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MEAUSURING THE LINKS AMONG HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTICES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCES FROM IRANIAN AND TURKISH TRAVEL AGENCIES

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AUTHOR DECLARATIONS

1. The material included in this thesis has not been submitted wholly or in part for any academic award or qualification other than that for which it is now submitted.

2. The program of advanced study of which this thesis is part has consisted of:

i) Research Methods course during the undergraduate study

ii) Examination of several thesis guides of particular universities both in Turkey and abroad as well as a professional book on this subject.

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ABSTRACT

MEAUSURING THE LINKS AMONG HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTICES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM IRANIAN AND TURKISH TRAVEL AGENCIES

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Human Resources Management (HRM) practices and the employee commitment are two important factors affecting the performance. These two different factors may impact the performance from different points.

Besides, HRM practices also impact employee commitment in different perceptions. While it is observed that a well-planned HRM increases the performance, it also enhances the employee commitment and then the performance in this way. In the tourism sector where the performance affects the productivity and profitability in an important amount, these effects of HRM and commitment are very significant.

In this study, the purpose is to analyse the impacts of HRM practices and specifically, employee commitment to the performance in the tourism agencies operating in Turkey and in Iran. For this purpose, first the HRM practices will be examined in details and then other factors affecting the performance will also be analysed.

Statistical analysis and hypothesis regarding the relationships between HRM practices, performance levels (PL) and organizational commitment (OC) reveals that while HRM practices has a statistically significant, strong and positive relationship on performance levels. Similarly, HRM practices has a statistically significant, strong and positive relationship on organizational commitment. It has also been found that the organizational commitment has a statistically significant, strong and positive relationship on performance levels. The results of the study reveals that all variables have significant and positive relationship each other and they are consistent with the previous literature arguments and evidences.

Key Words: HRM practices, Performance levels, Organizational commitment.

KISA ÖZET

INSAN KAYNAKLARI UYGULAMALARI, ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK VE PERFORMANS ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLERİN ÖLÇÜLMESİ: İRAN VE TÜRK SEYAHAT ACENTALARINDAN BULGULAR

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İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi uygulamaları ve çalışanların iş yerine bağlılıkları, performans üzerinde etkili olmaktadır. Bu iki farklı faktör, performansı farklı açılardan etkilemektedir. Aynı zamanda, İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi de çalışan bağlılığını çeşitli yönlerden etkilemektedir. Doğru yapılandırılmış ve planlanmış İnsan Kaynakları uygulamaları ile etkili bir biçimde performans artışı gözlenirken, bu süreçte elde edilen çalışan sadakati de performans üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahip olmaktadır. Performansın verimliliği ve kârlılığı önemli ölçüde etkilediği iş alanlarından biri olan turizm sektöründe ise bu etkilerin önemi daha da artmaktadır.

Bu araştırmada (seminerde) amaçlanan, hem İKY uygulamalarının hem de çalışan sadakatinin, İran ve Türkiye'de faaliyet gösteren turizm acentalarındaki çalışanlar üzerinde performansa ilişkin etkilerinin incelenmesidir. Bu amaçla, çalışmanın kapsamında öncelikle İKY uygulamaları detaylı bir şekilde ele alınacak ve performansı etkileyen diğer faktörler de incelenecektir.

İstatistiki analizler ve İKY Uygulamaları, Performans seviyeleri, Organizasyonel Bağlılık değişkenlerinin arasındaki ilişkiye bağlı olarak ortaya konan hipotezler; İKY Uygulamalarının, Performans Seviyeleri üzerinde istatistiki açıdan anlamlı, güçlü ve pozitif yönlü bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Benzer şekilde, yine İKY Uygulamalarının Organizasyonel Bağlılık üzerinde de istatistiki açıdan anlamlı, güçlü ve pozitif yönlü bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu ortaya konmuştur. Ayrıca ortaya konan bir diğer bulgu da Organizasyonel Bağlılığın, Performans Seviyeleri üzerinde istatistiki açıdan anlamlı, güçlü ve pozitif yönlü bir ilişkiye sahip olduğu şeklindedir. Çalışma neticesinde elde edilen sonuçlar değişkenlerin her birinin arasında anlamlı ve pozitif yönlü ilişkilerin olduğunu ortaya koymakta olup geçmiş literatür çalışmaları kapsamında elde edilen bulgular ile tutarlıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İKY Uygulamaları, Performans seviyeleri, Organizasyonel

