CHAPTER I
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Quality has been the goal of an eternal quest through the corridors of human history. It has been the driving force for all human endeavors. Quality is the inspiration for transcendence from the mundane to the higher realms of life. It is the source of craving behind the unfolding human civilization through ages immemorial. Quality stares at you. You recognize it. But you cannot define it. Any length of description of the anatomical details of a fragrant and beautiful flower- its petals, color, shape, size, fragrance, softness, all put together- falls short of conveying its beauty fully. For quality lies in the perception of the consumer, what is “great” for one may not be good enough for another.

Defining quality in education is a massive challenge since it deals with the most sensitive creation on earth –the human beings. Industrial products are finished goods- take them or leave them. Nothing can be done once they are finished. Service is here and now. You can look for better quality only next time. Education has no such finished product, nor even the graduates. They are on the way “to be”. Education only changes the human propensities to evolve and unfold it till the last breath, a process that covers the human journey from ‘womb to tomb’. Human beings continue to learn, and evolve, ‘to be’ (Mukhopadhyay, 2006).

The concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) has been developed as the result of intense global competition. Companies with international trade and
global competition have paid considerable attention to TQM philosophies, procedures, tools, and techniques. According to Juran, international competition requires higher levels of quality by organizations (Blackiston, 1996). However, the implementation of quality management has not occurred at the same pace in different regions of the world. While early implementation started in Japan, the US, and Europe, followed by the South East Asian countries, countries in the Middle East have been behind in the quality journey (Al-Khalifa and Aspinwall, 2000).

Traditionally, higher education has tended to rely on inputs and other proxy measures of educational quality without systematically assessing the “value-added” by the educational process. Before 1950s, only the brightest students used to go for higher education. The higher education institutions perceived that they had assured academic quality by accepting only the best applicants. Today, with nearly 50% of high school graduates participating in some form of postsecondary education, the strategy of ensuring quality by the controlling inputs is no longer acceptable. Inputs are important but they do not define quality (Chaffee & Sherr, 1992). According to Fife “Greater attention now needs to be given to the quality of process, design, and output if higher education is to meet the expectations and needs of those who support it” (1992).

Initially, Total Quality Management was thought to be applicable to a variety of aspects of higher education - in the classroom and the laboratory; teaching, research, and curriculum development (Bass, Dellana, & Herbert, 1996). Colleges and universities implementing new technology to deliver courses, such
as distance learning, would also benefit from principles of TQM (Glatthorn, 1994). TQM was considered to be a useful means through which higher education could connect to industry by assisting businesses in their own implementation of Total Quality Management program (Barrier, 1993).

During the last 10 years, Total Quality Management (TQM) has claimed the attention of scholars and practitioners as a paradigm worth examining for managing higher education. For some, it is the "strategy of choice" and the "best hope" for reforming higher education "from the inside" (Campbell, 1994, p.6: Hubbard, 1993).

The implementation of TQM in higher education will require a major transformation in values, norms, processes, and structures. With TQM, the culture of campus would shift its focus increasingly towards the needs of students, employers, parents, and other beneficiaries. It also requires "breaking down barriers" between departments to permit greater collaboration (Chaffee & Seymour 1991).

1.2. QUALITY IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The study of quality in educational organization is a broad field, encompassing many different aspects, such as attitudes, management, communication, motivation, commitment, performance, etc. Educational organization borrows many concepts and methods from the behavioral and social sciences such as psychology and sociology, because they are all relevant in helping one to understand people’s behavior in organizational settings.
Quality of education is a pivotal discussion issue in today’s educational system. The educational curricula and programs that have been implemented to improve the quality of education in the past have shown limited improvement in academic performance in schools, and the quality of education remains questionable.

As we move from the issue of quality of industrial product to quality of education through other service industries, defining quality enters greater zones of difficulty. Education only changes the human propensities to evolve and unfold till the last breath. Human beings continue to learn, and continue to ‘be’ produced. Hence, how far the concept of quality derived from industrial sector will be relevant to education needs to be carefully examined.

Education is goal-oriented. One possible reference point for looking at quality in education can be the goals. There are individual goals and social goals. The individual goals and social goals may have zones of overlaps. Depending upon the goals, the term quality in education has been variously defined as:

- Excellence in education (Peters and Waterman, 1982).
- Value addition in education (Feigenbaum, 1951).
- Fitness of educational outcome and experience for use (Juran and Gryna 1988).
- Conformance of education output to planned goals, specifications and requirements (Crosby 1979).
- Defect avoidance in education process (Crosby 1979).
- Meeting or exceeding customers’ expectations of education
(Parasuraman et al., 1985).

Seymour (1992) provided the following outline while enumerating the quality principals in higher education: quality is; meeting or exceeding customer needs, continuous improvement, leadership, everyone’s job, human resource development in the system, fear reduction, recognition and reward, team work, measurement, systematic problem solving.

Seymour looked at the issue more holistically with greater emphasis on the processes rather than the products. International Commission on Education in the 21st century called for holistic development for the individual mental, intellectual and spiritual potentialities. Human learning has as much to do with learning to ‘know’ and ‘do’ as much to learning to ‘be’ and ‘live together’ (UNESCO, 1998).

How are these benefits to be construed? Is our aim to be in the pursuit of happiness? The creation of wealth through capitalism? Our concept of quality is dependent upon what we choose”?

Just as there are wide variations in the individual goals of education, there are wide variations in social goals too. American priority on human rights and personal freedom in 1960s has changed to success in global economy in the 1990s; Britain’s current emphasis is on what the students ‘know and can do’ rather than on numinous goals (Holt, 2000). Japanese white paper on education in the 1980s changed the focus to invention rather than on adaption of technology. Emphasis is shifting from the previous value-neutral to value-oriented education.
Empirical research in education raises a few major issues vis-a-vis quality in education. Most prominent among them is the concept of school effectiveness as an objective referenced mechanism of school assessment. It, more or less, surfaced with the landmark work of Coleman and others, in 1966, in the USA. Subsequently, it spread all over the world. The International Handbook by Teddie and Reynolds (2000) provides a comprehensive critical document on the subject. The school effectiveness centers on measurable criteria whereas there are several intangible elements in quality in education. For example, the Gallup poll of the public’s attitudes towards the public schools indicates that percentage of students who graduate from high school is the most popular indicator of school effectiveness. This offers a limited opportunity to use school, effectiveness as a comprehensive indicator of quality. Certain authors have also indicated their reservation that school effectiveness fails to accommodate the moral component of education (Hitt, 1998).

The second major debate has been around the concept of accountability. The schools that impose and fulfill the benchmarks, relentlessly work towards the achievement of targets and results are accountable, hence quality. There is often a risk in benchmark based concept of quality. Even if the curriculum and instructional processes are weak and conventional, a school may achieve targets since they tune to school tests and public examination. Hence, despite accountability, school may not offer, quality in education (Hitt, 1998).
1.3. QUALITY PERSPECTIVE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Today colleges and universities are not only subject to the accountability pressures resulting from sustained dependency on public funding and affiliations with professional agencies but also find themselves in a market-driven social and economic environment (Mergan, et al., 2000; Sims & Sims, 1995). Most institutions today are challenged to seek new students aggressively, while these same students have a greater selection of universities and colleges to choose from, than ever before in history (Bonvillian & Dennis, 1995; Hitt, 1998; Mergan et al., 2000; Sims & Sims, 1995).

This new competitive marketplace in higher education has promoted an increasing interest in the issue of quality in education. Before 1995’s higher education achieved a significant level of quality and acceptability through a mutual process of self-selection. Only the brightest students applied to college; institutions accepted only the best applicants. Moreover, by grading on the curve, close to two-thirds of the students flunked out before graduation. However, the old practice of controlling quality through selection of elite students is no longer acceptable in our global economy. Today higher education can no longer be seen as a privilege, but as an economic necessity for many individuals (Chaffe & Sherr, 1992).

Magud (1999) suggests that quality definitions share three common elements, including (a) Quality involves meeting or exceeding customer expectations; (b) Quality applies to products, services, people, processes, and environments; and (c) Quality is an ever-changing state – what is considered
quality today may not be good enough to be considered as quality tomorrow. Many approaches are used in defining quality in education as there are in defining the quality of a manufactured product or delivered service (Rinehart, 1993). Green (1994) asserts that it is not possible to have "a single substantive definition of quality" (p. 12).

A quality product or service is one that conforms to a specification or standards. Maguad (1999) stated, “The "standard" in quality represents the “yard stick” for measuring a required characteristic of a product or service (p. 13). In higher education, this definition provides all institutions an opportunity to strive for quality as different standards can be set for different types of institutions. Maguad (1999) noted, “In the real world, as society changes, specifications or standards are revised to adapt to new circumstances” (p. 13).

Maguad (1999) points out that teams and teamwork are extremely important in producing a quality service or product. Effective teams generate positive energy and produce an output; with proper leadership, people will be willing to participate in meaningful activities that will help to transform their organization to one of high quality.

1.4. TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Total Quality Management (TQM) is an enhancement to the traditional way of doing business. It is a proven technique to guarantee survival in global competition. Only by changing the actions of management will the culture action of entire organization be transformed. TQM is in harmony with common sense. TQM stands for:
Total ___ made up of the whole.

Quality___ Degree of excellence a product or service provides.

Management___ Act, art, or manner of handling, controlling, directing, etc.

Therefore, TQM is the art of managing the whole to achieve excellence. The golden rule is a simple but effective way to explain it: Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.

Total Quality management (TQM) is a comprehensive philosophy of living and working in organization emphasizing the concept of continuous improvement. It is a singular management methodology based on leadership (Hartzel, 1992). It requires a continuous commitment to improve and reconstruct (Melwin, 1991). The essence of TQM can be simplified to three fundamental ideas; (a) Defining quality in terms of need of the people and groups that the organization serves, (b) Improving an organization’s operational performance and bureaucracy, (c) Improving the administrative system (Sheer, 1993).

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a formalized construction of quality that provides both a philosophy and tool in order to improve products, services, and processes in organization.

'TQM is an integrated management philosophy and set of practices which emphasize, among other things, such as continuous improvement, meeting customers' requirement, reducing rework, long-range thinking, increased employee involvement and teamwork, process redesign, competitive benchmarking, team-based problem-solving, constant measurement of results, and closer relationships with suppliers (Ross, 1993, & Poweel, 1995).
According to Barkley and Saylor (1994), as many definitions of TQM are as are organizations using it. It also seems that as many definitions exist as there are publications on TQM. However, taken from the words Total Quality Management, they define 'total' as "the involvement of everyone and everything in the organization in a continuous improvement effort". The Total Quality Management is, however, more than the sum of the definitions of terms total, quality and management. It is a style of leadership that creates an organizational culture that helps the achievement of the goal of creating the highest possible quality product and service (Williams, 1994). It is "a continuous, cross-functional, interdisciplinary and horizontally integrated approach that is applicable to all types of organizations" (Milakovich, 1995).

