contract proposes that workforces with family accountabilities might negotiate psychological contracts which contain family- receptive welfares likewise flexible working times. (Rousseau, 1995).

Rousseau & Schalk, (2000) established that employees did not leave the organization especially to the competitor in case when companies provided them safety of the jobs and career development opportunities. Workforces were dutiful and well organized while performing the duties performed well at their respective tasks. In reoccurrence, workforces anticipated the recompense of constancy through continuance of the employment relations, safety of jobs regardless of financial benefits, stability of the career by company and certain recompenses.

Psychological contract can be developed when one's job fulfill one's expectancies and they are being valued and recognized by their employers (Worrell, 2004). With responses to overhead problems, companies were capable to recognize diverse type of contracts & wanted employees'- employers' assistance for optimistic psychological contract.

On the other side job, dissatisfaction can happen amongst employees if there is a violation of psychological contract. In case of any type of inconsistency between the employees and employers promises towards each other leads towards to the retort might result into job dissatisfaction leading towards upsurge in absence and turnover (Morrison and Robinson, 1997 & Griffeth, et al. 2000). If displeased personnel continue in the company, then poor performance, critical buzzes, stealing and disruption of apparatus, nonattendance and turnover can happen by the counterproductive performances of the employees. These unhealthy behaviors end in economic costs to the company in terms of lost output and replacement costs. Spector (1997 stated that strain, nervousness, difficulty in sleeping, weariness, despair and stiffness in muscles and joints can be found in discontented employees. These signifies a very noteworthy price to the psychological and physical wellbeing of the workforces, unplanned economic cost to the company.

Psychological Contract and Organizational Commitment

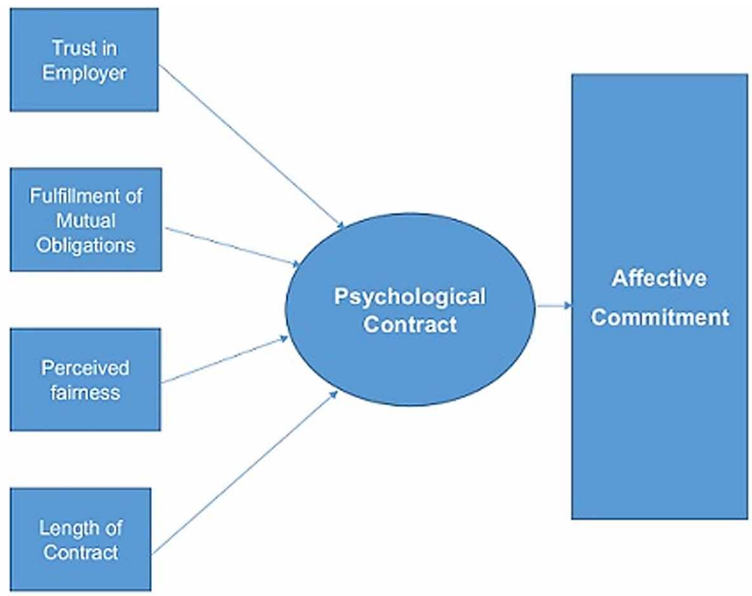
Strong connections have been found between psychological contract and organizational commitment, since job contract fix the employees and employers to certain accountabilities towards each other. Psychological contract starts to be formed even before joining the organization, through pre-existing anticipations regarding the enterprise. Slowly, these pre-existing anticipations would take the form of supposed responsibilities that constitute the psychological contract. According to Mowday et al. (1979) "Organizational commitment is the expressive attachment towards the organization". It can be measured by the means of absence, employee turnover, illness and absence (Ismail et al. 2011., Khandelwal, 2009 and Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).It reveals the worker's emotion of intentional contribution in company actions with the increasing unilateral investment in company and the replicates the faith of workforces to joint accountability and commitment amid employees and company. However, there is dissimilarity amid organizational commitment and psychological contract. The concept of organizational commitment is one -way that simply reveals the personnel's' sentiment towards the company however psychological contract includes two- way connection that reveals employees' certainty towards accountabilities and the company assuming accountabilities too. In this procedure, employees would compare and alter the degree of both sides gratifying the contract, in order to get the stable state eventually (Cassar, 2011). Rousseau, (1995) has highlighted that organizational commitment is really the outcome of psychological contract. Employees have different commitment levels that depends on their Singular understanding, assessment of accountabilities of both parties. Psychological contract replicates the employee's subjective belief of the accountability & responsibility among employees and employers. Psychological contract expectations have a significant impact on knowledge workers. With the correct anticipation, the substantial assurance is to offer great level of recompense, compensation for performance, elevation & development. These assurances form organization's side have a great influence on employees decision about whether they would continue in the company and affect their emotional dependence and engrossment in organizations. The relational sustenance and inner development anticipation has connection with long-term work assurance, career development, good interactive environment and social expressive interactions. These facets would affect employees to love for their respective organization, consequently affects whether they stay or not in the organization. Negative but significant relationship between transactional contract and organizational commitment and positive relationship between relational contract with organizational commitment has been observed by Luo and Yu (2013).

Agarwal (2011) investigated the relationship amid psychological contract & organizational commitment. Results exposed that Psychological contract of employees was positively and meaningfully correlated to their organizational commitment. Behery, Paton and Hussain (2012) discovered the significant impact of relational contract on organizational commitment while transactional contract has not any significant relationship with organizational commitment. Furthermore, McDermott, et al., (2013) there is a connection among psychological contracts, organizational commitment & other employment characteristics, outcomes of this result directs that level of perceived obligation in psychological contract impacts contrarily on three sub-dimensions of organizational commitment. Finally, Jabeen et al., (2015) established that both relational and transactional psychological contract is positively & meaningfully connected to transactional leadership and organizational commitment with a decision that rational psychological contract encourages greater amount of organizational commitment.

According to Robinson & Morrison (2000), the break of the psychological contract happens when a staff member observes that the responsibilities that he considers to happen between the both parties have not been achieved. It is an emotive experience of dissatisfaction, obstruction, annoyance & bitterness that may originate from the method the employee understands & perceives about the psychological contract breaches & their conditions.

Cassar & Briner, (2011) and Lapointe, et al (2013) stated that there exists a reverse connection amid breaks in psychological contract and organizational commitment. Shahnawaz & Goswami, 2011; Simosi, (2013) also examined the influence of break of psychological contract and organizational commitment. The main crux of the studies states that with the breach in the psychological contract there is decrease in the organizational commitment of the employees. On the other side, as per Parzefall, (2008) there exists a positive & noteworthy relationship between psychological contract and organizational commitment. Castaing (2006) established a noteworthy association amid psychological contract variables and affective organizational commitment (AOC). AOC is linked to the various organizational results such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and job performance in earlier readings (Meyer et al., 2002).

Figure 3.
Source: Rousseau et al (1998); Agarwal (2014); Rosen et al (2009); Sels, Jansenns and Brande (2004).



Psychological Contract and Job Performance

Organization performance is dependent upon the performances of the employees' performance carried out in their respective jobs, which further affects existence, & expansion of the organization. In this competitive world, organizations have their own targets, on the other side employees also have their own goals to achieve, and the performance of organization as well as employees jointly decide the company's overall performance. The objectives to be attained by the organization are divided to individually functional department after that functional department divides the tasks to every member of the unit, consequently employees' accomplishment of performance aids the organization to attain company's goal. Some researchers have separated job performance into task performance & environmental performance. As per Wanghui, Li Xiaoxuan, Luo Shengqiang, (2003) there are two parts of job performance such as task performance and contextual performance. As per Muxin, (2014) psychological contract positively and significantly affects the job performance. Greater the level of the psychological contract is, greater will be the job performance. The relationship between psychological contract & job performance differs from dissimilar groups. According to Zhao Sili., (2014) psychological contract has an important positive effect on task performance & innovation performance, but its effect on circumstantial performance is not noteworthy.

Psychological Contract and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB mentions employee's wish to work in a particular organization. It is defined as the workers' behavior & the workers' own option to work outside the anticipations of an enterprise (Organ, 1997; Shahin, et al. 2014 and Williams & Anderson, 1991). It is one of the employee behaviors, that is, individual wish to perform & act out of the job description provided to employees to efficiently attain the company objectives (Organ, 1997). OCB is generally mentioned to perform extra ordinary (Van Dyne et al. 1994), pro-social behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997) & circumstantial employee performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).As per Beardwell, et al. (2004); Karagonlar et al., (2016); Low et al., (2016) and Sparrow and Cooper, (1998) Psychological contract generates firmness in the working environs & increase the connection among the enterprise & the workforces. Robinson & colleagues (Robinson, 1996., Robinson and Morrison, 1995) stated that many in-role and extra-role performances of the employees have been associated with the psychological contract and its fulfilment. These performances are such as faith, gratification and intention to continue with the firm.

If company maintains somewhat relaxed and open ended relationship as opposite confined relationship with employees then employees will be predictable to perform extra-ordinary performance (Organ 1990., Rousseau 1995). In this response, employers will can reciprocate as they are there at the employees' discretion and in total incline to upsurge the firm's efficacy and success (Rioux and Penner, 2001). Truly, citizenship behavior contributed by employees in their respective organizations can be vital to the efficient functioning of the firm (Organ, 1998., Podsakoff, Ahearne and Mckenzie, 1997). Robinsson and Morrison (1995) established a strong relationship amid psychological contract fulfilment & the civic virtue form of OCB, while, a negative influence has been observed between the psychological contract and OCB, when there is a breach in the contract (Turnley and Feldman, 1999). However, accomplishment or breach of contract might be significant precursors to workforces' performances. When employees consider that their employer is extremely indulged to deliver a comprehensive variety of obligations, they might be more motivated to involve in a broader variety of citizenship behavior that are beneficial for the organizations. Conversely, when employees consider that their organization is only interested to offer economic exchange then they might not consider to perform extraordinary for their respective organizations. According to Hui, et. al., (2004) relational contract greatly narrates to the citizenship behaviors and the transactional contracts affects the OCB only if mediated by contributory views. As per Kiazad et al., (2014b) and Panaccio et al. (2015) employees will exhibit long-term relationships with the company and exhibit extra performance if they consider that company is capable to ease their anticipations. Psychological contract affects an organization Citizenship Behavior (Chen and Kao 2012); Priesemuth and Taylor 2016). Moreover, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) also elucidated that OCB is affected by the relational contracts.

Psychological Contract and Turnover Intentions

Due to increase in the knowledge economy, it has become imperative for the organizations to gain competitive advantage in the form of having best talented people at all levels in the organization (Halawi, et al. 2005). Though, it has become painful situation for those companies which have the lack of talented people. Increased employee turnover do not include only financial losses but also decreases the image of the company, lower down the morale of organizational members. Therefore, it is not favorable to constant and vigorous growth of the organization.

There are some researchers who suppose that psychological contract has a straight influence on the turnover intentions (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), but these researchers had diverse opinions regarding the indirect impact of psychological contract on the turnover intentions of workforces in their respective organizations.

As per Rousseau, there are two parts of psychological contract named transactional contract and relational contract as discussed above. Transactional contract deals with the economic welfares, which include performance, based compensation, high returns, career development opportunities but on the other side relational contract deals with the mutual emotional exchange (Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

In case, there is a breach in the either part of the psychological contract that might lead towards the damage of financial assets & the emotional possessions of an enterprise. If a worker undergoes abundant damage of financial resources and emotional resource due to the break of psychological contract then employees will have the intent behavior to leave the company.

According to Turnley and Feldman (2000), there exists a strong relation amid violation of psychological contract & the worker's intentions to leave the organization. Moreover, Wei Feng (2004) also stated that the psychological contract violation straight impacts the exit of employees form their respective organization. It reflects that there exists a negative relationship between psychological contract and turnover intentions of the personnel at the workplace.

SUMMARY

Psychological contract is a personnel faith in joint responsibilities with their respective organizations. Now a days this contract is the key apprehension for managers, as it could affect workforces' approaches and their behaviors in a manner that effect firms' efficacy and success. In this chapter, author analyzed the association amid the psychological contract and different workplace approaches likewise job satisfaction, job performance, Organizational commitment, organizational Citizenship behavior and Turnover Intentions. Employees' expectations are changing day by day. They are not attracted merely by the traditional allurements i.e. economic employment contract. They have certain expectations from their employers and vice versa. So in this case, adopting psychological contract in organizations can do wonder. Most of the studies discussed in this chapter focuses that psychological contract improves the satisfaction, performance, commitment and organizational citizenship behavior of employees and reduces the turnover rate of the employees in their respective organizations. Therefore, it can be inferred employees' performance and their attitudes towards their work can be improved by adopting psychological contract along with the traditional economic allurements, which is generally the mutual but unwritten expectations from each other.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Job Performance: The work-related activities expected of an employee and how well those activities were executed.

Job Satisfaction: It refers to the attitude and feelings people have about their work.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: It is defined as the workers' behavior & the workers' own option to work outside the anticipations of an enterprise.

Organizational Commitment: It is the expressive attachment towards the organization.

Psychological Contract: It is an unrecorded contract that factually means a psychological contract between employer and employees without any formal letter contained anticipations.

Relational Psychological Contract: It covers both socio-emotional frankness structure.

Transactional Psychological Contract: It is apprehensive about the structure of short-term economic issues.

Turnover Intentions: It is the process through which staff leave a business or organization and that business or organization replaces them.

Chapter 13
Positive Organizational Behavior and Threats of New Work Forms

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ABSTRACT

Positive psychology emphasizes on what is right in the individuals instead of what is wrong and focuses on the ways with which a happy life can be lived. Positive organizational behavior, on the other hand, is the reflection of positive psychology in organizations and works on powers and mental capabilities of quantifiable, efficiently manageable, and improvable human resources. However, growing in parallel with the widespread expansion of neo-liberal understanding of economics, insecure jobs, chore works, intensely repressive and overwhelming management practices, and practices that have even led people to commit suicide as an escape option, discourage and impede the development of a positive organizational climate. In this study, striking examples of these hurtful practices were provided, and by emphasizing the characteristics only human beings can have, an attempt was made at drawing the attention to the fact that an organization can't be won—or rather, nothing can be gained in the medium and long term—without winning the people first.

INTRODUCTION

Today, the importance of human element for enterprises has gradually increased in an environment where changes that intensify the competition took place. These changes include processes like the increase in cultural norm diversity and downsizing of organizations, and increased layoffs related to this, along with the developments in communication and information technologies that came with the spread of globalization. The increased importance attributed to knowledge, the increase in the average age of employees, the rise of women workers in the workforce, and participation of people from different races to work-life also contributed to these changes. These changes all take place because richness in natural resources alone is not enough for the welfare of society, and as evident, the real wealth of a community is related to the accumulated experience and skills of its people and their management, rather than its natural resources (Deming, 2018).

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Humankind being seen by the management as assets of an enterprise is one of the obstacles that deprive people of the pride of working and is a source of occupational dissatisfaction (Deming, 2018). At an age where rapid access to capital, technology, and raw materials has been made very easy, and competition has become sharper than ever, human sources in the eyes of the enterprises has become an improvable and renewable strategical resource, instead of being seen as easily replaceable assets and subjects of cost that need to be controlled (Child and McGrath, 2001). Human beings have become more prominently crucial for the organizations, as they are capable of having the only reliable resource (Nonaka, 1999) in gaining an advantage over the competition: “knowledge” which is considered to be the single meaningful resource today (Drucker, 2012) and next to which all other production factors are considered secondary (Deming, 2018). Humans can also be trained and can gain experience, which they can also share and spread afterward.

Casting the human element prominent for the enterprises, knowledge has become one of the crucial components of the human capital which the workers individually have and use to perform the tasks given to them. As one of the most critical determinants of the intellectual capital on one level, the human capital consists of -in addition to knowledge- the skill and ability levels, educations and experiences, entrepreneurial spirits, and innovative and creative aspects of individuals (Guthrie, 2001; Hitt and Ireland, 2002). Under the overwhelming conditions of the competitive environment which gets more intense with each passing day, it is becoming gradually more difficult to achieve performance increases. The difficulties employees experience in adapting to rapidly changing environmental conditions, along with the rapid information flow and the evolution of specialization into a more flexible form, makes it harder for them to contribute to the establishment with their bodies and souls, and necessitates the development of new approaches in the field of organizational psychology to overcome these challenges.

According to numerous economists, the productivity of employees is also dependent on their positive psychologies, which influences the quality and quantity of their work and forms a part of their personality (Goldsmith, 2018). This view has made the image of human beings more prominent, and the movement of positive organizational behaviors emerged from the positive psychology field, which focuses on positive behaviors instead of negative ones. As a result of studies performed with regards to positive organizational behavior, the concept of positive psychological capital came to the forefront -even beyond the idea of social capital- in order to understand the real value of human beings for organizations and to make them realize their true potentials (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

This present study tries to explain the benefits of the two primary elements of positive organizational climate -namely the positive organizational behavior and positive psychology- for organizations and provides examples to negative behaviors that go against these benefits.

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AND POSITIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

The positive psychology movement emerged as a reaction to the traditional methodology of psychology, which was busy with the pathological and negative aspects of human functioning and behavior (Luthans, 2002). Positive psychology is the science of processes and conditions that contribute to the development or ideal operation of people, groups, and organizations (Gable and Haidt, 2005). The general purpose of positive psychology is to establish organized systems that realize human potential (Peterson and Spicer, 2005). Positive psychology was mentioned for the first time in Maslow’s book titled “Motivation and Personality” in the “Towards Positive Psychology” section. Maslow emphasized that psychology focuses solely on correcting negative events, and pointed out that psychology is busy with only half of the picture yet. In this regard, he pointed out that the science of psychology needed new basic concepts like sacrifice, love, optimism, courage, satisfaction, and realization of one's own potential (Wright, 2003).

This concept was first coined by Maslow and was later addressed and described extensively by psychologist Seligman. Seligman and his colleagues emphasized that healthy people need a positive psychology approach to be happier and more productive, and to realize their potentials (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007). The "positive psychology movement" has become an important step in this path by drawing the attention of psychologists to the things that make people happy instead of their problems, and the psychologists began to gravitate towards the way of thinking in terms of positive thoughts, indulgence, and joy. It is important to note, however, that this approach does not try to deny the negative aspects of life or to look at events with rose-tinted glasses. In reality, the positive psychology aims to deal with the other side of the medallion -which is the positive side of the human behavior- and to point out the fact that the positives have to be investigated as much as the negatives (Gable and Haidt, 2005). In fact, the positive behaviors need to be supported in addition to the solution of negative aspects, and the combination of the two has become the subject of "Positive Psychology Science" that tries to provide a scientific perspective to personal development techniques.

Positive psychology aims to increase human experience and create a common language for these experiences (Linley, Joseph, Harrington, and Wood, 2006). This approach, which researches "human functioning" scientifically, tries to correct imbalances by integrating positivity into the process. Positive psychology is a study of positive personal experiences (happiness, sense of wellness, satisfaction, hope, optimism, and positive emotions), positive personal traits (abilities, interests, creativity, wisdom, values, energetic aspects of character, meaning, purpose, growth and courage), positive attitudes (positive families, schools, businesses, communities, and societies) (Seligman and Csikzentmihalyi, 2014).

Originating from the positive psychology with this context, the concept of positive organizational psychology approach which considers the organizations with this perspective was developed. At the final years of the 20th century, the studies performed in the field of positive psychology has lead people to think of how Fred Luthans' positive perspective could be adapted to the organizational behavior. With a micro-scale positive approach, Luthans pointed out that the strong sides and psychological capacities of employees working in organizations were not static, but instead they could be improved. Positive psychology, which is used in the practice of "management by focusing on strong and positive aspects" in workplaces, has brought with it the approach called "positive organizational behavior" which aims to improve performance in the workplace by measuring, developing and managing the positive power and psychological capital of employees, (Lutherans, 2002a; Lutherans 2002b). Positive organizational behavior focuses on the studies that are directed towards revealing the strong aspects of the employees instead of focusing on their weak points, and it uses situation-based variables -like the practices in the workplace- and a proactive management to work on the psychological values that can be developed, quantified, and utilized for performance improvement (Luthans and Youssef, 2004). Positive organizational psychology can be seen in this context as positive personal experience in organizations, and positive personal properties and scientific work related to positive institutions (Donaldson and Ko, 2010).

Positive organizational behavior is the evaluation and practice of positive properties and psychological capacities that can be quantified, improved, and efficiently managed in today's organizations to obtain performance improvements. Therefore, psychological power or capacity should be quantifiable and open to developments and research. Positive organizational behavior represents a paradigm shift that has the potential to transform organizational behavior and human sources research and practices (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). In addition to the hiring of employees with characteristics that are required by the positive organizational behavior, positive organizational behavior also works on the performance improvement and development aspects of existing employees (Luthans, 2002b).

Positive organizational behavior has five main characteristics (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

Positive Organizational Behavior Works on the Positives: Organizations need a more balanced approach that considers the positive concepts besides the negative ones (like inefficient leadership, unethical behaviors, stress, and conflict) (Luthans and Youssef, 2007). In this context, positivity and negativity do not represent opposite phenomena in a single plane. On the contrary, positive and negative are structures that have their own planes, dimensions, and results that are different from one another. Reducing the job dissatisfaction, for example, does not mean increasing the job satisfaction (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

Positive Organizational Behavior is Based on Theory and Research: Positive organizational behavior uses positive psychology to represent a scientific approach that ensures sustainable know-how is obtained for leadership, human resources development, and performance. Whereas other positive strategies, no matter how supportive they are of positivity, are based on a limited set of theories and research. While they have some defining properties, they fall short in scientifically providing meaningful and sustainable know-how for the causes of events.

Positive Organizational Behavior is Related to Quantifiable Concepts: Use of reliable and relevant tools to quantify the organizational structures is what makes positive organizational behavior scientific. This way it becomes possible to systematically analyze, estimate, and control the obtained data. For a given component to be included in the positive organizational behavior it needs to have accurate measurements. With this property, positive organizational behavior leaves unquantifiable concepts out of its research scope.

Positive Organizational Behavior is Open to Changes and Developments: While it is crucial to hire the right people to employ them in the correct position from the perspective of human resources management, this approach alone is insufficient in today's business life. Under uncertain environmental conditions, human potential needs to be much more flexible than it is estimated currently, and thus employees need the improvable qualities suggested by the positive organizational behavior besides the normal development of know-how and skills (Luthans and Youssef, 2007).

Positive Organizational Behavior is Related to the Performance: Positive organizational behavior primarily is concerned with the personal psychological qualities and the effects of these qualities over the performance development. Positive organizational behavior uses the scientific method (micro-scale, experiment-based field research methods) and the relationship between its components with the performance has been proved with various research (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

Positive organizational behavior gained importance and adopted a stance open to improvement as the need for a more positive perspective on events and processes in organizational behavior became necessary, and it also brought with it the question "what are the elements that the positive organizational behavior will quantify?" At this stage, the concept that emerges from positive organizational behavior and could best match its properties was claimed to be the notion of "positive psychological capital" (Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio, 2007).

THE CONCEPT OF POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND ITS COMPONENTS

Defined as the positive psychological development status of the individual, psychological capital deals with "who the individual is" and "who the individual can be" in a developmental sense (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007). This type of capital has emerged in addition to other types of capitals (economic, human, and social capitals) that provide a competitive advantage for organizations (Luthans, Luthans, and Luthans).

Over time it was understood that company value couldn't be expressed just in terms of financial and physical capitals and the value the human presence added to the companies was accepted. With this development, the human capital the employees provided and the social capital that represents their relationships also took their places amongst the factors that provide a competitive advantage to the enterprises. In recent years, psychological capital has also been added amongst the factors that add competitive advantage. Beyond the social and human capitals, psychological capital is related to "how the employees perceive and define themselves," rather than who or what they know. Similarly, going further than the human and social capital concepts, the psychological capital provides a conceptional framework with which the human value can better be understood and utilized. The synergistic integration of these types of capitals in organizations holds a vital role in realizing human potential (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

While positive psychological capital is composed of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience, the concept means more than the sum of these components that make it up. Self-efficacy means one's confidence in self in fulfilling challenging tasks (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998); hope means patience on the road to achievement and to re-evaluate the options when necessary (Snyder, 2002); optimism represents the positive thoughts towards one's success in the present and future (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007); while resilience is defined as enduring and being able to recover from problems and difficulties (Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008; Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007).

Positive psychological capital is a notion that emerged as a branch of positive organizational behavior and met its requirements the best. Based on this point, this concept means that positive organizational behavior will be the subject of research and will be practiced more concretely. The basic principle behind the composition of the idea with notions like self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience is that all of these notions contribute to the tendency to the motivation in succeeding in tasks and objectives (Avey, Luthans, and Mhatre, 2008). Research performed in the field of organizational behavior have revealed that psychological capital has a negative relationship with employee absenteeism, employee deviant behavior, intention to quit the job, stress, and rude behavior, while it had a positive relationship with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, positive emotions, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, employee performance, and authentic leadership (Erkmen and Esen, 2012). After providing a general definition for the positive psychological capital, we believe it will be beneficial to investigate the sub-factors that make it up.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a term based on the "social-cognitive learning theory" of A. Bandura, who worked on the ideas of individuals on their own sufficiencies and how they were reflected on their behaviors. Bandura has included the self-efficacy amongst the motivating elements (expected result and the value attributed to this result) that are needed by an individual to complete a task. Self-efficacy is one's trust in the probability that he/she can manage future tasks successfully and reach a result (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). Self-efficacy is also defined as the trust a person has in him/herself that he/she has the skills needed for being able to organize the behaviors needed to reach the goals and to fulfill tasks, along with opinions on self (Bandura 1986; Wood and Bandura, 1989). From this perspective, the motivation needed for successful completion of tasks can also be expressed as the self-belief of a person to activate his/her cognitive processes and actions. The employees in organizations who see themselves as self-sufficient can achieve and deliver successful outputs with sufficient effort. On the other hand, employees with low self-efficacy tend to give up quickly (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998).

Five key features are observed in individuals with strong self-efficacy (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007):

- They set high and challenging targets for themselves.
- They are patient when facing difficulties and are willing to volunteer for hard work.
- They can motivate themselves.
- They make the necessary effort to achieve their goals.
- They are resilient when facing challenges.

Hope

Hope was defined as one of the core emotions of human nature until the second half of the twentieth century (Averill, 1990). With later studies, the concept of hope was stripped of a one-dimensional understanding of it and was evaluated as a concept that has cognitive and emotional dimensions (Akçay, 2011). Hope is defined as the means of finding different ways to reach the desired goals and to motivate self to utilize these means. Hope is a cognitive activity that involves defining tangible objectives, finding alternative paths to the realization of these, and using willpower to realize these defined objectives (Snyder, 2002).

Objectives can be evaluated in three categories for a given person. The first is that an objective has to take place in the human mind concretely or abstractly. The second is that depending on the time scale it may change in short or long-term. And finally, as third, an objective may be classified as valuable and worthless. Finding alternative ways for realization of objectives is about the concept of time and the process flows through the time. The individual takes on a path between past, present, and future in this context. He or she tries to find alternative ways for the realization of the objectives by imagining them. As one gets closer to the objective, these ways become more clear and apparent. People with high hopes will be able to find their path to the realization of objectives faster and more decisively, compared to people with low hopes (Kutanis and Oruç, 2014). Individuals who use willpower to reach objectives are in an "I can do this" state of mind with a mental impetus in their paths. At this point, the use of willpower grants the required motivation to people in their search for the best alternative way. According to the hope theory, when people can't see a way and find themselves in a bind, they can be defined not only as "people who failed to reach their objectives," but also as "the people who are in the first step of learned helplessness." Therefore, in the process of reaching objectives, hope leads people to alternative ways instead of learned hopelessness (Luthans, 2007). Various studies have determined the positive effects of hope levels of the managers and workers with their performances, job satisfaction, happiness, and organizational commitment (Youssef, 2004; Luthans, 2007).

Optimism

The concept of optimism is often used in everyday life, just like the concept of hope. That being said, optimism within the scope of positive psychological capital is not only a prediction or an opinion that good things will happen in the future, but optimism also bases the experienced events on various reasons. Seligman defines optimism as "a style of explaining positive events in personal, permanent, and generalized causes while explaining negative events with temporary and situational factors" (Seligman, 2006). Accordingly, whether a person is defenseless against hopelessness is based upon the "explanation style" that shows what that person attributes the emergent result. Humans are therefore classified either as optimistic or pessimistic based on what they attribute the causes of their behaviors to, and how they explain them. In other terms, optimism is a notion that reflects the positive expectations of people for their futures. Optimistic people expect to face good things, while pessimistic people expect to face bad things (Carver, Schier, and Segerstrom, 2010). In the perspective of positive psychological capital, optimism is not solely about predicting that good things will happen in the future. Optimism is a notion used by an individual to explain why positive or negative events take place (Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio, 2007).

Optimistic people see the sources of the positive events they experience in their own powers and will, and believe that these sources will persist in the future. Consider, for example, optimistic workers that receive positive feedback from their managers. Such workers may believe that this positive experience was caused by their own business ethics and may generalize this idea and work hard, thinking that they will succeed not only in this instance but in all tasks in the future as well (Akçay, 2011; Kutanis and Oruç, 2014).

Psychological Resilience

Resilience in the general sense is the ability to successfully recover despite being subject to severe risks (Benard, 1993). When a person is exposed to these risks, he or she displays a positive adaptation to the events. The risk factors mentioned here are the factors that cause an undesired outcome (Marsten and red, 2002). These factors, in general, include painful and negative experiences like violence, being subject to trauma, and alcohol and substance addictions (Punamaki, Qouta and El-Sarraj, 2001). In organizations, on the other hand, these can be specified as factors like stress, exhaustion syndrome, and unemployment.

In the field of organization, resilience refers to the capacity of the person to cope with the situation by recovering him/herself in the face of a development that may have occurred as a result of negativity, conflict, and failure, or after the increased sense of responsibility in the positive sense. As can be understood from this perspective, resilience is defined as the ability to cope with not only negative experiences but with positive ones as well (Kutanis and Oruç, 2014).

THE IMPACT OF POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL ON PROVIDING COMPETITIVE EDGE

Based on the view that grounds the competitive edge on a company's resources, three primary sources provide a competitive advantage to the enterprises, and these are the physical resources, organizational resources, and human capital resources. Physical resources include the facilities and equipment of the enterprise, its geographical location, and distance to raw materials, organizational resources include the reporting, planning, control, and adaptation systems of the enterprise along with internal and external informal relationships, while human capital resource consists of training, experience, judgment, intellect, relationships, and grasp. While all of these notions are important in terms of gaining a competitive edge, not all of them can provide a sustainable competitive advantage. To have this property, a resource needs to be valuable for all customers, competitors, and the whole sector, while being easy to replace, rare, and difficult and expensive to imitate for the competitors (Barney, 1991).

The physical assets enterprises have like computers, robots, and other machines, while complex in nature, are not difficult to imitate. This is due to the fact that competing companies may just purchase the physical resources they desire, dismantle them, and thus can copy the production technology they investigate. Obtaining patents to prevent copying of physical assets, on the other hand, fail to provide the required level of protection, except for certain sectors like pharmaceutical and chemical industries (Barney, 1995). It has also become quite easy and cheaper to access IT technologies, which was the prominent competitive edge in the recent past, so much so that in recent times, all companies in competition are operating with the same level of technological capacity. Using the reverse engineering processes it has become possible to produce a similar version of a product manufactured with cutting-edge technology within months, even within weeks, and drive it to market with even lower prices than the original (Luthans and Youssef, 2004).

As a result of the decrease in the effectiveness of the strategies developed to form an entry barrier with traditional sources like financial, structural and physical capitals, advanced technology, and information, the non-monetary elements such as social capital, human capital, and in recent years, positive psychological capital that make it difficult to emulate the human resources by competitors have risen amongst the factors that provide a competitive edge. Non-monetary capital types provide a relatively more significant competitive advantage compared to traditional capital types. Human resources, thanks to the elements like human capital, social capital and positive psychological capitals, are more capable in making the organization more challenging to imitate compared to the traditional physical, structural and financial resources (Akçay, 2011).

Features that make human resources valuable and rare can generate above-average success for an enterprise in the short term. If competitors could imitate these characteristics, however, these qualities wouldn't be able to go beyond just providing competitive equality. Human Resources has to develop features that are difficult to imitate. The human capital of employees is a storage depot of knowledge and talent for the enterprises, and the social capital, in turn, is the crucial element that provides access to critical resources for the company. Therefore in today's economy -which is based on knowledge- both the human capital and social capital represent knowledge-based capital types that contribute significantly to attaining a competitive edge for businesses of all kinds, from established manufacturing companies to internet-based retail companies (Hitt & Ireland, 2002). Positive psychological capital, however, is a more fundamental structure beyond the social and human capitals and is related to how employees are perceiving and defining themselves. Due to this fact, the positive psychological capital needs to be effectively managed along with other capital types, to be able to make use of the properties of human resources that provide the competitive edge to the enterprise. The significance of the human capital is based upon the fact that it covers almost all the implicit know-how (Hitt and Ireland, 2002) in an organization, which is a type of knowledge that is particularly difficult to transfer to others, and is unique and implicit in nature (Nonaka, 1994; Sover, 2004; Mowery, 1996).

Implicit knowledge is valuable because it is a concept that is capable of providing a competitive edge, and before it disappears due to events like downsizing, restructuring, layoffs, and company mergers, it should be transformed into disclosed information and introduced to the company assets. To effectively manage social capital, communication channels within the enterprise need to be established to form working groups, and programs need to be developed to achieve a balance of work and life (Luthans and Youssef, 2004).

DIFFERENT FORMS OF EMPLOYMENT

The fact that the laborers started to organize in the 20th century and the fact that this development was gaining speed and becoming widespread at the same time had led to the rise of trade unions all around the world, which have now become a force that protects the labor against the capital. Thanks to this empowerment, the rights of the laborers have been secured, even if slightly so. The right to strike has improved the power of labor significantly. The working class has risen, especially in the western world. The cold war also contributed to this rise. As the western world feared that Soviet-style socialism could spread amongst the populations, they began to accept more and more conditions driven forth by the worker unions. The implementation of the minimum wage practice spread throughout the world was a result of these fears.

After the end of the Cold War, the world adopted the capitalist economic model with some differences as the globalization gained speed. No country that calls themselves socialist today is outside the influence of capitalist form brought in by the global system. After the collapse of Soviet-type socialism and with the spread globalization, capital owners in the western world slowly saw that the risks were fading, and gradually revoked the rights that the working class had obtained. Thus, the rise of the working class and the tendency to protect labor slowed down right before the 1980s, then came to a halt, and then began to decline. Today’s labor unions are not as powerful as the 1960s and 1970s unions. Layoffs under the pretext of “flexible labor market,” and unregistered employment, are becoming ever the more widespread and trade unions are powerless to resist these developments. The workers can thus be dismissed much more easily than they could be 15 or 20 years ago. There are almost no more strikes, and the workers are unable to defend their social rights as loud as they could in the past. In the last quarter of the 20th century, the approaches that were created as a result of the neoliberal approach -which almost coincided with the spread of globalization- the unions lost their old powers of negotiation and their ability to protect workers, which in turn created a class of workers with less security than before (Eğilmez 2018).

Pointing out that the capitalism is entering a new historic stage, the notion of “new capitalism” is basically representing the transformation that occurs in the industrial production processes that manifested on the savings and organization types of the capitals. The technological advances in communication and transportation in the period of the last 30 years enabled the capital to obtain more flexible and globalized organization opportunities. The need of the capitals to have flexible accumulation and organization capacities were met by transitioning into the post-Fordist production levels, which was a target achieved by evaporating the rigidness of the Fordist production methods and turning the production lines into easily-programmable production units that were sensitive to the changes in the market (product flexibility) and to differentiations in the technological inputs (process flexibility) (Castells, 2005; Harvey, 1999). That being said, “information, communication, and information” have become more influential and prominent for the production processes (Hardt, 1999).

Amongst the most relevant results of the aforementioned changes are: the gravitation of the production towards sub-contractors through extra-national cooperations, decentralization and "vagrancy" of the capital, and the fact that the production was separated into smaller establishments and became localized, while the companies were becoming centralized and changing into multinational forms (Dirlik, 2008). Non-standard business activities that have affected all sections of the labor regardless of their categories and skill sets which had to earn their living with fees or wages are defined with properties like causing erosion in occupational safety, spreading work irregularity and instability, worsening the working conditions, and encouraging informal labor (Emirgil, 2010).

In the neoliberal system, which is also being called the new capitalism, the qualities expected in white-collar employees can be cited as the following: flexibility, being ready to changes, serial movement capability, spending less time on routine works, loose connection to following the regulations and formal procedures, ability to take risks, and the ability to cope with uncertainties (Sennett, 2005; 2006). As typical properties of the white collars, on the other hand, are employment in mostly temporary jobs, exposure to long work hours, erosion or collapse of the limits between work and daily life, low wages, high job replacements, informal work environments, and job insecurities are being experienced intensely, along with their worries about finding employment at the first place (Gill and Prat, 2008).

The impact of the demand for labor with these criteria on the workers occurs as weakening of people's professional identities, and the relationships between workers are becoming more confrontational and brittle (Sennett, 2005; Carls, 2007). The feelings of transience and instability created by non-standard flexible contractual forms in these working environments on the individuals necessitate a focus solely on short term plans for them. Weak friendships among workers observed in flexible workplace organizations that are based on horizontally structured, narrow time spans, which gradually invalidates the claim that working is "a tool for self-actualization for individuals and a center for social cohesion" (Meda, 2005), and the superficial socialization opportunities weaken the social cohesion lead to individuals losing control over their own lives (Sennett, 20059). The qualities of a good job and the qualities of a good character are no longer overlapping with the new working relationships that erode trust, loyalty and mutual dependence (Emirgil, 2010).