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Organizational and individual performance", "human resources management practices", and "organizational commitment" are among the important issues of today's organizational world. Their nature and implications have been studied by researchers before. This study holds implications of human resources management (HRM), organizational commitment, and organizational performance in terms of both organizational and individual level performance issues throughout the extant literature survey and an application of an empirical research study within tourism sector. In order to achieve implications for those issues, a comparative research study among employees working in Iranian and Turkish tourism agencies has been performed.

The study has been constituted with seven sections. The first section of the study covers the objective of the study, its importance, problem statement and rationale. The second section of the study is about literature survey on theoretical foundation of it. The third section of the study provides the proposed research model and the generated hypotheses. The fourth section of the study is on empirical research providing the research design and the methodology of the study. In this section, the research instruments are also introduced and the structure of the questionnaire is described. Research findings are presented in the fifth section and findings of the study are discussed in the sixth section with the concluding remarks. The seventh section concludes the study with a brief presentation of its limitations and the recommendations for future research.

1.1. Purpose of The Study

This study investigates the relationships between HRM practices, organisational commitment and individual and organizational performance.

HRM practices would provide care about the organization's welfare and help the organization attain its goals through effective management of human resources and improving human growth. It has been argued that employees could perform better and have growth within the organization through greater organizational commitment and increased efforts to aid the organization (Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli, 2001, p.825).

Organizational performance construct has been examined with two sub dimensions of performance in organizations which are called as organizational performance and individual performance. Notions about organizational commitment, conceptualizations and measures that have been proposed and tested are investigated in the literature. Conceptualization and measurement of organizational commitment involves three dimensions that are different from each other with the economic or other aspects. Meyer and Allen (1990) have searched three types of commitment that are affective, continuance and normative commitment.

It is assumed that HRM practices would affect organisational commitment that would have an effect on individual and organizational level performance and overall effectiveness within several areas of organizational life. Therefore, based on the previous conceptual arguments and practical findings, it has been assumed meaningful to do a research study for investigating the relationships among HRM, organizational commitment, individual and organizational performance in order to provide a broader understanding of their interactions. The research study has been performed in travel agencies in Iran and Turkey comparatively.

1.2. Importance of The Study

HRM, organizational commitment and individual and organizational performance are all organizational, contextual, and attitudinal issues in organizational theory. Behavioural issues such as interpersonal relations and job performance are relative issues to HRM functions within an organization. Building on the current discussion of organizational and individual efficiency, this study attempts to analyse the impacts of HRM practices on employees 'organizational commitment, individual job performance at work and organizational performance.

Nowadays, the source of an organization's sustainable competitive advantage is its employees rather than its material assets as it has been some decades ago (Gupta and Singhal, 1993). To remain competitive, organizations must build on employees' knowledge and intellectual capital (Ulrich, 1998). Due to this fact, this study will investigate the impact of HRM practices on organizational commitment level of employees, individual and organizational job performance. Individual and organizational job performance outcomes are being distinguished from regular organizational outcomes such as mere financial profitability and embrace the organizational commitment components (Paauwe, 2004). They are assumed to result from the application of various HRM activities. According to Paauwe (2004), HRM-outcomes are expected to affect organizational long-term consequences such as employees' individual and societal well-being and organizational effectiveness, thereby influencing the overall performance of the organization. Regarding the fact that organizational performance is one of organization's primary goals ensuring their continuity and survival (Looiseand van Riemsdijk, 2004), employees' ability and willingness to perform better in their jobs have become an organization's key to sustainable competitive advantage, which makes an effective human resource strategy focused on the attraction and retention of highly qualified and creative employees indispensable (Gupta and Singhal, 1993; Ulrich, 1998; Ruschoff, 2008). This lays the link to the second HRM-outcome to be investigated, employees' commitment to the organization. Since employees' commitment has proven to be negatively related to employee turnover and deficiency in job performance (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002), establishing organizational commitment should be a primary goal in itself to retain highly skilled employees. In the literature HRM is mainly treated as an antecedent of HRM-outcomes such as job performance, turnover, satisfaction, and commitment (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Raytonand Swart, 2005), it can also be regarded as an HRM-outcome in itself, since it is a direct result of the implemented HRM facilities aimed at benefiting the organization by increasing employees' willingness to perform and invest in the organization. Assuming that organizations who aim at the retention of highly creative and skilled employees are interested in their employees' well-being to avoid dissatisfaction and disconcertments at work, the perceived HRM practices is a worthwhile topic to investigate.