Although various authors differ in their definition of TQM, befitting to define as a structured process that enables an organization to assess its products and services to eliminate waste, increase efficiency, improve productivity, and enhance customer satisfaction. It is based on the proposition that a variance of performance in a system can be measured, studied and reduced. Deming taught the total quality movement is a management philosophy.

Total Quality Management programs have a variety of means. For example, like many academic institutions, many health care providers refer to their TQM programs as "CQI" or "Continuous Quality Improvement" (Seymour, 1993). Eastman Chemical Company referred to its quality initiatives as "QMP," or "Quality Management Program" (Nabours, 1994) TQM has also been called
“Quality Education Development” by some higher education institutions (Demichiell & Ryba, 1997).

The phrase used to denote Total Quality Management has been called by a variety of different phrases. In 1957, Armand V. Feignbaum first used the phrase, the phrase, “Total Quality Control,” when he stated, in a Harvard Business Review article, “the way out of the dilemma imposed on businessmen by increasingly demanding customers and by ever spiraling costs of quality ….was a new kind of quality control which might be called Total Quality Control” (Huggins, 1998, p.60). Due to this reference, Feigenbaum, who was once the corporate manager of Quality Control Systems at General Electric, was credited with naming the phrase, “Total Quality Management” (Huggins, p.61). For the purposes of this study, TQM is defined using Dr. Deming’s fourteen points because they are encompassing almost all the aspects of Total Quality Management. These fourteen points are:

1. Establish constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service.
2. Adopt a new philosophy that is not tolerant of poor service or products.
3. End the practice of awarding business on price tag alone.
4. Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service.
5. Recognize that quality does not come from inspection but from improvement of the process.
6. Institute training for the employees so they know how to do their jobs.
7. Develop leadership whose focus is on helping people to do a better job.
8. Eliminate fear and encourage communication between employees and management.

9. Break down barriers between units or departments so they can work as a team to solve problems.

10. Eliminate slogans, numerical goals, and targets for the employees.

11. Eliminate quotas.

12. Remove barriers to pride of workmanship. This means that employees should have the equipment and materials they need to do a good job.

13. Institute an education program to keep employees abreast of new developments in methods and technologies.


Dr. Deming’s fourteen points basically fall into three categories: The first category deals with mission and philosophy and includes those principles concerned with targeting the needs of customers in a continuous search for quality; the second category deals with the organizational environment in which the values of the organization are described regarding each employee; and the third category is concerned with preventing problems during the process rather than inspecting problems at the end of the process (Kwan, 1996).

Dr. Deming used a holistic approach to quality management. He believed his work dealt with the transformation of management and the knowledge needed for that transformation. Dr. Deming also believed that only systems, not quality in
general, can be managed (Blankstein, 1996). Thus, Deming believed that quality is the end result of the transformation process. The total quality transformation begins with management. If management is not competent to carry out the required duties of TQM, then total quality will not be achieved. Deming defined management’s role as the following, “the people work in a system. The job of the manager is to work on the system, to improve it continuously with their help” (Lewis & Smith, 1994, p. 32).

When asked about Total Quality Management, most educators link TQM to Dr. Edwards Deming’s work after World War II in restructuring business and industry (Blankstein, 1996). In this sense, educators are very similar to the general public in their understanding of the Total Quality Management movement. Along with Dr. Deming, the major contributors of TQM are recognized as Joseph M. Juran, Philip Crosby, Armand V. Feigenbaum, Genichi Taguchi, and Kaoru Ishikawa (Kwan, 1996), of the TQM contributors, Dr. Deming is clearly the most recognizable. Deming has been called, “the father of TQM” and is cited more often than any of the other TQM contributors (Kwan, p.26). Deming was awarded the Shewhart Medal in 1955, Japan’s Second Order Medal of the sacred Treasurer in 1960, and the National Medal of Technology in 1987 (Peterson, 1997).

1.4.1. Total Quality Management in Education

TQM in education surfaced in 1988 at Mt. Edgecombe High school in Sitka, Alaska, when David Langford, the school’s technology teacher/coordinator, applied Total Quality concepts in his classes (Tribus, 1991). Since then, TQM has become increasingly popular in education, as evidenced by the plethora of books
and journal articles since 1990 (Tucker, et al., 1992). TQM has also spread into mainstream of educational organizations. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, for example, devoted its entire November, 1992 publication; Educational Leadership; to the quality movement in education.

In support of the TQM initiatives in education, Crawford and Shutler (1999) applied the Crosby (1984) model to suggest a practical strategy for using TQM principles in education. Their strategy focused on the quality of the teaching system used rather than on students' examination results. Crawford and Shultler argue that examinations are a diagnostic tool for assuring the quality of the teaching system. To satisfy the educational needs of students, continuous improvement efforts need to be directed to curriculum and delivery services. From such a perspective, various root causes of quality system failure in education have been identified.

The uses and applications of TQM to education are still emerging. Some (Royalty, 1992) are still skeptical of the applicability of TQM as they know it to education. Some are waiting to see here to stay or if it is just another passing fad. Still many other have enthusiastically embraced the use of TQM in education. Gray, Hober, Gabrys, and Zimmerman (1992) offer explanations of how TQM can be applied to educational systems. Using the ten core criteria of the Baldrige National Quality Award as the foundation, they present the material through the work of a fictitious school superintendent to implement TQM. Bonstingl (1992) writes a primer which explains in a straight forward way how to apply TQM in school systems.
Glasser (1992, 1990a, 1990b) argues for the implementation of TQM-type systems in America’s school systems. He merges the philosophy of TQM with his work in control theory to illuminate coercion in schools. Glasser purports that the use of “Quality” in non-coercive environments will contribute to America regaining a competitive edge in the education of the young.

1.4.2. Total Quality Management in Higher Education

The role that quality management plays in higher education has been examined. Since the early 1990s, higher educational institutions have been looking for ways to apply quality management in the activities found on college and university campuses. Many higher educational institutions have attempted to implement quality management practices. A majority of the programs implemented have either provided limited results or have been eliminated (Koch & Fisher 1998, Fisher 1993, and Mangan, 1992). It is argued that many of the failed attempts to implement quality management programs in higher education have been related to the lack of leadership from the top down (Mathews, 1993).

The five conditions are necessary to implement a Total Quality Management program at a higher education institution. These five conditions include: 1- Commitment from the administration, 2- Commitment from faculty and staff, 3- The establishment of pride in one’s work, 4- The establishment of trust, and 5- Institutional cultural change (Cornesky, McCool, Byrnes & Weber, 1992).

The need for real leadership from the top to implement quality management in higher education was stressed in the remarks made by Juran
during the 55th Annual Quality Congress. Juran noted that the neat quality revolution would take place in areas that traditionally ignored quality management, the massive service sector of education. Juran also argued that like the traditional manufacturing sector it will take top leadership to make the quality transformation possible (Mathews, 1993).

A majority of the quality management programs in higher education have been directly focused on non-academic administrative functions. Many of the results reported focus on productivity improvements in copy centers, billing and collections services, and admissions (Koch & Fisher, 1998, Vazzana, Bachman, &Elfrink, 1997, Evans& Lindsay, 1996). These quality improvements are important to the education sector, as resources have been released from these non-academic areas for use in academic departments. The improvements have also increased student satisfaction, a key purpose of quality management (Koch & Fisher, 1998).

Much of the literature on TQM in higher education reports that TQM has been confined to administrative area (Coate, 1990; Seymour, 1991). Chaffee (1990) presents several key ideas for administrators in colleges and universities. Hariss, Hillenmeyer, and foran’s monograph (1999) apply Deming’s points to private independent colleges, with some particular attention paid to organizational information, leadership, and student outcome assessments.

Comesky et al., (1990) applied Deming’s 14 points to higher education. It is a book which discusses each of Deming’s points one by one. Then the authors
present what they believe to be methods by which these points should be applied to colleges and universities.

In organizational development and TQM, it is said that every system is perfectly designed to do what it does. This does not mean that the design is intentional, only that the outcome occurs as a result of the system. If you view the outcome, you will see what the system is designed to do. Therefore, if one wants to change the outcome, one must change the system. Merely exchanging system parts or intervening in the system to “fix” a part of a problem will not change the system. These kinds of actions only modify the system, impact on parts of the systems workings, and may exacerbate the system’s problems and interfere with true intended outcomes (Ackoff, 1972).

Harris stated Total Quality Management can be used effectively in higher education in one of the three ways: serving students utilizing staff training and development, increasing the contributions of all staff to make the school more effective, or improving service by conforming to specifications stated at particular points of the educational process. The numerous benefits of utilizing TQM in higher education include, a justification to constantly search to improve, a promotion of change and flexibility, a provision for decision-making to take place by those involved in the process rather than by a few individuals at the top of the institution, a positive change in employee attitudes toward students and each other, and a change from external indicators of performance to internal indicators of performance (Yudof & Busch-Vishniac, 1996).
The exposure of TQM in private industry in the 1985s caused areas outside of private industry to consider the application of TQM to their organizations. By the early 1980s, the application of TQM to higher education became a reality (Bass et al., 1996). Articles and books on the subject began circulating and the first forum dealing with the application of TQM in higher education was conducted (Presutti, et al., 1995). The fact that a business philosophy was introduced in higher education is not new to higher education. A business concept enters college and universities every few years and subsequently so does a host of workshops, material, and consultants who are considered to be expert in this new realm (Kohn, 1993).

Although defining TQM in higher education is important, equally as important is a definition as to what does not constitute TQM in higher education. TQM should not mean faculty is permitted to design course content that meets with the satisfaction of every student or even that each student will graduate (Yudof & Busch-Vishniac, 1996).

TQM should also not be regarded as a vehicle to allow students to determine the contents of the course material, the grading system, or the course structure. If this were the case, the need for instructors would cease. However, some faculty members have misinterpreted the true meaning of TQM. For instance, after completing a one-week seminar on TQM that was hosted by Xerox, Richard Florida, an instructor at Carnegie Mellon University, changed his classroom instruction to allow students to, “plan the course, design the syllabus, run the classes and even suggest their own grades” (McNary, 1994, p.119).
Although some students may favor this approach, the negative consequences of such an approach are obvious. Such an approach, for example, may allow a student to receive a grade of “A” in a course without learning a great deal about the subject matter simply because the course was designed by the student. Areas where TQM appears to be most applicable include the registration and financial aid processes, student retention, building maintenance, classroom administration, and staff development (McNary, 1994). Most college faculty and administrators agree with the application of TQM to the service aspect of higher education.