New Business Culture

Starting in the 1980s, a new phase began where labor became increasingly vulnerable to capital, and market relations penetrated all areas of social life through the undermining of the gains of the post-war welfare states. When talking about all areas of life being subject to the market, it is necessary to remember Karl Polanyi's warning half a century ago against the tendency to "compromise" that existed in the nature of the capitalist market. Polanyi says "production is the mutual interaction between human and nature." "If this process is left solely to the exchange mechanism that regulates itself, human and nature will have to fall into the orbit of the market; which means they would be subject to supply and demand, and in a materialistic sense, they would be treated as commodities for sale. Even if the production could be organized in this manner in theory, leaving the fate of the earth and the humankind to the market is the same thing as compromising them" (Polanyi, 1957). Today we are experiencing a period in which these compromises have further expanded and deepened. Mentioning the "suicide rates in companies" has become as simple as mentioning "profit rates of companies." The annual suicide rate at France Télécom company, for instance, was determined as 15.3 per 102,000 employees and is considered to have partially raised the overall suicide rate of France itself, which is on average 14.7 per 100,000. The national suicide rate is the highest in South Korea with 31,7 and in China with 22,3 per 100,000 people[1] (Vatansever, 2014).

Job-related suicides today mostly occur amongst educated, middle-class, white-collar workers. Some of the workers of companies that became the topic of discussion for white-collar deaths have cited the working conditions as suicide reasons in the suicide notes they left behind (Denning, 2011). In a world which seems to be full of endless possibilities and always celebrates change, the questioning of the reasons that kept these people stuck in the tortures of a certain position in their companies and drove them to hang themselves in the company toilets or to throw themselves off of company windows, or to burn[2] themselves in the parking lots instead of "using their free will" to try and change their jobs or sectors, is essential.

The truth is, despite all the polished rhetorics of the virtues of creativity, flexibility, change, and taking risks, in reality, these can't go beyond a cleverly designed marketing catch-phrase in the current system. Today, the real choices the majorities are forced to face are either to become unemployed and getting pushed out of the system or to keep working despite knowing it's meaningless and pointless (Vatansever, 2014).

In a climate where flexible working conditions are presented as boons, where the teamwork -which is actually a way to make the workers compete against each other while binding them to the company- is offered as a blessing, and where working becomes increasingly pointless, the workers find themselves in a constant effort of acrobatics and juggling (Sennett, 2005). Business relationships turn into a "hand-in-hand" game, where everyone's primary goal is to avoid long-term responsibilities, from the bottom to the very top of organizations[3].

HURTFUL PRACTICES

Those Who Work in Mining Jobs for Information and Communication Technologies

The majority of some of the most important minerals used in the products of Information and Communication Technology products are being mined in African countries. While the minerals required by the technologies mentioned above are primarily being mined in African countries and in China, the melting, processing, and enriching of these minerals are being performed in Asian countries like Thailand, Malaysia, China, and Indonesia, which provide their products to the electronics market (Pöyhönen and Simola, 2007).

The Democratic Republic of Congo is a perfect example of this issue. In this country, the mining related to Information and Communication technologies covers the tin veins, cassiterite, tantalum, wolframite, and gold (Pöyhönen, Bjurling, and Cuvelier, 2010). These minerals are used as raw materials in mobile phone, laptop, light bulb, and automobile production (Leslie, Sarich, and Strauss, 2011). The Katanga region has rich copper, cobalt, zinc, and lead reserves. In some cases, copper corresponds to approximately 25 percent of the materials used in the battery of a cell phone. In the privatized commercial activities of the Eastern Democratic Republic of Kongo -which is under war economy conditions- manual mining methods are being employed: tools used for mining are usually not the machines. Instead, miners are using their hands, sticks, steel rods, buckets, and ropes (Fuchs, 2014).

In an empirical study (Leslie, Sarich, and Strauss, 2011) which focused on interviews made both with the mines in Bisie and Omate and in Walikale and Masisi (a total of 742 interviews), the slavery was shown to be quite prominent in the mining industry, whether in terms of how the raw materials are being excavated, sorted, transported, and sold, or in the services at bars or by housemaids provided to miners as part of a sex industry (Fuchs, 2014). Several forms of modern slavery were identified in the mining regions of the "Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo." These include being forced to work by armed groups, debt slavery, sexual slavery, forced marriages, child labor by armed groups, and other forms of child slavery (Fuchs, 2014). Forty percent of the participants from the Bisie mines (Leslie, Sarich, and Strauss, 2011) where 80 percent of the tin/cassiterite minerals of the country are mined from (Eichstaedt, 2011) are working in slavery conditions.

Researchers have documented that soldiers who are members of the Democratic Republic of Congo Armed Forces (FARDC) are forcing villagers to work without pay under the threat that they would be killed if they tried to run away, proving the forced labor in the region (Rosalind, 2002). Furthermore, they documented a system called "salongo," where miners are forced to work one day a week for the FARDC authorities (Leslie, Sarich, and Strauss, 2011). There are almost no unions, and the few that exist are weak, and working conditions that are against hygiene and health norms are everywhere. There is also a shortage of medical supplies and services, and as a result, workers are always getting sick (Fuchs, 2014).

Workers Who Escape to Suicide

The Foxconn company operating in China is the largest production and assembly company in the world which operates in information technologies and communication sectors. Mainly known for the devices it produces for Apple, the company is also known for the suicides of its employees. 17 Foxconn workers attempted suicide between January - August 2010 (Fuchs, 2014). The majority of the workers employed in the company are working on "semi-qualified, unsustainable and irregular assembly jobs" (Hong, 2011). Most of these workers are young and are women who are also rural migrants. In general, the company has a reputation for low wages, low social security, and low quality, repetitive, labor-intensive work. Worker health hazards and long working hours are also commonplace (Fuchs 2014). Both the workplaces and housing areas of the employees are managed with strict discipline. Harsh management methods have been documented by SACOM (SACOM Report, 2010). Amongst these are the lack of breaks and restrictions to workers' movements, communications, and stretching of their bodies. The workers are also forced to stand during the production, in addition to frequent penalties, beatings, and harassment (Fuchs, 2014).

Indian Software Industry

India is an unnamed software industry center for most countries today. In 2012, it took 58% of all information technology and business processes (call centers, customer services, human resources, finance, accounting) obtained through outsourcing, demonstrating the importance of the Indian software industry in the international business segment (Fuchs, 2014). India's development in the software sector is integrated to the uneven development of Indian capitalism, which creates winners and losers and provides development of some cities, regions, and groups at the expense of the rest of the country (D'Costa, 2002). In addition to the critical problems in the lack of education of adults and income inequality, multidimensional and severe poverty is also being fought against in the country.

Body shopping and virtual migration are the strategies employed to organize the labor in a manner with which it can be exploited, individualized, spread, separated, made insecure, and un-unionized, so that it the labor could be made cheaper in order to reduce the labor fee costs and maximize the profits (Fuchs, 2014). In Body Shopping, the owner of the capital exports the workers as commodities to wherever he/she wants to. Workers are forced to go wherever the capital owner wants them to, due to the contracts that limit their freedom of movement. Virtual migration, on the other hand, refers to companies with location flexibility expanding their operations to India. In this method, the Indian workers do not physically migrate to a host country, but stay in India and perform their duties for the Western companies. Both strategies reduce their costs by paying their workers' wages that are lower than the workers employed under normal conditions. That would mean that being an Indian worker is the same as being exploited to a great extent. The basis these are dependent upon are turning into insecure employment strategy at a higher level (Kalaycı, Oğuz, and Akıncı, 2014).

The transience of labor refers to the labor taking an "unorganized form, and in general, differentiating from the classical full-time working methods that are under the conditions of protection provided by work regulations and permanent job contracts (Riethof, 2005; Huws, 2011). The transience of labor also includes the lack of registrations in work (lack of proper safety and collective negotiation rights) and flexibility (flexibility of the work: utilization of outsourcing-subcontractors, variable working hours and fees; flexibility of labor market: worker movement). Neo-liberalism has caused an advance at the transience of the labor (Saad-Filho and Deborah, 2005). In the software industry in India, transience refers to the flexibility of working hours and the need for workers to be locationally mobile. Employees must work at any time requested by the employer, be ready to perform various tasks at any time, and be able to switch between these tasks, and they have to work for long hours. Western capital investments have developed the lives of Indian software engineers in an economic sense; however, these economic benefits have brought with them more work, increased stress, forced flexibility and drifting, disruption of business life and the work-family balance, health hazards, and insecure employment (Fuchs, 2014).

Silicon Valley

Silicon Valley is the name of the region located in Santa Clara Valley south of San Francisco. Although prestigious large companies are located here and seem to have relatively good working conditions, labor is associated with an increase in non-standard employment (temporary work, part-time work, subcontracting, contract work) in Silicon Valley as well, and suffers from the rapid of replacement of high-level personnel and the devaluation of high-level qualifications (Benner, 2008). Professionals -executives at one end and assembly workers on the other- have a high degree of wage inequality (Carnoy, Castells and Benner 1997). While the majority of authorities, managers, and professionals are white collars, Hispanic and Asian workers make up the majority of semi-skilled and unskilled manufacturing and service workers in the Silicon Valley (Benner, 2002; Pellow and park, 2002).

In Silicon Valley, migrant women represent the majority of the employees in the low-wage areas that are exposed to toxic substances. Substances that are regularly released to the working environment and inhaled by workers include arsenic, asbestos, chlorine gas, cyanide, freon, glycol ether, hydrochloric acid, isopropyl, alcohol, lead, nitric acid, silica, sulfide, solute, sulphate, toluene, trichloroethylene (TCE), ultraviolet ink, and xylene. These create health problems in the reproductive systems of female workers in particular. Amongst the effects are "congenital disability, infertility, irregular menstrual periods, toxic mother's milk, breast cancer, respiratory system and larynx cancer, bronchitis, asthma, allergies, and an increased ratio of babies with heart and nervous track defects, (Pellow and Park, 2002). The racist and patriarchal distribution of work in Silicon Valley also resulted in the creation of isolated settlements and schools. Toxic heavy metals (cadmium, cyanide, lead, nickel) formed during the production processes have mainly contaminated the water, air, and soil in the areas where the migrants live, meaning that they are being exposed to these toxic substances twice: once at work and once at home. Therefore, Silicon Valley manufacturing and assembly industry have hazardous low-wage jobs that are being exploited to a great extent. (Fuchs, 2014).

Call Center Employees

Call centers usually focus on customer relationships, which can be in the form of company-to-company or company-to-customer. The technologies required for the operation of a call center include a telephone line and a networked computer: The phone line enables customers to talk, while the computers allow the employees to access the database that stores information about the customers, and to the data obtained from the telephone calls (Fuchs, 2014). Most of the time, employee tracking software are also used.

Tosca, an EU project, researched Call Centers in Europe. In this study, it was found that the jobs at the call centers were quite repetitive, and were being monitored heavily and thus extremely stressful (Fuchs, 2014). Excessive stress and adverse effects on health are driving 25% of employees to be absent from work. As a result of the fact that the majority of the employees are women and have low educational levels, and employees are forced to adhere to flexible working hours, call centers can operate 24 hours a day. These working conditions lead to a labor circulation of the rate of 40%. Besides, the presence of unions for call centers jobs is quite low.

The call center business tends to be repetitive, standardized, stressful and strictly monitored, and often features flexible work and shift hours that pose a problem for the work-life and work-family balance. The impact of the decision making involved with the work and the overall work quality tends to be low, and the majority of call center workers are women. Many call center employees are generally forced to manage the challenging intermediary units between the company and the customers (Fuchs, 2014). "Lack of work continuity, lowest possible fee rates, longest possible working hours, monotonous work, lack of unionism and lack of opportunity to gain higher qualifications or promotions, lack of side-benefits and lack of social security" characterize the transformation of the labor into housework (Mies, Thomsen and Werlhof, 1986). The labor at a call center can also be evaluated in this context, and thus they can be addressed as labor that has turned into housework. The call center business is highly monitored and standardized work; it is a kind of Tayloristic white collar business where the boundaries between the white collar business and the blue-collar business are blurred (hence it can be called a grey-collar business, because grey is a blend of blue and white) (Fuchs, 2014 and Mies, 1986). Monitoring and standardization of work, and along with these, making the work insecure will place the workers under the stress of survival. This approach is a relative added value method: it means controlling and keeping the workers under constant pressure to force their minds and bodies to work more intensely (in other words, making them attend to more customers in a shorter amount of time, and increase productivity in turn). Call center work is characterized by both formal and real oppression of labor under the capital: both absolute added-value generation (reduction of wage costs) and relative-value generation (standardization, monitoring, gray-collar Taylorism) methods are used to improve the capital accumulation (Kalaycı, Oğuz, and Akıncı, 2014).

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Organizations today need productive people more than ever, who have high levels of energy, are faithful and focused on their jobs, and have a sense of responsibility towards their duties and institutions. Employees who have internalized these features are essential wealth for organizations. Positive attitude and optimistic and hopeful employees contribute significantly to achieving this wealth. As the level of optimism of employees increases, they show less cynical behavior, and as their hopes increase, they tend to suffer less from burnouts, and they can be protected from the destructive effects of stress.

That being said, even if employees are optimistic and hopeful, the situational variables in the environment and within the organization that they work may prevent this potential from being realized. Some hurtful practices detailed in the present study were shown to have negative and blunting effects on positive organizational climate and positive organizational behavior, especially with the expansion of the neoliberal economy.

Is important for the organizations to serve the aim of succeeding and winning together by keeping in mind that properties like emotion, thought, sense, and sensitivity are exclusive to human beings for now and can't be imitated. Trying to raise the sense of belonging and passion for work -as happy workers- by developing a positive organizational climate and fighting against practices that may hinder its development is the best way to ensure this objective is reached.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study aims to highlight the contribution of positive organizational climate and positive organizational behavior -that is, the contributions these would make with regards to making people's lives more meaningful and productive. The study also aims to draw the attention to the emergent issues that unfortunately have reached to a level that breaks the hopes for the implementation of these practices, which can offer significant opportunities for organizations and people if realized. While the hurtful practices mentioned here may look like they are providing certain short-term benefits for the organizations, they have been proven by many historical examples to be impossible to sustain in the long term. We believe this study will contribute to the literature by drawing attention to the fact that organizations will not be able to gain anything in the medium and long terms without winning their people first. That being said, we still believe further studies that focus on the preventive and exemplary initiatives that could stop these hurtful practices would be valuable for the literature.

CONCLUSION

A positive approach is needed in order to ensure a sustainable competitive edge for organizations and to improve the performances and potential capabilities of employees under changing environmental conditions. Organizations often focus on correcting the existing problems of employees and improving their weak aspects, often neglecting their strengths and potentials. In the field of organizational behavior, it is emphasized that the positive direction is neglected while trying to deal with these negative situations, but in reality, a more balanced approach that takes these aspects into account is needed.

The positive organizational behavior approach has emerged as a result of studies based on the science of psychology to improve the potentials of individuals, and it investigates micro and macro scale individual structures that are quantifiable, improvable, and open to investigation. Positive psychological capital is the most precise application of positive organizational behavior with proven impact on performance that can meet the characteristics of positive organizational behavior the best. The results of the studies show that positive psychological capital and its components are related to subjects like performance, employee satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and that it has a positive influence over these concepts. In this regard, positive organizational behavior is evaluated as the reflection of the psychological capacity of the workforce to the organizational environment. In fact, positive psychology is intended to focus on the development of positive organizational environments where trust, acumen, compassion, and a high degree of energy predominates instead of the overly competitive and profit-oriented approaches of today's organizations.

The contribution of positive psychological capital to the organization with regards to the internalization of the implicit knowledge and developing the social networks of the company is undeniable, both of which are essential for a sustainable competitive edge. Positive psychological capital needs to be developed because of its critical importance for enterprises in providing a sustainable competitive advantage. This means developing the components of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and flexibility.

The self-efficacy of employees can be improved through self-efficacy sources and factors that affect self-efficacy. For example, a complex task can be achieved by splitting it into its subcomponents, which are made smaller and more comfortable to achieve, so that employees can experience success with the small parts of the task and gradually integrate these small accomplishments into the overall task, imparting them the property of self-efficacy. Besides, more suitable and psychologically supportive environments could be created through certain practices like positive feedback of managers and employee support programs, through which applications that will contribute to the self-efficacy development can be developed. Determining organizational targets in a participatory environment and with rational reasoning, reaching the defined targets step by step, ensuring workers can participate in the business environment, rewarding employees with appropriate awards help to develop a self-efficacy environment. The support of management to the material assets owned by the enterprise, accurately determining the potential capabilities and strengths of the employees, and assigning the employees to appropriate positions are necessary to improve the hope levels of the employees. In order to improve employee optimism, past failures need to be evaluated realistically; in other words, they should be considered terms of their controllable and non-controllable dimensions. In this way, optimism levels can be increased by ensuring that employees are focused on positive events instead of being stuck on negative events, without denying their responsibility for past failures. Similarly, flexibility capacities of the employees can be improved by reducing the risk factors that employees may potentially face. For example, training and development programs, rotation practices, participatory management style, and open communication practices, along with practices that aim to minimize the health problems and psychological risks of employees like stress, contribute positively to the development of flexibility capacity of employees.

However, in recent years, excessive competition in business life has damaged the positive organizational climate and makes employees within the organization more negative. Low wages and fatigue duties, management practices that can even drive employees to suicide, long work hours and unhealthy working environments that threaten employee health threaten the positive organizational climate. Most importantly, though, the insecure working conditions that ruin the employee beliefs that they are the working "middle class" -or they can at least achieve this goal- stand in the way as negative phenomena that threaten the positive organizational climate, and such issues should be overcome in order to achieve a positive organizational environment.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Positive Organizational Behavior: Scientific studies involving the assessment, development, and effective management of people's strengths and psychological capacities in order to improve workplace performance.

Positive Organizational Climate: An enhancing, supportive, optimistic, and self-consistent organizational environment that focuses on the strengths of the organization itself and its members.

Positive Psychology: A new trend of psychology that emphasizes what is right in humans, instead of what is wrong.

ENDNOTES

1 http://www.shanghaiist.com/2013/07/17/majority_of_calls_to_shanghai_suicide_hotline_come_from_white_collar_workers_and_unemployed.php

2 In June 2007, a 19-year-old female employee at Foxconn hung herself in the company's toilet; and safety nets were placed under the windows of the facilities in May 2011 after other employees committed suicide by throwing themselves out of the company windows. In April 2011, a French Télécom employee burned himself in the company's parking lot. See: Denning, 2011. Further see.:http://www.theguardian.com/world/2011/apr/26/france-telecom-worker-kills-himself

3 One of the wildest examples of the tendency to avoid responsibility, is that after the suicide cases becoming common, the managers at Foxconn started to have their employees sign commitment letters expressing that "they shall not commit suicide" and if they did, "their families shall not demand high compensations and shall not blame the company and ruin its reputation" (SACOM report, 2010).http://sacom.hk/2010/10/13/investigative-report-workers-as-machines-military-management-in-foxconn/

Chapter 14
Organizational–Cultural Elements for Improved Workplace Performance of Disabled Individuals

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ABSTRACT

This chapter embarks from the increasing number of disabled individuals in private companies and public institutions and examines the working conditions of disabled employees in these organizations. Although this case is relevant to a considerable number of international contexts, the author focuses on Turkey as a case, illustrative of countries going through similar processes. The author starts by providing an introduction followed by literature on organizational culture. Next, the author discusses the recent legislation regarding the employment of disabled individuals and discusses with literature on their workplace performance. Next, the author focuses on the relationships between the organizational culture and workplace performance of disabled employees. Finally, the author concludes by recommendations for future practice to enhance performance of disabled employees and future research to conduct robust studies in the area. The chapter assumes that organizations can enhance performance of everyone by creating an inclusive culture surrounded by elements involving positive attitudes, equity, equality, and beliefs of productivity.

INTRODUCTION

The awareness towards the need for an inclusive society around the world has led to the development of numerous social policy activities that aim to include disabled individuals within the social system. The main targets of these activities have been to expand participation of disabled individuals within the social system by providing them with medical, educational (special and inclusive) and vocational opportunities. In this process, employment is considered an important element of social inclusion and participation of disabled individuals.

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In order to ensure participation of disabled individuals in the labor force, various vocational services are offered to disabled individuals, often through vocational rehabilitation (Seyyar, 2008). However, the negative and biased perceptions of disabled individuals as 'naturally unable' as well as the inability to produce adequate legislation in relation to their employment have led to ignorance of the workforce of disabled individuals. Nevertheless, through employment, disabled individuals can not only get financial autonomy, but participate within the mainstream society by enhancing their networks, civic skills, status and relationships, and feelings of confidence, efficacy, belonging and inclusion (Schur, Kruse, & Blanck, 2005). On the other hand, the community can benefit from the contribution of disabled individuals to recognition of human rights, development of countries' economic status and reduction of unemployment, poverty and marginalization of disadvantaged individuals (Wehman, 2011).

For a country, positive action and a performance of high quality are the most effective means of escaping the vicious circle of marginalization, poverty and social exclusion. However, several organizational barriers stand against achievement of these aims. A significant barrier is an organizational culture which involves negative attitudes, beliefs, perceptions and practices towards employees, and thus undermines the organizational efficacy by disempowering and demotivating employees. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to investigate cultural elements within an organization that impact performance of disabled employees. The current state of Turkey in the employment conditions of disabled individuals is selected as a case, representing countries experiencing similar legislative and practical conditions.

VARIOUS DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE

Culture is a complex phenomenon and understood in various ways, for example, as preserving its own character independent from the dominant culture and having its own distinctive features; as a sub-unit on which larger ethnic and national cultural characteristics are reflected; as an illusory notion (Prosser, 1999), and as a social experience (Corbett, 2001). For decades, concepts such as atmosphere, climate, and ethos have been used interchangeably with culture (Deal & Peterson, 2009). Culture is often used for the unwritten norms, rules, traditions, and expectations which impact almost every aspect of an entity. Culture is reflected on the way people think, believe, interact, and behave.

Culture might possess unique characteristics that might develop within its own small culture. However, cultures might be influenced by the external factors that shape them (Corbett, 2001), such as pressures resulting from the competitiveness of the social and economic systems and national legislation. In addition, culture is based on the beliefs, values, and the organizational arrangements of a particular institution. There is close association between the culture of an organization and the nature of the practices because practices in an organization are impacted by the goals, traditions, and philosophies of an organization.

WORKPLACE CULTURE

The workplace is often considered as the second most important social unit in a person's life, following the family (Irvine & Lupart, 2008). The workplace of individuals is similar to and part of their social environment whereby they share common feelings, norms and behaviors (Attridge, 2009). Within their workplace, individuals belong to the same environment, share a common vision, and assume several missions towards the achievement of the same organizational aims.

Building a positive organizational culture helps members of that organization feel that they are given importance and they can participate in the organizational processes as the main members of that community (Hagner, Dague, & Phillips, 2015; Kulkarni & Lengnik-Hall, 2011). When they feel included within the culture of a workplace, they may possess feelings of job satisfaction and professional support for employees (McGuire, 2007). For example, when employees are included within the culture, they possess the right to receive significant information through informal communication channels in the workplace. Various research outcomes indicate that as leaders of an organization give priority to the inclusion of employees within the organizational culture, employees tend to find means of getting integrated to the workplace culture (Morrison, 2002; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000).

There are a number of discrete elements embedded within a workplace culture (Patnaik, 2011), each of which can be present or absent at a particular workplace. For example, at one workplace, employees can gather during breaks and socialize as a group, whereas at another, employees spend their breaks alone at resting areas or work stations. Enjoying breaks as a group enables workers to form networks among each other, and as they establish more communication channels, certain topics of conversation may become routinized. The strength of the culture and its impact on the employees' performance differs from one workplace to another (Grawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006), while existence of more elements signal a more influential culture. Employees are more inclined to feel satisfied with their jobs when workplace cultures are stronger. For example, workplaces with higher levels of co-employee interaction and support, work–family support, and promotion opportunities were linked to a higher perception of employment fairness on the part of employees (Stainback, Ratiff, & Roscigno, 2011).

Contemporary theories on workplace culture argue that workplace culture encompasses elements far more than vocational and employment practices (Mennino, Rubin, & Brayfield, 2005). Within a workplace, culture involves the unwritten rules about the way formal and informal relationships need to be structured. The workplace culture and its informal structure include the shared set of beliefs about the values, norms, and goals determined by an organization (Gherardi, 1994). Mennino et al. (2005) argue that the patterns of communication in a workplace, including, those surrounding workplace roles of individuals, lead to consistent, habitual and stable organizational outcomes. It is therefore possible to argue that the relationships at the workplace are an integral component of workplace culture.

In as much as the normative expectations linked to the employing organization encompass workplace practices, cultural elements are embedded within the informal environment of an organization. There are some studies which consistently show that a supportive workplace culture contributes to the quality of life and, especially, well-being of the employees at the workplace (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). These arguments are in line with the principles of the neo-institutional approach which asserts that cultures contain rules, procedures, and goals that are institutionalized, but not necessarily represented in the policies of a formal organization. In addition, in spite of the existence of formal organizational policies and practices, the culture of a workplace has a strong impact on the employees' work-related ability to carry out their professional and vocational responsibilities.

The environment of the workplace encompasses the circumstances of the job itself, such as the nature of the position assumed by the employee and expectations from them. Research demonstrates that in workplace cultures whereby employees work in high-pressure workplace conditions, whether the pressure results from inappropriate position, long working hours, or continued demands from employers, employees are more likely to experience lower motivation and higher workplace stress. In a culture where employees in professional positions possess higher pay levels often experience more stress because such positions require additional commitment, more time and priority from the worker towards the job (Perlow, 1998). On the other hand, when job circumstances naturally do not require high expectations and contain meaningful practices, employees may feel subordinated or excluded from the workplace culture. Characteristics of demanding and subordinate positions and the pressure they impose on employees may sometimes be reinforced and accompanied by biased attitudes towards the occupants of such positions. Considering the persistent ideology of gendered and categorized separate spheres, employees who fill the highly compensated professional positions are expected to assume more responsibility and devote more time and prioritize workplace demands over personal ones (Epstein, Seron, Oglensky, & Saute, 1999). On the other hand, those who fulfill positions that require less energy, time and ability are often perceived as naturally weak, subordinate or redundant. Regardless of the ability level, it can be argued that occupants of both demanding and subordinate jobs may experience negative work conditions. However, disabled workers are among those who feel this burden at the heaviest level.

COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVE WORKPLACE CULTURES

The link between successful organizations and positive workplace culture is established across a wide range of literature (Dyson, Farrell, Polat, Hutcheson, & Gallanaugh, 2004). Important elements of effective and inclusive workplace culture are strong and longitudinal commitment by top management which infuses a tone of inclusion (Chan et al., 2010); changing organizations' values and norms, and providing written value statements that address legislation and individuals with different ability levels; changing organizational policies and practices involving the jobs design, methods of staffing and evaluation, and reward systems in organizations (Schur et al., 2005; Stone & Colella, 1996); robust and effective recruitment and retention policies that encompass recruitment and selection processes, workplace accommodation, interpersonal relationships, supportive culture, training and performance; making job site modifications in job duties, work schedule, adaptive equipment; and changing attitudes, beliefs, emotional reactions and responses by providing social skills trainings and instructions, teaching the social culture on the job site and establishing support networks within the organization (Wehman, 2011).

It is not surprising that participation and contribution of all employees, including disabled workers, increase when workplace policies and practices are based on values, norms and rules that address inclusive principles. Underlying enablement of all employees to participate and improve their capacity is the fact that these values are shared among the whole staff that celebrate the idea of difference and acceptance, and have commitment to offering opportunities to all employees. Along similar lines, cultures are related to the practices of members of an organization who share basic values and assumptions through which they define themselves and their working contexts.

It is difficult to build workplace cultures that address the participation and effective performance of all employees only by making new policy or by changing some of the rules existing within the organization. Instead, achievement of the establishment of an inclusive and motivating workplace culture can only become a reality when all members of the organization community passionately seek change and when the organization, as a whole unit, alters its culture towards inclusive principles (McLeskey & Waldron, 2007). In order to establish workplace cultures inclusive of all employees and ensure high performance of all employees, the participation of all stakeholders in the processes of decision-making, analysis of the needs of all employees and equitable distribution of the jurisdiction and responsibilities among workers is highly needed. This practice can be utilized as an opportunity for employers and employees to continue learning by exploring ways of collaboration and improving their professional competence.

Building an inclusive and effective workplace culture is a product of the negotiation of ideas by whoever has a role within the organizational community in ways that diversity in thinking is respected and employers and employees from various positions seek for and find means of working together. Developing and maintaining an effective workplace culture can be a reality when organizational processes involve communication, cooperation, and change. This conceptualization requires that a principle of cooperation, based on group work, should transform the hitherto competitive and individualistic tendencies in organizational structures into collective attempts that consider the current social context and sustain organizational development (Dyson et al., 2004).

ATTITUDES TOWARDS DISABLED EMPLOYEES

Attitudes towards employees constitute a significant aspect of an organizational culture. The literature reviewed so far indicates that improved performance of an organization can become a reality if there are favorable attitudes towards employees with different ability levels. Stakeholders in an organization, especially employers and employees without disabilities need to possess positive attitudes towards disability and inclusion to work collaboratively, build an inclusive workplace culture and implement effective practices. Therefore, all legislative attempts that target improved organizational outcomes need to cultivate positive attitudes towards disability and inclusion among all members of the organizational community. However, when individuals in an organization possess negative perceptions and attitudes towards disabled workers and their inclusion within the workplace culture, developing effective practices and achieving preferable outcomes in organizations can become very difficult. If professionals do not believe in the usefulness and effectiveness of the contribution of each employee, regardless of his/her ability level, the development and implementation of organizational practices might not produce positive outcomes.

Leaders of an organization can influence the perceptions and beliefs of their followers. When effective leadership practices are in place, employees often model their employers and they are influenced by the interaction they have with them. This is a reason for prioritizing positive attitudes towards disabled employees as part of the organizational objectives and workplace culture. In an organization, all individuals need to be aware that accurate information about disability reduces prejudice at the organizational level. It is safe to argue that it can be challenging for leaders of an organization to motivate the entire population of employees and ensure their effective contribution to organizational outcomes, especially when there are employees who are in need of more help and when time is limited. However, organizations must address these issues and work towards building a workplace culture that is committed to inclusion, and support employees to develop favorable attitudes towards organizational structures that are getting more diverse.

RECENT LEGISLATION ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF DISABLED INDIVIDUALS

There have been several international initiatives to enhance participation of disabled individuals within the workforce. The European strategies for social inclusion and the European report on social inclusion (2005) assumed that social inclusion provides opportunities and resources for the socially excluded population to participate fully in economic, social and cultural life and to enjoy a standard of living and well-being. According to The Europe 2020 strategy, inclusion or inclusive growth is one of the three priorities aiming at empowering people through high levels of employment, investing in skills, fighting poverty, modernizing labor markets and involving wider population into employment. Similarly, the European Disability Strategy 2010-2020 considers employment one of the most critical factors for social inclusion: more people with disabilities need to be in paid employment on the open labor market. Legislation activities that facilitate full participation of disabled individuals within the social life will also enable them to become autonomous individuals who can work, earn and sustain life independently.

In Turkey, several legislative initiatives and methods are in place to expand the employment rate of disabled individuals. Participation of disabled individuals within the workforce is regulated by the Disability Law (No: 5378), the Employment Law (No: 4857) and the Public Civil Servants Law (No: 657). Especially after the enactment of the Disability Law and the Employment Law, there has been an observable increase in the number of disabled individuals entering the workforce and participating at social activities. Thanks to such regulations in the laws and bylaws, a considerable number of disabled individuals who were previously pure consumer and dependent, started to work, produce and become self-sufficient, contributing to the national development.

In Turkey, disabled individuals are eligible for employment when they can document with a health report that they can work and that the total function loss in terms of their physical, mental, psychological, sensory and social functioning. In the public and private sector, disabled individuals can work in two classes: either in the 'worker' class or in the 'civil servant' class. In the public sectors, they can work in both classes whereas in the private sector they work at the former class. For being eligible to work in the public sector, disabled individuals must achieve a central standard examination called Disabled Public Personnel Selection Examination (Turkish: Kamu Personeli Seçme Sınavı).

It is required for a peaceful and productive society that all citizens are main members of the society. In order to expand participation of disabled individuals within the workforce, ensure that they are active participators in the society and they become self-sufficient, several models have been developed and financial incentives have been distributed to some sectors. First, the 'sheltered workplace model', according to the Disability Law (No: 5378), assumed that disabled individuals work in a homogenous group and isolated workplace environment. The reason behind this model is that for some disabled people it gets difficult to integrate into the regular workplace environment and, therefore, the workplace environment is specially designed thanks to the technical and financial support received from the state. This model has not received support from disabled individuals and disability advocates as it led to exclusion from the mainstream society.

The second model regulated by legislation is the 'individual employment method'. This method assumes that disabled individuals set up and run their own business, and even provide employment opportunities to other individuals. However, the number of individuals benefitting from this model is very low. Some reasons for this are; lack of basic education received by disabled individuals, the economic developments within the country, lack of resources, and lack of sufficient and effective vocational training offered to disabled individuals. However, it is of outmost importance that disabled individuals are supported and become employers.

The third model is the 'disability employment without obligation'. This model assumes that employers, regardless of quota and sheltered obligations, volunteer to employ disabled employees. Unfortunately, prejudice and negative attitudes towards disabled individuals exacerbate seeking and finding appropriate employment (Seyyar, 2000). Fortunately, with the expansion of the perception and awareness that disabled individuals can work, employers started to feel responsible to employ disabled individuals.

Fourth, the method of 'work at home' assumes that disabled individuals carry out work at home appropriate to their disability conditions. The home environment is shaped around the needs and characteristics of the individual. Areas such as web design and computer accounting are among the most preferred employment areas for this method.

The fifth model in the employment of disabled individuals is the 'cooperated work' system. This model is based on the understanding that disabled individuals, either based on their own efforts or with the assistance from the state, establish cooperated organizations and create employment opportunities and conditions for themselves in several areas. This method is based on cooperation and ensures that disabled members of the organization can reflect their abilities and potentials, improve these in relation to the work they will do and perform within an independent organization (Meşhur & Filiz, 2004). While collective activities contribute to the establishment of shared workforce and shared decision-making mechanisms, disabled individuals can get organized more easily at this model.

The sixth model in the employment of disabled individuals is 'employment of only disabled individuals in selected jobs". This method assumes that in some jobs selected for disabled people, only disabled individuals can work. This model is based on allocation of some or all of particular jobs and vocations for disabled individuals based on their characteristics and diversity (Altan, 2004). However, the majority of disabled individuals do not prefer this method because they consider this method as possessing a high risk for further exclusion and marginalization.

The final model, the 'quota method', keeps institutions and businesses obliged that they must employ disabled individuals when they exceed a certain number or percentage of employees. The quota method involves positive discrimination to enhance the rate of the employment of disabled individuals. The quota method was first applied in Germany after World War I, in order to eliminate deprivation faced by individuals disabled by their war experiences. Later, the method expanded in a way that it includes all disability groups (Seyyar, 2000). In Turkey, after this method was applied in both public and private organizations, individuals started to think that disabled individuals can work and contribute to the workforce. Looking to the employment methods applied in Turkey to facilitate participation of disabled individuals within workforce, one can see that the 'quota method' is preferred more than other methods. The reason for the ineffectiveness of other methods is often the negative attitudes and beliefs of employers towards their employees.

As said, the majority of the disabled individuals in Turkey has entered workforce thanks to the quota method. Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3 illustrate the increase in the number of disabled individuals working in the public and private sectors within the quota method (Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Engelli ve Yaşlı Hizmetleri Genel Müdürlüğü, 2018). Principles and procedures of the quota method exist within Article 30 of the Employment Law (No: 4857) and is related to the employment of disabled individuals within 'worker' positions (rather than civil servants) both in the public and private sectors. Within the quota system, when the number of employees exceeds 50, a private company must employ disabled employees corresponding to 3% of their total employee number while this percentage is 4% for public institutions.

In line with Article 30 of the Employment Law, follow-up, supervision and inspection of the obligatory disability quota and employment practices are conducted monthly and regularly by local Work and Employment Institution City Directorates (Turkish: Çalışma ve İş Kurumu İl Müdürlüğü). In institutions and companies where a required number of disabled employees do not exist, employers are contacted; their demands regarding the characteristics of the needed workforce are collected and published on the internet website of the directorate. When institutions do not employ disabled individuals they face financial

Table 1. The number of disabled individuals employed in the 'worker' class in institutions that have to employ disabled employees

Year	Number of disabled individuals required to employ		Number of disabled individuals in employment	
	Public	Private	Public	Private
2018 (As of February)	7968	116649	10447	101212
2017	7834	110672	10268	96720
2016	8206	104966	10822	92413
2015	8432	99262	10696	84370
2014	8417	101823	10422	84706
2013	9514	97689	11804	80434
2012	10246	97322	12358	77547
2011	10496	86607	12347	71088
2010	11718	79943	12603	66359
2009	12086	70550	12653	58876
2008	11593	70326	11286	55077

Table 2. The number of applicant and employed disabled individuals employed in the 'worker' class within the disability quota

Year	Application	Employment		
		Public	Private	Total
2018 (As of March)	31380	29	3861	3890
2017	100201	192	11959	12151
2016	79321	236	14795	15031
2015	65255	258	20197	20455
2014	77632	232	26118	26350
2013	76235	287	34189	34476
2012	83955	398	21540	35531
2011	35151	455	37894	38349
2010	36144	295	31962	32257
2009	48480	427	25860	26405
2008	40519	545	35133	21967

Table 3. The number of disabled individuals employed in the 'civil servant' class of public institutions within the disability quota

Year	Number of employed civil servants
2018 (As of March)	51814
2017	49873
2016	43151
2015	40655
2014	34078
2013	32787
2012	27314
2011	9966
2010	18787
2009	10357
2008	20829

fines; such fines are used as funding for projects that involve supporting disabled individuals to initiate their own business, helping them to find jobs, building assistive technologies to support employment, facilitating adaptation of the disabled employee to the job and workplace. Disabled individuals may also register with the Work and Employment Institution City Directorates to support their employment. When they do so, they are provided with vocational counseling services, referred to training programs to improve their vocational skills and placed in jobs appropriate to their conditions. In addition, they are motivated to initiate their own business.