With that respect, this study points out that effective HRM practices can result in better organizational commitment of its employees and high organizational and individual performance if its flawed design is conducted by proper implementations. Due to this fact and regarding that it is the line managers who implement an organization's HRM policy (Stoker and De Korte, 2000), the relation between implemented HRM practices and employees' commitment and job performance will be investigated. The importance of employees' commitment originates in its positive relation to various other positive employee outcomes such as discretionary behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour (Kinnie et al., 2005), assuming that employees who are satisfied will contribute more to the organization than they are formally required to.

Furthermore, it has been observed that although there are close relationships between HRM, organizational commitment and organizational performance, these are not clear as they are so by definition and these relationships are dependent on some factors and their constructs. Numerous studies have been conducted to explain the causes and effects of employee attitudes and behaviours as well as the HRM functions and organizational performance. When employees react to the way they are treated at work, their attitudes like organizational commitment and job performance to respond cannot be understood adequately without taking into account the notions of HRM. The importance of this study comes from the fact that it is to present and investigate a model that identifies the impact of HRM practices applied in the organization on employees' commitment perceptions and the effects of these practices on both employees' job-related performance and organizational performance in the tourism sector. It is proposed that the quality of HRM practices at work place would have significant impacts on the commitment and performance as mentioned.

In addition, these relationships have not been investigated comparatively between the employees working in the tourism sectors in Turkey and in Iran. In both Iranian and Turkish business literature, there are few research conducted regarding employee perceptions of HRM practices and organisational commitment and employees' performance in tourism sectors. Thus, this study intends to provide a significant contribution to the Turkish and Iranian business worlds, in particular tourism sectors through examining the impacts of human HRM practices such as selection, training

and development, performance appraisal and employee support on organizational commitment and individual organizational and performance. Iran as a big country in the Middle East has many natural, historical and cultural resources. However, like many other developing countries, there are some serious problems and constraints in the tourism sector. Iran is one of the 10 important tourism and ecotourism countries in the world. Increasing incomes, improving life styles and developing welfare in population in recent years led to growth of internal tourism especially religious tourism (Zolfaghari, 2010, p.1). Turkey as being a Muslim country is also an attractive tourism centre located between the Middle East and Europe. Turkish tourism has been one of the leading sectors of Turkish economy since it continuously has a large share in the growth of Turkish economy. It was found meaningful to conduct a research study in Iranian and Turkish tourism contexts because the development and success of this sector mainly depends on the performance of tourism agencies deriving from the employees and professionals working within them. For achieving high performance in this sector, travel agencies should have efficient HRM practices since it has been known that the personnel turnover rate of that sector is usually high. In such a situation, the HRM departments' roles and HRM practices of the organizations become more important. Furthermore, the tourism agency is a type of service organization and this makes them to be dependent on the human behaviours, emotional labour, employee commitment, and employee performance. Thus, the current research model designed for this study aims that the quality of HRM practices that have been designed for interpersonal working relationships would create perceptions about organizational commitment and job performance as an exchange as well as would lead to higher organizational performance and attainment of organizational goals. Besides, what differentiates this study from the previous studies is that the current research study has been conducted within both Turkish and Iranian tourism sectors which have an important role in their economies. Therefore, the significance of this study is to bring an understanding and explanation to an organizational problem significant in tourism sectors in Iran and Turkey. HRM practices, organizational commitment and individual and organizational performance are considered to be important for tourism organizations in order to become more efficient in the sector and the nationwide.