To implement TQM in a college or university is no easy task. Lewis and Smith (1994) documented the numerous reasons for this difficulty including the separation of administration from faculty and the division among departments. Attempts to implement a program such as TQM is normally made by the administration and, although faculty may not be involved in the implementation decision, faculty may be expected to be involved in the implementation of the program (Lewins & Smith, 1994). Additionally, the extreme departmentalization of colleges and universities does not lend itself to campus wide collection, especially the numerous divisions of leadership among departments (Lewis & Smith, 1994). Other reasons for difficulty of implementing TQM in higher education, according Lewis and Smith, include: the belief faculty and staff that business strategies do not belong in higher education, the team-centered approach to total quality that goes against the individualistic nature of colleges and universities, the belief that colleges and universities are already practicing continuous improvement, the resistance to treat students as customers, and phrases
used in the TQM philosophy such as, “minimize variation” or “encourage standardization” (pp. 13-15).

Sims & Sims (1995) defined TQM in higher education as "the process of continuous improvement using select tools, techniques, and training to guide decision-making and to plan action. The result is quality processes, products, and services and thus, high levels of customer satisfaction". It should be pointed out that this definition does not include a description of who the 'customer' actually is.

With all the business successes from the manufacturers that practiced TQM. Some educators suggest that TQM should be employed to restructure the quality of education (Chafee, 1992; Sheer and Teeter, 1991). The successful educational system in Japan and Germany inspired the educational leaders in the country to switch to TQM (Wilson & Schmoker, 1994). Looking back at the statement "If Japan Can, Why Can't We?", Deming viewed the system of education as an organization, as a process, as a system of interaction among education, industry, and government, similar to the one in Japan.

TQM is a full commitment to excellence by everyone in an organization or an educational setting. TQM can help an individual to be the best to deliver high quality service or products which meet or exceed the expectation of customers. One of the many focal points in TQM is that, "quality services yield better customer satisfaction and productivity" (Deming, 1986). The pioneer of TQM Dr. Deming (1986) said, "Improve quality and you automatically improve productivity". The significance of leadership for undertaking the transformation to
TQM should not be underestimated. Without leadership at all levels of the institution the improvement process cannot be sustained.

1.4.3. Applying Deming’s fourteen points to Higher Education

The question of whether or not a business strategy, such as Total Quality Management, belongs in higher education has been asked since the first college began adapting the principles of TQM. In the book, *W. Edwards Deming: Improving quality in College and Universities*, Cornesky et al., (1992) applied Dr. Deming’s *Fourteen Points* to higher education to give clarity to the uses of TQM in higher education. For the purpose of this study, TQM is defined by Dr. W. Edwards Deming. The following is a summary of the application of Dr. Deming’s *fourteen points* to higher education.

1. **Constancy of purpose.** Higher education institutions should have a solid mission and long-range plans that have been established through research. Cornesky, et al., (1992) believed this to be critical so as to allow each individual to have guidance in their personal development. This is also critical to avoid a situation whereby a faculty member with a passion for research is not hired by a college that places very little emphasis on research.

   Constancy of purpose can be further delineated into three areas:

   a) **Planning.** Planning refers to constantly thinking of the future while solving the problems that occur each day. Changing needs must be addressed but these changing needs must always be in step with the long-range plan. Although planning leadership rests with the administration, faculty involvement in planning is criteria because any planning involving faculty that takes place without their
input will be met with great resistance. Similarly, every department affected by the plan should be involved in the development of that portion of the plan. The main point is that action must follow planning and no actions should be taken unless part of the plan.

b) **Research.** Sound, comprehensive institutional research, made available to everyone, is a critical part of planning. The reason that research is crucial to planning deals with the fact that planning is based on assumptions of trends in society and research can serve to validate any assumptions made. For example, the development of new programs must be based on sound data to show the need for such programs.

c) **Innovation.** Innovation is required for any plan to be executed properly. Innovation is required in order to keep the college or university alive and vigorous. Higher education leaders must reward innovation at every level but must also understand that innovation cannot take place without resources. The goal of innovation should be educational improvement. Innovation is also required to improve academic quality because academic quality is not static and innovation is needed for academic quality to improve. However, academic quality cannot improve unless the budget is centralized at the department level to allow for innovation.

2. **Adopt a new philosophy.** A new way of thinking must be developed regarding continuous improvements in both people and processes that infiltrate the entire organization. This means employers should not have to deal with graduates who are not able to think critically and communicate effectively,
students should not have to tolerate instructors of poor quality, and instructors should not have to tolerate inadequate teaching facilities or an ineffective administration. In addition, staff should be given clear guidance by the administration.

3. **Cease dependency on inspection.** Although testing is a necessary part of education the use of tests as a measure to improve quality is not ideal, the finished product, the graduate, will improve with quality selection of students, quality advising and mentoring of students.

4. **Long-term relationships.** Long-term relationships should be designed with the suppliers of college (i.e., high schools and community colleges) so that the educational backgrounds of entering students are known, especially regarding the teaching styles and the learning styles that work best for students. In addition, universities should work with a single supplier for each category of item purchased. Doing so will allow each supplier to know the specifications needed to allow for consistency and speed of product. The bidding process used by most universities creates inconsistency and normally results with the lowest bidder receiving the order even though this supplier may not necessarily be the best supplier for that college or university.

5. **Improve constantly.** To meet the continuously changing needs of society, colleges and universities must develop new programs, review existing programs on a 5-year basis, and use a departmental curriculum committee and external advisory group. All of this should take place with the support of top administration. In addition, both administration and faculty should strive to offer
classes so that maximum use of classroom space is utilized. This includes offering classes in the early morning, late at night, and weekends.

6. **Institute on the job training.** Departments within colleges and universities tend to isolate themselves from each other. The deans may understand the academic departments within their college but are often not aware of departments outside of their area such as maintenance or security. Furthermore, faculty members often only concern themselves with their particular area and a few other related areas such as advising and community services. In additional, most departmental budget requests are based on the maximum amount that can be obtained rather than the exact amount needed for each member of the department. A system of regular training for all university employees should be established for everything from the recruitment of students to the awarding of degrees. An example is the format in which the computerization of college campuses is done without much input from those who will be utilizing the new hardware and software, thus resulting in a great deal of resistance from the end user.

7. **Adopt and institute leadership.** Higher education institutions must make a firm commitment for each administrator to be a leader. This means, for example, that administrators should be involved in all of the various faculty functions such as research, community service and teaching. Doing so will allow administrators to have a better understanding of the various faculty functions. Successful colleges and universities have administrators and faculty who are able to communicate with one another to achieve the desired goals. Successful administrative leadership depends on having administrators understand that care
for students is imperative, continuous innovation and research are paramount, and employees committed to a common goal is necessary.

8. **Drive out fear.** Academic institutions should create a system of open communication in order to disperse information to all faculty and staff in an effort to drive out fear. Administrators should attempt to eliminate fear by establishing trust. Administrators establish trust by being consistent in their actions, gain the respect of others through their service to others, and relate a desirable mission through constant communication throughout the university.

9. **Break down barriers between departments.** All employees must feel as though they are an important part of the success of the university. One fundamental way to break down barriers between departments is through fundraising. Fundraising will cause departments to work together toward a common goal.

10. **Eliminate slogans.** Slogans tend to show that management is not fully aware of the hurdles to workmanship. Although the short-term result of slogans may be increased productivity, without the proper administrative leadership, this new productivity, and further quality improvements, will fade.

11. **Eliminate quotas.** Administration should not establish quotas even though public colleges and universities are required to provide higher education to as many students as possible. Decisions should not be made based on cost per student per credit hour. Importance should be placed on having satisfied students, parents and graduates.
12. **Abolish annual ratings.** Barriers to the pride of workmanship should be eliminated and a system for allowing good performance should be established. Establishing such a system can be done by preparing an annual Professional work Plan Agreement in which each faculty member indicates the courses to be taught, research activities to be performed, and services that will assist in enhancing the institution’s quality.

13. **Education and self-improvement.** Continuous improvement also applies to the area of educating one’s self. Deming stated that organizations not only need good people, but also require individuals that improve themselves with continuous education. Administration cannot delegate the responsibility of continuous education because they must demonstrate leadership by initiating a program of education for employees. Professional development committees may still be established but they should be used to follow up on the educational plan established by the administration. In addition, having a “Director for Human Potential Development” who reports directly the president will prove to be every beneficial. Continuous education increases the individual’s worth to the university because those who stop learning will become stagnant.

14. **Involve everyone in the transformation.** The administration needs to explain the way in which the transformation will involve every member of the university community in every aspect of the university. Administration should also be careful to ensure the new system is implemented in a prompt manner. In addition, everyone must be involved in the process of continuous improvement. In designing in which everyone is involved, a critical component is the idea that such
a system is never ending. In other words, the process of achieving satisfaction is continuous.

1.4.4 Relationship between Total Quality Management, Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment

Juran on Leadership for Quality strongly stressed the need for leadership in any quality management transformation stating, "Upper managers must personally provide leadership in managing for quality" for the quality transformation to be effective (Juran, 1989, p.12). Deming pointed out in his book, *Out of the Crisis*, that top managers must do more than personally accepted philosophy of quality management, they was also revived by the philosophy of quality management through leadership in the quality transformation process (Deming, 1986).

Quality management and the effects of leadership on quality management have been investigated in a variety of conditions. In general, researchers have supported Juran and Deming's beliefs that leadership is a key to successful quality management implementation (Chaffee & Seymour, 1991). Support has been collected from a number of case studies demonstrating the importance of leadership from top management in the implementation of quality management.

Any improvement in a process is related to the degree of commitment to changing the status quo in an institution. TQM and commitment can be used as an aggregation of functional attributes of organizational survival, including constancy of purpose, guiding coalition of administrators/ faculty, employee involvement, resources, and communication. The management and organizational
behavior literatures have mostly examined commitment from the perspective of such referents to as goals, organizations, professions, and careers. The constructs of goal and organizational commitment have been empirically studied for over thirty years because it was believed that commitment is essential to organizational success.

Crawford & Shutler (1999) stated that employees' commitment and Quality management to their organizations are important in understanding organizational behavior. Both the Quality management literature and the organizational commitment literature suggest the importance of commitment in the organization setting, leadership to quality management.