The quota method has been effective for increasing the employment rate among disabled individuals in the public and private sectors. However, this method involves ‘obligation’ and is interested more in the *entry* of disabled individuals to the workforce and less in what happens after they enter the workforce. The level by which they work in inclusive workplace cultures, they are considered as equal members of the organizational community, they are given responsibility to engage in demanding and effective practices that lead to preferable outcomes is questionable. However, in an employment system where public and private organizations embrace the notion that people with different characteristics and ability levels can participate actively and produce, the employment system would be naturally inclusive of all, regardless of any obligations and quotas. Disabled individuals demand that they possess equal rights and participate in daily life, by working in mainstream workplace environments together with everyone. Instead of being felt pity for, receiving assistance and positive discrimination, and being exposed to decisions made by others, disabled individuals expect that their rights are recognized, they are given opportunities, and they produce, decide and constitute their social and family environments.

The disability policy encompasses all social policy-making activities towards disabled children and adults. These activities include public policies which aim to improve life conditions of disabled individuals and ensure their participation with social life. The scope of these activities involves social security, accessibility, vocational rehabilitation and training, active employment legislation and participation in social life (Seyyar & Genç, 2010). Unless policies required to remove the factors that lead to the social exclusion of disabled individuals are made and implemented, exclusion may move them away further rom individual, financial, social and political life as well as from social environment, group activities and society. However, disabled individuals need to be included socially in both spheres.

Labeling disabled individuals as ‘disadvantaged’ sometimes creates uneasiness among them. Human rights at the broader sense, social rights at the narrower, private and public rights are recognized for all individuals within the principle of equality. However, disadvantaged social groups should also benefit from these rights within the same principle. Making this assumption a reality can be possible mostly through positive discrimination methods which aim to remove all disabling conditions. For example, in addition to recognizing their right to get employed, policy required that this right is practically implemented through methods such as the quota method (Seyyar, 2008). As said before, methods which oblige may increase awareness regarding rights of disabled individuals and initiate practices in employment. However, full recognition of these rights and full participation of disabled individuals within employment can be possible only through a culture based on inclusion, volunteerism and democracy, rather than obligation and isolation.

In the Disability Law Article 14 which regulates the work life of disabled individuals, it is stated that there may be no practice which discriminates due to disability and leads to negative outcomes for employed disabled people. Institutions, organizations and companies which have role, jurisdiction and responsibility are obliged to take necessary measures to remove the barriers faced by disabled individuals who are employed and seek employment, and make physical arrangements at workplace. Employment of disabled individuals who face extreme difficulties due to their disabilities is, initially, ensured through the sheltered employment method. In order to make regulations regarding the employment of disabled individuals, necessary jurisdiction is given to the Ministry of Family, Work and Social Policies, the Ministry of Treasury and Finance and the General Directory of Disability and Geriatric Services. At this point, establishing appropriate workplaces for disabled individuals who find it difficult to work at regular labor market is recommended.

Disabled individuals prefer to work together with individuals without disabilities within the same environment and fear that they may be excluded from the mainstream society. They want to benefit from the opportunities offered to people without disabilities in labor force, shopping market, social environment, sports areas and educational contexts. Ensuring that disabled individuals join work life is one of the most important services to be offered to them. Participation of disabled individuals within workforce will probably lead to social security, financial income and social inclusion and harmony. Employment is also important for disabled individuals in terms of enabling them to join social life, contributing to the society, establishing a social environment by interacting with others, and developing feelings of adequacy and self-efficacy. To help disabled individuals join workforce, adequate employment opportunities must be developed and appropriate positions should be assigned, which will decrease the unemployment rate and contribute to the labor market. According to Bergeskog (2001) sheltered workplace environments for disabled individuals are far from competitive workplace cultures while Rosen, Bussone, Dukunchak, and Cramp (1993) advocate that such environments provide disabled employees a comfortable workplace with minimum problems and risks. However, as argued before, while sheltered workplaces aim to protect disabled employees from competitiveness and the risk of failure, from the viewpoint of an inclusive positive workplace culture, they may lead to the risk of social and vocational exclusion.

According to the Disability Law Article 13, which regulates the vocational rehabilitation of disabled individuals regarding their employment, it must be ensured that disable individuals benefit from vocational rehabilitation services in order to train them in jobs appropriate to their ability levels, employ them, and equip them with skills that will enhance their productivity and social welfare. The law also commands that necessary measures are taken which improve skills and capabilities appropriate to the individual development and abilities of individuals within different types of vocational rehabilitation centers, ability improvement centers and sheltered workplaces that can be established by private or institutional persons. This article not only facilitates employment of disabled individuals but also targets their social inclusion.

WORKPLACE CONDITIONS AND PERFORMANCE OF DISABLED EMPLOYEES

In a public institution or private organization, the degree to which an employee can integrate and be included within the workplace culture has an impact on the employee's performance. Similarly, for disabled employees, the way the social culture of their workplace includes them or they can feel belonging to it, is a key ingredient in that individual's employment success (Kirsh et al., 2009). As mentioned before, the workplace culture encompasses various elements and these also signal the opportunities facilitating the inclusion of disabled employees within roles, job settings, responsibilities and relationships (Wehman, 2011).

Unfortunately, the literature does not contain adequate research and outcomes to make arguments regarding the performance of disabled individuals within organizational and workplace cultures. We can rely on findings by two small scale research conducted exploratory by Fillary and Pernice (2006) in which they analyzed the level by which employees identified with intellectual disabilities were included within the workplace culture involving a supported environment. Outcomes of the studies indicated that employees without disabilities felt included within the workplace culture more than disabled employees and that the feelings of inclusion were higher in stronger cultures. The positive impact of workplace culture was illustrated by another study conducted by Novak and Rogan (2010) who investigated workplace culture from the perspective of employees identified with a developmental disability. The study specifically focused on content among employees. Outcomes of the study indicated that when disabled employees characterized the workplace culture as positive they found it easier to engage in contact with their colleagues while, similarly, their colleagues also cultivated more accepting and inclusive beliefs towards them and engaged in more contact with them.

There is not enough number of studies investigating the experiences of disabled employees under employment. However, there is research indicating that payment is a problem for disabled employees; they are often paid less than colleagues without disabilities (Hale, Hayghe, & McNeil, 1998). In fact, one reason for lower payment may be the decreased productivity due to several reasons such as the impairment and less time spent at the workplace. However, these may not explain the bigger picture; there are also other factors. For example, discriminative practices by employers, physical barriers at the workplace, inadequate pre-service and in-service training of disabled individuals and lack of accommodation also seem to play a role (Baran & Cavkaytar, 2007). When it comes to some certain disabilities, they may face more labeling and discrimination, leading to a higher pay gap, showing that discrimination seems to have a big impact (Blanck, 2001; Çavuş & Tekin, 2015). With these in mind, the performance of disabled employees at institutions is likely to decrease compared to their non-disabled colleagues.

Another factor which may reduce the performance and productivity of disabled employees is the amount of benefits they receive such as pension plans and health insurance, which are generally less than employees without disabilities (Schur, 2002). This is also partly due to the positions they occupy because disabled employees are more likely to be offered and assigned to service and production jobs and less likely to be in managerial, professional, or technical positions (Hale et al., 1998; Öztürk, 2011). In addition, it is more likely that disabled employees are assigned to part-time, temporary, and other non-standard positions which usually involve low pay and benefits (Di Natale, 2001; Yelin & Trupin, 2003). According to Schur (2003), approximately half of the disabled employees are assigned to various types of non-standard work arrangement, compared with almost one quarter of non-disabled employees. In addition, leaders are more likely to assign positions with more flexible schedules to employees without disabilities (Öztürk, 2011; Yelin & Trupin, 2003).

In addition to the conditions regarding positions and payments for disabled employees, the literature is also limited when it comes to other employment consequences. Some studies found that disabled employees have higher amounts of job loss and lower amounts of job security compared to their colleagues without disabilities. This is connected to the outcomes of studies that illustrate lower levels of job satisfaction among disabled employees (Uppal, 2005). In developed countries and states, the conditions of disabled employees might be more improved. For example, Yelin and Trupin (2003) investigated the conditions of disabled employees in California and revealed that the cognitive and psychological job demands such as job autonomy and communication with colleagues do not differ significantly between disabled and non-disabled employees. Nevertheless, disabled employees are still more likely to be out of positions that involve more rewards economically and psychologically.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND DISABLED EMPLOYEES

Various factors seem to play a role in the problems experienced by disabled individuals regarding employment and workplace cultures. These can be clustered as social, personal, public, corporate and market related factors. In order to ensure that disabled individuals can be employed, they are integrated within the workplace culture and become productive employees, a holistic plan involving the entire factors must be made and implemented. For example, social factors and cultural elements may alter the understanding and behaviors of policy-makers and employers in ways that set barriers against participation in social and work life. Not only disabled employees but other groups likely to get disadvantaged also face social and cultural barriers (Gündüz, 2007). A considerable number of disabled individuals think that they face barriers in all areas mentioned above. Participation in organizations surrounded with a positive organizational climate is important to change the negative attitudes towards disabled people and enhance their social participation and inclusion.

Recent scholarship regarding the employment of disabled individuals including the literature reviewed so far in this chapter, clearly shows that cultural elements embedded within an organization shape the experiences of disabled employees (Blanck, 2005; Schur, Kruse, & Blanck, 2005). In their research, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) found that work-related satisfaction and commitment among employees were strongly related to the inclusiveness of the organizational culture and feelings of belongingness among employees towards the workplace culture. In addition, workplace cultures may be especially significant for people from disadvantaged groups including disabled individuals because retention of employees and their contribution to the organizational outcomes are related to the workplace environment which embraces diversity (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008).

An important element within the cultures of organizations that need to be considered is the issue of justice. While some of the workplace cultures are based on the presumption that disabled individuals are not able to carry out any tasks, some of them oversee their conditions, characteristics and needs that need to be considered while employing them. Both conditions set big barriers to employing and retention of disabled people (Ball, Morris, Hartnette, & Blanck, 2006). As a significant element of the workplace culture, justice encompasses collective beliefs about distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice in the organization (Liao, 2007). These three kinds of justice are important for disabled individuals. First, distributive justice involves consequences such as the provision of workplace accommodations and payment. Second, procedural justice involves legislation and practices such as the way demands and requests for accommodations are handled. Finally, inter-personal justice is related to the extent to which employees in an organization are approached with respect, dignity, and sensitivity. At the workplace, all three types of justice contribute to feelings of fairness at work, resulting in positive attitudes, enhanced performance, and productive practices.

Studies regarding the cultural experiences of disabled employees in terms of justice and fairness at work have indicated that workplace culture that involves positive and just attitudes by employers and colleagues results in positive psychological outcomes among disabled employees (Colella, 2001). In addition, especially when the number of disabled employees increase in an organization and disabled employees' characteristics, needs and competencies are considered during position assignment, results seem to be more positive. However, when these attitudes involve negative stereotypes about the abilities and personalities of disabled employees and are reflected on organizational practices, discomfort at the workplace, senses of apathy and alienation might replace positive feelings. In fact, a big number of the employers ask the question of whether disabled employees can do the job assigned to them. However, success and productivity of disabled employees depend on the arrangements made and measures taken within the workplace (Öztürk, 2011). When these are not made, employers think that disabled employees are not productive. Consequently, these beliefs pose barriers against disabled employees who seek for employment. Disabled individuals, who have to combat such beliefs and fail to get employed, lack the feeling of self-actualization and are likely to feel the burden of depending on others.

Facing competitive and extremely bureaucratic workplace environment may lead to decreased performance among disabled employees because such organizations generally prioritize the fairness of treatment for all employees over the personalized consideration of disabled employees (Blanck, 2005). On the other hand, Stone and Colella argue (1996), disabled employees may fare better when the organization possess a flexible culture that includes principles of diversity, cooperation, and attempts to meet the needs of employees. It is more likely that leaders of these organizations make necessary accommodations and modifications, acknowledge and respond to demands, and emphasize individual autonomy by allowing and supporting their employees to decide how best to practice their own job (Colella, 2001).

The level of disabled employees' contribution to the achievement of organizational outcomes is largely influenced by the disparities they experience at work. As stated earlier, disabled employees experience gaps in payment, benefits, job security, supervision, decision-making processes, training and promotion opportunities (Schur et al., 2009). Such disparities have a role in disabled employees' negative assessment of their organizational treatment and practices, higher probability of job turnover and lower levels of loyalty and satisfaction with their jobs. According to Schur et al. (2009) the gaps experienced by disabled employees vary to a large extent across organizations and workplaces, indicating the importance of culture. Their analysis of two firms revealed that companies with lower gaps involved less difference in pay and work and more treatment with respect.

Although the literature on the impact of workplace culture on disabled employees is not large, there is research indicating good practice in organizations. For example, Schur et al. (2009) indicate that there are not significant differences between disabled employees and their colleagues without disabilities in terms of job satisfaction, organizational loyalty, willingness to work hard and intent for turnover when organizations involve fairness and responsiveness regarding their employees. This outcome is in line with the assumption of Stone and Colella (1996) who argued that disabled employees are much more productive in cultures where feelings of fairness and responsiveness to the needs of all employees are in place. One reason for this success is the culture which does not exclude while offering positive discrimination. In these organizations, workplace modifications and accommodations are less likely to be evaluated as special treatment. When organizations are not responsive to the personalized needs and rigid in nature disabled employees are likely to fare worse.

The literature reviewed so far has evaluated the workplace culture and its elements from the perspective of disabled employees. Culture is a complex phenomenon that has many theoretical and practical dimensions. Although limited in amount, the available evidence indicate that cultural variables that involve equity, justice, responsiveness and respect for diversity make a positive impact on the performance of disabled employees. Currently, there is adequate evidence to suggest organizations to provide workplace accommodations to their disabled employees because cultures enriched with inclusiveness may help to empower all employees, including disabled employees and improve employment rates, working conditions, and full inclusion of disabled individuals within the workplace.

CONCLUSION

In Turkey and elsewhere in the world, there have been significant legislative, political and social steps in order to include disabled individuals within the workforce. This has taken place both in the public and private sectors. Notwithstanding these advancements, the number of disabled individuals who remain excluded from paid employment and those who leave their jobs is considerable. One reason for this case is the cultures of organizations that involve negative attitudes, beliefs and insensitiveness towards disabled individuals. The discussion provided in this chapter illustrated that workplace cultures that value diversity, are sensitive to their employees' needs and set high expectations for their employees may enhance employment among disabled individuals and improve their workplace performance.

The cultural elements of a workplace have implications for social life as well because work activity is closely linked to the social aspect of life. Therefore, for disabled individuals, achievement at the workplace may lead to experiences and feelings of belongingness and acceptance in their social lives. However, unless leaders go beyond the condition of being employed and prioritize the social aspect of inclusion, disabled employees may experience the feeling that they are lonely and not included within the workplace culture as main members of that organization (Gascon, 2009). In that aspect, workplace culture offers an invaluable conceptual foundation for investigating the social needs and rewards in a workplace.

Changing workplace cultures around inclusive and equitable principles is not easy. However, it is obvious that positive examples exist whereby the more disabled employees are employed, the more other employments follow (Wehman, 2011), therefore, experiences of such organizations who are successful in the employment of disabled people can be shared with larger financial and social community (Hernandez et al., 2008). In addition to good practice at the organizational level, collaboration among all related stakeholders especially policy-makers and employers, promotion of the success of disabled people in the workforce, elimination of the negative attitudes and prejudices, and promotion of both employer and employee training promise better outcomes (Shier, Graham, & Jones, 2009). Building inclusive workplace cultures does not only require focus on one aspect of the culture such as attitudes; it is about emphasizing and reforming all aspects of the organizational culture, and not only employment but retention, development and promotion of employees, and designing an accessible and appropriate climate for all.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

First and foremost, there is a high need for a culture of inclusion not only at organizations but at the macro social level. A culture of inclusion expands integration of workforce and brings diversity potentials to life. In such cultures, people with diverse characteristics and backgrounds can work effectively together and perform to their highest potential (Pless & Maak, 2004). In addition, the need is also high for a culture where opinions, beliefs, values, categorizations, labels, and rituals are translated into policies that affect the procedures of hiring and managing employees. There are especially three elements that should be contained by a culture embracing the formal and informal policies and practices. These are universal design, human resources policies and workplace accommodation.

Many countries around the world, including Turkey, face problems in the employment and workplace performance of disabled people. In Turkey, a systematic work analysis and job description that also considers disabled individuals has not been planned and implemented yet. A research or study does not exist which describes employment opportunities for disabled individuals by considering their disability-related characteristics and work-related capabilities (Öztürk, 2011). With these in mind, some solutions can be recommended. First, a research group needs to be established in order to make a detailed plan of the services to be offered to disabled individuals. Second, disabled individuals' right to enter and benefit from the education system should be recognized because quality education is a key to employment and success. Third, all services targeting disabled individuals, need to take into account their personalized traits because it is a common mistake to consider the characteristics and needs of all individuals similar. These individual characteristics and needs should guide need analysis, service planning and delivery, selection of methods and tools of employment and production. Fourth, continuity in the service planning and delivery regarding employment of disabled people needs to be ensured. Regardless of the time of occurrence of impairment as well its severity, needs are always available. Therefore, all services should be based on a continuum. Fifth, necessary attempts should be made in order to create awareness among disabled individuals. Employment opportunities should be made accessible and available for everyone including disabled people. Finally, whoever has a role in the provision of vocational services for disabled individuals should collaborate. When necessary, local authorities can be recognized more rights to take decisions and make regulations.

The recent legislation in Turkey including the various laws and regulations, compared to past, has led to advancement in the employment and vocational development of disabled individuals. However, the current picture also needs improvement. Solutions to the problems can be found by empathizing with both employers and disabled employees. A balance should be set between the needs and benefits of both sides as well as the benefit of the entire society. There are roles for the policy-makers. Assuming the responsibility of being aware of the needs of employers, developing strategies to respond to their needs, implementing the financial incentive system and establishing effective guidance and inspection mechanisms to supervise the field may improve the current conditions regarding the employment and workplace performance of disabled individuals.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Currently in the related literature, there is a big research gap in terms of the vocational experiences of disabled individuals. More specifically, there is a need for studies investigating the disparities in job traits, such as opportunities for promotion, training, and participation in decision-making, or attitudes of disabled employees towards their workplace. What is more, the existing evidence is mostly collected out of investigations based on broad samples that compare employees across institutions. Therefore, investigations need to be made within firms that involve stable work-related cultural elements affecting outcomes for all employees.

The literature presented in this chapter shows that workplace culture has a big impact on disabled employees. However, there is a need for further research that involves large sample size, original surveys designed specifically to study disability employment and performance, and outcomes for individuals identified with different types of impairments. In addition, studies may focus on the interactions between disability and demographic characteristics such as gender, which can offer a more holistic and detailed picture. Finally, since culture is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon, workplace culture needs to be studied with a variety of methods, involving quantitative ones to measure tendencies and qualitative ones to explore the embedded or latent values and assumptions in organizations. As Rousseau (1990, 166) notes, a pragmatic and mixed research paradigm can serve the aims because ‘‘different levels of culture are amenable to different research methods.’’

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Culture: Culture is defined as the ideas, customs, and social behavior of a particular people or society.

Disability: A disability is any continuing condition that restricts everyday activities.

Organizational Culture: Organizational culture involves the ways members of an organization think, interact and behave that contribute to the social and emotional climate of the organization.

Workplace Performance: Workplace performance involves the work-related activities expected of an employee and how well those activities were executed.

Chapter 15
Strategic Human Resource Management

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ABSTRACT

Human resource management has become an integral part of management with the basic aim of maintaining better human relations at work place through the application and evaluation of organizational policies and programs so as to utilize human resources in an optimized and effective manner. In this context, this chapter focuses keenly on the various domains centering around human resource management. Initially a detailed theoretical background regarding this construct has been presented followed by highlighting the components and objectives of strategizing human resource management. Lastly, the models and perspectives pertaining to strategic human resource management have also been discussed considering their application and relevance in modern-day organizations.

INTRODUCTION

All the activities are initiated and completed by human resource, one of the important sources of any organization that needed to be handled and managed carefully by the management professionals. In essence human resource management (HRM) is very important and a very difficult job because of the dynamic nature of human resource as people are responsive, they feel and act, therefore can't be treated and operated like machines (Ganesan, 2014). The researcher further added that human resource management (HRM) is considered with management of the people working in an organization. It's a process that leads the management to think about human as an important work capitals and investment. In other words it's an approach that enables the mangers to fully utilize the human resource in a proper

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and appropriate way so as to ensure growth and development of organization and protect the interest of its employees. Therefore, human resource management can be defined as a system that lay emphasis on effective management and progress of human resource on the ground of human approach. The basic principle of human resource management (HRM) is treating employees with human dignity while focusing on their skills, knowledge, abilities, capabilities, potentials, achievements, satisfaction and dedication etc. Thus human resource management is very important for the success and prosperity of an organization as it helps the organizations to acquire the services of employees, develop the skills and potentials of workers, increases the motivation of workforce to work with competence, ensuring commitment and dedication of employees, encourage employees to increase their performance and efforts, resolving human conflicts and issues in a reasonable way. In simple terms it helps the organization in achieving its set objectives and goals in a very effective and efficient manner. Human resource management is associated with '*people dimension*' in management and helps in selecting, recruiting, training, assisting and developing members of an organization. Boxall and Purcell (2000) stated that "*human resource management deals with anything and everything related with management of employment relationships in the firm"*. Byars and Rue (2004) defined "*human resource management (HRM) as an activity designed to provide for and coordinate of human resources of an organization"*. The authors further stated that human resource management is a new terminology for personnel administration or personnel management. As per Westover (2014) human resource management (HRM) is a process of selecting and employing people; training and compensating them; designing policies, programmes and strategies to retain and promote them. Besides, role of human resource management (HRM) is staffing, retention, development of work policies, training and development, compensation and benefiting administration, worker protection and deals with laws and regulations affecting workforce and performance appraisal. For Guest (1987) the key ingredients of human resource management (HRM) is to facilitate employees to remain committed in achieving organizational goals, assist employees to adjust and adapt to change prevailing within the organizational structure, focuses on quality of services of employees, staff members and management personals, and finally integrating human resource strategies into organizational goals (Osibanjo & Adeniji, 2012).

Human resource management have replaced the previous fundamental personal management in an organization. Human resource management (HRM) is relatively a new construct containing range of ideas and practice in managing workforce in an organization (Itika, 2011). Moreover researcher indicated that human resource management (HRM) has became an integral part of management with the basic aim in maintaining a better human relations at work place, application and evaluation of organizational policies and programmes so to utilize human resources in an optimize and effective way. Further, researcher elaborated that it's a process associated with recruitment and selection of employees, development and utilization of skills, assessment and evaluation of employee's performance, providing training and compensation, and motivating employees and maintaining a proper relationship among different members of an organization. Human resource management (HRM) has developed and evolved into different areas and managing people at the organizational level is well documented in the work of Cuming (1985), Munsterberg (1913) and Taylor (1914) cited in Itika (2011). Also the practice of management of human resource can be found in booming *European Economy* of 1900, where a congenial environment were created for managing workers effectively to face the market competition. Besides, Elton Mayo, Kurt Lewin, Abraham Maslow, Deci and Ryan, Armstrong and so on emphasis on improving the working conditions and treating employees as human beings rather than machines are also an important inputs in the development and practicing of human resource management. The British and Harvard School of human resource management and the work of Michael Armstrong, John Storey, Terrington and Hall (1991); Farnham and Pimlott (1992 cited in Itika (2011) have revealed that the philosophy of human resource management is based on six important components via:

- Human resource management has to be owned by top management.
- One of the basic fundaments of human resource management (HRM) is organizational strategy and there should be strategic fit between organizational strategy and human resource strategy.
- In human resource management practices, employees are considered as assets not liability.
- It's a mandatory role of management to get additional value from employees through human resource development and performance management system.
- Role of management is to encourage and enticement employees commitment to organizational missions, targets, objectives and goals in order to get success.
- Sixth is also based on employee commitment which can be stimulated by strong cooperate culture. The important tool to develop cooperate culture includes effective communication techniques, training, coaching, mentoring, performance evaluation etc.

On the basis of above philosophical postulates following are the main objectives of human resource management (HRM) (Itika, 2011):

- First and foremost important objective of human resource management is to achieve organizational goals, mission, targets and values by using people as a valuable human resource.
- Second objective of human resource management (HRM) is to effectively and successfully utilize the potential of employees and the staff capacity.
- Next objective is that the management should ensure organizational commitment and organizational identification in employees.
- Another objective of human resource management (HRM) is the optimal utilization of scare resource in the form of land, labour, capital and entrepreneur.
- One of the essential objective is to focus on wholeness rather sum of the parts. It means human resource management (HRM) emphasis on work together and collectively.
- Last but not least, objective of human resource management (HRM) is to give the weight to innovation, creativity, teamwork, flexible manager and high quality management which are the key sources of organizational success and excellence.

Due to the globalization, change in business environment and highly business competition people witnessed a great development and exploration in the concepts of human resource management from 2000's with more focus on strategic human resource management (SHRM). Etymologically the word strategy is derived from a Greek word *"strategus",* means "*commander in chief*" or "*long run direction"*. Pertinently in management literature 'strategic' word has replaced a traditional term '*long term planning'*, to denote *specific pattern of plans, decisions* and *actions* taken by the top management professional to accomplish organizational ends. In business context the main focus of term '*strategy'* is to help an organization to achieve competitive advantage with its unique capabilities by putting emphasis on present and future direction of the organization (Hassija, 2014).

BACKGROUND

Evolution of Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM)

From Personnel Management to Human Resource Management (HRM) (Agarwala, 2002)

The Human resource (HR) function has evolved over the period of time. In 1970's human resource management (HRM) emerged as a replacement for personnel management with a huge change in the objectives and boundaries of the function. The main thrust of human resource management (HRM) is the achievement of organizational goals and mission with the help of people. However personnel management is different from HR, where the former is more bureaucratic with high levels of centralization and high level of formalization, with lower levels of flexibility. While, latter is decentralized, more flexible and involves strategic areas of business.

From Human Resource Management (HRM) to Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) (Agarwala, 2002)

Early 1980's witnessed an increased use of terminology strategic human resource management (HRM). With adjective *strategic* prefixed to human resource management (HRM), it focuses on relationship of human resource management (HRM) with the strategic management of the organization. Strategic human resource management goes beyond the functional role of human resource management (HRM), ensures organizational effectiveness and performance, modification in structure and culture, alignment of resources to present and future requirements of the firm, enhancement of organizational capability, development of employment relationships and managerial changes etc. One of the main difference between traditional human resource management (HRM) and strategic human resource management (SHRM) is the extent to which human resource management is integrated with the strategic decision making processes that tend to direct organizational efforts to cope effectively with environmental demands. Traditional human resource management (HRM) focuses mainly on physical skills, training on specific tasks and individual efficiency; don't put more emphasis on "people" but rather to "task" (Karami, Analoui & Cusworth, 2004). In contrast strategic human resource management (SHRM) focuses the total contribution of the firm, innovation and creative behaviour of employees, overall effectiveness and cross functional integration of an organization.

As per Hendry and Pettigrew (1986) strategic human resource management (SHRM) comprises the use of planning in human resource management; an integrated approach to design and implement HR systems; matching human resource management (HRM) practices and policies with business strategy of the organization and lastly, it views people as strategic tool and resource for achievement of organizational goals and competitive advantage. Wright and McMahan (1992) have rightly stated that "*strategic human resource management* (*SHRM) is a pattern of planned human resource activities intended to achieve organizational goals*". Wheelen and Hunger (1995); Hill and Jones (2001) defined "*strategic human resource management* (SRMH) *as a set of managerial actions and decisions taken to attain superior and long term performance"*. For Mabey, Salaman and Storey (1998) strategic human resource management (SHRM) involves four main elements i.e. human capability and commitment, strategic importance of human resources, managing human resources by specialists and integration of human resource management into business strategy. According to Bamberger and Meshoulam (2000) strategic human resource management (SHRM) is the process by which organizations seek to link the human, social, and intellectual capital of their members to the strategic needs of the firm. However Itika (2011) and Agarwala (2002) stated that strategic human resource management (SHRM) is more proactive approach of human resource management, concerned with planned and effective utilization of workforce by the organization to achieve competitive advantages, organizational effectiveness and increment in performance. While defining strategic human resource management (SHRM), Kazmi and Ahmad (2001) have provided four approach namely strategy- focused, decision focused, content focused and implementation focussed. As per strategy focused approach, human resource management (HRM) is strategic by its very nature and all its components and elements have strategic linkages with each other (Krishnan & Singh, 2011). While as the decision focused approach encompasses three decision making levels such as operational, managerial and strategic and views human resource management (HRM) at strategic level to be strategic human resource management (SHRM) (Krishnan & Singh, 2011). As far as content focused approach is considered, strategic human resource management (SHRM) emerges when elements of human resource management (HRM) match with the organizational strategy. Lastly, in terms of implementation focused approach, strategic human resource management (SHRM) involves human resource management (HRM) systems that help in the formulation and implementation of business strategies or the alignment of HR policies and practices with business strategies of an organization (Krishnan & Singh, 2011). While for Bjorkman and Xiucheng (2002) there is a positive relation between firm performance and the extent to which the firm adopts and uses a high performance Human Resource Management (HRM) system as well as the degree of integration of human resource management (HRM) with business strategy. Dessler (2008) stated that "strategic human resource management (SHRM) indicates development and execution of human resource (HR) policies and practices to generate workforce competencies and behaviours so to reach strategic goals and aim of a firm". Wei, Liu and Herdon (2011) revealed that strategic human resource management (SHRM) has a positive influence on performance of an individual and positive impact on firm's product innovation and also the relationship is stronger for organization with a developmental culture. According to Hoppas (2013) the integration of human resource management (HRM) and strategic management process lead to strategic human resource management (SHRM) which in turn focuses on "*integration*" and "*adaptation*". Besides, researcher further elaborated that strategic human resource management (SHRM) is different from human resource management (HRM) in that later emphasis on individual performance and strategic human resource management (SHRM) focuses on organizational performance. Second, strategic human resource management (SHRM) considered the role of human resource management (HRM) as a solution to business problems and focus on how human resource management (HRM) system attaches strategic value and significantly contributes to organizational success and effectiveness.

Researcher like Hassija (2014) demonstrated that strategic human resource management (SHRM) is all about systematically linking or connecting people with organization, it's specifically an integration of human resource management (HRM) strategies into corporate strategies and an integration of HR with business and with its environment. In other terms strategic human resource management (SHRM) is an integration of human resource management into business strategy and involves human resource practice to meet environmental challenges. Further Integration between human resource management (HRM) and business strategy in turn contributes significantly in effective management of human resources, improvement in organizational success and performance and ultimately develop organizational cultures that foster innovation, creativity and flexibility. Researcher further elaborated that there are various internal and external factors affecting human resources management. Internal factors affects performance of organizational directly and are controllable such as availability of skilled workforce, leadership styles, attitudes of employees, work ethics and so on; while as external factors are uncontrollable factors affecting organizational strategies and whole environment such as labour environment, changes in political and legal environment. Anyangwe (2017) stated that "*strategic human resource management* (*SHRM) is a well established plan of an organization to get things done effectively with the help of human capital and development of process capabilities"*.

Providing central and significant role to the *people* in an organization, human resource management (HRM) is becoming more strategic in nature and practice. In other terms, strategic human resource management (SHRM) is related to the association between human resource management (HRM) and strategic management in an organization (Agarwala, 2002). The author further demonstrated that strategic human resource management (SHRM) is basically an approach that deals with the decision regarding the nature of employees' relationship, selection, attracting, recruitment, training, coaching, rewards, developing, and retaining and performance appraisal for the benefit of both employees and the organization. Its application may bring a drastic and desirable change in the workplace and its resources; affect employees in a desirable manner and create strong organization. One of the important issues faced by any organization is a human issues and the strategic human resource management (SHRM) is concerned with the issues, and problems of human resource that affect or are affected by the organizational strategic plan. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) is a continuous process and activity that demands the constant synchronization of the value of the top management, the environment and the resources available. According to Agarwala (2002) there are four important components/ elements of strategic human resource management (SHRM) viz. (1) human resource is a major source of *competitive advantage* of an organization, (2) it's an integrated approach where human resource activities, practice and programmes are the ways and means to make use of work force to gain competitive advantage, (3) there is an alignment between human resource strategy and business/ corporate strategy of an organization, (4) employee activities, plans and programmes are directed to attain organizational goals. Krishnan and Singh (2006) developed a model to divide the strategic human resource management (SHRM) into three stages. First stage is formulation of business strategy such as cost reduction, improving quality of products and so on, and fit it into human resource management (HRM) strategy. Second stage is implementation of human resource management system based on Human resource (HR) strategy. And third stage involves assessment and evaluation of effectiveness and success of human resource management strategy. These three processes of strategic human resource management (SHRM) are dynamic, complex and closely related with each other. While as Daft (2001) highlighted that strategic human resource management includes five important stages. First stage is concerned with mission, target and goals management philosophy. Second stage deals with environment analysis involving both internal and external scan. Next stage is associated with formulation of strategy, then the implication of formulated strategy and final stage deals with evaluation and reviewing of strategy. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) involves HR professional as a partners to design and implement strategies related to human resource planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management, compensation and reward management (Bagga & Srivastava, 2014). The responsibility for execution of strategy is mostly shared between HR professionals and line managers. Uric (1997) has stated that human resource (HR) professionals are strategic partners and planners. There are three level of strategy that HR professionals have to develop. First is *corporate level strategy* associated with general philosophy of growth, development and management of business units. It includes strategies that decide which type of business should be acquires, modified and sold etc. Second is *business level strategy* concerned with planning and actions designed for each business units to make those units more competitive in a market. Third is *functional level strategy* that intended to maximize productivity, efficiency, research and development, marketing and investment and so on. Besides, the formulation of human resource strategy involves five steps i.e. *Analyse* of what are the business needs, problems and issues, *Diagnose* what are the causes of problems, why issues prevail and so on, *Conclusion and recommendation* of analysis and diagnosis, next is *Action Planning* which identifies actions required to implement to overcome the issues and problems, *Resource planning* highlights what resources are required and how to obtain these, and final step is *Benefits* of implementing these actions and proposals. Moreover, success of strategic human resource management (SHRM) depends upon competencies of human factor such as business knowledge, analytical skills, leadership qualities, influence management, achievement motivation and so on, also support of top management, organizational policies, availability of resources, appropriate techniques of measurement, transparency in evaluation process and flexibility of human resource management (HRM) system and so on (Krishnan & Singh, 2006). All these mentioned factors have a direct impact on the success of strategic human resource management (SHRM).

MODE OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

The process of strategic management is usually broken down into five steps (Daft, 2001):

Mission, Targets and Goals: The mission and vision of an organization has to be clear, we cannot proceed on without having a mission. The mission should be in line with the vision. There is a very thin line of difference between vision and mission. Vision is more future oriented and encompasses the main targets or positions or status to be achieved and mission is a set of actions taken in this regard. The mission, targets and goals go hand in hand with each other. All these three components need to be strategized in order to achieve organizational effectiveness.

Environmental Analysis: While strategizing, it needs to be clearly seen that whether the actions taken are in consonance with the prevailing environment, hence environmental analysis is of paramount importance in this regard. If we deny the role of environment in which the organizations are functions, then the planning will be of no use. A number of factors prevailing in the environment may directly or indirectly impact the vision and mission of an organization, and there needs to be a proper mechanism to address the problems that may arise because of these factors.

Strategy Formulation: It involves formulation of a roadmap to achieve particular targets/objectives. While formulation of strategies, we should keep in mind that whether all factors that may impact the achievement of goals, are taken into consideration or not. Strategy formulation must be an objective and rational process and it should be grounded in the knowledge of behavioural science. Pertinent to mention here that behavioural science has a lot to offer in this regard.

Strategy Implementation: No strategy is of any use until it is implemented in letter and spirit. Implementation may be a challenging task, but better managerial skills can prove in a handy while implementation of the plans. Proper planning, controlling, coordinating and allocation of resources in judicious manner are always desirable in this regard. Apart from this the knowledge of organizational behaviour and human resource management can also prove effective in this regard.

Strategy Evaluation: After the strategy has been implemented, it needs to be checked that whether the strategy is helping the organization to be more effective than before. A proper follow up of strategy becomes very important in this regard. In case of any negative impact of the strategy, the managers or administrators of any organization should revisit the strategy. There can be many ways of analysing the impact of the strategy, one way is to go for a prior SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities & Threats) analysis and compare it with the SWOT analysis carried after the strategy has been implemented over a course of time.

OBJECTIVES OF STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (SHRM)

According to Agarwala (2002) strategic human resource management (SHRM) ensures the availability of skilled, trained, loyal, knowledgeable and highly motivated, committed and dedicated employees of an organization to sustain in competition and also achieve competitive advantage. Next is it helps the organization to meet the needs of both workforce and business. As per Anyangwe (2017) strategic human resource management (SHRM) have been proven to be an effective management style and a worthy mean to provide suitable solution for handling critical issues and effectively handling human capital with the objectives of improving performance and overall success of an organization. Further, while managing people, it focus more on human relation aspect with continue development of resources. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) brings necessary coordination between various units and activities of an organization, creating an optimal utilization of opportunities, attaining goals and objectives and preventing threats (Gilani, Zadeh & Saderi, 2012). Moreover, the researcher indicated that the strategic human resource management creates consistency and harmony between human resource strategy and organizational strategy and at the same time creates synergetic coordination between HR policies and general strategies of an organization. It provides framework to achieve organizational targets and goals and design plans to achieve desirable outcomes, compete with others; and exploit human capital and other resources effectively and efficiently. According to Dessler (2008) objectives of strategic human resource management (SHRM) is to ensure fairness in terms of treatment and job security for every employee. Next is it provides competitive salaries, promotion incentives and build healthy communication channels so to reduce turnover. Besides, strategic human resource management (SHRM) develop and design career management tools, work enrichment strategies, and other beneficial programmes in order to prepare employees for new challenges and curb new opportunities. Further strategic human resource management (SHRM) builds cordial relationship with senior professional and also identify mangers whose value are not people oriented. According to Bagga and Srivastava (2014) strategic human resource management (SHRM) promotes high level of performance and develops organizational culture that flourishes creativity, innovation, flexibility and competitive advantage. In fact now-a-days one of the important way of implementing strategic HR policies, and practices in an organization occurs in the form of E- human resource management (HRM), E – attendance and E- recruitment by removing the chances of frauds (Ganesan, 2014).

IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (SHRM)

As Fombrun, Tichy and Devanna (1984) had rightly stated *that Strategic human resource management (HRM) is a set of techniques enables intervention to be made within business in order to improve performance.* Karami, Analoui and Cusworth (2004) revealed that strategic human resource management (SHRM) is a key element of organizational success, improves organizational performance and leads to organizational effectiveness. Also strategic human resource management (SHRM) practices are very highly advantageous for the business organization as it plays an important role in the advancement of the degree of team development and team learning among employee (Alharthey & Rasli, 2011). Besides, it fosters the degree of transfer of knowledge among diverse team members with more emphasis on the establishment of collaborative working practices. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) policies and practices are very essential for engaging the diverse employees towards performing integrated roles and responsibilities. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) views human resource as an important source of competitive advantage and when their human resources are managed effectively with human resource policies and practices, it may in turn improve productivity, quality of products, services and financial performance (Caliskan, 2010). According to Brewster, Dowling, Grobler, Holland and Warnich (2000) strategic human resource management (SHRM) is very beneficial to the organization because it contributes in the accomplishment of organizational goals and helps in the survival of the organization. Strategic human resource management (SHRM) supports and helps in implementing business strategies of the firm successfully. Moreover it creates and maintains a competitive advantage for the organization. Besides, strategic human resource management (SHRM) also helps in improving the responsiveness, creativity and innovation capability and potential of the company. It enables in increasing and exploring the number of feasible strategic options available to the company. Further strategic human resource management (SHRM) improves cooperation and connection between human resource management (HRM) department and line managers. Additionally, strategic human resource management (SHRM) impacts performance of an employees and organizational performance positively.

MODELS OF STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (SHRM)

There are three main models of strategic human resource management (SHRM) which are given below:

Control Based Model: This approach is based on the nature of control and how managers direct, monitor and controls employee's performance. According to this model strategy HR is an instrument to direct, monitor and controls all aspects of work to ensure maximum productivity and profitability. Thus this model is results oriented and always focuses on the maximisation of the output, so due care should be taken while adoption of this model because the Hawthorne studies carried out in the 1930's have demonstrated that output should not be the only concern, there are a number of other factors which may impact the functioning of the organization. The studies had manipulated a lot of factors like lighting conditions, supervision etc. To check their impact on productivity. Mass interviews were also carried out and it came to the forefront that the social ties in a group have a lot to do with the productivity and merely reliance on increasing output doesn't work beyond a particular threshold. It was noticed that the workers within a group had set limits for producing a particular level of output to prevent the demands of an increased level of output from the organizations. Thus it is clear that the control based model should be used very judiciously in order to achieve the maximum efficiency.

Resource Based Model: This approach implies the phenomena of reward-effort exchange, where managers perceive and treat their work force as a valuable resource and asset not a liability. Resource based strategic HR emphasis on strategic importance to exploit the competencies, strengths, resources and capabilities of an organization efficiently. Thus here the human resources are given a prime importance and employees are considered as the key agents of growth and development of an organization. As the model believes in reward-effort exchange, every individual in the organization goes beyond the expected level of performance and benefits the organization in the long run.

Integrative Model: It integrates the above two mentioned models with focus on managerial control and reward –effort exchange (Bamberger & Meshoulam, 2000). Thus it is an amalgam of the control and resource based methodology and has the advantage of not only controlling but also getting the maximum from the resources of the organization. Pertinent to mention here, due to a myriad of factors affecting the functioning of today's organizations, integrative models are being increasingly adopted.

FOUR MAJOR PERSPECTIVES OF STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (SHRM)

Contingency Perspective: Contingency perspective of strategic human resource management (SHRM) indicates that fit, interaction or alignment between human resource management (HRM) strategies and organizational strategy have a great effect on effective performance (Hoppas, 2013). The contingency perspective of strategic human resource management (SHRM) investigates directly the link between the strategy adopted by the organization and the human resource management (HRM) practices (Jery & Souai, 2014). Besides, this perspective believes that the firm's performance is enhanced and improved by the adoption of human resource management (HRM) practices which are in line with the type of strategies adopted by the firm. In contrast if human resource management (HRM) practices are not consistent with business strategies and are in conflict with other human resource management (HRM) practices it will create confusion, ambiguity and may also lead to reduction in performance for the employees and the whole organization (Essays, 2013).

Universalistic Perspective: The universalistic perspective is a best practice within HR system and a simplest approach of strategic human resource management (SHRM) (Delery & Doty, 1996). This approach emphasis on a single set of universally applicable human resource management system and to achieve organizational goals and effective performance it focuses on coordination among various HR practices. Development of universalistic approach needs two steps. First, identifying important strategic HR practices and second is the integration of HR practice to organizational performance (Fagerholm, Lorentzson & Moritz, 2010). This approach of strategic human resource management (SHRM) believes that there are certain HRM practices that are better suited than others to improve and increase firm's performance (Hamid, 2013). Universalistic approach is based on three main principles: principle of universality and superiority which emphasis that there are some strategic human resource management (HRM) practices which are more beneficial than others and can be adopted by any organization (Delery & Doty, 1996). Second is principle of selectivity and superior financial performance reading also called best human resource management (HRM) practices that creates higher financial performance (Hamid, 2013). Third is principle of independence and additivity that states that effect of human resource management (HRM) practices on performance is the outcome of the individual effects of each practice with instantaneous use of several other Human resource management practices. The universalistic perspective of strategic human resource management (SHRM) is basically based on two theories i.e. the human capital theory and the strategic resource theory (Hamid, 2013).

Configurational Perspective: The configurational perspectives is one of the complex approach emphasis shared influence of various variables and deals with *patterns* or *configure* of human resource management (HRM) system that determines effective performance (Hoppas, 2013). The configurational perspective combines internal and external fit which is considered as a basis for maintaining and improving performance of individual and the organization (Essays, 2013). Configurational approach of strategic human resource management (SHRM) are different from universalistic perspective and also from contingency approach, as configurational theories are based on holistic principle of inquiry and adopts the assumption of "*equifinality*" (Delery & Doty, 1996). In simple terminology configurational theories deals with how the patterns of multiple independent variables are related to dependent variable instead of how individual independent variable are associated with dependent variable (Delery & Doty, 1996). There are three types of strategies used in configurational approach i.e. prospector, analyser and defender (Essays, 2013). The prospector strategy is applied when strategy is changing frequently and is more suited to market type system. While as defender strategy emphasis on efficiency and quality of products are more suitable in the market that are competitive in nature. The third type of configurational strategy is the analyser which is the middle ground between the defender and prospector and is more appropriate for organizations that are new and have stable product domains.

Contextual Perspective: The contextual perspective is a broader explanation of the relationship between strategic human resource management (SHRM) and its context. In other terms this approach views organization as a social institutions need to integrate in a context in which it operates (Hoppas, 2013). The contextual perspective provides a descriptive and global explanation that goes beyond the organizational level and integrates the function in a macro-social framework with which it interacts (Martin-Alcazar, Romero-Fernandez & Sanchez-Gardey, 2005). As per this approach strategies are not considered through their contribution to the organizational performance but through their impact on the internal aspect of the organization and external environment of the organization. The contextual theories focused on three aspects of strategic human resource management (SHRM) i.e. the nature of human resources, the level of analysis and the actors involved in organizational functions (Martin-Alcazar, Romero-Fernandez & Sanchez-Gardey, 2005).

CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTING STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (SHRM)

According to Becker and Huselid (2006) various challenges facing during the implementation of strategic human resource management (SHRM) are mentioned below:

- Challenge of managing the workforce as well as managing HR professionals.
- The challenge of differentiation.
- Appropriate measurement challenge.
- New competencies in workforce management.

CONCLUSION

It can be safely concluded that organizations cannot survive without strategizing human resource management (SHRM), to ensure the same it is of paramount importance to gain an understanding into this construct in light of components, objectives, models and perspectives. However according to Becker and Huselid (2006) one can face various challenges during the implementation of strategic human resource management (SHRM), a few of those include challenge of managing the workforce as well as managing HR professionals, the challenge of differentiation, appropriate measurement challenge and highlighting the new competencies in workforce management. So it is highly recommended for the organizational researchers to speed up the pace of research not only for the sake of understanding strategic human resource management but also the potential challenges in its implementation.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Every organization wants to be effective in the contemporary world, but a lot of obstacles might come in the way to stay effective. But the experts in the field of organizational psychology & human resource management offer many solutions and recommendations for the same. Efficient planning is very important and highly recommended for strategizing of organization at various levels. In case there is any deficit in planning, then the process of strategizing will not be effective, rather it can prove counterproductive for any organization. Strategizing should involve a rational decision making process and while taking any decision it should be kept into consideration that whether it is grounded in the key aspects of intelligence, choice and design. Besides, strategizing process should be transparent and should be backed by a very dynamic structure of an organization, it is highly recommended that organizations should strategize not only the human resource management aspects, but the same should also reflect in structure & methodology of functioning of the organization.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

No field is devoid of the attention from researchers, and same holds true for strategizing the human resource management. A plethora of research has always been carried out in understanding the dynamics of strategizing the human resource management. Both qualitative and quantitative enquiries have been made from time to time, however there is further scope of carrying out objective research enquiries in the field. Rigorous methodological techniques in the form of structural equation modelling, path analysis and allied techniques can be used to check the benefits of strategizing. Besides the future research studies should mainly focus on the policy implications of the research process rather than merely relying on the significance levels, managerial implications need to be focused to a more extent.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Configurational Perspective: The configurational perspectives is one of the complex approach emphasis shared influence of various variables and deals with *patterns* or *configure* of human resource management (HRM) system that determines effective performance.

Contextual Perspective: It is a broader explanation of the relationship between strategic human resource management (SHRM) and its context.

Contingency Perspective: Contingency perspective of strategic human resource management (SHRM) indicates that fit, interaction or alignment between human resource management (HRM) strategies and organizational strategy have a great effect on effective performance.

Human Resource Management: Human resource management (HRM) is an activity designed to provide for and coordinate of human resources of an organization.

Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM): It is the extent to which human resource management is integrated with the strategic decision-making processes that tend to direct organizational efforts to cope effectively with environmental demands.

Strategy: A particular way of doing something, the word is derived from a Greek word *strategus*, means "commander in chief" or "long run direction."

Universalistic Perspective: The universalistic perspective is a best practice within HR system and a simplest approach of strategic human resource management (SHRM) which emphasis on a single set of universally applicable human resource management system.

Chapter 16
Learning Organizations

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ABSTRACT

The most important factor that protects organizations from solidifying is knowledge. In an organization, knowledge is produced by people and these people learn. However, learning alone is not sufficient for the success of the organization. For a lasting and sustainable process, organizational learning is required. The basic condition for the realization of organizational learning is the existence of an atmosphere that encourages individuals to learn. In the organizations that provide the necessary atmosphere for learning, both the individual's learning capacity increases, and learning as a team takes place in the organization. In this study, first, knowledge, knowledge types, individual learning, organizational learning, levels of learning, and learning organization concepts are covered. Second, different models for realizing the learning organization structure are narrated. Last, some examples from learning organization practices are mentioned.

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge is the most important factor to put forwards the organizations in the competition. However, the competitiveness of knowledge depends on the environmental conditions. The knowledge, that the employees need to have alterations as the environmental conditions of the business and the technology it operates with changes. Although machine learning is mentioned, in business, actually people learn, and decide what will be uploaded to the machines, what will they know and apply these decisions of theirs.

Organizations that do not give the necessary reactions to the changes in a timely manner solidify and lose their vitality. The most important factor that protects organizations from solidifying is knowledge. In an organization, knowledge is produced by people and these people learn. However, learning alone is not sufficient for the success of the organization. For a lasting and sustainable process, organizational learning is required. The basic condition for the realization of organizational learning is the existence of an atmosphere that encourages individuals to learn. In the organizations that provide the necessary atmosphere for learning, both the individuals' learning capacity increase and learning as a team takes

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place in the organization. Organizations, where organizational learning takes place, become a learning organization. For these organizations, learning transforms into organizational processes that reproduce itself transcending the individuals.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Knowledge and Learning

Data and information are phenomena that are impartial and are independent of people. People, by using this material perform the action of learning. People, by processing data, transform it to information and by processing information transforms it to knowledge. The last phase of knowledge is wisdom. Knowledge has two types: explicit and tacit. Explicit knowledge comprises information that can be articulated and written down. To illustrate, older workers have often acquired expert knowledge in their jobs that they can pass on verbally or in written form to their colleagues. Explicit knowledge in the occupational context is mostly related to professional expertise; those knowledge contents that can be easily articulated by an individual. Tacit knowledge is a multidimensional concept consisting of several aspects. First, it has been referred to as practical intelligence or practical knowledge. Second, scholars have called for more attention to the social aspects of tacit knowledge (Gerpott, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Voelpel, 2017). In the long run, the only sustainable source of competitive advantage is your organization's ability to learn faster than its competition (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 2002, p. 11).

Explicit and implicit knowledge types, two dimensions of knowledge, and trying to reduce one to the other is little like trying to reduce a two-dimensional drawing to one dimension. No amount of explicit knowledge provides you with the implicit. "Know that" doesn't produce "know how", and *learning about* doesn't, on its own, allow you to *learn to be*. Information, all these arguments, suggest, is own not enough to produce actionable knowledge. Practice too required. And for practice, it's best to look to a community of practitioners (Brown & Duguid, 2002, p. 135).

Knowledge, often mixed with information, is not fully transferable. It often exists with its knower. Therefore, the management of knowledge is usually quite difficult. The organizations begin to realize the knowledge is attached to the knower; it lies in people more than it lies in the databases. Therefore, although some parts of the knowledge are managed to be stored, a hundred percent existence of the knowledge is only possible with the existence of creators or carries of knowledge. For instance, the data for going to the moon again exists within NASA. However, human expertise and experience do not. Thus, NASA would have to start from the beginning for such action (Brown & Duguid, 2002,p. 122).

Learning can mean either something learned which is also called the product or the process itself. We can say that learning happens when an organization obtains any kind of information (knowledge, techniques…) by any means (Argyris & Schön, 1996, p. 3). A learning organization can be defined by its continuous learning process and potential for change toward values shared with the collective involvement of its employees (Watkins & Marsick, 1993). There are seven principles for an organization to be qualified as a learning organization: (Marsick & Watkins, 2003): (1) "*Create continuous learning opportunities*." If learning is placed in the heart of work itself, people will be able to learn while working. Providing other opportunities are also important. (2) "*Promote inquiry and dialogue*." For employees to enhance their reasoning skills, they should able to be express their views, listen and respect the others' views, ask questions and give feedback if needed. (3) "*Encourage and collaboration and team learn-*

ing." Work, in itself, requires groups to exist and act harmoniously. Groups need to have the ability to work and learn together. Cooperation is also culturally important and expected. (4) "*Create systems to capture and share learning*." Systems integrated into work to share learning are needed. They need to be created, accessed and maintained. (5) "*Empower people toward a collective wisdom*." A joint vision is achieved with the involvement of people. Giving people decision making responsibility is a great way to motivate them for learning. They tend to lean toward what they're responsible for. (6) "*Connect the organization to its environment*." When people access the environment of the organization, they get able to see the impact of their organization on the whole environment, evaluate the works of others and acquire knowledge to use for their own organization. (7) "*Provide strategic leadership for learning*." Leaders are the ones who should be role models for learning, they need to provide and support learning. They also benefit from learning as a strategy for success.

Senge, in his learning organization definition, emphasizes the community to increase its capacity via learning. In learning organizations people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, they create new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, and there, people are continually learning how to learn together (Senge P. M., 1994, p. 3).

Krogh, Ichijo, and Nonaka (2002) state that the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge takes place in five stages. These; sharing of implicit knowledge, producing concepts, realizing concepts, creating prototypes and disseminating information.

Sharing implicit knowledge. Implicit knowledge cannot be easily transferred as it depends on feelings, personal experiences, and movements of the body. It requires to be close to the job done physically. Some ways of sharing implicit knowledge: (a) Direct observation, (b) Direct observation and narration, (c) Mimic, (d) Trial and comparison, (e) Working together. *Production of Concepts.* Expressing knowledge means to express common applications and evaluation via words. The emergence of a concept can occur through experience and imagination coming together or existing ideas coming together. *Realization of the Concepts.* In the phase of realization of the concepts, community members, department managers, external stakeholders such as top management, suppliers, consumers, judicial or governmental representatives or even artists and writers can join to the process. *Formation of the prototype.* A prototype is the concrete form of the concept and obtained through combining concepts, products, parts, and procedures with the new concept. *Dissemination of the knowledge.* Physical shapes such as prototype, sketches, specifications or models make it possible for the knowledge to be disseminated and this knowledge can transform into pilot production, full-scale production, distribution, and sales. However, most of the knowledge, specifically implicit knowledge is hard to be disseminated within the institution. Explicit knowledge can be disseminated through computers and other communication tools, however implicit knowledge requires becoming socialized, being in the same place and good relationships.

According to Herbst (1993), the learning organization consists of six ways of learning which occur simultaneously. These are: "Organizational learning, collegial learning on the job, instruction/guidance from senior to junior, learning through work planning and learning through change, and a discussion of the reallocation of resources" (Amble, 2017).

Learning Levels

Learning levels from the individual perspective consist of four different phases in between gaining and producing knowledge: Awareness, knowledge/understanding, to apply knowledge and skills to the job and skill development.

From a learning psychological perspective, levels of learning refer to competencies a learner can achieve. Bruner (1966) distinguishes between passive and active learning, between what we know and what we do with what we know (Bruner, 1966). Acquisition of the information is not adequate enough for learning to include the ability to implement. Gilbert Ryle differs “know that” and “know how” from each other. Learning about contains the acquisition of “know that”: meaning the acquisition of data, information, and facts. However, learning about does not contain the capability of putting “know that” into practice. Accumulation of information does not provide “know how. The only way to learn how is to practice, by practicing we learn to be. The key difference between all management theorists or managers is their different implementation, otherwise, they all have similar “know that”. A successful management theorist may express the qualifications of good management, however, would not operate as a successful manager himself or herself. In a similar way, a successful manager may not serve as a theoretician (Brown & Duguid, 2002, p. 129).

Organizational learning occurs in three levels: Individual level learning, team level learning, and organizational level learning.

Learning at the Individual Level. Learning takes place when disjunctures, discrepancies, surprises, or challenges act as triggers that stimulate a response. Individuals select a strategy or action based on their cognitive and affective understanding of the meaning of the initial trigger. Once a strategy or plan of action is determined, the individual implements the strategy. The strategy then either works or does not work as expected. When it does not work, there is dissonance and the cycle is triggered again (Marsick & Watkins, 2003).

Learning at the Team Level. According to Senge (1997) when individuals become teams and start learning as teams. The learning ability is improved. He further explained that learning starts with dialogue which means openly share ideas and every member can give suggestions to managers. Ideas are generating automatically, and no company compares with this. When a team starts to learn truly then not only, they are creating extraordinary consequences, but also the level of learning in individual members is rising more rapidly and every individual become learned.

Learning at the Organizational Level. The most important thing about learning at the organizational level is its collective character. Organizational learning is the consequence of a process that is interactive and dependent on various factors. Having an evaluative attitude towards the organization’s external and internal environment gives the chance to respond in advance to the organization. Furthermore, the organizational culture and the ideology of the organization are determinants of the organization’s attention and actions. For this to happen, the organization should have a vision about how to act, collective values about purposes and the ability to operate collectively against various kinds of obstacles. This collective ability paves the actions performed collectively. Organizational learning does not solely mean the sum of the learning performed by individuals within the organization, which is also required for the organization to evolve but enough. When the individuals’ ability to learn is enhanced, the learning ability of the organization is also increased; as long as the organization appreciates these efforts, motivates the individuals to practice their learning, uses mechanisms further reward and sustain learning. Shortly, learning of individuals is linked to learning of the organization, however, it is not equivalent to it and may be associated with it. (Marsick & Watkins, 2003).

Tortorella and Fogliatto (2014), defines five operation fields for each of the learning levels. Individual learning level: (1) Recognition system, (2) Clear tasks and functions, (3) Participative activities, (4) Feedback, (5) Coaching.

Team Learning Level: (1) Recognition system, (2) Performance evaluation process, (3) Small group activities, (4) Communication and information sharing, (5) Career planning and training.

Organizational Learning Level: (Recognition system, (2) Performance measurement system, (3) Teamworking promotion, (4) Guidelines deployment, (5) Employee development policy.

In a study developed in the banking sector in Pakistan, it is determined that there is positive directional relationship between the knowledge performance and team performance with the variables of three basic levels of learning (individual, team and organizational level) and seven sub-dimensions of these (continuous learning, inquiry and dialogue, collaboration and team learning, system that capture and share learning, people environment, connection the organization to its environment, strategic leadership for learning) (Sohaib, Ihsaan, Yousaf, & Majeed, 2017).

Argyris states that learning phenomenon in the organizations become evident in two ways: Single ringed learning and double ringed learning. Single ringed learning is based on directing a question to get a one-dimensional answer. The favorite example in this topic is thermostat; this device measures the temperature according to a standard setting and turns a heat source on or off according to this. This operation is a binary operation of turning on or off. On the other hand, double ringed learning requires to take one more or even more steps. It provides the question to get back to the source of the question. If we adapt the example of the thermostat to this situation, in the double ringed learning, if the current setting is the optimum temperature that you need to keep the room in or if this source of heat is the most efficient tool to reach this temperature. The double ringed process can bring the question of why this current setting is chosen forward. Double ringed learning is based not only objective facts but also the reasons and motives at the back of these facts (Argyris, 2001, p. 97).

METHODS FOR LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS

In this part, the learning organization method that is used widely is explained in detail. These are methods that are Five Disciplines developed by Peter Senge, World Café designed by Brown and Digiud and Socratic conversation based on the ancient Greek philosopher Socrates and Communities of Practice pictured by Wenger and Synder.

Five Disciplines

Peter Senge (1994) specified in his work called Five Disciplines that for organizational learning to occur five disciplines are needed to be applied together in an organization. These disciplines are; system thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, and team learning. What fundamentally will distinguish learning from authoritarian “controlling organizations” will be the mastery of certain basic disciplines. That is why the “discipline of learning organizations” are vital.

System Thinking. A system contains all events and space which all are associated and existed in the same way. Each of them means an impact which is mostly not visible. For example, it’s is possible to perceive rainstorm only by paying attention to the whole, not by each raindrop. Other human efforts like a business are also like rainstorms. They also consist of invisible but related patterns and analyzing their impacts on one another is usually very hard. The knowledge and tools that are used to change the systems are called system thinking.

Personal Mastery. This discipline of personal mastery implies the process of people to deal with their personal vision in a manner of clarifying and deepening. In this process, the expected path goes through personal energy focus, patience building, and moving from a more subjective manner to a more objective one. This path and discipline are one of the primary basis for the learning organization where this discipline is directly related to a spiritual aspect of this basis.

Mental Models. These models are directly related to the assumptions made to understand the outside world where it also contains some generalizations and approaches that include certain images. The relationship between the mental models and their effects on behavior is not a conscious one. However, these effects such as the understandings and unconscious assumptions towards the potentials of various management settings are rooted. Hence, a significant amount of novelties in terms of management and organizational practices that are tried to be put into practice fail because of these models. In order to prevent this situation, these models are needed to be revealed through an internal analysis. And this process is needed to be understood as a continuous process where these are "learning" conversations towards mental model and cannot be finalized completely where the effect of these conversations are also needed to be spread through different parts of the organization.

Building Shared Vision. These set of practices are directly related to the discussions related to a collective design of the future and the main factors of this design are commitment and attention and here obeying others is not a manner that is included to the picture. In this picture again, the leaders' roles are really important as they need to make a medium for all these commitment-based manners to be seen and heard.

Team Learning. This aspect of organizational learning includes "extra-curricular" activities of the organization that requires to act as a team such as sports, arts, or even different science activities. Here, in these examples of learning collaboratively, not only the team but also the individuals within the team gain important skills to act together and think together. This process is also a process of analyzing the problems that are not seen on the surface and these team learning activities provide a space for the organizations to overcome these problems where defensiveness, for example, can be seen as one of these problems. This understanding and approach towards learning where teams are put into the focus is the essence of the modern organization and is a prerequisite for organizational learning.

The principles that Senge represents in the institutional level found itself a wide application field with different commentaries. Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Smith, & Ross (1998) present a wide range of application examples in this field. *The Learning Lab* is an application module developed with reference to Five Disciplines (Zeniuk, 2019).

The approach of Senge is a model that inspired many applications with respect to specifically project-based works of every quality within a business.

The World Café

Two questions that The World Café platform, which was formed by Juanita Brown and David Isaacs in 1995, is seeking answers to (Brown & Isaacs, 2005, p. 3): (a) How can we enhance our capacity to talk and think more deeply together about the critical issues facing our communities, our organizations, our nations and, our planet? (b) How can we access the mutual intelligence and wisdom we need to create innovative paths forward?

Brown and Isaacs, in order to find answers to the questions above, with reference to people chatting in a café intimately, aimed to constitute an environment where they can talk with each other outside any form of hierarchical pressure.

The leaders at Café weren't those with formal management titles, but rather anyone with great ideas for how to produce the most net revenue in a manner that is consistent with our mission and values. The Café conversations allowed people to contribute whom others don't normally see because they work nights and weekends or lead trip.

They grounded this environment of talking named The World Café on seven stages (Brown & Isaacs, 2005): (1) Set the context, (2) Create hospitable space, (3) Explore questions that matter, (4) Encourage everyone's contribution, (5) Cross-pollinate and connect diverse perspectives, (6) Listen together for patterns, insights, and deeper questions, (7) Harvest and share collective discoveries.

Set the context. In this phase, the reasons behind this coming together and what will be considered as the main issues of this occasion is shared. In this sense, context implies the main framework of the occasion and directly related to interpreting the experience of dialogue. This basis of context needs to involve flexibility for the individuals within the group to get involved in the whole process for the collaborative learning to occur.

Create hospitable space. Hospitable place includes providing a space that is comfortable both physically and mentally for all participants where there is also mutual respect. This hospitable place can be formed through including the personal experience and arts can be a useful tool. Here, the participants are expected to feel safe but also be able to part of any kind of an adventure where this ends up with a successful World Café hosting scene. This scene can concretely be activated through small café tables or small groups of 4-5 that sits around a circle shape seeing each other. On the other hand, the abstract dimension of this scene consists of "collaborative conversation, shared learning and collective insight" (pp. 73-76).

Explore questions that matter. This phase of the Café consists of focusing on powerful questions. The unanswered questions are needed to be in the focus and in addition the group needs to have the aspect of having the motivation of looking for alternative questions (p. 90). These alternative questions are critical in terms of widening the discussion effectively, the more effective question there is the wider and effective discussion for the group (Peavey, 1994, p. 91). Positive change has a direct relationship with the power level of these questions (p. 91). These questions are more effective if they also have the aspect of the group's intentions, interests, different forms of energy and synergy where the future is aimed through these questions. Here, information and guiding these powerful questions, the mission of the host is really critical where the potential of the group can be revealed through an effective (p.92).

Encourage everyone's contribution. One of the most important aspects of the Café is a contribution and making the group act as a group. Here the individuals in the group are motivated to contribute to the group's discussion deeply, through their personal aspect. But here, in order to guarantee acting as a group, these participants are asked to relate their position and thoughts with the group's position as well. Here the participants are motivated to be part of the group and consider their contribution to the group's mission.

Here, in order the Café to be effective, contribution, rather than criticizing other's ideas or thoughts needs to be in the focus and the main aim, in this sense happen to be increasing the collective knowledge towards specific issues. In addition, in these Café organizations, different visual tools are used to interact with the individuals in the group to discuss collaboratively not only verbally but also visually. This co-learning and co-production atmosphere motivate the participants to become a part of a whole where the group attachment and awareness increases. In this process, the density of the connections between the participants also increases in time. These density-related aspects are also crucial in terms of having an organic process of more committed participants of a group and this group to have a common understanding of common issues (p. 105).

Cross-pollinate and connect diverse perspectives. Here, it is necessary to accept the system as a living organism where the diversity and dense relationships are necessary and also the main questions are always on the table. In order for the learning to be at the optimum level, the interaction needs to be increased. The mission is interaction and hence the networks built has a significant role in change and novelties (p. 112).

This understanding and modeling through networking and connections is alike the brain and its way of working. In this model as well, the individuals within the group and network are important but there is also the connection's power in terms of the results. In addition, attraction towards network increases the capacity of the group deeply (p. 113). The attraction mentioned here is mostly powerful questions in the Café scene. These powerful questions, through the similarities with the brain, can be said to activating the synapses of the group and the capacity of the network to organize itself increases by itself. Having new connections and links within the group and hence network brings out new discussions and novelty to the group and so increases to potential to establish an understanding of future together. One of the tensions that can occur within this novelty is can be discussed between designed and emergent structures. Designed structures can be listed as charts, schedules and the structures where the limitations are strict and pre-defined. And on the contrary, the emergent structures are spontaneous and cannot be foreseen. For the conversations conducted within the World Café, these two structures are needed to take place in a balanced manner. Hence, both intentional and natural needs to be present in the World Café (p. 117). For all these balances to happen, the host is really critical as well. The host can make a discussion transform from being interesting to be a collective action (p. 118).

Listen together for patterns, insights, and deeper questions. In this aspect, being aware of the individual contributions and their effect on the output of the discussion without keeping the group's dynamics in the background. "Conceptual and technical playground for the collaborations" is a clarification for this form of discussion which is used for World Café hosts discussions (p. 130). In order this to happen, distance in between discussions in terms of both space and time is an important key for a powerful outcome. Time needed to have reflections towards some responses is necessary for World Cafés to have (p. 135).

Harvest and share collective discoveries. Although collection a common and collective knowledge is critical, making this knowledge to be useful in terms of visibility and action is also critical. Harvesting the collective discoveries and stories established by the group as a whole is an important topic for this system to work efficiently. In this sense, both the design process and the facilitation process require a delicate touch where this is really close to an artistic act. Both protecting authenticity and guiding the group to act as a whole towards a specific goal is an important topic for the World Café (p. 149).

World Café is an effective method specifically in terms of wide communities to be organized in short times and sharing thoughts with each other and instilling each other.

Socratic Conversation

Socratic conversation is a structured conversation method that aims to people discussing an issue to understand each other without prejudices and improving their listening skills. In addition to having its inspiration from the dialogues of Socrates and Plato, (Yücesoy, 2006, p. 3) *Socratic Conversation* mentioned here is an application that follows Leonard Nelson (1882-1927) and Gustav Hekmann (1898-1996) tradition. The interest in the *Socratic Conversation* is increasing since the Second World War.

The participants of a *Socratic Conversation* are expected to be expressing their thoughts in a cognizable manner, to understand other participants' thoughts and present their own or others' thoughts in a cognizable manner. They need to say what they *really* think about the questions of discussion or argument and they should not attempt to defend an argument to feel the excitement of discussion if they are not convinced to this argument (p. 13).

In order to take an event to be a *Socratic Conversation* there are four criteria that must be met (p. 22): (1) Moving from concrete and being in connection with a concrete experience. (2) Participants to fully understand each other: Far from understating only verbally; all the participants need to apprehend everything that is said connecting these statements with a concrete experience each time and at the same time must leave a distance in front of individual limitations. (3) Taking a sub-question into consideration till reaching a solution during the conversation: In order this to be succeeded all the participants need to be determined and the mind itself is needed to be trusted. (4) Search for consensus: Testing others' ideas honestly and expressing yourself honestly. If there is such honesty and each participant can act openly in front of both his/her or others' feelings and thoughts, it means that the search for consensus is reached, not necessarily consensus itself.

Socratic Conversation is directed by a moderator. The mission of the moderator in the Socratic Conversation; (a) Paying regard to participants to understand each other. (b) Paying regard to the group to work on the question they chose, and if the group goes to other questions directing them back to the main question. If the group thinks that in order to answer the main question a new question is needed to be answered, providing them to decide this as a group. (c) Preventing the discussion to transform into meaningless speculations. (d) Not bringing his/her own conclusion forward and letting the formation of other participants' subjective conclusions (p.16.17).

Meta Conversation. Meta-conversation, which is developed in the 1970s, is now a natural part, a tool of *Socratic Conversation*. Meta-conversation is not a part of a contextual conversation where a theme is approached through the Socratic method, on the contrary, it is distinguished from this prominently. It is about the participants' behaviors and aims to eliminate the reasons for discomfort that enforces the contextual conversation. Hence, its content is specified according to the needs of the participants. For example, in a study that is conducted together, this factors that created discontent or arouse the feeling of inadequacy are elaborated. These are sometimes directly related to the participants' or moderator's behaviors. A discontent that is based on the discussion to be really slow, lifeless or inefficient or the course of events becoming untraceable, but the reasons are not known by the participants may be at stake. And of course, it is possible to mention the satisfaction from a conversation that is going well and searching for the factors that provide this success.

The subjective position of the moderator is not valid in the contextual conversation. Like the other participants, his/her behaviors are also open to discussion. Meta-conversation is conducted on a regular basis or when there is a need. In meta conversation, an experienced participant takes the role of moderation (p. 19-20).

Socratic conversation is a tempting method for businesses with regards to the formation of a basis for organizational learning in terms of the employees listening to and understanding each other and developing new ideas rather than being a model of solving problems directly.

Communities of Practice

"Communities of Practice" that is described and named by Wegner and Synder (2001) are an appearance, a result, rather than being a design. Communities of Practice are groups of people that are tight-knit with the shared expertise and with the desire of a common attempt. For example, engineers that deal with deep drilling, advisors that have expertise in strategic marketing or bank managers that are responsible for the check transactions in a big commercial bank. These communities of practice come together on a regular basis or by using social media tools, they form a network relationship that is continuous. A community of practice can have an agenda related to a specific week or not; even if there is such an agenda it is not necessarily followed strictly. In addition to this, people taking place in the communities of practice share their experience and knowledge through a fluid and creative ways and this situation strengthens the new approached to the problems (Wenger & Synder, 2001). A community of practice can stay in the unit of work completely, or it can reach out to outside of its unit limits. Even it can carry members of different companies. A community of practice can be constituted of dozens or even hundreds of people; but typically, there is a core participant group that freshens up the community, provides intellectual and social leadership. Big communities mostly separate people into groups according to regions or fields of interest in order to encourage them to take part actively. Communities of practice are different from other organization forms in different ways. Formal teams are formed by the managers in order to realize the specific projects. Managers choose the team members based on their skills of contribution to the target of the team and when the project ends the group is disintegrated. On the other hand, communities of practice are informal; they are organized by themselves; they specify their own agenda and they form their own leadership structure. In a community of practice, membership depends on people's choices. In other words, people specify as if they will participate in such groups or when they will participate in these groups. They specify as if they can contribute to the group or they can acquire anything from the group. And members of a community of practice act upon an insight about the convenience of a candidate while inviting others to the group.

Communities of practice are not created inside an emptiness. In most of the cases, informal networks formed of people that have the skills and desire to improve the capacity of an institution are already present. The job that will be done will specify the groups and providing them to come together as communities of practice. Communities of practice have the weakness that is caused by the fact that they are deprived of the budget opportunities and canonical structures of the settled departments. In order for them to reach their full potential, they need to become integrated with the business and to be supported through specific ways. Communities of practice emerge in companies that are developed on the basis of knowledge. The first step that must be taken by the managers is to understand what these are and how they work. The second step is to see that these are the hidden fountain of development of knowledge and hence the key of the test in the knowledge economy. And the third step is to pay regard to the paradox that it is necessary to have the necessary managerial effort directed to integrate and enhance these informal structures with the institutions through transforming their power into a lever.

Description of Wegner and Synder (2001) of this efficient application that emerges in the operation process cannot be copied to all businesses. A generalization cannot be done from here. However, each business can notice the communities of practice that it embodies through this perspective and take the necessary measures to strengthen these communities. The managers should try to discover what practitioners already know how to do and learn to appreciate the inquiry in which practitioners are already engaged, including the questions they know how to ask and the knowing-in-action they may take for granted and be unable to describe (Argyris & Schön, p. 43).

The Living Company: Both an Understanding and Application Example

The Living Company, which is written by Arie de Geus, who worked as a senior manager in Shell Company for a long time (1997) is one of the most interesting and valuable works in the context of the learning organization. Geus, in this work of his, while talking about the story of how organizational learning takes place, makes a statement about the quality of the organizational learning. Geus states that Living Companies have four properties: (1) "*Sensitivity to the environment"* refers to the ability of the company to learn and adapt to particular conditions. (2) "*Cohesion and identity"*, refers to the company's process of finding its own identity and working towards this cohesion. (3) "*Tolerance* and its *corollary"*, refers to being constructive in terms of the relationship with the outside world where decentralization is at the center of this relationship which is so alike ecology (4) "C*onservative financing"* is a factor of effectiveness where governing oneself in terms of both growth and evaluation is a key factor.

Homo economicus and *Homo sapiens* are two important conceptualizations in this sense. In this conceptualization, the key factor is the approach that one can measure and repeat a causality where there is no will. Hence, having the same circumstances, a specific action would end up with the same output or result although it is implemented around a million times. *Homo economicus* has its roots in such an understanding. In terms of this understanding supply and demand and relative measurements were enough the measure the current situation. The outside world's effect on *Homo economicus* is accepted to be the same for the specific actions and forever. However, *Homo sapiens* is a conceptualization that takes the will to conceptualization. Factors such as going to different schools, living in different neighborhoods, studying different schools themselves are even not properly able to end up with the same result for the same action. Considering these factors and many others makes it impossible for the human beings' movement to be foreseen. Cause and effect relationship do not work for people as living beings (p. 86).