1.3. Problem Statement and Research Questions to be Addressed

Since successful implementation of HRM practices is characterized by communicating a higher vision to employees, developing their capabilities, selecting the right people to the right jobs, training and developing them, providing satisfactory compensations and rewards and changing their attitudes to serve a higher goal, it is feasible that employees being situated in such an organizational setting will ultimately establish high-quality exchange relationships. Due to this assumption, HRM is expected to function as a variable which contributes to individual attitudinal outcome of organizational commitment and higher individual and organizational performance. Moreover, HRM practices, employee's organizational commitment and job performance relationships have become a popular research area among the practitioners. As Redman and Wilkinson (2001) suggested, it is because of the fact that, within the development in the HRM and organization, employees became the priceless assets in the organizations.

As further, Boselie and Wiele van der (2002), Ferratt et.al. (2005), and Köksal (2013) discussed the fact that HRM practices in organizations are critical factors of organizations through their efforts to sustain retention. These studies brought interesting and important empirical support for the HRM practices and intention to leave relationship. But it is important to note that previous researches often did not take the behavioural reactions affecting these relationships into account, as Guest, Michie, Conway and Sheehan (2003) and Morrison (1996) have pointed out.

In sum, the issue to be analysed within this study can be stated as follows:

Research Question 1.

"What are the relationships between HRM practices, Organizational Commitment (OC), Individual Job Performance (IJP) and Organizational Performance (OP)?"

In order to examine the main research question and problem statement of the study, several research questions have been generated as follows:

Research Question 2.

"What is the relationship between HRM practices and Organizational Commitment (OC)?"

Research Question 3.

"What is the relationship between HRM practices and Individual Job Performance (IJP)?"

Research Question 4.

"What is the relationship between HRM practices and Organizational Performance (OP)?"

Research Question 5:

"What is the relationship between Organizational Commitment (OC) and Individual Job Performance (IJP)?"

Research Question 6

"What is the relationship between Organizational Commitment (OC) and Organizational Performance (OP)?"

1.4. The Main Assumptions and Limitations of The Study to be Addressed

Although we are aware of the fact that there are external factors such as economic factors, competition and the role of government on HRM practices of the firms and the employees' behavioural and attitudinal outcomes in Turkey, because of several constraints-such as time limitations, we have decided to keep these external factors outside the coverage of this research.

Although, the sample size in this study meets the requirement for regression analysis, it would be better to have a bigger sample that represents the population better. For this reason, it is crucial to analyse again the conceptual model in this study by enlarging the sample size in order to generalize the results in the larger population context.

Moreover, this research mainly focused on the variables of' "employees' performance and commitment" and "organizational performance". Especially employee job performance and commitment are the variables that act as an effective response and it is hard to claim that it is an objective measure. For this reason, only a cross-sectional analysis is allowed because of data nature, causality cannot be established.

In addition, because this study includes only basic areas and functions of HRM, any research may include more areas, to assess the roles of these practices on employee

and organizational outcomes. It is suggested that incorporating several other HRM practices would widen the scope of the investigation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section of the study includes human resources management, organizational commitment and organizational performance.

2.1. The Human Resources Management in Organizations

The concept of competition in human resources is beginning to expand beyond its traditionally narrow definitions. Instead of being confined to personnel intake strategies, cost minimization and efficiency, HR is playing a role in the contemporary business concepts of production quality, product diversification, creativity and the ability to adapt to changing market conditions. With a new appreciation for how human resources can affect the overall competitiveness of an organization, management is beginning to take a closer look at optimizing their HR performance.

Due to these factors, in this part, different elements of human resources management will be analysed with a literature review. Initially, the historical development of human resources management (HRM) will be examined and the conceptual definitions of HRM will be provided.

2.1.1. The concept and history of human resources management

The concept of "Human Resources" only came about when industry experienced fundamental changes in the 20th century. Employees needed to be educated and given task specific parameters. At that time, the strictly hierarchal structure of firms meant that a worker only understood his job to be what his "superior" specifically asked of him. Additionally, legal regulations were established around minimum wages and working conditions. Personnel function extends his roots far in XIXth century. Historically, personnel departments did not exist in agency organizations. Manager-owners engaged, discharged, formed, developed and rewarded their own

assistants, agents. Personnel departments are firstly in the functional organizations and they carry out in a relevant way a series of services. These services seem a tradition of developed working methods associated to Scientific Management, with the birth of the syndicalism between 1800s and 1900s (Erimiş, 2009, p.7).