1.5. LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

1.5.1 Leadership Behavior

Leadership may be defined in terms of totality of functions performed by executives as individuals and as a group. According to Tannenbaum Robert (1973) 'Leadership is interpersonal influence exercised in a situation which is directed through communication process, towards the attainment of a specialized goal or goals'. Thus Leadership is a process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group for goal achievement in a given situation. An analysis of the various definitions of leadership gives certain basic characteristics of a leader and leadership. Which are as follows?

1. Leadership is basically a personal quality. This quality motivates the individuals to be with leaders.
2. Leader, by exercising his leadership, tries to influence the behavior of individual around him to fulfill certain predetermined objective.

3. A leader tries to influence the employees to behave in a particular way.

4. There is a relationship between the leader and the employees which arises out of functioning for a common goal.

5. Leadership is a continuous process of influencing behavior.

6. Leadership is exercised in a particular situation. The situation variables also affect the effectiveness of leadership.

There has been a steady increase in the study of leadership in recent years. Early researches were concentrated on what were thought to be the essential precursors to leadership-personality and physical traits (Owens, 1987). Weber’s (1947) separation of charismatic leadership from position-based leadership promoted the belief that leadership was more than a consequence of a set of human actions based on emotional power that engaged the support of others (Hencley, 1999). When Ciulla (2003) tracked variations in the definitions of leadership from the 1940s; she noted that in the 1990s, the support for the leader was more than the inter-dependent relationship between the leader and the led, which was significantly different from the traditional view of leadership.

Management is often mistaken for leadership. Leadership in defined as the process of influencing people to put forth effort in achieving an organization's goals (Hodgetts, 1993). Management is defined as the process of achieving organizational goal through the efficient and effective use of organization's
resources (Hodgetts, 1993). Organizations have many different types of resources such as money, equipment, and people, available resource used to achieve goal. Thus it can be said that the leadership is just one aspect of management.

Leadership has been a favorite subject of the scholars throughout the history. Several well recognized models have been proposed over the last 50 years. Each new leadership model built on previous ones, aspiring to better explain leadership characteristics. Several studies have received considerable attention. It is important to understand where today's models have originated.

1.5.2. Theories of Leadership Behavior

Since the turn of the 19th century, many studies have been done on the theories of the leadership and Leadership Behavior. All of these theories have focused on what it is that makes leaders effective. As leadership, in essence, is referred to the ability of a person to effectively influence the performance of others, the various models researched and developed represent effort to describe how and why some people positively influence the performance of others. There are numerous types of leadership behavior and some of them are presented below:

1.5.2.1. Behavior/style Theories

The behavioral theory approach is founded on an examination of what the leader actually does. This approach does not consider the leader's characteristics or his/her sources of power. Early studies in this area by Lippert and White (1958) identified three concepts of behavioral leadership: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. These were differentiated based on the leader's action. Authoritarian and democratic dimensions of leadership stress four types of
relationship: explorative autocratic, benevolent autocratic, consultative, and
democratic (Likert, 1967). Likert suggested that productivity increases as the
leader moves away from the autocratic type. Stogdill and Coon (1957), at Ohio
State University, identified two critical aspect of leadership behavior: initiating
structure (task oriented) and consideration (relationship oriented). Their research
found that leaders should balance the emphasis based on the situation. The
difficulty is determining the right circumstances to emphasize task or relationship
(Bensimon, et al., 1989).

In 1964, Blake and Mouton developed a two dimensional grid with two
scaled axes called the Managerial Grid. Using the grid, leaders were rated on a
nine-point scale indicating concern for the task and/or for people. The results
showed that the most effective leadership style was the one that emphasized both
productivity and people. Mintzberg, in 1978, recommended an approach that
identified 10 managerial roles grouped into categories of interpersonal behavior,
information-processing behavior, and decision-making. This was followed by a
list including 17 comparable behavioral categories. These approaches permit an
examination of the actions of the leadership within an organization. These
approaches also recognized that the group can also influence the leader’s behavior.
There is little agreement on the categories to measure the effectiveness of these
theories (Bensimon, et al., 1989).

1.5.2.2 Trait Theories

Early studies were developed to examine individual traits such as
intelligence, birth order, socioeconomic status, and child-rearing practices (Bass,
Bass (1990) also stated that additional insight determined from these studies encouraged further development of the concept of individual traits. These studies provide evidence that effective leadership is a major factor in the success of an organization and individual traits influence effective leadership. These studies were developed to identify distinguishing traits in successful leaders and this information was used to evaluate any differences in leaders and non-leaders (Bass, 1990).

Stogdill (1974), viewed leaders as having certain traits, and identified these traits as capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation. However, these studies determined that such a contracted classification of leadership traits was inadequate. Stogdill (1974) concluded that leadership was not attainable simply because of the presence of specific traits. These attempts to identify precise personal traits provided evidence that determining leadership levels in individuals was much more complex than identifying specific characteristics.

1.5.2.3 Situational/Contingency Theories

A period of studies that identified the situation as the distinctive factor for determining leadership followed the behavioral period. This concept was known as situational leadership and revisited the early views of leadership. Hencley (1999) noted that the situational approach adhered to the concept that leadership was socially determined. That is, it was not a matter of individual traits, but rather was determined by the needs created by social environments.
Fiedler (1967) identified two variables associated with the contingency theory: intervening and moderating variables. Intervening variables were defined as those variables that interact directly between the leader’s action and the result of the process. Examples listed were: accurate communication, favorable attitudes toward the leader, group cooperation, and subordinate motivation. Moderating variables were defined as aspects within the situation that intensified or invalidated a leader’s influence. Examples listed were leader-member relationships, leader position power, and task structure.

Models representing this theory were identified as the Fiedler leadership contingency model (Fiedler, 1967), the Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1988), and the House path-goal leadership model (House, 1971). Some views on leadership during this period focused on leader traits, but found no relationship between those traits and leadership effectiveness.

1.5.3. Full Range Model of Leadership Behavior

Building from the original model of transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership that Bass (1990) proposed, Bass and Avolio (1999) developed a more complete model that takes a multi-level approach, incorporating the typical observer’s perception of leadership. The model includes a broad range of style and behaviors from passive levels of leadership to higher levels of vision, inspiration, and motivation. Leaders display behaviors within different ranges and with varying frequencies at various times. The model proposes that no one style is best for every situation; leaders must use the full range of leadership style to push
performance beyond normal expectations. The full Range leadership model, as seen in table 1.1, categorizes the leadership styles as transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership, similar to Bass (1990) in his original model.
Figure 1. Bass and Avolio’s Full Range Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 1999)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Influence</strong></td>
<td>The leader’s displayed attributes and behavior are associated with organizational goals. Idealized Influence is a measure of the followers’ faith and trust in the organization and willingness to emulate the general attributes and behavior expressed by the organization as a whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspirational Motivation</strong></td>
<td>The leader provides an environment that represents the energy separating exceptional followers willing to go beyond to accomplish goals from average followers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intellectual Stimulation</strong></td>
<td>The leader provides an environment that encourages followers to challenge the status quo in the quest to continually improve. Followers openly exchange high expectations creating a vision that demands higher standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individualized Consideration</strong></td>
<td>The leader recognizes that each follower is an individual with individual needs for development within the organization. Followers are provided the opportunity for personal attention and learning opportunities to develop higher levels of potential that positivity affect the organization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transactional Leadership</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contingent Reward</strong></td>
<td>The interaction of the leader focuses on the exchange of what is expected and what is desired. Exchanges include acknowledgment of completed tasks and additional responsibilities of followers. Generally exchange are positive, but may be negative in the form of punishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management-by-Exception Active</strong></td>
<td>The leader monitors activities for irregularities that have or may occur. Attention is placed on discovery of mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management-by-Exception Passive</strong></td>
<td>The leader allows the status quo to continue without addressing weakness within the organization. Reinforcement, when used, is in the form of criticism and negative feedback.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Non- Transactional Leadership (Laissez- faire)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Laissez- faire</strong></td>
<td>The leader generally lacks leadership and/ or avoids intervention between groups within the organization in critical organizational activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transformational Leadership Behavior

Transformational Leadership emphasizes more than just an exchange between a leader and a follower. Transformational Leadership is the elevation of a follower’s needs for achievement and self-actualization. A transformational leader creates an awareness that moves followers beyond their own self-interest for the benefit of the organization. This heightened awareness comes about by transcending simple rewards for performance and placing importance on the overall mission of the organization. Transformational leaders increase organizational performance by maximizing a follower’s development. Focusing on the development of ability, attitudes, motivation, organizational values, and mission, transformational leaders are able to increase organizational performance by inspiring vision and empowering their followers. Transformational leaders often sacrifice personal gains to achieve a higher level of accomplishment for followers, the organization, and society (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

Transformational Leadership is composed of four distinct components, as shown in Table 1.1, (1) Idealized Influence; (2) Inspirational Motivation; (3) Intellectual Stimulation; and (4) Individualized Consideration. Transformational leaders create vision through feeling of identity and emotion (Idealized Influence), generate excitement and heighten expectations (Inspirational Motivation), stimulate interest in new ideas (Intellectual Stimulation), and cultivate concern for individuals through one-on-one relationships (Individualized Consideration) (Bass & Avolio 1999).
❖ **Idealized Influence**

The highest level of transformational leadership, Idealized Influence, is a leader’s ability to display behaviors and personal attributes that portray the organization’s sense of mission. When a transformational leader exhibits Idealized Influence, followers tend to emulate the actions of the leader. Followers begin to assume the same values and beliefs as the leader. Followers will identify directly with the leader, and will view the leader as highly creditable and authentic. Followers will place their full faith and trust in their leader and the organization. Followers will relate their success directly with that of the organizations. This sense of belonging elevates followers to go beyond normal expectations to achieve a higher level of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

❖ **Inspirational Motivation**

Transformational leaders that display levels of Inspirational Motivation often achieve higher performance through elevated levels of follower effort directed at improving the organization’s future. Through the simple articulation of a better future by inspiring vision and imagination, transformational leaders move followers to a higher level of self that allows followers to achieve greater goals and personal achievement (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

❖ **Intellectual Stimulation**

Transformational leaders must stimulate the growth of new ideas and methodologies that will permit an organization to improve performance. This can be accomplished when a transformational leader exhibits Intellectual Stimulation. Intellectual Stimulation represents the thoughtful challenge of a problem.
presented to a leader requiring a leader to question the assumptions or paradigms
that have been used in the past. Transformational leaders are able to challenge
these past assumptions through the collective effort and knowledge of his/her
followers. Often the problems are not solved by the leader but rather by the
followers. Once a leader addresses the problem and approaches his/her followers,
the leader works towards enhancing the followers’ ability to solve the problem by
encourage intellectual discussion. The learning process is encouraged when
followers try new ideas without the threat of negative reward (Bass & Avolio,
1999).