Moving from this discussion, according to Geus there are two types of companies: Economic and river companies. This form of companies is directly acting parallel with the basic understanding of economy where with minimum property or resources, the maximum gain is aimed and the main focus point for these companies is profit. In this sense, investing in human resources is as limited as it is for physical resources. This form of companies acts as a machine where managers' and investors' gain and wealth are aimed. In this sense, members of the community of the company, in other words, mostly workers, do not feel any responsibility towards the actions they have within the company (Geus, 1997, s. 101).

On the other hand, the river companies are the ones that approach their existence as a living being where their community also happens to be ongoing. Although a river is also permanent when looked from the outside, different factors such as presence or absence of rain affect its image from the outside dramatically, but this is still a river that constitutes a gesture towards output building. Continuity is also an important factor where many drops of water are present in the continuity of the river itself. Each drop of water changes places and with new drops of water they change place more effectively. Investment is a factor that requires an effective return. In addition, human resources are important factors for this form of companies where a company is seemed to be a community itself (p. 102). In this regard, for these forms of companies to maintain, a strong container is necessary for controlling and guaranteeing the flow to continue where the container consists of new knowledge and approaches (p. 103).

Both in economic and river companies there is an implicit agreement, contract in between the individual, the worker, and the management. However, in terms of economic companies, this implicit contract there is always an action-reaction between company's attitude towards the individual and individual gaining new skills. On the other hand, when we look at the river companies are under the guarantee of understanding where the management itself is working for them to reach their full potentials (Geus, 1997, p. 118).

Flock is a really critical conceptualization in this regard as innovation does not have a proper effect without this ability which is developed within institutional learning. Two factors that make "flock" grow are mobility and social transmission (Geus, 1997, p. 135). Flocking gives the participants of the learning process to learn from each other, in this sense see this output of the trainings as the more effective side of the story (p. 136). As the company tries all its employees to reach their full potential, the exchange of information between these employees with different backgrounds and learnings from different works and jobs is really valuable for the company (p. 137).

This potential of having a flock and making employees benefit from each other also has an equivalent in the managerial side where the companies where innovation is in the focus of the company, the managers are actually a team because of its capacity of learning faster and more efficiently. This is a transformation of managerial staff to become teams where these teams consist of people who play an important role in the common action and decision making (p. 138).

Tolerance has always been an important factor for companies to have a long life, however, this factor, together with adaptability was not a discussion point for a really long time. Tolerance is a factor that new ideas so that new people to have a place in decision making. Tolerance comes with the potential of a changing company in terms of its composition but requires a high level of patience (p. 146). Tolerance comes hand in hand with creating space to innovation and considering this space to be valuable (p. 147).

For this to happen a stable environment is necessary. Without this environment, fast learning becomes the primary key factor and unpredictability of the environment becomes determinant (p. 151).

The organizational learning experience that Geus share within the context of Shell is a really instructive experience in terms of subtracting social learning skills from the application. It can be said that Geus's biggest contribution to organizational learning is the "living company" concept. By attributing companies' aliveness, he points the capacity of understanding the environmental changes similar to human and developing appropriate responses to these. However, this behavior to emerge, the business needs to gain the property of being a learning organization. Geus, for this purpose, divides companies to two: economic companies and river companies. While economic businesses can only maintain their life according to economic conditions, river businesses renew themselves in a flow and by adapting to new situations rapidly increase the period of their activeness.

LEARNING ORGANIZATION IN PRACTICE

Each method mentioned above is transferred to the application field differently. Organizations realized distinctive models and applications by looking at only organizational learning principles. There are several examples in the paragraphs below.

One of the most important experiences in the learning organization is realized in teamwork in Ford Motor Company, in the process of production of The Lincoln Continental with the leadership of Nick (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Smith, & Ross, 1998, p. 560). Zeniuk summarized the learning experience of the project team as: "The more successful the team becomes, the more it comes in conflict with the larger organization system's expectations and norms. The challenge ahead is to figure out how the team can engage the bigger system to cooperate with the learning and progress being made."

Brown and Isaac (2005), narrate The World Café applications. One of these is de Saudi Aramco Company. The World Café has been used with groups of over seven hundred people to bridge organizational hierarchies and building on Arab society's historical traditions of dialogue (Brown & Isaacs, 2005, p. 71). Çalkavur (2006), shares numerous organizational learning experience in Turkey in organizations and schools.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As seen in the limited literature review, there is no agreed definition of organizational learning. Organizational learning, in its most succinct form, is the transformation of learning into transcendental processes in an organization. The most important challenging factor in today's competition is the rapid change in the character of the external environment, especially in the technology. For this reason, businesses need to look at changing the efficiency levels of their competitors, rather than just the efficiency of their own processes, in order to maintain the balance they have achieved in competition and to obtain a more advantageous position. In this section, five organizational learning methods which are applied in different organizations were mentioned. It is also possible to have more methods in practice. Businesses do not have to copy any of these methods to be effective. What is important is to find and develop the appropriate method for each enterprise by being aware of the value of organizational learning. Businesses can use the methods mentioned in this section for organizational learning and develop their own methods in their own conditions.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In this article, theoretical understanding and application methods related to organizational learning are pointed out. A small number of evidence was presented regarding the results of the application. In the new researches, firstly, it can be investigated whether there are other organizational learning methods that can be generalized except those mentioned here. Secondly, the efficiency and efficiency of the organizational learning methods mentioned can be compared with the data collected from the field.

CONCLUSION

The concept of learning organizations does not point to a specific type of organization or organizational model in terms of organizational theory. The fact that an organization has become a learning organization is not related to how it is formally organized, but rather on what principles it adopts in its approach to human relations. People working in each organization have knowledge of this or that level and every person can learn new information. However, the fact that people working in an organization are very knowledgeable or open to learning new information is not enough to make that organization a learning organization. This is an individual learning situation. Learning at the organizational level is not the sum of many people learning. Yet, individuals carry within them a microcosmic portrait of the organization (Argyris & Schön, 1996). This scene makes it possible for us to identify changes in the association's psychological models, shared qualities, and memory. Learning by people is essential for the association to change yet not adequate. At the point when people increment their ability to learn, they can upgrade the general limit of the association to learn as long as the association is responsive to their endeavors to utilize their learning and sets up suitable instruments to empower, backing, and reward the utilization of what is found out. To put it plainly, singular learning is identified with hierarchical adapting however not equivalent to it and conceivably related to it (Marsick & Watkins, 2003).

When we look at the management literature, it is seen that the learning organization approach is not a management enthusiasm which is a great example and it has a deep and effective management approach. It can easily be said that the need for organizational learning in the future business world will be exacerbated by the fact that competition focuses on the capacity of knowledge and innovation.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Explicit Knowledge: It is codified information and data that is written down and can be easily understood and decoded by the recipient.

Learning About: To have information about a subject only at the mental level. Learning about does not produce the ability to put it into use.

Learning Organization: It is an organization skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights.

Learning to Be: Learning to be able to transfer a subject to the application.

Organizational Learning: A process in which managers and employees within an organization learn to deal with new situations and problems and so become more skilled and experienced.

Tacit Knowledge: It is knowledge that is stored in every person through his/her experiences, emotions, intuitions and observations. Tacit knowledge is knowledge which we do not have words to describe.

Chapter 17
Constructive Conflict Resolution:
The Role of Leader Personality

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ABSTRACT

The effective resolution of inevitable organizational conflicts has an important role in both individual and organizational output. In influencing and decision making, the impact of leaders is much more important than other employees, so leaders in the conflict resolution process play a critical role in organization. Naturally, the decision-making process is influenced by the personality of the leader. However, ineffective conflict resolution styles damage the fundamental values of the organization such as beliefs, trust, and a sense of belonging, all of which will occur in the organization as well as the numeric outputs of the organization. Although the concepts of conflict, personality, and leadership are often dealt with in the literature, there are few studies examining the relationship between a leader's personality traits and conflict resolution. At such an important point, the possible effects of the personality of the leader should be discussed both theoretically and empirically.

INTRODUCTION

Bohn (2002) defines leadership as creating a clear vision, instilling employees' self-confidence, and also providing coordination and communication. Accordingly, leadership, under certain circumstances, is also defined as the process by which a person directs the activities of others in order to achieve personal or group goals (Koçel, 2003: 583). Although leadership is defined in many different forms, the most well-known of these definitions is '…the ability to influence others' (Yukl, 1998).

In acclaimed studies on leadership, the abilities of a leader are directly related to the performances, behavior, and reactions of subordinates (Giberson, 2009). Primarily, successful and effective leadership determine a directive for collective effort and manages, shapes, and develops collective activities in line with this directive (Lather et al., 2009). As Judge and coworkers (2002) stated in their work, "the history

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of the world was the biography of great men" (Carlyle, 1907, p. 18). This expression implies that history is shaped by extraordinary leadership and also forms the basis for the emergence of leadership theory and the relationship between leadership and personality.

Personal factors that cause individuals to affect organizational values are based on factors such as the status and experience of the individual, so the employees of each position do not have the same influence on an organization. Leadership positioning has the power to influence and even change its judgment on what people should be (Sagiv et al., 2007; D'Souza & Dimba, 2010). The choice of this role is influenced by the personality and characteristic features of a leader. Personality traits and their interaction affect managerial goals, values, and needs as well as leadership behaviors. Thus, the cognitive processes that must be sustained in order to achieve these goals, values and needs, as well as the structure of the interpersonal relations and the ways of doing business, are also influenced by the personality of the leader (Belasen & Frank, 2008).

According to some researchers, another reason why personality is involved in leadership studies is the trait-oriented nature of personality. Personality has a coherent structure in adulthood and therefore has predictability power (Strang & Kuhnert, 2009). In addition, there is a homogenization in the structure of the organization with leaders who spread their characteristics to the enterprise and whose decisions are influenced from their point of view (Giberson, Resick, & Dickson, 2005).

The importance of leadership is particularly evident during crises and harsh conditions, making conflict management a very important capability for leadership. Conflict is part of both daily life and business. As a leader, it is necessary to identify situations that will be subject to conflict and to conclude the conflict in such a way that people can remain integrated. The first step of a leader in conflicts that may arise is to determine what people will tolerate or not and what their responsibilities will be. It is necessary to not only understand boundaries and not to cover-up events but also solve basic conflicts and create trust and good relations in the business environment, as much as possible. It is because long-lasting and ineffectively managed conflicts can lead to physiological, intellectual and emotional problems in the individual sense as well as negative emotions among the people that an undesirable climate in the organization forms.

Today's successful organizations need to structure their processes and cultures to prevent ineffective conflicts for both employees and other stakeholders (Nadler & Tushman, 1999) and in this way, losses caused by negative emotions and negative atmosphere in the organization can be prevented. Otherwise, a negative organizational climate caused by ineffective conflict management causes the individual to be adversely affected. Numerous studies in the literature empirically show that after a certain level conflict is closely related to variables such as health, individual performance, and burnout syndrome. The negative impact of the employee leads to losses both directly and indirectly on organizational outputs. However, effectively managed conflicts support creativity and development while creating a positive organizational climate. Numerous studies emphasize the importance of organizational climate for the effectiveness of the organization and therefore it is important to prevent ineffective conflicts which may be seen as an obstacle to the organization. As it has been explained so far, leadership is seen as the most effective position in the organization. In this study, the effect of a leader's personality, which is seen as one of the leader's stable features, will be considered as the determinant of the leader within this study.

The purpose of this study is to discuss the impact of the personality characteristics of leaders on strategies for solving conflicts that may occur in the organization. Following the introduction of the study, personality definition and personality-related approaches will be included. The relevant section will end with discussion of the personality characteristics of the leader. In the next section, the effects of conflict, the impact of personality on conflict, and the conflict resolution models will be discussed. Based on these explanations the role of the leader in effective conflict management will be discussed. The study will conclude with conclusions and recommendations for future studies.

PERSONALITY

Warren (1934) defines personality as "the integrated organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative, and physical characteristics of the individual as it manifests itself in the focal distinctness to others" (cited in Eysenck, 1946). Additionally, according to Allport (1961: p. 28) "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristics behavior and thought". Also, personality refers to "important, relatively stable characteristics within the individual that account for consistent patterns of behavior. Aspects of personality may be observable or unobservable, and conscious or unconscious" (Ewen, 1998).

According to Hogan, Curphy & Hogan (1994), the word personality is generally referred to (1) as structures; dynamics, processes, and trends that constitute the specific behavioral order, and (2) as the elements of this order that can be observed and identified by others. The use of personality in the second way is derived from the word-related approach, and has been referred to as the 'big five personality trait' (Hofmann & Jones, 2005).

Although there is no generally accepted definition of personality, it is possible to summarize the following characteristics of personality;

- Personality focuses on the important and unobtrusive aspects of human behavior.
- It is the nature of the individual, independent of the others.
- Personality includes mental, emotional, social and physical features. Some features of personality are transparent enough to be observed by others, while others are unconscious.
- Personality is based on a variety of factors such as genetic and environmental factors, learning, conscious and unconscious factors, familial and developmental factors (Ewen, 1998).

Questions, such as how the personality is formed and what the basic assumptions of human nature are, have attracted the attention of theorists as well as humanity. Therefore, many approaches about personality have occurred in related literature. However, in order to create a general framework, personality theories can be classified into five categories according to the perspective of competing viewpoints. In the following the perspectives are summarized.

The first of these is the psychoanalytic perspective formed by Freud and the neo-analytic movement against Freud- in certain respects. Freud based his theory on basic instincts of people, including life instincts and death instincts. Neo-analytic theorists such as Jung, Adler, Horney, and Erikson have criticized Freud in terms of over-emphasizing biological factors, phenomena such as sex and childhood, and methods he used to analyze and distinguish their theories from these features (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Cognitive perspective theorists have focused on the development of personality in the early period like psychoanalytic and neo-analytic theorists, but unlike the motivators, they emphasize that their experiences are effective and that this is a conscious process (Wrightsman, 1994). The best known representative is Kelly. Criticism of the theory generally focuses on ignoring emotions and motivators (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Another approach is defined as Humanistic / Existential perspective of which Maslow and Roger are the most important representatives. According to Maslow, personality is affected by heredity and environment, and the basic aim is to realize itself (Simos, Irwin & Drinnien, 1987). Rogers is also of the opinion that man is conscious and rational. These theories are criticized both for explaining the assertive concepts such as self-realization and also for their research methods (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Social-behaviorist perspective is known by the most important representative of Skinner. Theorists define the environment as the most important determinant of human behavior, and Skinner stated that personality is shaped by operant conditioning principles. Other theorists in this category, Bandura and Rotter, have expressed the view that personality is shaped under the influence of both internal processes and environmental factors. This approach is criticized to be too deterministic and to reject any kind of metaphysical dualism (Tayo, 2001).

Trait perspective is an approach shaped by theorists such as Allport, Cattell, Eysenck. According to this approach, hereditary factors and environment are effective in the formation of personality and theorists are also more focused on consciousness than on the subconscious. Traits are a set of long-term and stable behaviors that direct the individual to behave in a certain way and in certain cases direct the behavior of the person (Giberson, 2009). They state that some traits exist in every human being in general, so they are the central traits that make up the personality and they describe the remaining traits as secondary traits. Habits and attitudes are also defined as more specific human behaviors (Lester, 1995). Due to the fact that it is based on statistics rather than theory, trait perspective is criticized for explaining how personality develops but not being able to foresee future behaviors (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). However, it is still an accepted approach because it is easy to understand and also objective. Theorists who have contributed to this approach have developed various measurement tools and have been widely accepted in practice. In this way, it is easier to explain personality through these categories and to associate certain variables with personality traits; thus, the literature has focused on these measurement tools.

Raymond Cattell: 16 Personality Factor (16 PF), McCrea and Costa Five Factor Model (FFM), Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), California Psychological Inventory (CPI), The Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ) and many more scales are developed as self-report inventories based on the related personality approach (see additional reading for detailed information). Among these scales, the five-factor (called as Big Five or FFM) personality scale is a measurement tool frequently used in the literature. The main reason for this might be theoretical support, experimental power, and real world adaptation (Strang & Kuhnert, 2009).

FFM presents a classification of personality rather than a theory (Bono et al., 2002), which may include observable and identifiable behaviors (Hofmann & Jones, 2005) and is composed of openness (to new experience), conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional balance (or neuroticism), and agreeableness (Anderson, 2009). Goldberg (1992) stated that almost all personality traits can be classified by one of the five characteristics. Some aspects of these five personality dimensions define these dimensions; some researchers state that extraversion is defined as three, and the conscientiousness dimension can be explained as four or six features. But, there is no clear consensus on the content defining these dimensions. In addition, researchers generally considered personality as a variable at the individual level (Anderson, 2009).

Researchers agree that FFM is a useful instrument for defining individual differences in all areas of organizational behavior such as business performance (Salgado, 2003), leadership (Lim & Ployhart, 2004), organizational citizenship (Chiaburu et al., 2011), and success (Smithikrai, 2007). In some studies, FFM has been used to analyze conflict resolution and the effectiveness of these pathways (Antonioni, 1998). While conflict resolutions are being handled at the individual level, this may be due to the lack of such studies, since the emergence of interpersonal conflicts involves two or more people. It is thought that FFM influences the interest of the individual and others, hence it affects the conflict resolution as well (Anderson, 2009). Within the scope of this study, personality will be discussed through FFM.

Leadership and FFM Personality

Nowadays, some researchers state that personality is not an appropriate variable related to organizational outcomes (Zimmerman et al., 2010), and in particular, some others state that personality explains very little about leadership (Stogdill, 1948; Mann 1959 cited in McCormack & Mellor, 2002). However, many researchers have figured out useful findings about personality traits to explain both organizational outcomes and leadership. Studies on leadership can be categorized under two headings; 1. What distinguishes the leaders from their followers; 2. What distinguishes the successful leader from the unsuccessful (Hunt, 1985).

Leading leadership theorists (e.g. Yukl, 1998) stated that the trait approach contained methodological and theoretical limitations in the effectiveness of leadership. Yet, according to most researchers, FFM has solved the problems in this sense. They stated that the characteristics expressed in previous studies can be expressed in at least four dimensions of five factors (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). When they interpreted other studies in this sense, it was stated that the effectiveness of the leader was related to a high degree of conscientiousness, agreeableness, extroversion, and low grade neuroticism (Mccormack & Mellor, 2002). In fact, some researchers have found that the five personality traits are related to the transformational and transactional behavior of the leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000; De Hoogh, Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005).

In their 1990 study, Bass stated that there was a significant relationship between low neuroticism and leader effectiveness, and in other studies it was found that there is a relation between low emotional balance, weak and unbalanced role behaviors in leadership, high responsiveness, and extreme behavior-personality traits that are not identified with leadership (Belasen and Frank, 2008).

As Bass (1990) summarized in his study, consistent results could not be obtained in studies of extroversion and leadership. However, in studies carried out in the following years, there are characteristics of extrovertness in the definitions of a leader and a positive relationship between dominance, socialism, and leadership (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994; Judge et al., 2002).

When Bass (1990) listed the leadership-related personality traits, openness was the dimension that showed the best correlation. Additionally, creativity is also included in the list of skills of Yukl (1998). The dimension of openness to new experiences and creativity are also strongly correlated. In addition to these, Judge and his coworkers have expressed a significant relationship between effective leadership and openness to new experiences (2002).

The relationship between the personality traits of leadership and agreeableness are complex. There seems to be a relationship between cooperation and leadership; additionally, altruism, courtesy and sensitivity characteristics are thought to be aggregable people. On the other hand, aggregable people are modest, but leaders should not be too humble (Bass, 1990). Judge et al. (2002) showed that agreeableness was the most unrelated dimension to leadership. Based on all this, we can say that the relationship between leadership and agreeableness are not clear.

We know that awareness of responsibility is related to all business performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991), and it naturally results that traits of a leaders are also associated with effectiveness. People with high consciousness are thought to be more effective leaders because they are determined and patient (Judge et al., 2002).

CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATIONS

Conflict has appeared since the existence of humanity and has been the subject of different disciplines. When we holistically look at studies conducted in the organizational literature, the views on conflict are grouped under three main headings. The classical approach theorists have considered conflict as a negative and a situation to be avoided. The later theorists (behavioral approach) agree that if the conflict is effectively managed, it is not something negative and there is no need to intervene (Robbins, 1978). The following theorists have positive approach to conflict. They find it natural and try to differentiate conflicts from each other.

According to the viewpoint of the theorist Pondy (1967), who is known to have important contributions to conflict literature, conflict contains antecedent conditions, affective states, cognitive states, and conflictual behavior. According to him, conflict is a dynamic process consisting of 5 stages. In addition to these he has classified conflict into 3 different dimensions (1) conflict between individuals who are competing for scarce resources-bargaining model, (2) lower level and upper stage conflict-bureaucratic model and (3) functional conflicts-system model. He also stated that conflict should be evaluated as functional and non-functional conflict rather than good or bad. In the same period, some researchers have started to study the positive aspects of the conflict. They have discussed the conflict within the organization and at an inter-organizational level, and they are seen as good tools for learning and generating new ideas (Lewicki, Weiss & Lewin, 1992; Rahim, 2002). In addition, conflict is often dimensioned as fights, struggles, counter-opinions, (what the conflict is about) feelings and thoughts (what the parties experience), and conflict management (what happened between the parties) (De Dreu et al., 2004).

Studies on conflict in the organizational field have focused on searching for answers to different questions. The antecedents of the conflict, the stages of the conflict, the types of conflicts, the individual and organizational consequences of the conflict, the solutions of the conflict, as well as the methods of intervention in conflict are another area of conflict (Alakavuklar et al., 2012).

Conflict is a common occurrence in groups of organizations that affect group performance. Interpersonal conflicts in groups within an organization arise when an individual's activities conflict with the goals, aspirations, and expectations of others. The mental abilities, biological structure, past experiences, goals, ideas, values, and wishes of a group inevitably lead to disagreements. Conflict and its solutions are an important issue in group interaction (Anderson, 2009). In organizations, people often avoid conflict, and sometimes unintentionally cause it. Many academics seek to draw attention to the differences between the emergence of conflict and the ways to manage conflict (De Dreu et al., 2004).

The consequences of the conflict vary depending on how they react to the conflict, and often the conflict environment is negative for both the organization and individuals- only the ability to effectively manage the conflict well positive consequences (Dijkstra, Van Dierendonck & Evers, 2005). The emergence of a conflict is always felt as fear, insecurity, and attack, whereas well-managed conflicts are important for co-operation and preventing negative results (Troyer & Youngreen, 2009). Poorly managed conflicts lead to non-functional results in the organization: preventing effective problem solving, causing dissatisfaction of the participants about the processes and outputs, and making the integration of the groups impossible, while also leading to other results including stress, loss of performance, and an inability to disseminate resources (Coser, 1956; Janis and Mann, 1977; Miranda & Bostrom 1993). The emergence of conflict as an inevitable situation within the organization, due to various reasons, costs a significant part of the time and efforts of managers (Baron, 1989). Therefore, finding and using effective solution methods is extremely important in terms of organizational results.

Model of Five Style Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

The relationship between personality and conflict has long been studied by researchers. Some studies focused on people using different strategies to respond to conflict. In the results of these studies, they found that individuals differed in terms of avoiding, compromising, dominating, collaboration, or obliging behavior. Subsequent studies have investigated effective responses to conflict and the differences in personality- to be open to conflict or to be reactive (Bono et al., 2002).

There are many ways to explain the relation of personality to conflict; McAdams (1995; as cited in Bono et al., 2002) describes individual differences in personality in three levels. In the first stage: what a person has; in the second stage: what a person does (linked strategies, goals and things of interest), and in the third stage: how he / she understands the situations in which one lives. Bono et al. (2002) stated that the first level features of conflict are related to certain conflict motives, the second level features are related to certain conflict behaviors, and the third level features can be effective in interpreting certain conflict situations.

The relationship between the five-factor personality traits and the tendency to fight is discussed in various studies. Costa and McCrae (1992) defined the agreeableness personality trait as altruistic, reliable, cooperative, docile and able to act according to the needs of others. The most important personality trait related to interpersonal relationships is agreeableness, and it has been expressed in studies that individuals with low agreeableness experience more conflict (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001; Van De Vliert & Euwema, 1994; Suls, Martin & David, 1998).

Studies that test the relationship between conscientiousness and conflict have mostly addressed family-work conflict, and these studies have identified this personality trait as having a negative relationship in regards to conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004; Smoot, 2005).

Whereas extroverts are usually energetic, positive, social, and fun, they are also defined as dominant, ambitious and violent (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Conflict resolution strategies of extroverted individuals have been established on dominance and competition but despite all these, they do not experience more conflicts than others according to the findings of the empirical studies (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998).

The neurotic personality trait can be defined as the tendency to experience negative effects and feelings such as fear, sadness, anger, and guilt. As the most studied dimension of the FFM personality traits, neuroticism is generally studied as relationship-focused conflict. This dimension is associated with both the frequency of conflict and the intensity of being affected by conflict. Furthermore, feelings of anger and hostility are also common for neurotic people (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Empirical studies have found positive correlations between neuroticism and conflict (Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004; Smoot, 2005; Dijkstra, Van Dierendonck & Evers 2005).

It has been stated that people with personality characteristics who are open to new experiences are creative, curious, introspective, and give importance to emotions (Costa and McCrae, 1992). It is not possible to say anything clearly because it is a less studied variable and there are no consistent findings, but the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator scale is closely related to both the open to innovation factor and the openness personality dimension. And, according to a study on Myers-Briggs Type Indicator relationships between the conciliatory strategies for conflict resolution and the degree of openness to innovation, there is negative relationship. In addition to this finding, Blicke, in her 1995 and 1997 studies, found a positive relationship between the openness personality trait and being open to conflict (cited by Bono et al., 2002). Similarly, Bono et al. (2002) also found positive relationships between both relationship conflict and task conflict with openness to new experience dimensions. However, Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson (2004) stated that individuals who have openness personality traits are more likely to accept change and do not insist, as a result they can produce solutions when conflict occurs. Similarly, there was a negative correlation between openness to new experience and conflict in their studies.

Interpersonal conflicts are solved by many different methods. Generally known models are extensively summarized in Rahim's book published in 2001. This information is summarized in the table below.

Blake and Mouton (1964) were the first to formulate conceptual models in conflict resolution methods. Their dimensions have been reinterpreted by Thomas (1976), and they have been discussed in terms of the dimensions of cooperation and assertiveness. Rahim examined the dimensions of the interpersonal conflict with two main dimensions: being concerned about self and dealing with others (Rahim, 2001). Five known conflict resolution methods exist: 1. integrating 2.obliging 3.avoiding 4.dominating and 5.compromising arise from the combinations of these dimensions.

As explained above, different personality traits decisively affect conflict tendencies and also personality in the choice of conflict resolution methods. The findings of the related literature are summarized.

Table 1. Conflict resolution models

Model	Theorists	Dimensions
Two styles conflict resolution model	Deutsch (1949)	1. Cooperation 2. Competition
	Knudson, Sommers and Golding (1980)	1. Engagement 2. Avoidance
Three styles conflict resolution model	Putnam and Wilson (1982)	1. Non-confrontation 2. Solution-orientation (integration) 3. Control (domination)
	Lawrance and Lorsch (1967)	1. Confrontation 2. Smoothing 3. Forcing
	Billigham and Sack (1987)	1. Reasoning 2. Verbal aggression 2. Violence
	Rands, Levinger and Mellinger (1981)	1. Attack 2. Avoid 3. Compromise
Four styles conflict resolution model	Pruitt (1983)	1. Yielding 2. Problem solving 3. Inaction 4. Contending
	Kurdek (1994)	1. Problem solving 2. Compliance 3. Withdrawal 4. Engagement
Five styles conflict resolution model	Follet (1940)	1. Integration 2. Supression 3. Avoidence 4. Domination 5. Compromise
	Blake and Mouton (1964)	1 Confrontation 2. Smoothing 3. Avoiding 4. Forcing 5. Compromise
	Thomas (1976)	1. Collobrating 2. Accomodating 3. Avoiding 4. Competing 5. Compromising
	Rahim (1983)	1. Integrating 2. Obliging 3. Avoiding 4. Dominating 5. Compromising

Source: (Rahim, 2001)

Obliging Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

Obliging can be defined as low self, high value to others. This style is also called accommodation, and while there are differences among the counterparties that are not important, satisfaction of the other counterparts is more important (Anderson, 2009). Previous studies of this conflict resolution style, in which people relate to others rather than themselves, have found an association with the need for commitment (Antonioni, 1998).

Conflict resolution dimension is not studied very much with regards to personality types. However, the findings in the literature point out that there is a relationship with certain personality traits. Characters in need of power and dominance are negatively associated with obliging conflict resolution style in related studies (e.g. Jones & Melcher, 1982; Schnee & Chenin, 1987). According to Rahim (2001), agreeable people can adopt obliging conflict resolution style because they can ignore their needs in order to satisfy other's needs. In his study, in which he tested both the students and the manager sample, he found positive relationships between highly agreeable people and obliging conflict resolution style in the student sample (Antonioni, 1998). In the same study, extraversion was negatively correlated with obliging because they were social.

Antonioni (1998) found a positive relationship between obliging conflict resolution style and neuroticism, and he stated that people with low emotional balance or neuroticism may choose to climb down because they are anxious, and nervous. Thus, they can easily accept others' wishes to overcome these discomfort feelings. He did not have any meaningful findings between openness to new experiences and being aware of responsibility (conscientiousness) and personality traits.

Barbuto, Phipps & Xu (2010) find insignificant results with any specific personality dimensions and obliging conflict resolution style in their studies that examined the relationship between conflict resolution methods and personality of the leader's. But in another study (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974 cited in Wood & Bell, 2008), conducted with conflict resolution dimensions, obliging (accommodating) was found to be positive with agreeableness and negative with extraversion.

Dominating Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

Dominating, in other words confrontation is to give high value to itself and low value to others. A person who is competitive / dominating in this style, also known as competition, neglects the wishes and expectations of the counterpart when calculating his / her own earnings. While a competitive person wishes to win at any cost, a dominating supervisor uses the power of the position to impose his subordinates to his will and to obey his orders. The general opinion is that characteristic features such as aggressiveness, authoritarianism, and a desire to put pressure or dogmatism make it difficult to solve conflict (Anderson, 2009).

In a student sample, Antonioni (1998) found a positive relationship between extraversion and a negative correlation with agreeableness and dominating conflict resolution style. The findings of the manager sample indicate that agreeableness and neuroticism were negatively correlated with the dominating conflict resolution style. Consequently, the agreeableness in both samples corresponds to significant results. Moberg (2001) also found similar results. In another study, it shows that the agreeableness dimension is meaningful in the role of mediation between dominating and emotional intelligence (Ann & Yang, 2012).

While extroverts may try to solve their conflicts by force or influence the other side without thinking about the needs of the other party (due to their potential to be aggressive), a significant relationship between aggression and dominating conflict resolution in past studies has also been found (Antonioni, 1998). Similarly, in the study of Ann & Yang (2012), it was concluded that extraversion is the mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and dominating conflict resolution style.

In a study conducted with men and women bank officers, neuroticism negatively predicted obliging (Khalid, 2015). According to another view, a high level of emotional balance is necessary in order to solve the conflict with obliging. To solve conflict in this style, it is necessary to be calm, rational, and free from the feeling of guilt. This may give the other side a feeling of being careless and insensitive (Antonioni, 1998).

Antonioni (1998) stated that people who are prone to obliging are not open to new experiences and that they see information as a source of power. If the dominant party has more information, the other is disadvantaged. Barbuto, Phipps & Xu (2010), in his study of the leader sample, found a negative correlation between openness to new experiences and obliging conflict resolution style.

High awareness of responsibility (conscientiousness) is related to the obliging style for two reasons: they tend to be well prepared for discussion, and secondly a strong desire to achieve their goals may cause pressure, which in turn causes persistence in their thinking (Antonioni, 1998).

Avoiding Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

Avoiding is a low value for both yourself and others. This style is also known as non-confronting, associated with withdrawal and evading responsibility behavior. The issue of conflict is postponed to a better time or simply denied. The person who is inclined to avoidance is not satisfied with himself or with others. The person is irrelevant to the opposite side and / or the conflict situation (Anderson, 2009).

Tolerance and acceptance make it difficult for individuals to stand behind their own interests in case of conflict. Their tendency to avoid style rather than integrative style can also come from their tendency to adapt (Antonioni, 1998). In empirical studies, strong positive relationships have been identified between agreeableness and avoidance conflict resolution style (Barbuto, Phipps & Xu, 2010).

These characteristics can enable low extroversion or high introversion avoidance method. Introverted people are silent and have a shy attitude when solving their problems with others. In a study conducted with the MBTI scale, a negative relationship was found between avoidance and extraversion (Antonioni, 1998). Moberg (2001) stated that managers with low extroversion orientation may prefer avoidance-type conflict resolution methods to reduce social interaction. In another study, it was stated that extroverted people did not use avoidance conflict resolution style (Ahmed, Nawaz, Shaukat & Usman, 2010).

People with low emotional balance may experience anxiety in stressful conditions; conflict with people may be more stressful than others, so they avoid discussions (Antonioni, 1998). Moberg (2001) detected a negative relationship with non-confronting and neuroticism personality characteristics.

Not being open to new experiences may be related to the style of avoidance as a result of rigidity and resistance. In addition according to Goldberg (1992), individuals are not willing to solve problems because they are less understanding and less reflective about their thoughts (Antonioni, 1998). So, avoiding conflict resolution is suitable for their personalities.

Low conscientiousness, in terms of lack of responsibility and laziness, causes individuals to postpone problems and avoid being output-oriented, characteristics that may lead to a lack of solution discipline. In this sense, avoidance seems appropriate for this personality structure (Antonioni, 1998), and there does appear to be a negative correlation between high responsibility and avoidance conflict resolution style (Barbuto, Phipps & Xu, 2010; Moberg, 2001).

Compromising Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

The compromising conflict resolution style brings with it moderate value for both itself and others. This style involves parties making mutually acceptable decisions through shopping or sharing. Compromising is the agreement of the average and the meeting of the parties in the average position. The compromising party gives more than the dominating, while the obliging gives less. Similarly, while the subject is expressed more directly than the avoidance style, it does not focus as much as the integration style does (Anderson, 2009).

Establishing a compromising conflict resolution requires both parties to give up something for mutual gain and problem solving. High degrees of agreeableness may be related to acting compromise because they see themselves as a team player, and this self-perception can result in tolerance and compliance with others (Antonioni, 1998). The compromise strategy was found to be associated with agreeable personality trait, as it paid attention to the outcomes of the other (Moberg, 2001). Agreeableness plays a significant role between compromising conflict resolution and emotional intelligence (Anna & Yang, 2012).

In order to solve the conflict in a compromising manner, it is necessary to be somewhat extravagant because it requires being communicative to others and being social. However, they may not be conciliatory at some point because their attachment characteristics are low (Antonioni, 1998). Moberg expressed the idea that extrovert managers are more prone to conflict resolution styles, including interpersonal relations, such as compromising conflict resolution style (2001). Similar findings were also obtained in another study (Ahmed, Nawaz, Shaukat & Usman, 2010).

The relation between low emotional balance and compromising style conflict resolution may be the cause of causality as expressed by Antonioni (1998). People in this personality repeatedly try to find solutions to problems until they reach a certain level of anxiety. When the level of anxiety becomes too high, they surrender and allow others to meet their wishes.

Being open to a high degree of new experience where creativity and change requests are high, and therefore may be related to the development of new ideas for the solution, is expressed in both relevant studies and supported by numerical results (Antonioni, 1998; Moberg 2001; Ahmed, Nawaz, Shaukat & Usman, 2010).

Expressing that conscientiousness manager will look for effective ways to resolve conflicts; Moberg (2001) stated that the compromise conflict resolution style may be related to this characteristic. Low degrees of responsibility can result in causal care within the situation of conflict, which may lead to compromise since these people may not be willing or disciplined enough for a conflict resolution in the win-win path (Antonioni, 1998).

Integrating Conflict Resolution and FFM Personality

Integration is high value for both itself and others. This style is also known as problem solving and cooperation between the parties. It includes examining the differences between the parties who are open to each other in order to exchange information, while not to hiding the conflict and reaching reasonable solutions for the parties (Anderson, 2009). Van de Vliert and Hordijk (1989) stated that confrontation (as an integrative process) and compromise conflict resolution methods are different and that compromise conflict style is bothersome because it leads to altruism on both sides. Since it is the most effective and long-term conflict resolution style, it is also important to determine which characteristics are related to this conflict resolution.

Agreeableness can be said to be more coherent, where an integrative approach might be appropriate. In a study using the FFM personality dimensions, it was shown that individuals preferred to compromise instead of claiming power. In another study, a positive relationship was found between problem solving and agreeableness (Antonioni, 1998).

As extroverts have high social skills and good communication with others, they may be inclined to resolve conflicts in a compromising way. Being assertive and self-confidence is one of the striking features of extraversion. Assertive people stand behind their own needs by respecting the needs of others, and a study with the MBTI scale presents parallel results. Therefore, we can say that extroverts have an integrative style similar to the conflict resolution style (Antonioni, 1998). Moberg stated that extraverted managers would be inclined to use confronting solution strategies in general and find meaningful results in their related study (2001). In addition, the mediation role of the extroversion personality in the relationship between integrative conflict resolution and emotional intelligence was statistically significant (Ann & Yang, 2012).

High emotional balance provides a structure in which conflicts can be solved without creating tension in an attentive, relevant manner. This, in an integrative way, enables the conflict to be resolved (Antonioni, 1998). According to Moberg (2001), neuroticism is also negatively related to confrontation.

It is stated that openness to innovation is closely related to accepting alternative solutions and being open to conflict. Conflicts can be solved more easily by people with trust and open-mindedness. And, being able to make sense of situations from the point of view of the opposite party, in accordance with the integrative style, can be provided by being open to a new experiences personality feature (Antonioni, 1998).