Therefore, other factors such as hazardous working conditions and pressure from labour unions also increased the importance of effective management of human resources. Along with the manufacturing efficiencies brought about by industrialization came several shortcomings related to working conditions. These problems included: hazardous tasks, long hours, and unhealthy work environments. The direct cause of employers seeking better HRM programs was not poor working conditions, but rather the protests and pressures generated by workers and organized labour unions. Indeed, labour unions, which had existed as early as 1790 in the United States, became much more powerful during the late 1800s and early 1900s (Ivancevich, 2007). There were two other particularly important contributing factors to the origination of modem HRM during this period. The first was the industrial welfare movement, which represented a shift in the way this managers viewed employees—from nonhuman resources to human beings. This movement resulted in the creation of medical care and educational facilities. The second factor was Frederick W. Taylor's (1856-1915) Scientific Management, a landmark book this outlined management methods for attaining greater productivity from low-level production workers (Ersühel, 2012, p.30).

With the Hawthorne experiments and, more generally, the application of theories in the behavioural sciences to the study of business organizations and the performance of work (Kaufman, 2001) a difference in the understanding of human resources has been occurred. The Hawthorne experiments were important not only for the knowledge they produced butal so for stirring the interest of other behavioural scientists in workplace issues. In the 1940s "human relations" became a very hot subject and a number of academics with a background in social psychology, sociology, and anthropology became interested in studying people and small groups in factories and other work organizations. By the late 1950s the human relations movement had fallen into some disrepute for certain of its overly simplistic. But as human relations diminished, a new field was born that was to have a major impact on both Industrial Relations and Personnel Management (Kaufman, 2002). This new

field was organizational behaviour (OB). The central point made by early researchers in OB, such as Douglas McGregor, was that effective organizational performance requires that organizations be designed and operated in a way that best fits and makes use of the psychosocial needs and properties of the human beings who manage and work in them. McGregor (1960) developed the "Theory X and Theory Y" typology of human work motivation in order to make the case for a managerial style that was less command and control oriented, while Likert (1961) used earlier research of Kurt Lewin on effective leadership styles to make the case for more participative organizations. All of these new people and ideas, while strengthening management thought and practice, also caused the Personnel Management side to evolve a separate, increasingly independent set of research and teaching interests that had a dwindling link to Industrial Relations (Kaufman, 2002).

Human resources management maintains the source of "people factor" in organizations. People factor is a must, basic needs in every business. Human Resource Management (HRM) is the function within an organization this focuses on recruitment of, management of, and providing direction for the people who work in the organization. Human Resource Management is the organizational function this deals with issues related to people such as compensation, hiring, performance management, organization development, safety, wellness, benefits, employee motivation, communication, administration, and training. Human Resource Management is also a strategic and comprehensive approach to managing people and the workplace culture and environment. Effective HRM enables employees to contribute effectively and productively to the overall company direction and the accomplishment of the organization's goals and objectives (Ersühel, 2012, p.28).

The concept of competition in human resources is beginning to expand beyond its traditionally narrow definitions. Instead of being confined to personnel intake strategies, cost minimization and efficiency, HR is playing a role in the contemporary business concepts of production quality, product diversification, creativity and the ability to adapt to changing market conditions. With a new appreciation for how human resources can affect the overall competitiveness of a firm, management is beginning to take a closer look at optimizing their HR performance (Erimiş, 2009, p.9).

When the conceptual definitions of HRM is examined, it is seen that HRM is generally defined as a process of acquiring, training, appraising and compensating employees, and attending to their labour relations, health and safety, fairness concerns (Dessler, 2004). It is also defined as the part of the organization that is concerned with the "people" dimension. In general, HRM can be said to refer to an organization's efforts to instil a corporate culture and work ethic among its employees.