❖ Individual Consideration

Focusing on the individual, transformational leader that exhibit
Individual Consideration are demonstrating a genuine concern for a follower’s
personal growth. Transformational leaders concern themselves with the
developmental needs of followers by working in cooperation with followers and
not between followers. Focusing on a single individual a transformational leader
is able to determine a specific strategy to meet a follower’s developmental needs
that will allow a follower to excel and reach greater levels of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

• Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is a leadership style based on agreement
between a leader and a follower. Agreements can be either spoken or unspoken
contracts that include implications of the actions taken by the follower.
Implications can take the form of the follower. Each exchange between the leader
and the follower can be based on new agreement as agreement as seen in figure 1. Transactional leadership is composed of three components: (1) Management-By-Exception-Passive; (2) Management-by-Exception-Active; and (3) Contingent Reward (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

**Management-By-Exception-Passive**

Management-by-Exception-Passive is the weakest form of transactional leadership. It avoids personal involvement with organizational activities until a follower makes a mistake. The leader often does not actively look for mistakes. Instead, the leader will wait until a mistake is brought to his or her attention. A leader exhibiting this leadership style is very comfortable with the status quo and will not look for ways to improve. This leadership style is only a reactive style and typically involves exchange between the leader and the follower because the leader is reacting to correct nonconformance. Bass and Avolio (1999) recommend that leaders avoid using this style of leadership except for extremely unique situations such as dealing with a discipline problem.

**Management-by-Exception-Active**

Management-by-Exception-Active is a second form of transactional leadership that is similar to Management-by-Exception-Passive, in that it is a reactive style of leadership. Leaders displaying Management-by-exception-Active leadership style tend to monitor performance looking for type of variation that indicates a mistake or deviation from the norm. Attention is placed on detecting mistakes and not on proactive to actions to improve processes. This style of leadership tends to discourage followers from taking initiative to improve
organizational performance. This “risk avoidance” behavior tends to retard progress and produces lower levels of performance throughout the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1999).

- **Contingent Reward**

  The final transactional leadership style in Bass and Avolio’s (1999) Full Range Leadership model is Contingent Reward. The most commonly used leadership style of the three; Contingent Reward is a proactive form of exchange between a leader and a follower. Agreements are established between a leader and a follower that state the intrinsic or material reward that will be exchanged upon the successful completion of the tasks assigned by the leader. Contingent Reward provides a high level of task structure and sets levels of performance for the follower. Exchanges can take the form of positive or negative rewards.

  Contingent Reward is used in almost every employment situation. Examples include salaries, wages, and benefits in exchange for performance, Bass and Avolio (1999) do not suggest that this style of leadership dominate the relationship between the leader and the follower. Contingent Reward does not make any attempt to elevate followers’ needs beyond that of the simple exchange. Applying only transactional styles of leadership, including Contingent Reward, will at best only encourage followers to continue at current performance levels with no encouragement to reach higher levels of performance.

- **Non-Transactiona Leadership (Laissez-faire)**

  Non-transactional leadership is the avoidance of taking responsibility of any leadership role. Commonly referred to as Laissez-faire leadership, researchers
have recognized this non-leadership role since the earliest studies (Lewin, Lipett, & White, 1960). This non-leadership style runs the highest risk of having poor organizational performance. Non-transactional leadership can be mistaken for followers’ empowerment because some view the leader’s lack of action as the willingness of the leader to empower follower to make organizational decisions rather than the leader’s complete disconnect from any formal leadership role in organizational activities (Bass & Avolio, 1999). It is important to note that this style of leadership can be effective in specific instances such as management transitions allowing the new leader to take time to assess the current situation before taking action so not to appear insulting to his or her new followers’ existing methods for accomplishing organizational tasks. Bass and Avolio (1999) recommend generally that this style of leadership be minimized to avoid the loss of control and poor performance.

Bass (1997) indicates that laissez-faire leadership is essentially the absence of leadership where leaders avoid decision-making activities. Subordinates are given total control and responsibility for conducting activities. Employees’ empowerment or delegation is a reason given for this leadership style. However, Bass (1997) compares this leadership style with the leader’s abandonment or abdication of responsibility. Laissez-faire leadership is a measure of a leader’s avoidance of the decision-making process and involvement with important issues. This style is, by definition, the most inactive type of leadership. The laissez-faire leader presupposes leadership without functioning as a leader.
This leader does little or nothing to affect either the followers or their behaviors and there is effectively no transaction or transformation (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

1.6. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment has been an important part of organizational studies and the focus of research in recent years is because of its linkages with the quality of life in organizations. It is regarded as a salient core job attitude that governs how employees attitudinally and behaviorally approach their work (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Subsequently, since its introduction in the early 1950s, commitment has been widely researched (Arye & Heng, 1990) from various theoretical perspectives (Virtanen, 2000).

Organizational commitment is an important type of attitude to foster among employees. Employees must be emotionally attached to their organizations (i.e., colleges, universities) in order to curtail any intentions to leave (Hackett & Lapierre, 2001). People who are committed to their organizations tend to be highly involved in their organization and identify with its goals and values (Mowday, et al., 1979).

Committed employees feel a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and have a strong desire to remain in the organization (Hackett & Lapierre, 2001). People who are committed to their jobs feel that their jobs can satisfy their needs and they make their jobs important parts of their identities. As a result, these employees are more likely to participate in professional development, devote greater energy in developing their careers, do more to improve their performance, and are less likely to leave their jobs.
In explaining the significance of organizational commitment, Morrow and McElroy (1993) believed that it is the most maturely developed of all the work commitment constructs. Yet, the literature speaks to the lack of a consensus on its definition (Meyer, Smith, & Allen, 1993; Mowday, 1998; Suliman & Isles, 2000a, 2000b, Virtanen, 2000; Zangaro, 2001). For example, as early as 1960 Becker noted the complex nature of organizational commitment. Unsurprisingly, Morrow (1983) has identified twenty-five commitment related constructs in the organizational commitment literature. In contrast, however, Grusky (1966) suggested that it is a single construct based upon social exchange theory.

On a general level, however, organizational commitment is a factor that promotes the attachment of employees to their organizations (Giblert & Ivancevich, 1999; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Raju & Srivastava, 1994). In general, it focuses on an employee’s bond with an organization. Theorists have distinguished organizational commitment as either an attitude or a force that binds employees to an organization. Employees are regarded as committed to their organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and devote considerable effort to achieving organizational goals (Mowday, 1998; Raju & Srivastava, 1994). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) broadly defined commitment as a force that guides a course of action toward one or more targets. They did capture the notion that employee commitment may be focused at different targets or levels within an organization. Employees, for instance, may feel a sense of commitment to their organization as a whole, their primary work team, and/or to their leader.
The fact that organizational commitment lacks construct clarity and has many foci suggests that several different types of employee commitment exist. Early work on the construct of organizational commitment conceptualized it from opposing perspectives. Two perspectives of organizational commitment seem to dominate the literature: behavioral and attitudinal.

From a behavioral perspective, Becker’s (1960) side-bet theory views commitment from a fear-based orientation. According to him, employees had a tendency to engage in “consistent lines of activity” (p. 33) because of the perceived consequences of failing to do so. On a cost-benefit analysis, the employee who was committed perceived that he or she had more to lose by leaving the organization than by remaining with it. Thus, an employee becomes committed to an organization because of “sunk costs” that are too costly to lose. Kanter (1968) defined commitment as a “profit” associated with continued participation and a “cost” associated with leaving. That is, an employee stands to either profit or lose depending on whether he or she chooses to remain with the organization. Utilizing a social exchange theory framework, Grusky (1966) argues that employees bargain or exchange time and effort with an organization to obtain benefits or rewards. Specifically, organizational commitment results from a process in which members develop favorable or unfavorable perceptions of the exchange of benefits and costs and employee commitment to the organization varying accordingly.

The most significant measure of this process is employee turnover. In contrast, Buchanan (1974) defined it as “a partisan, affective attachment to the
goals and values of the organization, to one’s role in relation to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth” (p. 533).

The idea was later conceptualized by Porter, Steers, Mowday, et al., (1979) as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involved in a particular organization” (p. 604). From this perspective, three factors are involved with an individual’s desire to remain with an organization: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to stay with the organization because the person enjoys being a member of the organization. Brown (1996) defined this type of commitment as attitudinal and described it as, “both a state of positive obligation to an organization and a state of obligation developed as a by-product of past actions” (p. 232).

Past actions are comprised of both employee and employer deeds. In the relationship between an individual and an organization, the individual is willing to give of him or herself in order to contribute to the organization’s well being (Mowday, et al., 1979). These two conceptualizations viewed commitment as having two different goals: (a) avoiding the costs associated with leaving the organization (Becker, 1960) or (b) maintaining an identity associated with being a member of the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Porter, et al., 1974).

1.6.1. **Basic Elements of Commitment**

An individual may commit oneself to another person or to a group of people, or to an organization, which emphasizes the social character of
commitment. The object of commitment means such things as action, practice, goals, values, organization, etc. for analytic purpose; it is useful to differentiate among consequences of commitment and basic elements of commitment, locus, object, base, focus, source and antecedents. This typology deviates from the vocabulary common in commitment studies.

- **Source of commitment**

  Source of commitment shows the background from which different objects, loci bases and foci of commitment are generated. There are many alternative: education, training, leadership styles and management systems, institutions, socioeconomic class, national culture and civilizations. There are all responsible for diverse contents of commitment, such as the occurrence of gender quality as a potential object of commitment.

- **Antecedents of commitment**

  Antecedents of commitment like age, tenure, task autonomy, and role ambiguity, for example, can be understood as intervening variables that channel the occurrence and strength of different commitments. In order to “manage commitments,” it is necessary to know which constellations of different objects, loci, bases, and foci of commitment are related to which antecedents and, further, which antecedents are related to which source of commitment and how tangible their interrelations are. In this way, it is possible to create different commitments for different organization purposes (Mathieu and Zajic, 1990).
• **Locus of commitment**

Locus of commitment refers to where we can find different objects to which commitment is oriented. Brown (1996) distinguishes among a person, a group of person, an entity made of the people (as organization and an idea or cause), as an object of commitment, but he does not develop this distinction further. There are two loci of commitment. One may be committed to an idea as such— for example, gender quality— or one may be committed to an agent. The agent can be personal such as the deputy chief of the department of human resource management, or impersonal, such as an organization. An individual forms a commitment to an agent because he or she believes the agent to “carry” appealing ideas— for example, gender quality. The focus of commitment has implication for the measurement of commitment. The “carrier approach” relies more on behavior, whereas the “idea approach” relies more on intention or meaning in the formation of knowledge about commitments.