People with high responsibility are focused on their goals in a specific and disciplined way, and these people tend to be well-versed in solving mutual problems and finding results that both parties will be satisfied with. The relationship between conscientiousness and integrative conflict resolution is supported in a study of success- orientation studies (Antonioni, 1998). Moberg, (2001) in his study based on the Putnam and Wilson's (1982) model, stated that managers with high conscientiousness will be inclined to focus on a solution in situations that may cause conflict and to develop organized and effective solutions. In this study he has reached significant results between integrating conflict style and conscientiousness.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The effectiveness of the leader in the organization is much stronger than other employees. Approaches of leaders to problems, the methods of solution, and what they pay attention to and do not pay attention to regarding their followers can even play an important role in the formation of understanding and assumptions within the organization. Therefore, leadership has an important place in literature with all its antecedents and results. Although criticized by some researchers, the personality of the leader gives important clues about leadership as a stable feature. For example, conscientiousness and openness to new experience are consistently among the effective features for leadership, while neuroticism is considered a negative characteristic for leadership.

Although conflicts exist naturally in every organization, the solutions for conflict vary. Some leaders show the sensitivity they need, while others expect that problems they will be solved by themselves, while others simply put pressure on employees for most issues and make a silent culture of conflict- in a sense. Different perspectives lead to different outcomes in the organizational atmosphere. Of course, unmanageable conflicts lead to visible problems at both the individual and organizational level. Therefore, it is a critical issue in terms of solution styles. In their study, Luthans et al. (1985) stated that effective leaders spend more time and effort in dealing with conflict resolution than others. These and similar findings are evidence of the strong impact of interpersonal outcomes on organizational outcomes. It is also stated in previous studies that conflict resolution styles specifically affect the organizational atmosphere and the level of conflict and stress in the organization (see Friedman et al., 2000).

In the literature, some studies aim to determine the effectiveness of conflict resolution styles, and it has been concluded that dominating conflict resolution is less effective than integrating (collaborating), obliging (accommodating), or avoiding style conflict resolution methods (Butler Jr., 1994). Moreover, the most effective conflict resolution style that both researchers agree on is the integrative conflict resolution method. In individual studies, it has been found that individuals using integrative conflict resolution experience less conflict and job stress than avoiding and dominating conflict resolution style (Friedman et al., 2000). In addition to these, there are also studies indicating that there are consistent relationships between personality traits and conflict resolution styles. And, with a small number of studies, the relationship between the personality traits of the leader and conflict resolution styles was examined (Park & Antonioni, 2007; Antonioni, 1998; Moberg, 2001; Barbuto, Phipps & Xu, 2010). All studies have shown similar results, even if they have used different solution models. Studies have concluded that only integrative conflict resolution is associated with leading efficacy (Friedman et al., 2000; Graziano Jensen-Campbell & Hair, 1996).

For the purpose of the study, very strong causal relationships were determined in the literature, and it was concluded that certain personality traits were an important determinant in effective conflict resolution. Based on the common findings observed in this literature review, it is clear that integrative conflict resolution style is the most effective conflict resolution style for both individuals and organizations. Moreover, it has been concluded that this conflict resolution style is used more by managers who are high in conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to new experience, while still being dominantly extrovert and low in neuroticism. So it is possible to say that such personality traits are good for constructive conflict resolution in organizations.

There are few studies to compare results for the dimensions defined in different conflict resolution models. Therefore, it leads to a limitation in creating links between the findings. It is important to focus on this problem in future studies. It is also stated in the studies that conflict caused by work or people require different solutions. In addition, it is useful to examine the effectiveness of conflict resolution styles in terms of the source and sides of the conflict. In addition to these, more investigations for other determinants of leadership and conflict resolution are needed. For example, there are very few studies between current leadership types and conflict resolution styles.

The main purpose of the study in the business world is to underline the fact that leadership should give importance to effective conflict resolution and to provide information on specific leadership characteristics for effective conflict management. The findings illustrate, once again, that the personality characteristics of the leader should also be taken into account when making upgrades within the organization or transferring from outside to the organization because it is difficult to change personality traits. It is also an important element for a leader's success and for the results of the organization. Particularly, it is important for the leader to ensure that the interests of all parties to the conflict are maximized in order to achieve long-term and effective results in conflict and to promote the formation of such a structure in the organization.

Numerous studies in recent years have drawn attention to the contribution of the positive climate in the organization to the continuity and success of the organization. The destructive consequences of conflict have been known for many years. Therefore, constructive conflict management is one of the important elements of a positive climate. On the other hand, studies point out the effect of a leader in building a positive climate formation. Through the conflicts that the leader effectively manages, building positive organizations is very important for both organizational desired outcomes and happy and committed employees, and lastly, for a productive and peaceful society.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Big Five: It is the specific five personality characteristics defined by the trait approach theorists as openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness that distinguish the individuals from each other.

Conflict Resolution: It is the decisions and activities to resolve the disputes between the parties.

Functional Conflict: The dispute between the parties is to produce constructive results such as creativity and development.

Integrating Style: The conflict concluded in such a way that the needs and satisfaction of each of the parties are respected.

Model of Five Styles: Some of the categories suggested by some theoreticians who classify conflict resolution methods, the most well-known of these are the Rahim's categories (1. Integrating, 2. Obliging, 3. Avoiding, 4. Dominating, and 5. Compromising).

Chapter 18
Analysis of the Customer-Based Efficiency at Workplace for Tourism Industry Using House of Quality

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study is to evaluate the customer expectations and workplace efficiency of tourism industry in the competitive market environment. For this purpose, house of quality is applied to measure the relative importance of the customer expectations and to rank the workplace efficiency based on customer needs using the fuzzy systems. A set of criteria for the customer expectations and workplace efficiency is defined with the supported literature to weight and rank the factors. Fuzzy DEMATEL is applied for weighting the criteria and fuzzy VIKOR is used for ranking the technical factors of competitive tourism industry. The findings show that tourism companies should mainly focus on designing services for the customers to use easily. In this context, website of the tourism companies should be redeveloped so that the users should understand all details regarding the tourism companies much easily. In addition, technological competency should be provided by the tourism companies to increase their competitive power.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry has many benefits for the economic conditions of the countries. First of all, it has an increasing effect on the amount of foreign currencies in the country. This situation provides a significant advantage for the countries because countries can have important losses in case of high currency exchange rate when they have foreign debt. Another important benefit of the tourism industry is that it provides job opportunities to the people. In other words, this industry has a decreasing influence on the unemployment rates of the countries (Yabuuchi, 2018).

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Due to the conditions emphasized above, most of the countries aim to increase the share in the international tourism industry. This condition leads to higher competition in this industry. Therefore, these countries aim to increase the competitive power for this issue. In this circumstance, the essential point is that the strategies adopted by the countries should be appropriate with the purpose. Otherwise, it becomes impossible to survive in such a competitive industry (Mackay and Spencer, 2017). In this framework, customer expectations have a key role. If the customers become happy with the service of the tourism companies, they will be willing to work with these companies in the future. It can be understood that this condition provides a competitive advantage for these companies and even for these countries.

In addition to the customer expectations, technological factors are also essential for the tourism companies. In other words, tourism companies should have effective technological infrastructure to increase their sales volumes. While using effective technology, these companies can analyze the demographic factors of the customers. This situation can be very helpful for tourism companies to provide quality services according to the customer expectations.

Moreover, it is obvious that customer requirements and technologic capacity of the companies should be examined for the success of the tourism industry. However, the important point in this framework is that effective methodology should be selected for this purpose. The main reason is that by implementing inappropriate methodology, there is a risk of reaching wrong results. This situation can also cause to implement inappropriate strategies by the tourism companies.

House of quality is the methodology which considers both customer expectations and workplace efficiency. In the first stages, customer demands are defined, and planning matrix is created. After that, quality criteria are also determined. Next, there is a benchmarking between technological capacity and satisfying the customer demands. It can be seen that this methodology is very appropriate for tourism industry in order to evaluate customer requirements and technologic capacity of the companies.

The main purpose of this study is to make analysis of the customer-based workplace efficiency in the competitive tourism industry. In this context, the house of quality methodology is taken into consideration. For this purpose, 6 different factors of customer expectations and workplace efficiency for the tourism industry are defined based on different dimensions. In addition to them, they are weighted by fuzzy DEMATEL whereas workplace efficiency is ranked by considering fuzzy VIKOR approach.

It is possible to talk about different novelties of this study. First of all, using house of quality approach increases the appropriateness of the results. Moreover, fuzzy DEMATEL and fuzzy VIKOR methods are firstly used in this study in the scope of the effectiveness in tourism industry. With the help of these models, successful results can be reached under the complex environment. Another contribution of this study is that a set of criteria for customer expectations and workplace efficiency are presented for the tourism industry. These factors provide opportunities to the tourism companies to focus on with the aim of increasing sales.

This study contains five parts. This first section gives an introduction regarding the concept of effectiveness in tourism industry. Additionally, in the second section, literature is reviewed to understand the results of the studies in this framework. The third section includes explanatory information about the fuzzy DEMATEL and fuzzy VIKOR approaches. Also, analysis results are given in the fourth section. On the other side, necessary recommendations are given finally.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism industry was analyzed in the literature in many different purposes. For example, the subject of customer engagement for tourism industry was evaluated by lots of researchers. Harrigan et al. (2017) proposed a customer engagement scale for the managers of tourism brands to manage this situation more effectively. Similarly, So et al. (2016), Nguyen (2017) and Rusko (2017) also underlined the importance of customer engagement for tourism industry in different countries. These researchers focused on different regions for this purpose and they defined different factors to increase customer engagement in tourism industry, such as customer intimacy, consideration of high quality in the selection of the suppliers.

In addition to the customer engagement, customer satisfaction was also examined in many different studies. For instance, Gowreesunkar and Varvaressos (2017) aimed to identify the main indicators of customer satisfaction in tourism industry. They identified that dolphin-watching activities play a very significant role for this issue. Also, D'Lima et al. (2018), Filby et al. (2015) and Filby (2016) indicated the same issues for many different regions. They mainly argued that experiences on swim-with-dolphins tours has an important influence on the customers.

Moreover, some other studies focused on different factors to increase customer satisfaction. For example, Haque and Momen (2017) and Malodia and Singla (2017) defined that tourism companies should provide activities according to the religions of the customers. This issue makes customer more satisfied with the service of the tourism companies. Additionally, Zheng et al. (2017) underlined that different cultures should be considered for customer satisfaction. With the help of this condition, the companies can provide adequate services for the customers from different regions which contributes to the satisfaction of these customers.

In addition to these factors, website of the tourism companies was considered as an important indicators of customer satisfaction by many different researchers. For instance, Pereira et al. (2017) tried to define the variables of customer satisfaction for tourism companies. A survey analysis was conducted with 3188 online consumers in Portuguese. It is concluded that website quality increases customer satisfaction. Similarly, Wang et al. (2017) tried to understand the main factors which affect customer satisfaction in tourism industry for different countries, such as Australia and China. These researchers mainly concluded that the quality of the website is crucial for this situation.

Furthermore, the subject of quality in tourism industry is also examined in the studies. Belias et al. (2017) tried to determine the ways to increase the quality in Greek tourism industry. They identified that personnel quality is very important for this condition. Additionally, this conclusion was also emphasized by some other researchers (Zaitseva et al., 2017; Song, 2018; Molchanov et al., 2016). Similar to the previous study, these studies also underlined that in order to improve tourism industry, companies should firstly focus on the quality of their employees. Within this framework, these personnel should take necessary trainings before starting the work.

Additionally, it can be seen that rural tourism industry was also eevaluated. As an example, Chin and Lo (2017) examined this subject in Malaysia. In the analysis process, there was a survey study with 400 people. It is identified that community support has a crucial role in rural tourism services. Similarly, Fotiadis et al. (2016), Murray and Kline (2015) and Ezeuduji (2015) also aimed to find the factors which have a positive influence on the quality in rural tourism services. In these studies, main factors to affect the performance of rural tourism are identified, such as connection with community, the relationship with local communities and technical assistance and information on tourism development.

On the other side, it is also seen that some researchers focused on the technical capacity on the success of tourism industry. For example, Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka (2015) tried to define the factors to increase the performance of tourism industry. They reached the conclusion that technological development is a crucial aspect to have higher performance in tourism industry. Parallel to this study, Mersha and Mekonnen (2018), Van and Tu (2016), McCool (2016) and Wang (2016) also evaluated this situation and concluded that technical capacity of the tourism companies should be increased to reach this objective. Thus, new methods should be considered for this subject to make contribution.

The efficiency is found by comparison between the observed and optimal values of inputs and outputs at the end of a manufacturer's production process. It is very important to evaluate the time in the workplace in a good and quality way (Blasco et al., 2019; Haveman and Wetts, 2019; Oladokun and Ajayi, 2019; Asadullah et al., 2019; Ehrler et al., 2019). A good evaluation of this time increases the efficiency of both employees and the company. Company managers can take some measures to increase their efficiency and the efficiencies of their employees by encouraging them with some issues. For instance, rewarding employees' goals or other achievements also increases productivity at work. Employees will be more tied to their work when they receive their work in a material or spiritual manner. Employees who know that they will be rewarded will change their approach to work more positively.

In addition to this issue, giving goals to the employees has also increasing effect on their efficiency at the workplace. In this framework, having some goals make a positive influence on the performance of the employees because they think this condition as a responsibility. Thus, by working to reach this purpose, there will be increase in the performance of this employee. Employees are the ones who keep the company alive. Therefore, approaching them in this way and exhibiting a positive behavior will make them happy, so they will provide a happy corporate environment. O'Connor et al. (2019), Yasir et al. (2019), Oliveri and Tannenbaum (2019) and Mariani et al. (2019) studied this concept and stated that effective audit work should be performed to reach workplace efficiency.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, criteria regarding customer expectations are evaluated with fuzzy DEMATEL. Fuzzy VIKOR method is also used to rank workplace efficiency of tourism industry. Thus, in this section, theoretical information of these two methods is given.

Fuzzy DEMATEL

DEMATEL examines the impact relationship between the criteria can be evaluated. Additionally, different items can be weighted according to their significance by using DEMATEL method. The first step includes the assignment of the ratings (Dincer et al., 2016a). Equations (1) and (2) explain this process.

$$\tilde{Z}=\begin{bmatrix}0 & \tilde{z}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{z}_{1n}\\ \tilde{z}_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{z}_{2n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ \tilde{z}_{n1} & \tilde{z}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0\end{bmatrix}. \tag{1}$$

$$\tilde{Z}=\frac{\tilde{Z}^{1}+\tilde{Z}^{2}+\tilde{Z}^{3}+\ldots\tilde{Z}^{n}}{n}. \tag{2}$$

On the other side, the normalization process is occurred in the third step. Equations (3)-(5) are used for this purpose.

$$\tilde{X}=\begin{bmatrix}\tilde{x}_{11} & \tilde{x}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{1n}\\ \tilde{x}_{21} & \tilde{x}_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{2n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ \tilde{x}_{n1} & \tilde{x}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{nn}\end{bmatrix}. \tag{3}$$

$$\tilde{x}_{ij}=\frac{\tilde{z}_{ij}}{r}=\left(\frac{l_{ij}}{r},\frac{m_{ij}}{r},\frac{u_{ij}}{r}\right). \tag{4}$$

$$r=max_{1\le i\le n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n}u_{ij}\right). \tag{5}$$

The next step is detailed on the formulas (6)-(11).

$$X_{l}=\begin{bmatrix}0 & l'_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & l'_{1n}\\ l'_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & l'_{2n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ l'_{n1} & l'_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0\end{bmatrix},\ X_{m}=\begin{bmatrix}0 & m'_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & m'_{1n}\\ m'_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & m'_{2n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ m'_{n1} & m'_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0\end{bmatrix},$$

$$X_{u}=\begin{bmatrix}0 & u'_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & u'_{1n}\\ u'_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & u'_{2n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ u'_{n1} & u'_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0\end{bmatrix}. \tag{6}$$

$$\tilde{T} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \tilde{X} + \tilde{X}^2 + \ldots + \tilde{X}^k. \tag{7}$$

$$\tilde{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{t}_{11} & \tilde{t}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{1n} \\ \tilde{t}_{21} & \tilde{t}_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{t}_{n1} & \tilde{t}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{nn} \end{bmatrix}. \tag{8}$$

$$\tilde{t}_{ij} = \left(l''_{ij}, m''_{ij}, u''_{ij}\right). \tag{9}$$

and

$$\left[l''_{ij}\right] = X_l \times \left(I - X_l\right)^{-1}. \tag{10}$$

$$\left[u''_{ij}\right] = X_u \times \left(I - X_u\right)^{-1}. \tag{11}$$

Furthermore, the defuzzified total influence matrix is with the equations (12)-(20).

$$u_i^{\max} = \max u_i, \quad l_i^{\min} = \min_j l_i. \tag{12}$$

$$\Delta_{min}^{max} = u_i^{max} - l_i^{min}. \tag{13}$$

$$x_{lj} = \left(l_{ij} - l_i^{min}\right) / \Delta_{min}^{max}. \tag{14}$$

$$x_{mj} = \left(l_{ij} - l_i^{min}\right) / \Delta_{min}^{max}. \tag{15}$$

$$x_{uj} = \left(u_{ij} - l_i^{min}\right) / \Delta_{min}^{max}. \tag{16}$$

$$x_j^{ls} = x_{mj} / \left(1 + x_{mj} - x_{lj}\right). \tag{17}$$

$$x_j^{rs} = x_{uj} / \left(1 + x_{uj} - x_{mj}\right). \tag{18}$$

$$x_j^{crisp} = \left[x_j^{ls}\left(1 - x_j^{ls}\right) + x_j^{rs} x_j^{rs}\right] / \left[1 - x_j^{ls} + x_j^{rs}\right]. \tag{19}$$

$$f_{ij} = l_i^{min} + x_j^{crisp} \Delta_{min}^{max}. \tag{20}$$

Fuzzy VIKOR

The term "VIseKriterijumska Optimizacija I Kompromisno Resenje" represents the VIKOR. It is an important type of multi criteria decision making methods. The main purpose of this approach is to find appropriate solution under complex situations. In other words, this approach is considered to rank different factors regarding their importance. The decision matrix of the problem is demonstrated in equation (21).

C1 C2 C3 … Cn

$$D= \begin{array}{c} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ \vdots \\ A_m \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} & & \cdots & X_{1n} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} & & \cdots & X_{2n} \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} & & \cdots & X_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ X_{m1} & X_{m2} & X_{m3} & & \cdots & X_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{21}$$

In the first step of VIKOR methodology, linguistic variables are identified with the aim of the evaluation of the alternatives. Within this framework, triangular fuzzy numbers stated in Table 1 are taken into consideration (Dinçer et al., 2016b).

The second step includes the calculation of fuzzy decision matrix. The details of this step are given on the equation (22).

$$\tilde{x}_{ij} = \frac{1}{k}\left[\sum_{e=1}^{n} \tilde{x}_{ij}^{\ e}\right], i=1,2,3,\ldots,n \tag{22}$$

In the third step, the fuzzy best and the worst values are calculated with the help of the equation (23).

$$\tilde{f}_J^{*} = \max_i \tilde{x}_{ij}, \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}_j^{-} = \min_i \tilde{x}_{ij}, \tag{23}$$

Table 1. Linguistic scales for alternatives

Linguistic Scales	Triangular Fuzzy Numbers		
Worst (W)	0	0	2.5
Poor (P)	0	2.5	5
Fair (F)	2.5	5	7.5
Good (G)	5	7.5	10
Best (B)	7.5	10	10

The fourth step is related to the calculation of mean group utility and maximal regret. For this purpose, equations (24) and (25) are used.

$$\tilde{S}_i = \sum\nolimits_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{w}_j \frac{\left(\left|\tilde{f}_j^* - \tilde{x}_{ij}\right|\right)}{\left(\left|\tilde{f}_j^* - \tilde{f}_j^-\right|\right)} \tag{24}$$

$$\tilde{R}_i = \max\nolimits_j \left[\tilde{w}_j \frac{\left(\left|\tilde{f}_j^* - \tilde{x}_{ij}\right|\right)}{\left(\left|\tilde{f}_j^* - \tilde{f}_j^-\right|\right)}\right] \tag{25}$$

In the fifth step, there is the calculation of the value of $\tilde{Q}_i$ by using the equation (26):

$$\tilde{Q}_i = v\left(\tilde{S}_i - \tilde{S}^*\right) \Big/ \left(\tilde{S}^- - \tilde{S}^*\right) + \left(1 - v\right)\left(\tilde{R}_i - \tilde{R}^*\right) \Big/ \left(\tilde{R}^- - \tilde{R}^*\right) \tag{26}$$

The last step is related to the sorting values of S, R and Q. For this purpose, two different conditions should be satisfied. With respect to the first condition, equation (27) gives information about the acceptable advantage.

$$Q\left(A^{(2)}\right) - Q\left(A^{(1)}\right) \geq 1 / \left(j - 1\right) \tag{27}$$

On the other side, acceptable stability in decision making explains the second condition. If the second condition is not satisfied, the composition of the first and second alternatives are considered.

House of Quality (HOQ)

The HOQ is the most popular part of the quality function deployment. It gives significance to the customer expectations. Therefore, in the first phase, the expectations of the customers are defined by making a sector analysis. After that, planning matrix is identified that helps to be more successful in this process. Next, the quality characteristics are stated to learn what affects the performance of the company. The first step in the creation of the quality house is the creation of the "Customer Expectations List". The list consists of the features that the customer expects to be found in the product. In the section called primary customer expectations, properties are expressed in general terms. In the "Secondary Customer Expectations" section, the items in the primary section are detailed.

The aim of the quality house is to design products to meet customer expectations or to develop existing designs. The most important point in this application is to convert customer expectations into technical definitions that can be used in the engineering phase. These technical definitions constitute the second floor of the quality house. All definitions in this section must be related to at least one of the items in the customer expectations section. It is important to determine customer expectations correctly. Because further studies will be guided by the elements identified at this stage. Not all identified customer expectations will be equally important. Therefore, the second procedure that should be done in this step is to determine the importance of customer expectations.

In the third step of the HOQ, the relationship between customer expectations and technical requirements is defined. In other words, it is aimed to determine which technical factors are essential for customer expectations. For each technical requirement, there is a development aspect that will maximize customer satisfaction. In the next step, the purposes of the companies are identified. Hence, by using HOQ, companies can get a chance to create more effective strategies and purposes. This condition will help them to have higher financial performance and competitive advantage.

AN APPLICATION ON TOURISM INDUSTRY

We try to learn which factors are more important to meet customer expectations in tourism industry. For this purpose, two stage-decision making model including fuzzy DEMATEL-VIKOR has been applied for analyzing the customer-based workplace efficiency in the competitive tourism industry with the house of quality. The first stage is fuzzy DEMATEL method for measuring the dimensions and criteria of customer expectations in the tourism industry. The second stage is fuzzy VIKOR for ranking the workplace efficiency of the tourism industry. So, the hybrid decision making approach is proposed to measure the requirements of the tourism industry under the fuzzy environment more accurately. However, the evaluations for the criteria and alternatives have been provided from three different experts. This expert team has at least ten-years experiences in the global tourism industry. Additionally, the evaluations are obtained in a consensus of the decision makers with the Delphi method.

For this purpose, three dimensions and six criteria have been defined by the supported literature and Table 2 represents the factors of customer expectations.

The workplace efficiency of the tourism industry has been also determined for constructing the house of quality respectively. Table 3 illustrates the dimensions and criteria of the technical factors based on the literature.

The following step continues with the evaluations converted into the triangular fuzzy numbers. The analysis steps of Fuzzy DEMATEL are detailed with Table 4-8. Table 4 presents the initial direct-relation matrix (IDRM) for constructing the mutual impact-relation among the criteria of customer requirements in the tourism industry.

Table 2. Proposed factors of customer expectations for the tourism industry

Dimensions	Criteria	Literature
Infrastructure (D1)	Closeness to the service (C1)	Menon and Ranaweera (2018); Aydın and Acun (2019); Bastl et al. (2019); Xu et al. (2019); Endo et al. (2019)
	Technological competency (C2)	Ito et al. (2019); Patra and Muchie (2019)
Support (D2)	Ease of use (C3)	Yang and Park (2019); Lau et al. (2019); Faulkner et al. (2019); Frasquet-Deltoro et al. (2019)
	Customer assistance (C4)	Nili et al. (2019); Marino and Lo Presti (2019); Irastorza and Torres (2019)
Pricing (D3)	Flexible charges (C5)	Paciello et al. (2019); Petrella et al. (2019); Chitre (2019)
	Affordability (C6)	Rabeea Fatima et al. (2019); Goswami et al. (2019)

Table 3. Proposed factors of workplace efficiency for the tourism industry

Dimensions	Criteria	Literature
Financial (D1)	Equity (C1)	Gomez et al. (2015); Jenkinson et al. (2019); Brown et al. (2019)
	Returns (C2)	Lou et al. (2019); Jiang et al. (2019); Afonso and Aubyn (2019)
	Investments (C3)	Lynch and Tinnish (2017); Adamowicz et al. (2019); Haasnoot et al. (2019); Amendolagine et al. (2019); Onofrei et al. (2019); Steelman et al. (2019)
Non-financial (D2)	Research and Development (C4)	Woo et al. (2015); Waleczek et al. (2019); Vekemans et al. (2019); Sopori and Friedman (2019); Pendergast et al. (2019); Norris and Ciesielska (2019)
	Use of distribution channels (C5)	Brown and Ingene (2019); Ryu et al. (2019); Hennig-Thurau and Houston (2019)
	Organizational competency (C6)	Lynch and Tinnish (2017); Kolodziej (2019); Flumerfelt and Wenson (2019); Duryan and Smyth (2019); Prakash (2019)

Normalized process has been applied to the IDRM and the results are provided in Table 5.

Total relation fuzzy matrix (TRFM) has been computed after the calculation of the normalized values and the details are seen in Table 6.

The defuzzification process has been applied for defining the impact and relationship shown in Table 7.

Table 8 shows that the impact and relation map of the criteria and their weights in the criteria set and the dimensions weights are defined for the tourism industry.

Table 8 illustrates that C3 has the most importance between the customer expectations criteria in the tourism industry while C4, C5, and C6 are relatively the weakest factors. Dimension 1 has the highest significance among them. The second stage of analysis model is defined as fuzzy VIKOR for ranking

Table 4. IDRM

	C1			C2			C3			C4			C5			C6		
C1	0	0	0	0.75	1	1	0.5	0.75	1	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75
C2	0.25	0.5	0.75	0	0	0	0.5	0.75	1	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75
C3	0.5	0.75	1	0.25	0.5	0.75	0	0	0	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.5	0.75	1	0.5	0.75	1
C4	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.5	0.75	1	0.5	0.75	1	0	0	0	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75
C5	0.5	0.75	1	0.5	0.75	1	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75	0	0	0	0.25	0.5	0.75
C6	0.5	0.75	1	0.5	0.75	1	0.25	0.5	0.75	0.25	0.5	0.75	0	0.25	0.5	0	0	0

Table 5. The normalized IDRM

	C1			C2			C3			C4			C5			C6		
C1	.00	.00	.00	.17	.22	.22	.11	.17	.22	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17
C2	.06	.11	.17	.00	.00	.00	.11	.17	.22	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17
C3	.11	.17	.22	.06	.11	.17	.00	.00	.00	.06	.11	.17	.11	.17	.22	.11	.17	.22
C4	.06	.11	.17	.11	.17	.22	.11	.17	.22	.00	.00	.00	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17
C5	.11	.17	.22	.11	.17	.22	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17	.00	.00	.00	.06	.11	.17
C6	.11	.17	.22	.11	.17	.22	.06	.11	.17	.06	.11	.17	.00	.06	.11	.00	.00	.00

Table 6. TRFM

	C1			C2			C3			C4			C5			C6		
C1	.06	.27	2.42	.22	.49	2.71	.16	.42	2.62	.09	.31	2.22	.09	.32	2.24	.10	.34	2.35
C2	.10	.33	2.45	.05	.26	2.41	.15	.38	2.50	.08	.29	2.12	.08	.29	2.13	.09	.30	2.24
C3	.16	.42	2.72	.13	.41	2.80	.06	.27	2.55	.09	.31	2.32	.14	.36	2.37	.15	.38	2.49
C4	.10	.35	2.57	.16	.43	2.71	.15	.40	2.62	.03	.20	2.08	.09	.30	2.24	.09	.32	2.35
C5	.15	.39	2.60	.17	.43	2.71	.11	.36	2.58	.09	.30	2.22	.03	.20	2.09	.09	.32	2.34
C6	.14	.37	2.48	.16	.41	2.58	.10	.34	2.45	.08	.29	2.11	.03	.24	2.08	.03	.20	2.09

Table 7. The defuzzified values

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
C1	.64	.86	.79	.64	.65	.68
C2	.69	.63	.74	.60	.61	.64
C3	.80	.81	.66	.66	.71	.74
C4	.73	.81	.77	.53	.64	.67
C5	.77	.81	.73	.63	.53	.67
C6	.73	.77	.70	.60	.56	.53

Table 8. Weights of the dimensions and criteria for the customer expectations

Criteria				$\tilde{D}_i^{def} - \tilde{R}_i^{def}$	Criterion Weights	Dimensions	Dimension Weights
C1	4.26	4.36	8.62	-0.09	0.174	**D1**	0.348
C2	3.90	4.68	8.58	-0.78	0.174		
C3	4.39	4.39	8.78	0.00	0.178	**D2**	0.336
C4	4.15	3.67	7.82	0.47	0.158		
C5	4.14	3.70	7.84	0.44	0.158	**D3**	0.317
C6	3.89	3.92	7.81	-0.03	0.158		

the workplace efficiency of tourism industry by considering the house of quality. The details of the analysis results are given in the following tables respectively. Firstly, by using expert evaluations, the fuzzy decision matrix has been constructed in Table 9.

The best and worst values of the fuzzy decision matrix have been defined and Si, Ri, and Qi values have been computed by considering the weight results of the criteria for the customer expectations with fuzzy DEMATEL. The analysis results and final ranking of workplace efficiency based on the house of quality are presented in Table 10.

According to Table 10, investment criterion of workplace efficiency (A3) is the best alternative for the customer-based evaluation while the criterion of equity (A1) has the worst rank in the workplace efficiency criteria set using the house of quality. Overall results demonstrate that the most important factors are the investment criterion for the financial dimension, and the research and development criterion for the non-financial dimension.

Table 9. The fuzzy decision matrix

	Equity			Returns			Investments			Research and Dev.			Use of distribution chan.			Organizational comp.		
C1	2.5	5	7.5	2.5	5	7.5	5	7.5	10	5	7.5	10	7.5	10	10	5	7.5	10
C2	2.5	5	7.5	0	2.5	5	5	7.5	10	5	7.5	10	0	2.5	5	2.5	5	7.5
C3	0	2.5	5	0	2.5	5	2.5	5	7.5	5	7.5	10	2.5	5	7.5	7.5	10	10
C4	0	2.5	5	2.5	5	7.5	2.5	5	7.5	5	7.5	10	7.5	10	10	5	7.5	10
C5	5	7.5	10	5	7.5	10	2.5	5	7.5	2.5	5	7.5	0	2.5	5	0	2.5	5
C6	5	7.5	10	7.5	10	10	5	7.5	10	0	2.5	5	2.5	5	7.5	0	2.5	5

Table 10. Ranking results for the customer-based workplace efficiency

Criteria of Workplace Efficiency	Si	Ri	Qi	Ranking
Equity (A1)	.632	.178	.996	6
Returns (A2)	.622	.178	.971	5
Investments (A3)	.378	.108	.015	1
Research and Development (A4)	.370	.158	.354	2
Use of distribution channels (A5)	.537	.174	.776	4
Organizational competency (A6)	.497	.158	.600	3

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results provide many different opportunities for both academicians and practitioners. Especially methodology of this study can lead academicians to use similar methods in the analysis process. For example, other types of multicriteria decision making methods, such as ANP, TOPSIS and MOORA can be used. The results also guide people working in the tourism industry. For instance, by designing more effective websites, these companies can have a chance to increase their sales.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

It is identified the most important factors regarding customer expectations and workplace efficiency of tourism industry. The house of quality, fuzzy DEMATEL and fuzzy VIKOR are also considered in the analysis process. In the future studies, this important topic can also be evaluated with another methodology which have not used before. For instance, interval type-2 fuzzy logic can be taken into consideration to evaluate these items for tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

We examined the customer expectations and workplace efficiency of tourism industry in the competitive market environment. In the analysis process, the house of quality approach is considered. Within this context, 6 different factors of customer expectations and workplace efficiency for the tourism industry are identified regarding different dimensions. In addition to them, fuzzy DEMATEL approach is used to weight customer expectation criteria whereas workplace efficiency is ranked by considering fuzzy VIKOR approach.

It is defined that infrastructure (D1) is the most important dimension while pricing has the lowest value. Additionally, ease of use (C3) is the most significant criterion. On the other side, closeness to the service (C1) and technological competency (C2) are also other significant criteria that affect customer expectations in tourism industry. Moreover, according to the results of fuzzy VIKOR, it is concluded that investment and research and development have the best rank among others.

The findings show that tourism companies should mainly focus on designing services for the customers to use easily. The main reason is that when customers can use the services easily, they will prefer to work with these companies. In this context, firstly, the websites of the tourism companies should become very easy to use. When customers can get necessary services from the websites of the tourism companies very easily, this situation has an increasing impact on the sales volume of tourism companies.

Additionally, technological competency should be provided by the tourism companies to increase their competitive power. For this purpose, they should make research and development investment. With the help of this issue, online services can be provided to the customers by these companies for many different aspects. This situation increases the processing speed in this process. Thus, customers can become more satisfied by getting tourism services in a fast and quality way.

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Chapter 19
A Research About the Organizational Psychological Capital Levels of Certified Public Accountants

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ABSTRACT

Psychological capital is a concept that is mentioned together with positive organizational behavior and has become more widespread recently. Psychological capital, which evaluates people positively, focuses on the personal characteristics and tendencies of individuals. The main purpose of psychological capital is to ensure that individuals' psychologies are better. The aim of this study is to investigate the psychological capital levels of certified public accountants. Psychological capital levels of certified public accountants are important because the working conditions are intense and difficult, and they have a stressful life. In line with the purpose of the study, a survey was conducted for 294 certified public accountants. The results of the survey conducted on the optimism, resiliency, hope, and self-efficacy levels of the certified public accountants were investigated.

INTRODUCTION

In difficult working conditions, enterprises do not draw attention to negativities and do not try to eliminate the weaknesses of employees to help their employees. Instead, they emphasize the importance of positivity and focus on improving the strengths of employees. The positive approach doesn't assert to investigate the positivity value. On the contrary, it prefers positive approach regarding occupational stress (Avey et al., 2009: 678).

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The concept of organizational psychological capital emerges from a theory and research on positive psychology, which is mostly used within the scope of the organizational field. Positive organizational behavior, which carries positive psychology to the organizational field, is concerned with revealing and developing especially the strong sides of individuals rather than weaknesses or failures of individuals. Positive organizational behavior brings a recent concept to the development and management of human resources (Çetin and Basım, 2012).

This study has been done for the certified public accountants due to lack of studies in the literature on accountants about the research of psychological capital. Since certified public accountants work in a stressful and intensive work environment, their work is extremely important, and the financial information that is provided by them, is used by almost every part of the society; the level of psychological capital of certified public accountants is very important for the certified public accountants and financial information users.

The aim of this study is to analyze the psychological capital levels of certified public accountants. For this purpose, a questionnaire was applied for certified public accountants. The main population of the study is certified public accountants who are working in the Western Mediterranean region (Isparta, Burdur and Antalya) in Turkey. The scale used in this study was based on psychological capital scale adapted by Çetin and Basım (2012).

The data obtained in accordance with the answers given by the Certified Public Accountants, were entered in a statistical package program developed for social sciences. Statistical data were dealt with in descriptive and inferential statistics. In the study, firstly the frequency distributions of the participants were determined and then the participants' psychological capital levels were investigated. Within the scope of frequency distributions, information was given about the participants' gender, age, education level, professional experience, working status, number of clients and number of personnel in the institutions. In order to investigate the participants' psychological capital levels, the data which belongs to likert-type scale questions was analyzed. In order to determine the variables in a more valid and reliable way, confirmatory factor analysis was applied to the data about psychological capital.

The 4 positive psychological capacities of optimism, resilience, hope and self-efficacy are measurable, open to improvement, and can be directed for more effective business performance (Luthans et al., 2004: 47). So according to analysis of the research, it was tried to measure the optimism, resilience, hope and self-efficacy levels of the participants who are working as certified public accountants under psychological capital. Then, the hypotheses created in the study were tested. And, at the end of study test results were interpreted.

Background

Some of the studies about organizational psychological capital in the literature are as follows. The article of Jancenelle (2018) argues that top managers who cue organizational-level positive psychological capital psychological capital are likely to mitigate investors' reactions unanticipated changes in earnings. Bozgeyikli (2017) generates a descriptive survey model and in this study it was aimed to test if the personality traits of teachers are a significant predictor of their psychological capital levels. In the study of Neek and Zadeh (2016), they aim to analyze the effect of organizational psychological capital dimensions on the burnout of teachers. Geçkil et al. (2016) aimed at determining the relationship between organizational democracy perceptions, organizational psychological capital levels of employees, the direction and strength of the relationship in their study. Within the study of Aliyev and Tunc (2015), the factor affecting the level of self-efficacy in psychological consultation was investigated. Organizational psychological capital of family franchise firms was explored by drawing on psychological capital and leader member exchange theories and family business literature in the study of Memili et al. (2014). Mehrabi et al. (2013) examined the relationship between psychological capital and meaning in work among the employees of Shahid Beheshti University. Memili et al. (2013) proposed that collective commitment to family–centered goals might affect family firm economic and noneconomic performance. They introduced to the family firm literature the organizational psychological capital, consisting of hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism. In the study of Çetin (2011), the effects of hope, resilience, optimism and self efficacy of the psychological capital on the attitudes of organizational commitment and job satisfaction was investigated.

ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL LEVELS OF CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS

1. General Information about Psychological Capital and Certified Public Accountants

a. Psychological Capital

"Psychological capital" term was referred in different areas on economics, finance, and sociology and etc. Positive psychology started almost 15 or 20 years ago and this term concentrate on power but not blind sides (Luthans et al., 2004: 46). The psychological capital was defined by Luthans et al. (2007) as; one's positive psychological condition of improvement and is characterized by: making a positive attribution (optimism) about achieving continuously; having confidence (self-efficacy) to put in and take on the required effort to succeed at challenging duties; when beset by troubles and problems, bouncing back and sustaining and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success; and persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed (Luthans et al., 2007: 3). The main points of psychological capital are: based on the paradigm of positive psychology; contains psychological states based on positive organizational behavior; passes over human capital and social capital to 'who you are'; and involves improvement and investment (Luthans et al., 2005: 253). Positive psychological capital can be directed and invested in. The cost of this process is less than tangible assets and customary financial capital. Positive psychological capacities are open to improvement, and all have verified guidelines for their enhancement (Luthans et al., 2004: 48).

Psychological capital was explained under four dimensions in many studies. These are; optimism, resiliency, hope and self-efficacy.

According to the Lounsbury et al. study (2009), optimism was defined as having a hopeful, upbeat outlook, especially concerning prospects, plans, people, and the future, even in the face of adversity and difficulty; a tendency to persist in the face of setbacks and minimize problems.

Resilience was explained by Steward et al. (1997) as the capability of person's to cope successfully in the face of significant adversity, change, or risk. This capability changes over time and is enhanced by protective factors in the environment and the individual.

According to Haase et al. (1992), hope is an energized mental state involving feelings of uncertainty or uneasiness and characterized by a cognitive, action oriented expectation that a positive future outcome or goal is possible (Miller, 2007: 14).

Self-efficacy was defined by Saleem et al. (2012) as an individual's feeling about himself that he can perform any work by utilizing his actions or abilities. Self-efficacy encourages the feeling that one can do what one desires to do and that one is responsible for one's fate (Saleem et al., 2012: 2).

b. Certified Public Accountants

The certified public accountants designation distinguishes licensed professionals accountants committed to protecting the public interest. The financial statement audits and other different attestation services are offered by the certified public accountants to help inform investors about the organizations financial health. Certified public accountants provide individuals with precious information and consultation on financial planning and taxes. In the industry and business, certified public accountants offer enterprises around financial reporting, advisory services, and world tax to foster improvement and success and drive strategic decision-making. Professional accountants should have immense education pass a meticulous four-part exam and meet experience requirements to earn the certified public accountants license. Certified public accountants should also adhere to a strict Code of Professional Conduct that requires competence, objectivity, integrity and independence and commit to lifelong learning (AICPA, 2019).

The developments in the social, economic, technological and financial fields that occur in commercial life and the expectations of the parties for professional accountants increase the number of professional problems. The unfair competition among the members of the profession, the demands of the taxpayers to pay less taxes, providing services at a lower cost than is required and the difficulty in collecting this fee, the lack of qualified personnel to work in the accounting profession can be given as the problems faced by members of the profession (Deran et al., 2016: 85-86). Because of these problems and they work in a busy work environment, certified public accountants have a stressful life. An intense and stressful work environment also affects productivity. Due to the responsibility they carry out, they experience more stress than other professionals (Bekçi et al., 2007: 145). Since the working environments are different from the other professionals, the psychological capital level of professional accountants is important for increasing their productivity. In addition, because the information they produce is used by almost every segment of the society, the investigation and improvement of the working conditions, behaviors and emotions of professional accountants is of concern to the general public.

2. Research about the Determination of Organizational Psychological Capital Levels of Certified Public Accountants

a. Information about the Research

The aim of this research is to investigate the psychological capital levels of certified public accountants. Psychological capital levels of professional accountants are examined with the help of hypotheses created within the framework of optimism, resiliency, hope and self-efficacy which are generally referred to as sub-dimensions of psychological capital in the literature.

For the purpose of the study, the following 8 hypotheses were formed about the psychological capital levels of the participants who are working as certified public accountants:

H1: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the gender of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

- **H1a:** There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the gender of the certified public accountants.
- **H1b:** There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the gender of the certified public accountants.
- **H1c:** There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the gender of the certified public accountants.
- **H1d:** There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the gender of the certified public accountants.

H2: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the age of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

- **H2a:** There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the age of the certified public accountants.
- **H2b:** There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the age of the certified public accountants.
- **H2c:** There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the age of the certified public accountants.
- **H2d:** There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the age of the certified public accountants.

H3: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the education levels of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

- **H3a:** There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the education levels of the certified public accountants.
- **H3b:** There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the education levels of the certified public accountants.
- **H3c:** There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the education levels of the certified public accountants.
- **H3d:** There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the education levels of the certified public accountants.

H4: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the professional experience of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

- **H4a:** There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the professional experience of the certified public accountants.
- **H4b:** There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the professional experience of the certified public accountants.
- **H4c:** There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the professional experience of the certified public accountants.
- **H4d:** There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the professional experience of the certified public accountants.

H5: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the working status of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

- **H5a:** There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the working status of the certified public accountants.

H5b: There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the working status of the certified public accountants.

H5c: There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the working status of the certified public accountants.

H5d: There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the working status of the certified public accountants.

H6: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the number of clients of the certified public accountants' office at 95% significance level.

H6a: There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the number of clients of the certified public accountants' office.

H6b: There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the number of clients of the certified public accountants' office.

H6c: There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the number of clients of the certified public accountants' office.

H6d: There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the number of clients of the certified public accountants' office.

H7: There is a relationship between the levels of psychological capital and the number of personnel of the certified public accountants' office at 95% significance level.

H7a: There is a relationship between the levels of optimism and the number of personnel of the certified public accountants' office.

H7b: There is a relationship between the levels of resiliency and the number of personnel of the certified public accountants' office.

H7c: There is a relationship between the levels of hope and the number of personnel of the certified public accountants' office.

H7d: There is a relationship between the levels of self-efficacy and the number of personnel of the certified public accountants' office.

H8: There is a relationship between the sub dimensions (optimism, resiliency, hope and self-efficacy) of psychological capital levels of the certified public accountants at 95% significance level.

In the study firstly, literature review about the studies in organizational psychological capital was realized. As a result of the literature search, a questionnaire was prepared on the certified public accountants by adapting the scale published by Çetin and Basım (2012). The universe of this study consists of certified public accountants who are working actively in the Western Mediterranean Region in Turkey. Due to the fact that it is not possible to reach the whole of the universe because of the various constraints, easy sampling method that is a part of non-random methods, has been applied. Isparta, Burdur and Antalya provinces are located in the Western Mediterranean Region. Therefore, questionnaires were applied to certified public accountants working in Isparta, Burdur and Antalya. As a result of the face-to-face interviews, 294 certified public accountants were included in the study. In the questionnaire, there are 7 questions about personal characteristics and within the scope of likert-type scale there are 23 questions related to psychological capital. SPSS 22.0 and AMOS statistical analysis programs were used to analyze the survey. First of all, frequency analysis was performed to investigate the demographic characteristics of the participants and descriptive statistics were presented. Then, the validity and reliability of the scale were tested in the analysis section of the study. In this respect, the validity of the scale was obtained with the help of confirmatory factor analysis in the AMOS program. The reliability of the scale was measured by SPSS package program. Then, the hypotheses that were formed with the help of confirmatory factor analysis were tested. Independent samples t test, one way anova, kruskall wallis and correlation tests were used for hypothesis testing. The confidence level was chosen as 95% in all analyzes.

b. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics formed as a result of the frequency analysis on the answers given by the certified public accountants to the demographic questions in the survey are given below. The information about the participants who do not answer the questions is presented under the name of missing. Missing values were ignored and valid percents were used when interpreting descriptive statistics.

Table 1 reflects the distribution of statistics of participants by gender.

As seen in Table 1, approximately 40% of the participants are female and 60% are male.

Table 2 shows the distribution of participants' statistics by age.

As seen in Table 2, approximately 17% of the participants are between 18 and 25 years old, 44% are between 26 and 39 years old and 39% are 40 years old or older.

The distribution of the participants' statistics according to the level of education is given in Table 3.

As seen in Table 3, approximately 12% of the participants were graduated from high school or have an associate degree, 80% of them have bachelor's degree, and 8% of them have graduate or doctoral degree.

Table 4 shows the distribution of participants' statistics according to their professional experience.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics According to Gender

Gender	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Female	115	39.1	39.9
Male	173	58.9	60.1
Missing	6	2.0	
Total	294	100	100

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics According to Age

Age	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
18 - 25	43	14.6	17.4
26 - 39	108	36.7	43.7
40 years and older	96	32.7	38.9
Missing	47	16.0	
Total	294	100	100

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics According to Education Level

Education Level	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
High School and Associate Degree	35	11.9	12.3
Bachelor Degree	228	77.5	80.0
Graduate or Doctoral Degree	22	7.5	7.7
Missing	9	3.1	
Total	294	100	100

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics According to Professional Experience

Professional Experience	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
0 - 5 Years	87	29.6	36.9
6 - 14 Years	67	22.8	28.4
15 Years and more	82	27.9	34.7
Missing	58	19.7	
Total	294	100	100

According to the Table 4, approximately 37% of the participants have 5 years or less experience, 28% have 6 - 14 years experience, 35% have 15 years or more experience.

The distribution of the participants' statistics according to their working status is given in Table 5.

As can be seen in Table 5, approximately 54% of the participants are dependent and working in an institution. 46% of the participants work independently in their own workplaces.

Table 6 shows the distribution of participants' statistics according to their number of clients.

As it can be seen in Table 6, approximately 10% of the participants have 20 or less clients, 31% have 21 - 50 clients, 49% have 51 - 100 clients, and 10% have 101 or more clients.

Table 7 shows the distribution of the participants' statistics according to the number of personnel working in the workplace.

As seen in Table 7, 3 or less personnel work in the workplaces of 63% of the participants, and 4 or more personnel work in the workplaces of 37% of the participants.

After the demographic questions, descriptive statistics of likert type questions in the scale were obtained.

The number of responses to the expressions in the scale, and the means and the standard deviations of the statements are given in Table 8.

The statistical reliability value of the scale was calculated as 0.828 before the confirmatory factor analysis. It can be said that the scale is reliable in its first form.

The average values of the answers received from the questions asked for certified public accountants were examined. According to the averages of the answers, the three expressions with the highest average are: "I am confident in determining my goals / objectives in my field of study", "Since I have had difficulties before, I can overcome the difficult times in my work", and "There are many ways to solve any problem". According to these results, it can be said that participants are self-confident, are not pessimistic and are convinced about the decisions they will take.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics According to Working Condition

Working Status	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Dependent	151	51.4	53.9
Independent	129	43.9	46.1
Missing	14	4.7	
Total	294	100	100

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics According to Number of Clients

Number of Clients	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
1 - 20	20	6.8	9.5
21 - 50	66	22.5	31.3
51 - 100	104	35.4	49.3
101and more	21	7.1	9.9
Missing	83	28.2	
Total	294	100	100

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics According to Number of Personnel

Number of Personnel	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
1 - 3 Personnel	168	57.1	63.4
4 and more Personnel	97	33.0	36.6
Missing	29	9.9	
Total	294	100	100

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics about the Questions that belongs to Scale

Expressions	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
In this workplace, things never work out the way I want.	292	2.5411	1.61022
I fulfill my business goals that I set for myself at this time.	293	4.2014	1.43240
I trust myself in providing information to a group of colleagues.	293	4.7986	1.25665
I am confident in determining my goals / objectives in my field of study.	294	4.9116	1.10799
Since I have had difficulties before, I can overcome the difficult times in my work.	293	4.8601	1.17518
There are many ways to solve any problem.	292	4.8699	1.09208
Usually, I can handle the stressful things in my work calmly.	289	4.1384	1.38752
When I encounter something wrong with my job, I'm having trouble getting around it.	292	3.5616	1.55968
When I have ambiguities in my work, I always want the best.	292	4.7295	1.24026
If I have to, I'm on my own in my job.	290	4.3414	1.48254
If something goes wrong for me in my job, it goes like that.	292	2.9110	1.60934
If I find myself in a blockage while working, I can think of many ways to get rid of it.	294	4.6429	1.26855
I feel I can handle a lot of things in my work.	293	4.6962	1.17036
I always see the good side of my job.	287	4.3554	1.34288
I trust myself in trying to find a solution to a long-term problem.	294	4.7925	1.17183
Currently, I see myself as very successful in my work.	294	4.5408	1.11919
I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future about my job.	291	4.4364	1.29132
I approach my job as "Every cloud has a silver lining".	288	4.2986	1.46066
I am following strictly my business objectives.	292	4.5993	1.23260
I am confident in contributing to the discussion of the organization's strategy.	291	4.5945	1.13282
I usually deal with the challenges of my work in some way.	293	4.6689	1.07092
I feel confident in contacting people outside of professional accountants to discuss problems.	293	4.7270	1.15295
I can think of many ways to achieve my current business goals.	293	4.8259	1.07608
The Value of Cronbach's Alpha	**0.828**		

c. Reliability of the Scale

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the validity of the scale used. In order to obtain more accurate results in the confirmatory factor analysis, extreme values in likert type questions were excluded from the analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed with the help of AMOS statistical analysis program. The reliability analyzes of the confirmatory factor analysis results are given in Table 9.

According to the Table 9, the results of AMOS confirmatory factor analysis have acceptable compliance values. So the results of the analysis can be accepted as reliable. As in the psychological capital scales in other studies, 4 factors were obtained in the confirmatory factor analysis and the factors were confirmed. The obtained factors are: optimism, resiliency, hope and self-efficacy.

The expressions that are distributed under the obtained factors, the statistical information about to the factors, and the reliability values of the factors are given in Table 10.

Table 9. Fit Statistics of the Psychological Capital Scale

	x^2	df	x^2/df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Psychological Capital Scale	169.756	70	2.42	0.916	0.907	0.074
Good Fit Statistics*			≤ 3	> 0.900	> 0.970	< 0.05
Acceptable Fit Statistics*			≤ 5	> 0.850	> 0.900	< 0.08

** Source: (Joreskog & Sarbom, 1993; Kline, 1998; Anderson & Gerbing, 1984)*

Table 10. Statistics and Reliability of the Factors that are obtained from Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Factors	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Reliability Value (Cronbach's Alpha)
Factor 1: Optimism	261	4.6001	0.81182	0.416
When I have ambiguities in my work, I always want the best.				
I always see the good side of my job.				
I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future about my job.				
Factor 2: Resiliency	261	4.6959	0.83055	0.526
Since I have had difficulties before, I can overcome the difficult times in my work.				
If I have to, I'm on my own in my job.				
I usually deal with the challenges of my work in some way.				
Factor 3: Hope	261	4.7533	0.74444	0.696
If I find myself in a blockage while working, I can think of many ways to get rid of it.				
Currently, I see myself as very successful in my work.				
I am following strictly my business objectives.				
I can think of many ways to achieve my current business goals.				
Factor 4: Self-efficacy	261	4.8298	0.80616	0.760
I trust myself in providing information to a group of colleagues.				
I am confident in determining my goals / objectives in my field of study.				
I am confident in contributing to the discussion of the organization's strategy.				
I feel confident in contacting people outside of professional accountants to discuss problems.				

According to Kalaycı, the reliability of a scale can be interpreted as follows (Kalaycı, 2014: 405);

- If $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$; not reliable.
- If $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$; low reliability.
- If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$; high reliability.
- If $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$; very high reliability.

Table 11. Skewness Kurtosis Values of the Factors

Factors	n	Minimum Value	Maximum Value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness Value	Kurtosis Value
Optimism	261	2.00	6.00	4.6001	.81182	**-.085**	**-.399**
Resiliency	261	2.00	6.00	4.6959	.83055	**-.131**	**-.646**
Hope	261	3.00	6.00	4.7533	.74444	**-.082**	**-.651**
Self-efficacy	261	2.00	6.00	4.8298	.80616	**-.302**	**-.339**

So it can be said that the reliability of the factors in the scale are at acceptable level.

When the average values of the factors are considered, it is seen that the factor with the highest average is self-efficacy. The self-efficacy factor was followed by hope, resiliency and optimism, respectively.

After testing the reliability of the factors, the factors were tested for normal distribution. Skewness and Kurtosis values of factors for normal distribution test were investigated. Skewness and Kurtosis values of the factors are given in Table 11.

As seen in Table 11, Skewness and Kurtosis values of all factors are between -1 and +1 and it can be said that the factors have normal distribution (Huck, 2012). Therefore, it is possible to use parametric tests for the analysis of factor dimensions.

d. Hypothesis Tests

In this part of the study, 8 main hypothesis and 28 sub-hypothesis test results were included. Parametric tests were used to test the hypotheses since the dimensions have normal distribution. Within the scope of parametric tests, independent sample t test, one-way anova and pearson correlation tests were used. But, a non-parametric test, the kruskal-wallis, was used instead of one-way anova, if some of the groups have data below 30 in demographic questions.

The independent sample t test was used to test the hypothesis H1. The results of the applied t test are summarized in Table 12.

According to the results in Table 12, p values of all sub-dimensions were higher than 0.05 and H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d sub-hypotheses were rejected. Thus, main H1 hypothesis was also rejected. According to this situation, there is no statistically significant difference between the gender and psychological capital levels of the participants.

Table 12. Independent Sample t Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 1

Factors	Gender				p Value
	Female		Male		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Optimism	4.7073	.77839	4.5397	.83480	0.108
Resiliency	4.6117	.88129	4.7619	.79996	0.159
Hope	4.7347	.74706	4.7686	.75276	0.724
Self-efficacy	4.7260	.73066	4.9038	.84408	0.084

Table 13. Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Factors	Sig. Value
Optimism	**0.835**
Resiliency	**0.499**
Hope	**0.277**
Self-efficacy	**0.125**

One-way anova test was used to test the H2 hypothesis. In order to determine whether one-way anova test can be applied, homogeneity test is used. Homogeneity test results are given in Table 13.

As shown in Table 13, one-way anova test can be used to test Hypothesis 2 because the values of all factors are higher than 0.05 and since the data is normally distributed. One-way anova test results for hypothesis 2 are given in Table 14.

As seen in Table 14, p values of optimism and resiliency sub-factors were higher than 0.05, p values of hope and self-efficacy sub-factors were lower than 0.05. Hence, H2a and H2b hypotheses were rejected and H2c and H2d hypotheses were accepted. According to this situation, there is a statistically significant difference between the ages of participants and their levels of hope and self-efficacy.

In order to determine the meaningful differences between the age groups in terms of the level of hope and self-efficacy of the participants, the Tukey test was applied. The results of the Tukey test are given in Table 15.

Table 14. One-way Anova Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 2

Factors	Age			F Value	p Value
	18 – 25	26 - 35	40 years and older		
Optimism	4.6222	4.5456	4.6779	0.613	0.542
Resiliency	4.4896	4.6971	4.7866	1.749	0.176
Hope	4.5513	4.7167	4.9066	3.167	**0.044**
Self-efficacy	4.5608	4.7533	5.0422	5.939	**0.003**

Table 15. Tukey Test Results

Factors	Age	Sig. Value		
		18 – 25	26 - 35	40 years and older
Hope	18 – 25	-	0.490	**0.046**
	26 - 35	0.490	-	0.209
	40 years and older	**0.046**	0.209	-
Self-efficacy	18 – 25	-	0.396	**0.005**
	26 - 35	0.396	-	**0.032**
	40 years and older	**0.005**	**0.032**	-

As shown in Table 15, since the values are less than 0.05, there is a difference between the individuals who are 18 - 25 years old and who are 40 years old or older in terms of the level of hope of the participants. In terms of self-efficacy levels of participants, there are differences between individuals who are 18-25 years old and who are 40 years old or older. Again, in terms of self-efficacy levels, there are differences between individuals who are 26-35 years old and who are 40 years old and older.

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test H3 hypothesis. When the education levels of the participants were examined, the Kruskal-Wallis test which is a non-parametric test was preferred instead of one-way anova test since the individuals who have graduate education level, were less than 30. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are given in Table 16.

According to the results in Table 16, the sub-hypothesis H3a, H3b, H3c and H3d were rejected because the significance values for all sub-dimensions were higher than 0.05. Thus, main H3 hypothesis is also rejected. According to this situation, there is no statistically significant difference between educational levels and psychological capital levels of the participants.

One-way anova test was used to test the H4 hypothesis. In order to determine whether one-way anova test can be applied, homogeneity test is used. Homogeneity test results are given in Table 17.

As it is seen in Table 17, the values of all factors are higher than 0.05, and since the data is normally distributed, one-way anova test can be used to test Hypothesis 4. One-way anova test results for hypothesis 4 are given in Table 18.

Table 16. Kruskal-Wallis Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 3

Factors	Education Level	Mean Rank	Sig.
Optimism	High School and Associate Degree	141.21	0.166
	Bachelor Degree	128.05	
	Postgraduate	99.81	
Resiliency	High School and Associate Degree	114.77	0.589
	Bachelor Degree	128.63	
	Postgraduate	134.28	
Hope	High School and Associate Degree	140.66	0.373
	Bachelor Degree	127.26	
	Postgraduate	109.75	
Self-efficacy	High School and Associate Degree	118.20	0.502
	Bachelor Degree	129.99	
	Postgraduate	113.25	

Table 17. Test of Homogeneity of Variance

Factors	Sig. Value
Optimism	**0.662**
Resiliency	**0.841**
Hope	**0.563**
Self-efficacy	**0.252**

Table 18. One-way Anova Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 4

Factors	Professional Experience			F Value	p Value
	0 - 5 Years	6 - 14 Years	15 Years and more		
Optimism	4.6119	4.4763	4.7063	1.436	0.240
Resiliency	4.6433	4.6336	4.7934	0.862	0.424
Hope	4.6237	4.7224	4.8979	2.522	0.083
Self-efficacy	4.7303	4.7397	5.0563	3.955	**0.021**

As seen in Table 18, p values for optimism, resiliency and hope sub-factors were higher than 0.05, p-value of self-efficacy sub-factor was less than 0.05. Hence, H2a, H2b and H2c hypotheses were rejected and only H2d hypothesis was accepted. According to this situation, there is a statistically significant difference between the professional experience and only self-efficacy levels of the participants.

The Tukey test was used to determine the significant differences between the groups in terms of self-efficacy levels of the participants. The Tukey test results are given in Table 19.

As shown in Table 19, since the significance value is less than 0.05, there is a significant difference between the individuals who have experience of 5 years or less and those who have experience of 15 years or more in terms of their self-efficacy level.

The independent sample t test was used to test the H5 hypothesis. The results of the applied t test are summarized in Table 20.

According to the results in Table 20, p values of all sub-factors were higher than 0.05 and H5a, H5b, H5c and H5d sub-hypotheses were rejected. Thus, main H5 hypothesis was also rejected. According to this situation, there is no statistically significant difference between working status and psychological capital levels of the participants.

Table 19. Tukey Test Results

Factors	Professional Experience	Sig. Value		
		0 - 5 Years	6 - 14 Years	15 Years and more
Self-efficacy	0 - 5 Years	-	0.997	**0.034**
	6 - 14 Years	0.997	-	0.052
	15 Years and more	**0.034**	0.052	-

Table 20. Independent Sample t Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 5

Factors	Working Status				p Value
	Dependent		Independent		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Optimism	4.5340	.79209	4.6851	.83726	0.146
Resiliency	4.6502	.81751	4.7855	.85640	0.205
Hope	4.7280	.71809	4.7863	.78655	0.542
Self-efficacy	4.8280	.77121	4.8470	.84735	0.853

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test H6 hypothesis. When the participants' number of clients was examined, the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is a non-parametric test, was preferred instead of one-way anova test since the participants who have 1-20 clients and more than 100 clients, were less than 30. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are given in Table 21.

According to the results in Table 21, H6a, H6b, H6c and H6d hypotheses were rejected because the significance values for all sub-factors were higher than 0.05. Thus, main H6 hypothesis was also rejected. According to this situation, there is no statistically significant difference between the participants' number of clients and their psychological capital levels.

Independent sample t test was used to test the H7 hypothesis. The results of the applied t test are summarized in Table 22.

Table 21. Kruskal-Wallis Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 6

Factors	Number of Clients	Mean Rank	Sig.
Optimism	1 - 20	74.38	0.365
	21 - 50	93.34	
	51 - 100	93.47	
	101and more	107.59	
Resiliency	1 - 20	82.06	0.729
	21 - 50	97.87	
	51 - 100	91.44	
	101and more	96.72	
Hope	1 - 20	75.75	0.539
	21 - 50	93.05	
	51 - 100	94.37	
	101and more	101.66	
Self-efficacy	1 - 20	72.13	0.391
	21 - 50	91.98	
	51 - 100	96.91	
	101and more	93.41	

Table 22. Independent Sample t Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 7

Factors	Number of Personnel				p Value
	0 - 3 Personnel		4 and more Personnel		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Optimism	4.5382	.81030	4.7451	.80067	0.057
Resiliency	4.6549	.86160	4.7962	.74037	0.200
Hope	4.7590	.79250	4.8125	.68988	0.599
Self-efficacy	4.8455	.84351	4.8551	.72687	0.929

Table 23. Pearson Correlation Test Results Using to Analyze Hypothesis 8

Factors		Optimism	Resiliency	Hope	Self-efficacy
Optimism	Pearson Correlation	1	.470**	.567**	.358**
	Significance (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
Resiliency	Pearson Correlation	.470**	1	.592**	.598**
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
Hope	Pearson Correlation	.567**	.592**	1	.655**
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.358**	.598**	.655**	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	

According to the results in Table 22, p values of all sub-factors were higher than 0.05, therefore the H7a, H7b, H7c and H7d sub-hypotheses were rejected. Thus, main H7 hypothesis was also rejected. According to this situation, there is no statistically significant difference between the number of personnel working in the participants' workplaces and the psychological capital levels of the participants.

Pearson correlation test was used to test H8 hypothesis. Pearson correlation test results are summarized in Table 23.

According to the results in Table 23, there is a significant relationship between all sub-factors because the significance values of all sub-factors are less than 0.05. When pearson correlation values are considered, it is seen that the relationship between all factors is moderate. However, the highest relationship was obtained between hope and self-efficacy. The lowest relationship was obtained between optimism and self-efficacy.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In this study, the psychological capital levels of certified public accountants were examined under the optimism, durability, hope and self-efficacy sub-dimensions. In future studies, the psychological capital sub-dimensions of certified public accountants can be analyzed together with other variables. In this way, it can be determined which psychological capital level is related to which issues.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this study is to analyze the psychological levels of the certified public accountants. There is a gap in the literature about the researches that handle the psychological levels of professional accountants. This study is important due to this lack and it is expected that the study will contribute the current literature.

The psychological capital levels of certified public accountants working in the Western Mediterranean Region in Turkey were investigated in this study. 294 certified public accountants working in Antalya, Isparta and Burdur were surveyed. The findings and results obtained from the data acquired as a result of the research are given below.

Most of the participants are male and the majority of them are 26-39 years old. In addition, a great majority of the participants have bachelor's degrees. Professional experience and working status of certified public accountants in the study are very close to each other. The majority of the participants' number of clients is in the range of 51-100. Generally, 3 or less personnel work in the participants' workplaces.

The validity of the scale was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis revealed 4 generally accepted factors in the literature. Obtained dimensions are; optimism, resiliency, hope and self-efficacy. When the averages of factor dimensions are examined it can be seen that, participants trust themselves in determining goals, overcome difficulties and find ways to solve problems. This shows that participants' self-confidence is high and they are not pessimistic.

According to the results, the highest level of psychological capital sub-dimensions of the participants is self-efficacy dimension. The dimensions of hope, resiliency and optimism follow the self-efficacy dimension.

According to the data obtained from the hypothesis tests; it was observed that the levels of hope of the older participants were higher than those of the younger ones. Furthermore, it is seen that the self-efficacy levels of the participants increased as they get along. Similarly, the self-efficacy levels of the participants who have higher experience were higher than those who have less experience. This situation shows that self-efficacy increases as a result of increase in age and experience. There is also relationship between the sub-dimensions of psychological capital of the participants. The strongest relationship is between the levels of hopes and self-efficacy of the participants. The lowest relationship is between optimism and self-efficacy. This shows that there is a correlation between hope and self-efficacy.

Based on the results of the study, it is observed that certified public accountants who are more experienced are generally more self-confident and more hopeful than younger ones. The reason for this situation is that the older certified public accountants may adapt to the intense and stressful work environment and are accustomed to the profession. Therefore, even though they perform a difficult profession, it is thought that being patient and gaining experience in their fields may increase the certified public accountants' psychological capital levels.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Accountants: The professionals who realize the accounting operations in the institutions.

Accounting: The process which is recording, classifying, summarizing, reporting, and analyzing the financial events.

Hope: The belief is that the future will be positive.

Optimism: Looking at the positive aspects of events.

Positive Organizational Behavior: It is an approach that approaching people's behavior positively.

Resiliency: Resisting against negative situations.

Self-Efficacy: To know the own capacity and capabilities.

Western Mediterranean Region: The region that includes Antalya, Isparta, and Burdur provinces.

Chapter 20
Kano-Based Measurement of Customer Expectations in Retail Service Industry Using IT2 DEMATEL-QUALIFLEX

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to analyze customer expectations in European retail banking industry. For this purpose, five different criteria are identified. Furthermore, IT2 FDEMATEL approach is used to weight these criteria. In addition, three different factors are also defined which have a negative influence on customer satisfaction. In this context, IT2 FQUALIFLEX approach is used to rank these three alternatives. In this process, Kano model-based evaluation factors are converted into the fuzzy numbers. The findings show that the most important problem to be solved to ensure customer expectations and satisfaction is the communication problems. Therefore, European retail banks should firstly focus on solving this problem to meet customer expectations and provide customer satisfaction. These banks should employ the necessary number of personnel to provide services in different channels, such as social media, mobile banking, telebanking. Moreover, these personnel should also be trained effectively to increase the quality of communication.

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INTRODUCTION

Customer is accepted as the most important factor for service companies. Therefore, these companies should take necessary actions to satisfy their customer needs. With the help of this aspect, they can be preferred more by the customers. Otherwise, it becomes impossible to survive in competitive environment (Ye et al., 2019). However, identifying customer expectations is not so easy issue for service companies. Thus, service companies must make very detailed analysis to define this situation according to each different types of the customers. It is obvious that the quality of the methodology plays a very key role in this situation (Hsieh and Yuan, 2019; Alauddin et al., 2019).

Kano model was developed mainly to understand the expectations of the customers. The main purpose of this methodology is to identify the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer expectations. Within this framework, customer needs and expectations are categorized because it is thought that each expectation does not have the same importance for the customers (Tan and Pawitra, 2001). In other words, some expectations have more powerful impact on the customer satisfaction in comparison with the others. Hence, it can be understood that which conditions should be mainly focused on by the service companies to increase customer satisfaction more effectively (Chiang et al., 2019; Bi et al., 2019).

Retail banking sector in Europe has a hard competition especially after the globalization periods. Because a lot of international banks entered to European market after this period, retail banks have to take necessary actions to compete with their rivals (Seyfang and Gilbert-Squires, 2019). This hard competition had a very negative influence on the performance of the European retail banking sector. According to the European Union reports, retails banks' return on equity was 16.28% in 2006, but it decreased radically to 5.12% at the end of 2017 (Omoregie et al., 2019). This situation gives information that European retail banks must firstly understand the expectations of the customer needs and expectations in a detailed manner. After that, necessary policies should be implemented by these banks to satisfy the customers so that financial performance of them can be increased (Sayil et al., 2019).

The popularity of multicriteria decision making approach increased very much with respect to the understanding customer needs in retail banking sector. Because they consider many different factors at the same time, it is believed that they are very helpful to reach more appropriate results. Owing to this situation, it can be seen that there are many different studies in the literature which tries to analyze customer expectations by using these approaches. For example, Dinçer and Hacıoğlu (2013) used VIKOR methodology to understand customer needs. In addition to these studies, Pakizehkar et al. (2016) and Tavana et al. (2016) are other studies that consider other approaches, such as AHP and TOPSIS to reach this objective.

Owing to this condition, it is obvious that the studies which analyze customer satisfaction in retail banking with qualified methodology is very crucial. Hence, the aim of this study is to evaluate customer satisfaction in European retail banking sector. Within this framework, 5 different criteria are identified regarding customer expectations. On the other side, 3 different factors are also defined with respect to the customer satisfaction. By using Kano method, the items are converted into the fuzzy sets. Moreover, IT2 FDEMATEL approach is taken into the consideration to weight the criteria. Additionally, IT2 FQUALIFLEX method is used to rank the alternatives that represent customer satisfaction.

The main novelty of this study is that an integrated approach to multicriteria decision making model is provided in the analysis process. IT2 FDEMATEL and IT2 FQUALIFLEX methods are firstly used in this study at the same time. In addition to this issue, Kano-based evaluation method is converted to the fuzzy numbers in the analysis process. It is thought that these conditions increase the originality of the study. By making a detailed analysis with qualified approaches, it is aimed to present necessary recommendations for European sector to increase customer satisfaction.

This study has 5 different sections. After this introduction part, literature review is taken place in the second section. Within this context, significant studies in the literature which analyzed Kano model, customer expectations and satisfaction are detailed. Methodology is defined in the third section. IT2 FDEMATEL and IT2 FQUALIFLEX approaches are detailed. Moreover, in the fourth section, there is an application which focuses on European retail banking sector. Finally, the last section presents necessary recommendations according to the analysis results.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Kano model was developed by Noriaki Kano to understand customer satisfaction and to connect with product / service characteristics. In other words, it is aimed to identify the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer expectations. It is thought that it is a very helpful model to become different that the competitors, increase competitive power and enhance higher profitability. The main purpose of this method is that customers should be classified to understand their needs more effectively. Therefore, it can be possible to attract the attentions of all type of the customers with different products.

There are five different categories in Kano model. Firstly, "must be" refers to the requirements which lead to dissatisfaction at high level when they are not met. In customers' mind, these requirements are already stated in the product or service they receive. Therefore, the existence of these needs affects customer satisfaction at the minimum level. In addition, the second category is the "one-dimensional" requirements which are demanded by the customers by contrast with "must be". This means that when these requirements are met more, customer satisfaction will be higher.

The third category in Kano model is "attractive" requirements which increase customer satisfaction very much when they are met. However, they do not create dissatisfaction with customers if they are not met. In other words, these requirements are not expected or demanded by the customers. Moreover, the fourth category is the "indifferent" requirements which are rarely needed by the customers. Hence, customers remain indifferent for these requirements. The final category of the Kano model is "reverse" requirements. For this issue, the satisfaction level of the customer is diminished by providing such features at a high level.

In the literature, Kano methodology was considered in many different studies. Many studies used this approach in the product development process. Dou et al. (2016) employed Kano model for recognizing different customization attributes of the products and ranking them according to influences on customer satisfactions. Chen and Chuang (2008) also used Kano method to reach optimal mobile phone design. Moreover, Matzler and Hinterhuber (1998) underlined importance of this model for effective product development projects. Additionally, Lo et al. (2017) and Lee et al. (2008) used Kano model and concluded that customer satisfaction and loyalty can be enhanced.

There are also some studies which considered Kano model regarding customer satisfaction. Furthermore, Kano model was employed for manufacturer satisfaction by Kumar and Routroy (2015). Also, Heo et al. (2007) studies customer satisfaction in telecommunication industry. In this study, physical user interaction guidelines of the mobile phones were classified into two groups by using Kano model. Moreover, Yin et al. (2016) used this approach for residential satisfaction by considering the environmental factors. Similarly, Zhao and Roy Dholakia (2009) focused on customer satisfaction with respect to the website usage.

With respect to the implementation of the Kano model to different industries, Chen and Lin (2007) and Chen and Kuo (2011) used this methodology to improve e-learning activities. Moreover, Garibay et al. (2010) focused on the ways of improving digital library. As a result of the analysis with Kano model, it is defined that listening voice of customer should be improved for increasing customer satisfaction. Go and Kim (2018) also used this model to increase efficiency in airline industry. Salehzadeh et al. (2015) focused on leadership design and Kuo (2004) categorized web-community service quality dimensions.

In addition to these studies, a new Kano model was developed by some researchers for many different purposes. For instance, Ek and Çıkış (2015) developed a new Kano model for architectural design quality. Moreover, a novel creativity-based kano model was presented by Chen et al. (2010) by integrating the TRIZ and SCAMPER techniques. Xu et al. (2009) also developed analytical Kano (A-Kano) method to measure customer satisfaction. Furthermore, Florez-Lopez and Ramon-Jeronimo (2012) presented a Kano model to analyze the logistics services to enhance customer satisfaction.

Furthermore, in some studies, Kano model was used with different approaches in order to increase the accuracy of the results. For example, Artificial neural networks (ANN) and Kano method were used together by Chang et al. (2009). They classified users into different groups by artificial neural networks and Kano model was considered to analyze the needs of these different users. Furthermore, Bayraktaroğlu and Özgen (2008) integrated analytical hierarch process (AHP) with Kano model to measure customer satisfaction. Similar to these studies, He et al. (2017), Pakizehkar et al. (2016) and Chen and Ko (2008) used Kano model with quality function deployment (QFD) approach to understand the needs of the customers.

The subject of customer expectation is also very popular. Some studies examined this subject for the banking sector. For example, Calabrese et al. (2016) focused on the gender differences in customer expectations in the banking sector by a survey with 908 clients. They concluded that there is a small difference between the expectations of men and women. Parallel to this study, Islam et al. (2015) aimed to identify how banks are successful to analyze customer expectations. Within this context, Islamic banks in Malaysia are taken into the consideration. They conducted a survey analysis in this process. It is identified that the customers below 30 years old have higher expectations in comparison with the others.