• **Objects of commitment**

Object of commitment refers to an entity to which commitment is oriented, whether an idea or an agent. In an organizational context, ideational objects of commitment are values, goals principles, and polices, but so are artifacts like myths and heroes. Agents are entire organizations or different levels of organizational structures: organizational units, managers, professions, and coworkers as individuals or groups. Traditionally, Organizational Commitment is understood as a commitment to an entire organization, but Organizational Commitment can be understood also as a function of multiple commitments to
organizational ideas and agents can be upheld even if the ideas that the agent are seen to carry may be shifting or obscure. Organizations very often expect commitment to agents without giving members any opportunity to check the coherence of the values, goals, principles, and policies that the agents may actually advocate. Individuals are also often committed to somebody or to something, even though they can describe only in very broad terms the ideas they share with that something or somebody. Many definitions emphasize an organization as the object of commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990; 1996). The object of commitment will be also a person, a group of person, an idea, practice, work or other cause (Brown 1996) or objects will form many commitment relations and commitment to many objects at the same time (Reichers 1985; 1986).

- **Bases of commitment**

  Following Kelman (1958), they differentiate among three bases of commitment: Compliance or in-rewards, Identification or involvement based on an desire for affiliation, Internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organization values. Virtanen (2000) prefers a dichotomy of obligations, utilities and emotions. These concepts refer more directly to rational bases of commitment that make people bind themselves to objects of commitment. Emotions as bases of commitment mostly constitute a rational binding through the process of identification. They are “beyond reason” not irrational (as the opposite of rational). Obligation and utilities as bases of commitment mostly constitute rational binding through the mechanisms of
compliance and internalization as well as part of compliance, because both internalized value congruence and compliance0 related exchange rules create obligations. The same applies for utilities: value congruence enables acceptable rewards. And exchange rules provide the means for balancing mutual benefits. The binding force is not always transparent to one who is committed.

- **Focus of commitment**

  Focus of commitment explains the content of commitment; in the same way frameworks reveal the angle form which people see that what they see. The focus of commitment can be, for example, moral, legal, economic, political, and in some cases even aesthetic. The foci of commitment are in many ways related to societal institutions because they have a profound effect on how people see the world. Together with the bases of commitment foci provide the motive of commitment as it is experienced. This is the perspective that previous research on commitment has not addressed directly. For example, the foci of employees’ commitment are the goal and values of different groups inside and outside of the organization. For every object of commitment there are many foci of commitment, in the same way as there are many frameworks for any object. Once may be committed to the idea of gender equality legally and politically but not morally, for instance. Multi-dimensionality of psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995) comes closer to his view in the sense that these contracts seem to include all kinds of mutual expectations about rewards, power, and emotions and like.
• **Consequences of commitment**

Following purpose can be refined as the consequences of commitment, such as turnover, job performance, and different normative characteristics of organizational behavior (Wiener, 1982). The strength of Organizational Commitment Brown (1996) defines as “its significance or importance in the life of a person who owns the commitment relative to other commitments and pursuit” (p.234). He is right that relative strength must be linked to effort. The results of committed behavior depend partly on factors that are beyond the control of the one who is committed. Another way to understand the strength of commitment is through the idea that the more commitment constrains future behavior the stronger commitment is (Salancik, 1977). But because both effort and constraint depend on bases, foci and object of commitment, a better understanding of the strength of the commitment require the analysis of their relation to binding force of commitment.

1.6.2. **Approach to Organizational Commitment**

The distinction between an idea and the carrier of an idea comes close to the traditional distinction between “attitudinal” and “behavioral” approach to commitment (Brown, 1996, Mowday, et al., 1979). This distinction assumes, however, something about bases of Organizational Commitment. For example, attitudinal commitment is sometimes called Affective Commitment, whereas behavioral commitment is called Continuance Commitment (Aven, et al., 1993). This exemplifies the need for careful conceptual analysis. Organizational Commitment researchers can be divided in two major groups; those view Organizational Commitment as an attitude and those who view it as behavior
Meyer and Allen (1991) regarded attitudinal commitment as the way people feel and think about their organizations, while behavioral commitment reflects the way individuals have become locked into the organizations. The attitudinal approach regards commitment as an employee attitude that reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organization.

There are several types of Organizational Commitment that should be referred. Organizational researchers agree that a consensus has not yet been reached over the definition of Organizational Commitment (Scholl, 1981; Benkhoff, 1997a; Mowday, 1998; Suliman & Isles, 2000a; Zangaro, 2001). Taking Kelman’s (1958) work as their basis, they argue that Organizational Commitment could take three distinct forms that they called compliance, identification, and internalization. Etzioni (1961) who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), another earlier normative contributor, described Organizational Commitment in terms of three dimensions, moral involvement, calculative involvement, and alienate involvement, with each of these dimensions representing an individual’s response to organizational powers. Scholl (1981) indicates that the way Organizational Commitment is defined depends on the approach to commitment that one is adhering to. Accordingly, Organizational Commitment is defined either as an employee’s attitude or as a force that bind an employee to an organization. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) understand Organizational Commitment as psychological attachment to the organization. They also support the nation that organizational commitment should be seen as a
multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to development of attitudes.

According to Suliman and Isles (2000a), there are currently four main approaches to conceptualizing and exploring Organizational Commitment. There are the attitudinal approach, the behavioral approach, the normative approach and multidimensional approach.

- **The attitudinal approach** views commitment largely as employee attitude or more specifically as a set of behavioral intentions. The most widely accepted attitudinal conceptualization of Organizational Commitment is that by Porter and his colleagues who define Organizational Commitment as the relative strength of individuals’ identification with an involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, et al., 1979, 1980). They mention three characteristics of organizational commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organization. Within this approach, the factors associated with commitment include positive work experience, personal characteristics and job characteristics, while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

- **The behavioral approach** emphasizes the view that an employee continues his/her employment with an organizational because investments such as
time spent in the organization, friendship formed within the organization and pension benefits, tie the employee to the organization. Thus, an employee becomes committed to an organization because of “sunk costs” that are too costly to lose. Beker’s (1960) side bet theory forms the foundation of this approach. Beker’s research on Organizational Commitment was built on the principle of consistent behavior, writing: “Organizational Commitments that come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interest with a consistent line of activity”. Side bets are defined as anything the employee would view as valuable or any investment the employee has made. Berker’s (1960) theory explain that employees attach themselves and are committed to the organization by investing their time, effort, work relationships, and organizational- specific skills for which they receive rewards. According to him, employee’s commitment is continued association with an organizational that occurs because of an employee’s decision after evaluation the costs of leaving the organization. He emphasizes that this commitment only happens once the employee has recognized the cost associated with discontinuing his association with the organization. The focus of research according to the behavioral approach is on the overt manifestations of commitment; it refers to Organizational Commitment as behavior (Suliman & Isles, 2000b; Zangaro 2001).

- **The normative approach** argues that congruency between employee goals and values and organizational aims make the employee feel obligated to his/her organization. From this point of view, organizational commitment has been defined as “the totality of internalized normative pressure to act in a way
which meets organizational goals and interests”. Suliman’s explanation of normative approach also reflects the same meaning as stated above.

- **The multi-dimensional approach** is relatively new. It assumes that Organizational Commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation. This approach suggests that Organizational Commitment develops due to the interaction of all these three components. Several studies, according to Suliman and Isles (2000b) have contributed to this new conceptualization of organizational commitment. They credit Kelam (1958) as the earliest contributor to the multidimensional approach. Kelam laid down the foundation for the multidimensional approach. When he linked compliance, identification and internalization to attitudinal change. Another earlier contributor is Etzioni (1961) who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), described Organizational Commitment in terms of three dimensions: moral involvement, and calculative involvement and alimentative involvement, with each of these dimensions representing an individual’s response to organizational powers. Moral involvement is defined as a positive orientation based on an employee’s internalization and identification with organizational goals. Calculative involvement is defined as either a negative or a positive orientation of low intensity that develops due to an employee receiving inducements from the organization that match his/her contributions. Alimentative involvement, on the other hand, is described as a negative attachment to the organization. In this situation individuals perceive a lack of control or the ability to change their environment and therefore remain in the organization only because they feel they
have no other options. Etzioni’s three dimensions incorporate the attitudinal, behavioral and normative aspects of Organization Commitment.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) also support the notion that Organization Commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and the fact that various mechanism can lead to development of attitudes. Taking Kelman’s (1958) work as their basis, they argue that commitment could take three distinct forms that they called compliance, identification, and internalization. They believed that compliance would occur when attitudes and corresponding behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Identification would occur when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Lastly, internalization would occur when the attitudes and behaviors that one is encouraged to adopt are congruent with one’s own values.

1.6.3. Theory of Organization Commitment

Organization Commitment may have several different psychological bases. For that reason, researchers have tested Organizational Commitment in multi-dimensional ways. The most popular multi-dimensional approach to Organizational Commitment is that of Meyer and his colleagues. In 1984, Meyer and Allen, based on Becker’s side-bet theory, introduced the dimension of Organizational Commitment to already existing dimension of Affective Commitment. As a result, Organizational Commitment was regarded as a bi-dimensional concept that included an attitudinal aspect as well as a behavioral
Aspects. In 1990, Allen and Meyer added a third component, - Normative commitment- to their two dimensions of Organizational Commitment (Figure 2). Meyer and Allen stated that each dimension can be experienced as a result of different experiences and they claimed that each has different effects on work. They classified Organizational Commitment into three categories and emphasized three different themes in the definition of the term Organization Commitment: Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. The same is represented diagrammatically below (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Types of Organizational Commitment, (Meyer and Allen 1991)

- **Affective Commitment**: in this type of commitment there is a positive interaction between the individual and the organization for having similar values (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Although there are a lot of factors which influence Affective Commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) concluded that the strongest and
most consistent relationship could be acquired through experience. Those who stay in their organizations with a strong commitment keep their existence not only because they need the occupation, but they also want it (Meyer, et al., 1993).