In addition to the banking sector, customer expectation was also analyzed in other significant industries. Paluch (2014) examined the customer expectations in medical industry in US. In this context, an interview study was conducted based on 30 interviews in 11 different companies. It is concluded that personal interaction plays more important role than high technology in order to increase customer satisfaction. Similar to this study, Rishi and Joshi (2016), Stefano et al. (2015) and Ariffin and Maghzi (2012) used the same methodology to evaluate customer expectations in tourism industry. Kamaruddin et al. (2012) also evaluated the customer expectations for transportation industry.

Furthermore, Lin and Lekhawipat (2016) made an analysis about satisfying customer expectations after purchase period in online shopping. Within this framework, a regression analysis was performed, and it is defined that confidence is the most significant factor in this situation. Also, Ngwenya (2017) focused on the customer expectations in telecommunication sector. As a result of survey analysis, it is identified that assurance and responsiveness are the most significant dimensions for this condition. Moreover, Fox and Cowley (2015) studied customer expectations regarding the service in Twitter. It is concluded that there is a difference between customer expectations and company's thoughts about these expectations. It is defined that the subject of customer expectation was also examined by using some other methodologies like regression, survey and interview. Hence, it is defined that there is a need for a new study that evaluates customers expectation by integrating Kano method with a new and original methodology, such as IT2 fuzzy logic.

METHODOLOGY

IT2 Fuzzy Sets

IT2 fuzzy logic is accepted ass the advanced version of the fuzzy sets. Because there is uncertainty in the type-1 fuzzy logic, this approach was generated in order to minimize this problem. IT2 fuzzy set is demonstrated by $\tilde{A}$. Also, the membership function is represented by $\mu_{\tilde{A}(x,u)}$. Equation (1) gives information about the IT2 fuzzy logic (Mendel, 2016; Dinçer et al., 2019a,b,c; Dinçer and Yüksel, 2019; Yüksel et al., 2019).

$$\tilde{A} = \left\{\left(\left(x,u\right), \mu_{\tilde{A}(x,u)}\right) \middle| \forall_x \in X, \forall_u \in J_x \subseteq \left[0,1\right]\right\}, \text{ or } \tilde{A} = \int_{x\in X}\int_{u\in J_x} \mu_{\tilde{A}}\left(x,u\right) / \left(x,u\right) J_x \subseteq \left[0,1\right] \tag{1}$$

In this equation, the expression of $\mu_{\tilde{A}(x,u)}$ can take value between 0 and 1. $\iint$ explains the union over all x and u. Therefore, $\tilde{A}$ is shown in equation (2).

$$\tilde{A} = \int_{x\in X}\int_{u\in J_x} 1 / \left(x,u\right) J_x \subseteq \left[0,1\right] \tag{2}$$

In IT2 fuzzy set, $\tilde{A}_i^U$ shows the upper trapezoidal membership function. Additionally, the lower trapezoidal membership function is represented by $\tilde{A}_i^L$. Equation (3) summarizes this situation.

$$\tilde{A}_i = \left(\tilde{A}_i^U, \tilde{A}_i^L\right) = \left(\left(a_{i1}^U, a_{i2}^U, a_{i3}^U, a_{i4}^U; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_i^U\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_i^U\right)\right), \left(a_{i1}^L, a_{i2}^L, a_{i3}^L, a_{i4}^L; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_i^L\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_i^L\right)\right)\right) \tag{3}$$

In equation (3), $\tilde{A}_i^U$ and $\tilde{A}_i^L$ give information about interval type-1 fuzzy sets. In addition, IT2 fuzzy sets are indicated by $a_{i1}^U, a_{i2}^U, a_{i3}^U, a_{i4}^U, \quad a_{i1}^L, a_{i2}^L, a_{i3}^L, a_{i4}^L$. The equations (4) and (8) give information about this calculation process.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\tilde{A}_1 \oplus \tilde{A}_2 = \left(\tilde{A}_1^U, \tilde{A}_1^L\right) \oplus \left(\tilde{A}_2^U, \tilde{A}_2^L\right) \\
&= \left(\left(a_{11}^U + a_{21}^U, a_{12}^U + a_{22}^U, a_{13}^U + a_{23}^U, a_{14}^U + a_{24}^U; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right)\right),\right. \\
&\left.\left(a_{11}^L + a_{21}^L, a_{12}^L + a_{22}^L, a_{13}^L + a_{23}^L, a_{14}^L + a_{24}^L; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right)\right)\right)
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\tilde{A}_1 \ominus \tilde{A}_2 = \left(\tilde{A}_1^U, \tilde{A}_1^L\right) \ominus \left(\tilde{A}_2^U, \tilde{A}_2^L\right) \\
&= \left(\left(a_{11}^U - a_{21}^U, a_{12}^U - a_{22}^U, a_{13}^U - a_{23}^U, a_{14}^U - a_{24}^U; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right)\right),\right. \\
&\left.\left(a_{11}^L - a_{21}^L, a_{12}^L - a_{22}^L, a_{13}^L - a_{23}^L, a_{14}^L - a_{24}^L; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right)\right)\right)
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

$$\tilde{A}_1 \otimes \tilde{A}_2 = \left(\tilde{A}_1^U, \tilde{A}_1^L\right) \otimes \left(\tilde{A}_2^U, \tilde{A}_2^L\right)$$
$$= \left(\left(a_{11}^U \times a_{21}^U, a_{12}^U \times a_{22}^U, a_{13}^U \times a_{23}^U, a_{14}^U \times a_{24}^U; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^U\right)\right)\right),\right. \tag{6}$$
$$\left.\left(a_{11}^L \times a_{21}^L, a_{12}^L \times a_{22}^L, a_{13}^L \times a_{23}^L, a_{14}^L \times a_{24}^L; \min\left(H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right), \min\left(H_2\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right), H_1\left(\tilde{A}_2^L\right)\right)\right)\right)$$

$$k\tilde{A}_1 = \left(k \times a_{11}^U, k \times a_{12}^U, k \times a_{13}^U, k \times a_{14}^U; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right)\right), \left(k \times a_{11}^L, k \times a_{12}^L, k \times a_{13}^L, k \times a_{14}^L; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right)\right) \tag{7}$$

$$\frac{\tilde{A}_1}{k} = \left(\frac{1}{k} \times a_{11}^U, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{12}^U, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{13}^U, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{14}^U; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_1^U\right)\right), \left(\frac{1}{k} \times a_{11}^L, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{12}^L, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{13}^L, \frac{1}{k} \times a_{14}^L; H_1\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right), H_2\left(\tilde{A}_1^L\right)\right) \tag{8}$$

IT2 Fuzzy DEMATEL

In DEMATEL approach, the different factors can be weighted by using this methodology based on their significance levels. Moreover, this method is also very helpful to analyze the interdependence among these factors. This method is also used with IT2 fuzzy sets. This process can be explained in five different steps (Lo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019; Costa et al., 2019; Dinçer and Yüksel, 2018; Dinçer et al., 2018).

The evaluations of the experts are provided in the first step. After that, these evaluations are converted to interval fuzzy sets. Moreover, the second step initial direct relation matrix is calculated. In this process, these evaluation results are taken into the consideration collectively. The initial direct-relation fuzzy matrix $\tilde{Z}$ can be generated that is detailed on equations (9) and (10).

$$\tilde{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tilde{z}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{z}_{1n} \\ \tilde{z}_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{z}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{z}_{n1} & \tilde{z}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

$$\tilde{Z} = \frac{\tilde{Z}^1 + \tilde{Z}^2 + \tilde{Z}^3 + \ldots \tilde{Z}^n}{n} \tag{10}$$

Thirdly, normalization process is occurred. Equations (11), (12) and (13) are used in this process.

$$\tilde{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_{11} & \tilde{x}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{1n} \\ \tilde{x}_{21} & \tilde{x}_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_{n1} & \tilde{x}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{11}$$

$$\tilde{x}_{ij} = \frac{\tilde{z}_{ij}}{r} = \left(\left(\frac{Z_{a_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{b_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{c_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{d_{ij}}}{r}; H_1\left(z_{ij}^U\right), H_2\left(z_{ij}^U\right)\right), \left(\frac{Z_{e_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{f_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{g_{ij}}}{r}, \frac{Z_{h_{ij}}}{r}; H_1\left(z_{ij}^L\right), H_2\left(z_{ij}^L\right)\right)\right) \tag{12}$$

$$r = max\left(max_{1\le i\le n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{d_{ij}}, max_{1\le i\le n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{d_{ij}}\right) \tag{13}$$

Additionally, the total influence fuzzy matrix ($\tilde{T}$) is as the equations (14)-(18).

$$X_a = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a'_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & a'_{1n} \\ a'_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & a'_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a'_{n1} & a'_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \ldots, X_h = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & h'_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & h'_{1n} \\ h'_{21} & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & h'_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h'_{n1} & h'_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{14}$$

$$\tilde{T} = \lim_{k\to\infty} \tilde{X} + \tilde{X}^2 + \ldots + \tilde{X}^k \tag{15}$$

$$\tilde{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{t}_{11} & \tilde{t}_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{1n} \\ \tilde{t}_{21} & \tilde{t}_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{t}_{n1} & \tilde{t}_{n2} & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{t}_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{16}$$

where

$$\tilde{t}_{ij} = \left(a''_{ij}, b''_{ij}, c''_{ij}, d''_{ij}; H_1\left(\tilde{t}_{ij}^{\ U}\right), H_2\left(\tilde{t}_{ij}^{\ U}\right)\right), \left(e''_{ij}, f''_{ij}, g''_{ij}, h''_{ij}; H_1\left(\tilde{t}_{ij}^{\ L}\right), H_2\left(\tilde{t}_{ij}^{\ L}\right)\right) \tag{17}$$

$$\left[a''_{ij}\right] = X_a \times \left(I - X_a\right)^{-1}, \ldots, \left[h''_{ij}\right] = X_h \times \left(I - X_h\right)^{-1} \tag{18}$$

The last step includes the determination of influence degrees with the equations (19) and (20).

$$\tilde{D}_i = \left[\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{t}_{ij}\right]_{n\times 1} \tag{19}$$

$$\tilde{R}_i = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{t}_{ij}\right]_{1\times n}^{'} \tag{20}$$

Within this framework, $\tilde{D}_i$ represents the sum of all vector rows. Additionally, $\tilde{R}_i$ gives information about the sum of all vector columns. Hence, the total degree of the influence among criteria is represented by $\left(\tilde{D}_i + \tilde{R}_i\right)$.

IT2 Fuzzy QUALIFLEX

The QUALIFLEX refers to the "qualitative flexible multiple criteria method" (Paelinck, 1976). In other words, it is aimed to have flexibility based on the correct treatment of cardinal and ordinal information. Additionally, the details of QUALIFLEX methodology based on IT2 fuzzy logic are explained in four different steps (Banerjee et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2015; Deng et al., 2019).

Firstly, the decision matrix is developed by considering the average values of the expert evaluations. This matrix is given on the equations (21) and (22).

X1 X2 X3 … Xn

$$D = \begin{array}{c} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ \vdots \\ A_m \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} & & \cdots & A_{2n} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & & \cdots & A_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & A_{m3} & & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{21}$$

$$A_{ij} = \frac{1}{k}\left[\sum_{e=1}^{k} A_{ij}^{\ e}\right] \tag{22}$$

Additionally, the signed distance $d\left(A_{ij}, \tilde{0}\right)$ is calculated in the second process. Equations (23) and (24) explain this process.

$$\left(A_{ij}, \tilde{0}\right) = \frac{1}{8}\left(a_{1ij}^{L} + a_{2ij}^{L} + a_{3ij}^{L} + a_{4ij}^{L} + 4a_{1ij}^{U} + 2a_{2ij}^{U} + 2a_{3ij}^{U} + 4a_{4ij}^{U} + 3(a_{2ij}^{U} + a_{3ij}^{U} - a_{1ij}^{U} - a_{4ij}^{U})\frac{h_{ij}^{L}}{h_{ij}^{U}}\right) \tag{23}$$

where

$$A_{ij} = \left[A_{ij}^{L}, A_{ij}^{U}\right] = \left[\left(a_{1ij}^{L}, a_{2ij}^{L}, a_{3ij}^{L}, a_{4ij}^{L}; h_{ij}^{L}\right), \left(a_{1ij}^{U}, a_{2ij}^{U}, a_{3ij}^{U}, a_{4ij}^{U}; h_{ij}^{U}\right)\right] \tag{24}$$

Furthermore, the concordance/discordance index I_j^l is calculated in the third step. All details are demonstrated on the equations (25)-(27).

$$I_j^l = \sum_{A_\rho, A_\beta \in A} I_j^l\left(A_\rho, A_\beta\right) = \sum_{A_\rho, A_\beta \in A} \left(d\left(A_{\rho j}, \tilde{0}_1\right) - d\left(A_{\beta j}, \tilde{0}_1\right)\right) \tag{25}$$

where

$$\begin{gathered} A_{\rho j} = \left[A_{\rho j}^L, A_{\rho j}^U\right] = \left[\left(a_{1\rho j}^L, a_{2\rho j}^L, a_{3\rho j}^L, a_{4\rho j}^L; h_{\rho j}^L\right), \left(a_{1\rho j}^U, a_{2\rho j}^U, a_{3\rho j}^U, a_{4\rho j}^U; h_{\rho j}^U\right)\right] \\ \text{and} \\ A_{\beta j} = \left[A_{\beta j}^L, A_{\beta j}^U\right] = \left[\left(a_{1\beta j}^L, a_{2\beta j}^L, a_{3\beta j}^L, a_{4\beta j}^L; h_{\beta j}^L\right), \left(a_{1\beta j}^U, a_{2\beta j}^U, a_{3\beta j}^U, a_{4\beta j}^U; h_{\beta j}^U\right)\right] \end{gathered} \tag{26}$$

$$P_l = (\ldots, A_\rho, \ldots, A_\beta \ldots) \text{ for } l = 1, 2, \ldots, m! \tag{27}$$

Finally, the comprehensive concordance/discordance index is calculated in the last step. In this situation, weights are considered according to the IT2 fuzzy numbers. Equation (28) gives information about this process.

$$I^l = \sum_{A_\rho, A_\beta \in A} \sum_{j=1}^{n} I_j^l\left(A_\rho, A_\beta\right).W_j = \sum_{A_\rho, A_\beta \in A} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(d\left(A_{\rho j}, \tilde{0}_1\right) - d\left(A_{\beta j}, \tilde{0}_1\right)\right).W_j \tag{28}$$

AN APPLICATION ON EUROPEAN RETAIL BANKING SECTOR

In the analysis process, it is aimed to identify which negative conditions have a more influence on customer satisfaction. For this purpose, five different criteria are defined that shows customer expectations. Promotion (C1) refers to the first criterion that means bonuses given by the banks to the customers. This situation can attract the attention of bank customers (Mohammad et al., 2016). In addition, Security (C2) identifies whether information technology systems of the banks are secured. Because customers put their money to the banks, they prefer to be free from any fraud (Wu et al., 2017).

Moreover, Reliability (C3) gives information about if the customers trust these banks. In other words, customers do not work with the banks which fulfill their promises (Al-Tamimi et al., 2016). Furthermore, Certainty (C4) states the accuracy of the information explained by the banks. It means that customers should not have any doubts about the operations of the banks (Schoenmaker, 2017). Finally, functionality (C5) of the banks are also taken into the consideration. In this circumstance, timing and ease of use play a key role on the eyes of the customers (Peters and Panayi, 2016).

On the other side, three different alternatives are also identified which give information about the customer dissatisfaction. First of all, higher transaction cost (A1) can have a negative influence on the customer satisfaction because customers do not prefer to work with these banks in case of paying too much for their operations (O'Brien et al., 2014). Moreover, service delay (A2) leads to decrease in the motivation of the customers (An et al., 2015). In addition to these factors, communication problem (A3) can cause customer dissatisfaction (Torabi and El-Den, 2017). Within this framework, three experts of banking industry are employed as decision makers in this process.

Weighting the Criteria with IT2 FDEMATEL

IT2 FDEMATEL analysis, the criteria are evaluated by using linguistic terms. This matrix is demonstrated on Table 1.

After that, initial direct relation matrix for the criteria is obtained and given on Table 2.

In the next process, this matrix is normalized, and the new matrix is explained on Table 3.

Moreover, total relation matrix is demonstrated on Table 4.

In Table 4, the rows of the vector are represented by $\tilde{D}_i$. Additionally, the columns of this vector are shown as $\tilde{R}$. The relative importance of the criteria is identified by considering the sum of these rows and columns $\left(\tilde{D}_i + \tilde{R}_i\right)$. With the help of this aspect, the weights can be calculated. The results are presented on Table 5.

Ranking the Alternatives with IT2 FQUALIFLEX

In the second stage of the analysis process, the alternatives are ranked. Additionally, in this process, evaluation technic of Kano model is taken into the consideration. The details of this evaluation approach are explained in Table 6.

Additionally, Kano model-based evaluation results of the alternatives are given on Table 7.

Five criteria related to the customer expectations are stated on the left side of Table 9. On the other hand, three alternatives are taken place on the right part of this table. In addition to them, three decision makers' evaluations are also included in Table 7. These evaluations mainly try to find the answers of the following questions.

- How much are you willing to endure the problem (transaction cost, service delay, communication)?
- Furthermore, while enduring these problems, what is your expectation level for the criterion stated on the left (promotion, security, reliability, certainty, functionality)?

Table 1. Linguistic evaluations of relation matrix for the criteria of customer expectations

	C1			C2			C3			C4			C5		
	E1	E2	E3	E1	E2	E3	E1	E2	E3	E1	E2	E3	E1	E2	E3
Promotion (C1)	-	-	-	H	H	VH	M	M	MH	MH	M	M	M	M	ML
Security (C2)	ML	M	MH	-	-	-	M	MH	MH	MH	M	M	ML	M	ML
Reliability (C3)	H	M	MH	MH	M	M	-	-	-	M	H	H	H	VH	H
Certainty (C4)	ML	M	ML	MH	M	M	ML	M	M	-	-	-	M	M	M
Functionality (C5)	ML	ML	M	ML	M	M	MH	ML	M	M	M	M	-	-	-

Table 2. Initial direct relation matrix for the criteria

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
C1	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.84,0.87,0.92,0.94;0.80), (0.79,0.85,0.95,0.98;1.00))	((0.49,0.53,0.61,0.64;0.80), (0.41,0.48,0.65,0.72;1.00))	((0.49,0.53,0.61,0.64;0.80), (0.41,0.48,0.65,0.72;1.00))	((0.35,0.39,0.47,0.50;0.80), (0.27,0.35,0.51,0.57;1.00))
C2	((0.43,0.46,0.54,0.57;0.80), (0.36,0.42,0.58,0.64;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.57,0.60,0.68,0.72;0.80), (0.49,0.56,0.73,0.79;1.00))	((0.49,0.53,0.61,0.64;0.80), (0.41,0.48,0.65,0.72;1.00))	((0.29,0.32,0.40,0.43;0.80), (0.22,0.28,0.43,0.50;1.00))
C3	((0.61,0.65,0.73,0.76;0.80), (0.54,0.61,0.77,0.83;1.00))	((0.49,0.53,0.61,0.64;0.80), (0.41,0.48,0.65,0.72;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.66,0.69,0.77,0.79;0.80), (0.59,0.66,0.81,0.86;1.00))	((0.84,0.87,0.92,0.94;0.80), (0.79,0.85,0.95,0.98;1.00))
C4	((0.29,0.32,0.40,0.43;0.80), (0.22,0.28,0.43,0.50;1.00))	((0.49,0.53,0.61,0.64;0.80), (0.41,0.48,0.65,0.72;1.00))	((0.35,0.39,0.47,0.50;0.80), (0.27,0.35,0.51,0.57;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.40,0.45,0.54,0.57;0.80), (0.32,0.41,0.58,0.65;1.00))
C5	((0.29,0.32,0.40,0.43;0.80), (0.22,0.28,0.43,0.50;1.00))	((0.35,0.39,0.47,0.50;0.80), (0.27,0.35,0.51,0.57;1.00))	((0.43,0.46,0.54,0.57;0.80), (0.36,0.42,0.58,0.64;1.00))	((0.40,0.45,0.54,0.57;0.80), (0.32,0.41,0.58,0.65;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))

Table 3. Normalized direct relation matrix

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
C1	((0,0,0,0;1), (0,0,0,0;1))	((.27,.28,.29,.30;.80), (.25,.27,.30,.31;1.00))	((.16,.17,.20,.21;.80), (.13,.15,.21,.23;1.00))	((0.16,0.17,0.20,0.21;0.80), (0.13,0.15,0.21,0.23;1.00))	((0.11,0.12,0.15,0.16;0.80), (0.09,0.11,0.16,0.18;1.00))
C2	((0.14,0.15,0.17,0.18;0.80), (0.11,0.13,0.19,0.21;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.18,0.19,0.22,0.23;0.80), (0.16,0.18,0.23,0.25;1.00))	((0.16,0.17,0.20,0.21;0.80), (0.13,0.15,0.21,0.23;1.00))	((0.09,0.10,0.13,0.14;0.80), (0.07,0.09,0.14,0.16;1.00))
C3	((0.20,0.21,0.23,0.24;0.80), (0.17,0.19,0.25,0.26;1.00))	((0.16,0.17,0.20,0.21;0.80), (0.13,0.15,0.21,0.23;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.21,0.22,0.25,0.25;0.80), (0.19,0.21,0.26,0.28;1.00))	((0.27,0.28,0.29,0.30;0.80), (0.25,0.27,0.30,0.31;1.00))
C4	((0.09,0.10,0.13,0.14;0.80), (0.07,0.09,0.14,0.16;1.00))	((0.16,0.17,0.20,0.21;0.80), (0.13,0.15,0.21,0.23;1.00))	((0.11,0.12,0.15,0.16;0.80), (0.09,0.11,0.16,0.18;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))	((0.13,0.14,0.17,0.18;0.80), (0.10,0.13,0.19,0.21;1.00))
C5	((0.09,0.10,0.13,0.14;0.80), (0.07,0.09,0.14,0.16;1.00))	((0.11,0.12,0.15,0.16;0.80), (0.09,0.11,0.16,0.18;1.00))	((0.14,0.15,0.17,0.18;0.80), (0.11,0.13,0.19,0.21;1.00))	((0.13,0.14,0.17,0.18;0.80), (0.10,0.13,0.19,0.21;1.00))	((0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0), (0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0;1.0))

Table 4. Total relation matrix

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
C1	((0.20,0.26,0.47,0.61;0.80), (0.12,0.19,0.67,1.31;1.00))	((0.47,0.55,0.81,0.96;0.80), (0.37,0.47,1.03,1.79;1.00))	((0.36,0.43,0.68,0.84;0.80), (0.25,0.35,0.90,1.63;1.00))	((0.37,0.46,0.72,0.88;0.80), (0.26,0.37,0.96,1.73;1.00))	((0.32,0.40,0.65,0.80;0.80), (0.21,0.32,0.86,1.58;1.00))
C2	((0.29,0.35,0.57,0.70;0.80), (0.20,0.28,0.75,1.38;1.00))	((0.21,0.28,0.51,0.65;0.80), (0.13,0.21,0.71,1.41;1.00))	((0.34,0.41,0.64,0.78;0.80), (0.25,0.33,0.84,1.51;1.00))	((0.34,0.41,0.66,0.81;0.80), (0.24,0.34,0.88,1.59;1.00))	((0.28,0.35,0.58,0.72;0.80), (0.18,0.28,0.78,1.44;1.00))
C3	((0.39,0.46,0.71,0.87;0.80), (0.28,0.38,0.93,1.66;1.00))	((0.42,0.51,0.80,0.97;0.80), (0.30,0.42,1.05,1.88;1.00))	((0.25,0.32,0.58,0.74;0.80), (0.15,0.25,0.81,1.58;1.00))	((0.45,0.54,0.82,1.00;0.80), (0.33,0.45,1.07,1.90;1.00))	((0.47,0.56,0.81,0.97;0.80), (0.37,0.48,1.04,1.81;1.00))
C4	((0.23,0.29,0.48,0.61;0.80), (0.14,0.22,0.66,1.24;1.00))	((0.31,0.38,0.61,0.75;0.80), (0.22,0.31,0.81,1.48;1.00))	((0.26,0.33,0.54,0.67;0.80), (0.17,0.26,0.73,1.36;1.00))	((0.17,0.23,0.44,0.58;0.80), (0.10,0.17,0.63,1.29;1.00))	((0.27,0.34,0.56,0.69;0.80), (0.18,0.28,0.74,1.37;1.00))
C5	((0.23,0.28,0.48,0.60;0.80), (0.14,0.22,0.65,1.22;1.00))	((0.28,0.35,0.57,0.71;0.80), (0.18,0.27,0.77,1.42;1.00))	((0.28,0.34,0.55,0.68;0.80), (0.19,0.27,0.73,1.35;1.00))	((0.28,0.36,0.58,0.72;0.80), (0.19,0.29,0.78,1.43;1.00))	((0.16,0.22,0.40,0.53;0.80), (0.09,0.16,0.58,1.17;1.00))

Table 5. Impact degrees of the customer expectations

Criteria	$\left(\tilde{D}_i + \tilde{R}_i\right)$
C1	((3.05,3.73,6.04,7.48;0.80), (2.10,3.02,8.08,14.88;1.00))
C2	((3.16,3.87,6.24,7.71;0.80), (2.19,3.13,8.34,15.33;1.00))
C3	((3.47,4.21,6.72,8.26;0.80), (2.44,3.43,8.93,16.27;1.00))
C4	((2.87,3.58,5.87,7.29;0.80), (1.16,1.74,4.15,6.68;1.00))
C5	((2.73,3.40,5.58,6.94;0.80), (1.83,2.72,7.51,13.97;1.00))

Table 6. Evaluation Details of Kano Model

		Dysfunctional absence				
		Like (L)	**Must-be (M)**	**Neutral (N)**	**Live-with (W)**	**Dislike (D)**
Functional presence	**Like (L)**	questionable	Attractive	attractive	attractive	one-dimensional
	Must-be (M)	reverse	Indifferent	indifferent	indifferent	must-be
	Neutral (N)	reverse	Indifferent	indifferent	indifferent	must-be
	Live-with (W)	reverse	indifferent	indifferent	indifferent	must-be
	Dislike (D)	reverse	reverse	reverse	reverse	questionable

Source: Wang and Fong (2016)

Table 7. Kano-based evaluations of the alternatives

Criteria/Alternatives		Customer Dissatisfaction								
		Transaction Cost (A1)			**Service Delay (A2)**			**Communication Problem (A3)**		
		DM1	**DM2**	**DM3**	**DM1**	**DM2**	**DM3**	**DM1**	**DM2**	**DM3**
Customer Expectations	**Promotion (C1)**	O	A	M	I	O	M	A	I	I
	Security (C2)	M	A	I	M	M	A	I	I	M
	Reliability (C3)	M	M	I	I	I	M	M	M	I
	Certainty (C4)	M	I	I	I	M	M	M	I	I
	Functionality (C5)	M	I	A	I	I	M	A	O	I

Table 8. **Signed distance** $d\left(A_{ij}, \tilde{0}_1\right)$

	A1	A2	A3
C1	1.710	1.698	1.976
C2	1.887	1.798	1.875
C3	1.786	1.875	1.786
C4	1.875	1.786	1.875
C5	1.887	1.875	1.799

The calculation results are given on Table 8.

All six combinations for three alternatives are obtained. In addition to this condition, the index results for these combinations are identified. This situation is demonstrated on Table 9.

After that, there is the multiplication of criteria weights and these index results. The weighted index results are given on Table 10.

With the help of equation (28), weighted index scores are summed, so the comprehensive concordance/discordance index results can be calculated. Table 11 explains the details of this process.

As a result of the analysis stated in Table 11, it is defined that P5 is the best ranking order with the highest value of $d\left(I^4,\tilde{0}_1\right)$. It means that the ranking order is identified as A3 (Communication Problems), A1 (Transaction Cost) and A2 (Service Delay) ($A_3>A_1>A_2$). This result explains that the most important

Table 9. Concordance/discordance index $I_j^l\left(A_\rho,A_\beta\right)$

P_1	$I_j^1\left(A_1,A_2\right)$	$I_j^1\left(A_1,A_3\right)$	$I_j^1\left(A_2,A_3\right)$	P_2	$I_j^2\left(A_1,A_3\right)$	$I_j^2\left(A_1,A_2\right)$	$I_j^2\left(A_3,A_2\right)$	P_3	$I_j^3\left(A_2,A_1\right)$	$I_j^3\left(A_2,A_3\right)$	$I_j^3\left(A_1,A_3\right)$
C1	0.012	-0.266	-0.278	C1	-0.266	0.012	0.278	**C1**	-0.012	-0.278	-0.266
C2	0.089	0.012	-0.078	C2	0.012	0.089	0.078	**C2**	-0.089	-0.078	0.012
C3	-0.089	0.000	0.089	C3	0.000	-0.089	-0.089	**C3**	0.089	0.089	0.000
C4	0.089	0.000	-0.089	C4	0.000	0.089	0.089	**C4**	-0.089	-0.089	0.000
C5	0.012	0.088	0.076	C5	0.088	0.012	-0.076	**C5**	-0.012	0.076	0.088
P_4	$I_j^4\left(A_2,A_3\right)$	$I_j^4\left(A_2,A_1\right)$	$I_j^4\left(A_3,A_1\right)$	P_5	$I_j^5\left(A_3,A_1\right)$	$I_j^5\left(A_3,A_2\right)$	$I_j^5\left(A_1,A_2\right)$	P_6	$I_j^6\left(A_3,A_2\right)$	$I_j^6\left(A_3,A_1\right)$	$I_j^6\left(A_2,A_1\right)$
C1	-0.278	-0.012	0.266	C1	0.266	0.278	0.012	**C1**	0.278	0.266	-0.012
C2	-0.078	-0.089	-0.012	C2	-0.012	0.078	0.089	**C2**	0.078	-0.012	-0.089
C3	0.089	0.089	0.000	C3	0.000	-0.089	-0.089	**C3**	-0.089	0.000	0.089
C4	-0.089	-0.089	0.000	C4	0.000	0.089	0.089	**C4**	0.089	0.000	-0.089
C5	0.076	-0.012	-0.088	C5	-0.088	-0.076	0.012	**C5**	-0.076	-0.088	-0.012

Table 10. Weighted index

P_1	$I_j^1\left(A_1,A_2\right).W_j$	$I_j^1\left(A_1,A_3\right).W_j$	$I_j^1\left(A_2,A_3\right).W_j$
C1	((0.04,0.04,0.07,0.09;0.80), (0.02,0.04,0.10,0,18;1.00))	((-1.99,-1.61,-0.99,-0.81;0.80), (-3.97,-2.15,-0.80,-0.56;1.00))	((-2.08,-1.68,-1.04,-0.85;0.80), (-4.14,-2.25,-0.84,-0.58;1.00))
C2	((0.28,0.35,0.56,0.69;0.80), (0.20,0.28,0.75,1.37;1.00))	(0.04,0.05,0.07,0.09;0.80), (0.03,0.04,0.10,0.18;1.00))	((-0.60,-0.48,-0.30,-0.25;0.80), (-1.19,-0.65,-0.24,-0.17;1.00))
C3	((-0.74,-0.60,-0.38,-0.31;0.80), (-1.45,-0.80,-0.31,-0.22;1.00))	((0,0,0,0;0.80), ((0,0,0,0;1.00))	((0.31,0.38,0.60,0.74;0.80),(0.22,0.31,0.80,1.45;1.00))
C4	((0.26,0.32,0.52,0.65;0.80), (0.17,0.26,0.71,1.31;1.00))	((0,0,0,0;0.80), ((0,0,0,0;1.00))	((-0.65,-0.52,-0.32,-0.26;0.80), (-1.31,-0.71,-0.26, -0.17;1.00))
C5	((0.03,0.04,0.07,0.08;0.80), (0.02,0.03,0.09,0.16;1.00)	((0.24,0.30,0.49,0.61;0.80), (0.16,0.24,0.66,1.23;1.00))	((0.21,0.26,0.42,0.53;0.80), (0.14,0.21,0.57,1.06;1.00))

Table 11. Comprehensive concordance/discordance index

P_1	$I_j^1(A_1, A_2)$	$I_j^1(A_1, A_3)$	$I_j^1(A_2, A_3)$	I^1	$d(I^1, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((-0.13,0.15,0.84,1.20; 0.80), (-1.04,-0.20,1.33,2.80;1.00))	((-1.71,-1.27,-0.43,-0.11;0.80), (-3.78,-1.88,-0.05,0.85;1.00))	((-2.81,-2.06,-0.63,-0.09;0.80), (-6.28,-3.09,0.03,1.59;1.00))	((-4.66,-3.17,-0.22,1.00;0.80), (-11.10,-5.16,1.31;5.24;1.00))	-4.17
P_2	$I_j^2(A_1, A_3)$	$I_j^2(A_1, A_2)$	$I_j^2(A_3, A_2)$	I^2	$d(I^2, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((-1.72,-1.27,-0.43,-0.11;0.80), (-3.78,-1.88,-0.05,0.85;1.00))	((-0.13,0.15,0.84,1.20; 0.80), (-1.04,-0.20,1.33,2.80;1.00))	((0.09,0.63,2.06,2.81;0.80), (-1.59,-0.03,3.09,6.29;1.00))	((-1.76,-0.48,2.47,3.90;0.80), (-6.41,-2.11,4.38,9.93;1.00))	-2.47
P_3	$I_j^3(A_2, A_1)$	$I_j^3(A_2, A_3)$	$I_j^3(A_1, A_3)$	I^3	$d(I^3, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((-1.20,-0.84,-0.15,0.13;0.80), (-2.80,-1.33,0.20,1.04;1.00))	((-2.81,-2.06,-0.63,-0.09;0.80), (-6.28,-3.09,0.03,1.59;1.00))	((-1.71,-1.27,-0.43,-0.11;0.80), (-3.78,-1.88,-0.05,0.85;1.00))	((-5.73,-4.16,-1.21,-0.07;0.80), (-12.86,-6.29,0.18,3.48;1.00))	-6.64
P_4	$I_j^4(A_2, A_3)$	$I_j^4(A_2, A_1)$	$I_j^4(A_3, A_1)$	I^4	$d(I^4, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((-2.81,-2.06,-0.63,-0.09;0.80), (-6.28,-3.09,0.03,1.59;1.00))	((-1.20,-0.84,-0.15,0.13;0.80), (-2.80,-1.33,0.20,1.04; 1.00))	((0.11,0.43,1.27,1.71;0.80), (-0.85,0.05,1.88,3.78;1.00))	((-3.90,-2.47, 0.48,1.76;0.80), (-9.93,-4.37,2.11,6.41;1.00))	-2.47
P_5	$I_j^5(A_3, A_1)$	$I_j^5(A_3, A_2)$	$I_j^5(A_1, A_2)$	I^5	$d(I^5, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((0.11,0.43,1.27,1.71;0.80), (-0.85,0.05,1.88,3.78;1.00))	((0.09,0.63,2.06,2.81;0.80), (-1.59,-0.03,3.09,6.28;1.00))	((-0.13,0.15,0.84,1.20;0.80), (-1.04,-0.20,1.33,2.80;1.00))	((0.07,1.21,4.17,5.73;0.80), (-3.48,-0.18,6.29,12.86;1.00))	6.64
P_6	$I_j^6(A_3, A_2)$	$I_j^6(A_3, A_1)$	$I_j^6(A_2, A_1)$	I^6	$d(I^6, \tilde{0}_1)$
	((0.09,0.63,2.06,2.81;0.80), (-1.59,-0.03,3.09,6.28;1.00))	((0.11,0.43,1.27,1.71;0.80), (-0.84,0.05,1.88,3.78;1.00))	((-1.20,-0.84,-0.15,0.13;0.80), (-2.80,-1.33,0.20,1.04;1.00))	((-1.00,0.22,3.17,4.66;0.80), (-5.24,-1.31,5.16,11.10;1.00))	4.17

problem to be solved to ensure customer expectations and satisfaction is the communication problems. In addition, transaction cost problem has the second highest significance. On the other side, the problems related to the service delay are on the last rank.

While considering these results, it can be said that European retail banks should firstly focus on solving the communication problems. Within this context, these banks should firstly train their employees to provide effective communication with their customers. In addition to this strategy, banks should also take action to communicate with their customers in many different channels. For example, it should be possible for the customers to reach these banks immediately by using social media, mobile banking, telebanking channels. For this purpose, banks should employ necessary number of qualified people to provide these services in an effective manner.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results indicate that the communication problems should be mainly focused on by European retail banks. For this purpose, employees of these banks should be trained effectively to increase communication quality. Furthermore, necessary number of qualified people should be employed for the customers to reach the banks by using different channels, such as social media, mobile banking, telebanking.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study aims to examine an important topic for the European banking sector. Nonetheless, in the future studies, emerging economies can be evaluated. Therefore, necessary recommendations can be presented for these countries to improve their banking systems. On the other side, another methodology can also be taken into the consideration in the new studies, such as interval type-2 hesitant fuzzy VIKOR and TOPSIS. Hence, the originality of the study can be higher.

CONCLUSION

Customer satisfaction is a crucial topic for service companies in order to have sustainable development. Owing to this condition, most of these companies make detailed analysis to understand the expectations of their customers. In this circumstance, the factors that affect customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction should be identified accurately. In the literature, Kano model was generated to determine the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer expectations. This model mainly aims to categorize customer needs and expectations to understand which conditions should be mainly considered.

In this study, it is aimed to make analysis regarding customer satisfaction in European retail banking sector. In this context, five different criteria are defined with respect to the customer expectations. In addition to them, as for the customer satisfaction, three different factors are also determined. In the analysis process, firstly, IT2 FDEMATEL method is used to weight the criteria. Moreover, so as to rank the alternatives, IT2 FQUALIFLEX approach is considered. In this process, Kano model-based evaluation factors are converted into the fuzzy numbers. It is concluded that A3 (Communication Problems) is the most important problem which should be solved to provide customer satisfaction. On the other side, transaction cost problem is on the second rank. Additionally, the problems related to the service delay have the lowest significance.

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Index

A

B

C

D

E

F

G

H

I

J

L

M

O

P

Q

R

S

T

U

W