- **Continuance Commitment:** It is related to one’s experience that has given to an organization difficulty in giving it up and the cost of things in case he leaves the organization or having few or no alternatives when he leaves organization. In addition, Meyer stated that skills and education are not transferred to other organization easily, so it increases workers’ commitment to their own organizations. Those who stay within their organizations with the strong Continuance Commitment are in their organizations just because they need it (Meyer, et al., 1993). Continuance Commitment increases when an individual invests in an organization or gets something from the organization because all these will be lost when one leaves the organization. When there is a limitation of alternatives this type of commitment is developed.

- **Normative Commitment:** It reflects the feelings of an individual’s obligations about staying within an organization. This kind of obligations is not for one’s own good but an individual reflects these behavior just he finds whatever he has done ethical and right. The commitment, which develops as a result of socialization, shows one’s loyalty to his employer. Those who have a strong normative commitment stay in their organizations just because they feel obliged to do so. Normative Commitment can increase when an individual feels loyal to his employer or responsible to work for the benefits that he gets from the organization. (e.g.; educational payments, training of skills) as a result of the
desire to compensate the favors received from the institution (Meyer, et al., 1993, p.539).

Meyer and Allen (1993) stated that when all these three types of commitments are taken into consideration, one’s relationship with his organization can be understood better. In these circumstances, desire appears to be one’s first priority, necessity as the second priority and obligation as the third priority. According to this model, workers experience these three types of commitments in different ways. Although it is important to identify the object of commitment in a given study, tracing multiple commitments is problematic because they are sometimes so intertwined that it is difficult to measure them separately (Louis 1991).

Meyer and Allen (1997) differentiate among affective, normative, and continuance commitment. This resembles the tracheotomy of emotion, obligation, and utility. They understand, however, both affective and normative commitment as emotional commitment, perhaps a rational and Continuance Commitment as awareness of costs (people need to remain with the organization), probably rational. Contrary to their implication, Virtanen (2000) holds that he nature of obligations, related to normative commitment in Meyer and Allen’s view, is rational rather than a rational, because people have rational arguments about norms. Obligations generated by socialization are often only partly transparent, but this does not makes them emotional, only understood. Jaros, et al., (1993) in turn, comes closer to this tracheotomy, because they related emotion only to Affective Commitment but costs to Continuance Commitment and “a sense of
duty, an obligation, or calling” (p.955), to moral commitment. In this way, Continuance Commitment and moral commitment can probably be understood as rational commitment, and Affective Commitment as rational commitment. But, contrary to Jaros, et al.’s view, obligation can also be more than moral obligations, and even costs have connections to emotions. For analytic clarity, bases of commitment should be mixed with foci of commitment.

1.7. NEED AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Due to paying more attention to the industrial sector rather than educational one either at the higher education or education and training ministry, it seems that it is fundamental for the government to make a counterbalance by focusing on the latter categories. Since Iran's country takes benefit from a young generation, it is obligatory for the authorities to duly reconsider the importance of promoting the quality management in academic domain. Our commitment to quality makes student proud to learn and work hard for improvement. With us quality improvement is a never ending process.

Knowing is the right of all people and they should benefit from all levels of learning opportunities without any discrimination and inequality. This is a common commitment at national and international levels. The UNESCO World Conference (1990) in Thailand with an emphasis on education for all events is the next important goals to pursue programs "based on the quality of education for all". According to the report, all members of UNESCO are committed to support governments, non-governmental organizations, communities and families without discrimination of gender, ethnicity and religion with emphasis on basic education.
for children, adolescents and adults and promote life skills, quality training and development. In the realization of these goals, improving the quality of management education is also reiterated and emphasized. Recent efforts to achieve these goals are emphasized in Iran. Because the quality indexes based on the UNESCO report has been reported unclearly and all responsible institutions, especially the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology and other activities are trying in this way. With the promotion of quality management system, we will witness the growth of science and research in higher education in other fields of science and research.

The youths constitute the majority of Iranian population who are either studying at universities or hold university degrees. Providing and appropriate educational system can direct them towards learning the required skills and specialties to a future profession. This is a trend that should be considered during their higher education at the universities. Adapting a new philosophical thought and educational quality is a necessity that should be regarded through managers and faculty members. Transferring new philosophical thoughts and educational quality though proper teaching and administrating at universities can lead the students to observe the quality principles at scientific fields and new job opportunities as well. This great task will be feasible if university managers and teachers have sufficient information towards quality management principles and factors at education, and be able to transfer that knowledge and experience to the students. The object of the present research is to introduce the principles at higher education, and to point out the advantages and disadvantages of such an approach.
If the management quality principles and factors at higher education act properly, there will, undoubtedly, be positive effects at students’ future jobs. In this case, every student will be employed in new jobs after graduation and their information concerning the quality effectiveness would have positive effects at their professional carrier and they will be successful people in their own field of activities.

The quality of education will lead to a prospective future. Insight on quality indices and virtual implementation should be on top priority in education domain since quality is the cornerstone of the education. That's why, serious and due attention should be paid to this category in the wide range of educational strata e.g. school, university, educational management, teachers, head masters, and the staff. Thus the research is to recognize quality management indices and the effective leadership schemes for the teachers and the head masters of universities to achieve the following goals:

- Setting up a goal oriental universities to pave the way for improvement.
- Accepting new doctrines with open arms towards the quality management and curricular leadership.
- Running up the obstacles in educational improvement and learning.
- Refraining from chanting null and void slogans and loosening the grip of leader on monitoring.
- Acknowledging managerial schools and the head masters leadership which result in efficacy, efficiency, administrative duty and job satisfaction.
• Reaching a decision which will be beneficial to the students and can strengthen and blossom into a successful educational career and research at the university.

Today colleges and universities are not only subject to the accountability pressures resulting from sustained dependency on public funding and affiliations with professional agencies but also find them in a market-driven social and economic environment.

Most institutions today are challenged to seek new students aggressively, while these same students have a greater selection of universities and colleges to choose from them ever before in history. Today higher education can no longer be seen as a privilege, but as an economic necessity for many individuals. TQM must begin with the development of the leadership and organizational commitment for team working towards a shared vision, shared values, and a repertoire of leadership skills. Change will not occur immediately either in personal or in the institutional culture. Leadership development must be a value and a process that evolves within the institution over a period of five to ten years.

However, most of the studies carried out on Total Quality Management (TQM) and Leadership Behavior of Heads of Department and Organizational Commitment of faculty members in Iran have been done only in the area of curriculum analysis in order to find out their adequacies or, in other words, for integration of them in to university subjects.

In a college or a university, as with any successful organization, management is the catalyst that keeps change moving in a positive direction.
(Hasselschwert, 1995). An attempt for linking Total Quality Management (TQM) and Leadership Behavior of Heads of Department and Organizational Commitment of faculty members together is that faculty members and heads both can contribute significantly to development of their society. Ever since academic attention was drawn to the education systems, considerable research has been conducted and adequate literature is prepared/published. A thorough review of research studies related to Total Quality Management (TQM), Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment of teachers/administrators, etc., revealed that considerable research has been done on different aspects of Total Quality Management (TQM) and Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment of employees with different variables, but only a few studies have been carried out to measure the existing levels of Total Quality Management (TQM) and Leadership Behavior of Heads of Department and Organizational Commitment of faculty members in a university. Thus, it is found imperative to take up the present study with the following questions.

1. How do Heads of the Departments and Faculty Members in any university perceiving TQM in higher education?

2. Do the different categories of Heads of the Departments and Faculty Members based on their gender, age, experience and subject differ in their perception about TQM in higher education?

3. What type of Leadership behavior is exhibited by the Heads of Department in any university and do they differ in their leadership behavior in relation to their gender, age, experience and subject?
4. What type of Organizational Commitment is exhibited by faculty members in any university and do they differ in their Organizational Commitment in relation to their gender, age, length of experience and different faculties?

5. Is the perception about TQM in higher education is influenced by the Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment of Heads / Faculty Members at a university?

1.8. SCENARIO OF EDUCATION IN IRAN

Iran is located in Middle East, boarding the Sea of Oman, the Persian Gulf, and the Caspian Sea, between Iraq and Pakistan. With an estimated population of 70 million, Iran is the world’s twentieth most populated country. It consists of 30 states and Union Territories. In 2005 the literacy rate of the population was 77 percent. The literacy rate for male was 86 percent and the same rate for female was 73 percent.

Prior of the mid-nineteenth century, it was traditional in Iran for education to be associated with religious institutions. On those days until the establishment of relatively modern primary-school (in Persian: Dabestaan or Madressed), Iranian girls and boys used to attend the Learning Traditional Centers (In Persian: Maktab Khaaneh) where pupils between 4 to 14 years old could sit next to each other on the floor (sometimes covered by rug or mat) and listen to the teacher. Those schools were established in mosques and teachers are religious men. There was no any age limitation for boys; girls were only allowed to attend these centers until age 7, they had then to stay of home to help the family or get a private female mentor to continue their education.
The roots of the modern Iranian educational system lie in the mid-19th century. The first Ministry of Education, established in 1855, was modeled on the basis of French system. In the late 19th century the demands of certain intellectual and political groups in Iran, for greater modernization and Westernization, including the development of educational provision, met with powerful opposition from the church, the aristocracy, and intermittently, the state. Prior to the mid-19th century, education was associated with religious institutions. Education is highly centralized and Ministry of Education is the center of power. Ministers of education and Higher education specify a national course of study for all subjects, publish textbooks, finance the education, design and make tests. There are different minority groups in Iran like Turk, Kurd, Lure, Balouch, Arab, and Turkmen and so on. The medium of instruction in Iran at all levels is Farsi (Persian). Under the constitutions, primary education (between age 6 and 10) is compulsory. As a general rule, primary, secondary and higher education is free, although private schools and universities do exist and are permitted to charge tuition fees. According to government figures, over 95% of Iranian children currently receive primary and secondary education. All schools are single-sex. There are over 185,000 schools throughout Iran, teaching over 22 million children. It is estimated that there are almost 1.5 million teachers within the educational system. In Iran all the schools start to work from 20th of September till the end of May. During these 9 months (200 days) students go to school from 7:30 AM to 1:30 PM. Schools are on holiday on Friday and on some special ceremonies (Fiesta, Revolution, New Year…). Schools (grades 1-12) are
segregated and girl-students are required to wear uniform. Most of the teachers in Iran are women (especially in Elementary and Secondary school), but you cannot call this job is special for women. There is no lunch-time in schools and rest times is different in each level 60 minute in Elementary school, 30 minute in Primary school and High school, which is divided to 3 pars.

School education in Iran is divided in to the following cycles.

- **Pre-school**, (1 year cycle, children aged 5)
- **Primary**, (5 year cycle, children aged 6-10)
- **Middle (Guidance)**, (3 year cycle, children aged 11-13)
- **Secondary**, (3 year cycle, students aged 14-17)
- **Pre-university**, (1 year cycle, students aged 18)

*Pre-school education*: This is non-compulsory and children proceed automatically to primary education at the age of 6.

*Primary education*: Children begin to go to primary education of the age 6 and are given a broad-ranging general education. There is a national exam at the end of the 5 years, which students have to pass to enter into the Guidance cycle.

*Middle/Guidance cycle*: This three-year phase also provides students with general education, and encourages them to think about the options for secondary education. Students must sit for regional exam at the end of the Guidance cycle in order to proceed to secondary education level.

*Secondary education*: Secondary education is divided into two branches: ‘theoretical’ studies and technical & vocational studies. The academic or ‘theoretical’ branch comprises four subject areas: Humanity Science, mathematics
& physics, experimental sciences and finally Technical. The technical branch is more vocational in structure and is divided into the following three sectors: technical, business & vocational, agriculture. National exams are conducted at the end of each academic year during this secondary cycle. Students complete a number of units during their three years of secondary education, and must obtain 96 units within this time in order to be awarded the High School diploma (Diplom-e Mottevasseteh).

Pre-University education: Students wishing to enter Higher Education must take a one-year pre-university course, at the end of which they may obtain a ‘Pre-University Certificate’. This certificate then qualifies the students to sit for the highly competitive National Entrance Exam (Konkur), success in which is imperative in order to gain a place in the university.

1.8.1. Higher Education in the Islamic Republic of Iran

'Higher Education' which has an ancient past in the dynamic culture and civilization of Iran and Islam reached the peaks of prosperity at the time of the Sassanids with the establishment of centralized higher education institutions in the cities of 'Riv Ardeshir' and 'Jondi Shapour' from 241 AD onwards. Because of the importance given to medicine and medical education in those days and the ample use of the experiences and scientific achievements of the Greeks, Indians, and Iranians, these cities turned into two real centers of ancient higher education.

With the advent of Islam and as a result of its emphasis on justice, from the seventh, eighth, and ninth centuries, scientific centers were expanded and developed within wider and more specialized frameworks and against a backdrop
of equal educational opportunities for all. 'Maktabs' or Schools, congregational mosques, clinics, drugstores, universities, schools of philosophy, and observatories in general and in the big cities of Iran in particular were the most comprehensive ancient higher education centers in that era each displaying their own application of higher education in the Islamic and Iranian society. This expansion continued through the establishment of research centres such as the Maraagheh Observatory, the Zeejeh (Observatory) Ologh-beyk, Rob'e Rasheedi, and even roving schools and libraries.

In the modern age, at the time of scientific and technological advances in the Western World, the Qajar (Dynasty) Prime Minister 'Amir Kabir' founded the 'Daarul Fonoon' (House of Techniques) as a modern institution in Iran in 1848. At that time, in addition to sending students abroad and inviting foreign lecturers to Iran, higher education centers were established in the cities of Tabriz and Urmieh. From 1934 onwards, the universities of Tehran, Mashhad, Isfahan, and Tabriz were officially opened. With the establishment of the Ministry of science and Higher Education in 1967 public and private universities and other higher education centers were given a uniform structure in higher education.

After the victory of the Islamic Revolution in 1979 major changes took place in the higher education system and in order to adopt fundamentally new policies and be able to respond to the new needs of the revolution, the Ministry of Science and Higher Education was changed into the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education.
In the same spirit and in order to establish a revolutionary culture, to create a new educational system in higher education, to set new standards in fundamental and applied research, and to institutionalize the values of the revolutionary society existing within the universities, the 'Cultural Revolution Headquarters' which was later changed into the 'Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution' was established by the late leader of the Revolution, Imam Khomeini (God bless his soul) and played a most important role in the cultural and educational policy-making of the country. Working under the supervision of the Leader of the country and chairmanship of the President, the Council enjoys the membership of the Speaker of the Islamic Consultative Assembly (Parliament), Head of the Judiciary, Ministry of Science, Research and Technology, Minister of Islamic Culture and Guidance, Head of the Islamic Republic of Iran's Broadcasting Organization, together with a number of leading scientific and cultural experts.

To assist policy-making in research and to provide support for researchers, the 'Scientific Research Council' was established with the First Vice-President acting as its chairperson, the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology, acting as the vice-chairperson, and with a number of ministers from the industrial and manufacturing sectors and also outstanding researchers acting as members.

The 'Supreme Planning Council' chaired by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology formulates and adopts all educational programs and
regulations with the assistance of university lecturers and makes certain that the universities maintain a satisfactory level of scientific activity.

The 'Higher Education Expansion Councils' at the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology and the Ministry of Health, and Medical Education are responsible for planning and monitoring the establishment and expansion of higher education and research units.

The universities and other higher education and research institutions are administered and managed under the supervision and financial support of 'Boards of Trustees' chaired by the Minister and with the chancellor of the university or director of the research center acting as the secretary. The university council is responsible for planning the educational and research programs.

Higher education institutions in Iran are divided into two main groups of 'government' and 'non-government' institutions. Depending on the particular field of study, higher education is organized and supervised by the two independent ministries of ‘Science, Research and Technology’ and ‘Health and Medical Education’. All candidates for the government-run institutions and some of the candidates for the non-governmental institutions enter post-diploma, bachelor's, master's, or doctoral (medical) degree courses by taking a nationwide entrance examination held by the 'Organization for Educational Evaluation' and after passing the required course units graduate from one of the following groups: Medicine, Veterinary Medicine, Humanities, Basic sciences, Technical and Engineering, Agriculture, and Arts. The selection of candidates for the specialized doctoral degree (Ph.D) courses is made directly by the universities.
Full-time members of the scientific staff at universities and other higher education institutions are employed either on contractual or permanent basis. On the whole, the scientific staffs are expected to conduct research projects, teach, provide scientific-laboratory services, provide expert and scientific consultations, take part in scientific and specialized seminars and conferences, go on sabbatical leave, and take part in various councils at their institution.

In the government sector, in addition to the universities at the provincial centers and main cities, the 'Payaameh Noor (Message of Light) University' established in 1988 has been actively engaged in enhancing the scientific culture of the country through 'distant learning' programs. The aim in establishing this university has been the 'implementation of educational programs at the university level through semi-resident and distant learning mechanisms'. The university has been able to provide optimum educational facilities for individuals living in deprived and far away regions, housewives, and employees who wish to enhance the level of their knowledge.

To complement higher education goals and objectives and to evaluate the scientific level of the society, non-profit making and non-government universities have also been established under the supervision of the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology and Ministry of Health and Medical Education.

In addition to the higher education facilities provided for Iranian students, at present, foreign students, from more than 42 countries, in the Islamic Republic of Iran are studying various subjects at various university levels. The Ministry of Science, Research and Technology is ready to accept more students.
from all other countries in all subjects and at all levels for short and long-term courses. The Ministry is ready to provide Persian language lecturers, establish Persian Language Seats, and open branches of the Iranian universities in all countries of the world.

To give support to inventors, innovators, and researchers in various branches of science and technology and to encourage school and university students and other talented and creative individuals the Kharazmi* Festival has been held at the international level in January each year since 1987. A committee of juries selects the most prominent inventors, innovators, and researchers who are then granted awards and prizes by the President in a special ceremony. The Ministry of Science, Research and Technology welcomes candidates from all countries of the world taking part in this festival. Every year in August, the Islamic Republic of Iran holds an International Science Olympiad for university students in theology and Islamic science and culture, Persian language and literature, physics, chemistry, electrical engineering, civil engineering, mechanical engineering and mathematics. Outstanding students from all over the world are invited to take part in this Olympiad in the above-mentioned fields of study.

The Ministry of Science, Research and Technology which is a member of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization(UNESCO), the Executive Council of the Third World Academy of Sciences(TWAS), the standing Committee for Scientific and Technological Cooperation(COMSTECH), the Committee on science and Technology for Sustainable Development in the
South(COMSATS), and is active in South-South cooperation, has the intention to expand all kinds of cooperation with other Nations.

The locale of the present study is Ferdowsi University of Mashhad in Iran. Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (FUM) is a state university named after the great epic poet and scholar Ferdowsi whose Shahnameh (The Book of Kings) is a well-known classical chef-d’oeuvre in Persian literature. Located in Mashhad, the university was established in 1949, making it the third oldest major state university in Iran. It is the largest university in northeast Iran, and has a large faculty. Encompassing currently, 2000 staff, 650 faculty members, and an official enrollment of 19,000 students, FUM is one of the most comprehensive universities in Iran and neighboring countries. The university offers 180 majors and admits over 3,500 students each year at the Bachelor's, Master's, and Ph.D. levels. At FUM, many departments are considered as Centers of Excellence in different specializations nationwide; namely, the Dept. of Mathematical Sciences and Statistics, the Dept. of Animal Sciences, the Dept. of Geology, the Dept. of Persian Language and Literature, the Dept. of Veterinary Medicine, and finally the Dept. of Agronomy. The university is regarded as a prominent institution in attracting international students of different nationalities. At present, FUM is a major university in recruiting international students from 17 nationalities, all of which add greatly to the educational and social experience available at the university. Furthermore, the university is ranked 3rd in Iran amongst other universities in recruiting foreign students. Celebrating 59 years of academic
excellence, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad is a place to expand minds, foster new ideas, and perpetuate intellectual and personal growth.

1.9. CHAPTERIZATION

The present thesis consists of five chapters:

- The first chapter deals with the theoretical background of the study, education Scenario of Iran, the context, need and importance of the study.

- The second chapter focuses on the review of related literature, i.e. the details of the studies related to Total Quality Management (TQM) and Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment of Faculty Members/Heads / Employees, etc., in Iran, India and other countries.

- The third chapter deals with the statement of the problem and methodology of the study. This chapter presents the details on the objectives, and hypotheses of the study, variables, operation definition of key terms, design and procedure, tools used, sample selected, and statistical techniques used for analysis of the data.

- The forth chapter present the details of the analysis of the data, its interpretation and discussion under the differed heading as per the objectives / hypotheses of the study.

- The fifth chapter presents the summary and conclusions of the study. In this chapter, an over view of the study is given highlighted the objectives/ the hypotheses and methodology, major the findings of the study are listed and implications of the findings are discussed and topics for further study are suggested.