It was indicated that managing human resources for achieving high organizational performance requires careful planning of services to be provided, constant re-evaluation of existing services and monitoring of productivity and efficiency, imaginative and innovative use of people to keep up with advancing technology, and skilful management of people when reallocations of labour resources or reductions in force are indicated (Bean and Laliberty, 1980, p.54). Because HR policy deals with managing people, it involves human behaviour and relationships that are inherently complex, potentially with conflicts and sometimes problematic. It was suggested that managing people has great responsibilities and difficulties and requires a systematic way of HRM practices (Pepper, 2013, p.13).

On the other hand, more contemporary view for HRM has been implicated with strategic human resources management (SHRM) which refers to the comprehensive set of managerial activities and tasks designed to develop and maintain a qualified workforce that contributes to organizational effectiveness as defined by the organization's strategic goals (Bruce and Johnson, 2001, p.2). The strategic management of human resources ensures that qualified, motivated personnel are available to staff the portfolio of business units that will be operated by the organization (Bruce and Johnson, 2001, p.2).

2.1.2. The goals and importance of human resources management

It has been argued that increasing global competition, accelerating technological change, expanding customer expectations and reducing of production life cycles, with the idea that human capital is one of the most critical components of strategic success, induce managers to rethink the way work has usually been organized. In order to turn workers into key elements for building up a competitive advantage, it is realized that people must be managed in a distinctive way.

In a highly competitive environment people and the way they are managed acquire greater importance because many other sources of competitive success are less powerful (Saa-Perez, 2002). Competitive success through people needs changing the way of organising and leading people. This means seeing HR as a source of competitive advantage rather than as merely a cost (Pfeffer, 1994). Organizations adopt appropriate HR practices in order to build up their own resources to sustain their competitive advantage.

In today's global business environment firms must make appropriate human resources investments to acquire and develop employees who possess better skills and capabilities than their competitors (Pfeffer, 1994). Employees have to possess a wide variety of workplace skills and competencies, and they have to be flexible in order to work in today's high performing organizations.

It was stated that the organizational success depends on continually improving performance by reducing costs, enhancing quality, productivity and customer satisfaction, increasing speed to market, and reducing employee-related behaviours, such as turnover and absenteeism (Kurt, 2008). Thus, all aspects of the organization must demonstrate their ability to positively impact performance (Becker and Gerhart, 1996).

HRM approach postulates that investing in and improving the capabilities of employees will increase knowledge, motivation, synergy, and commitment, resulting in a source of sustained competitive advantage for the organization (Harter et al., 2002). Way (2002, p.24) states that "theoretical and empirical HRM research has led to a general consensus that the method used by a firm to manage its workforce can have a positive impact on firm performance".

As we have noted before, in today's organizations, skilful and flexible human capital plays a critical role in the success and survival of the organizations. At this point, HRM practices provided by the organizations are usually perceived as the favourable treatment by the employees and with these practices; employees perceive that the organization cares about them. These would help the organizations to enhance employee retention and affect their understanding about the support of the organization (Köksal, 2013).

Organizations using high performance work practices make a significant investment in their human capital pool so that employees are well trained, skilled, and empowered to conduct their jobs (Becker and Huselid, 1998). Interest in using high performance work practices is increasing because studies show that organizations that implemented such systems show remarkable success. In several studies it has been hypothesized that high performance work organizations are a "win-win" system that do not only benefit employers but also their employees through higher wages and increased job satisfaction (Kurt, 2008).

2.1.3. The functions of human resources management

Regardless of the size of the organization, there are traditional responsibilities that generally fall within the human resources function. Examples of typical responsibilities and functions include recruitment and selection, compensation management, training and organizational development, and employee and labour relations (Dessler, 2004).

There are also some other functions that are included as part of larger human resources departments which can be described as manpower planning and position control, payroll services, wellness and employee assistance programs, career planning and counselling (Geniş, 2010, p.19).

Moreover, Pepper (2013, p.24) has indicated that there are so many HR instruments available to them: hiring policy, induction policy, training policy, employee development policy, pay and rewards policy, job design decisions, and career or promotion policies. It was also added that each area of HR policy were likely to have some impact on the others. This meant that it is unwise to analyse any single policy in isolation from the others. One should instead see it in the context of the whole, which means having a sense of possible 'HR strategies', or groups of policies (Pepper, 2013, p.14).

In the following part of this study, the main practices of HRM in organizations will be briefly defined with implication of their roles and importance.

2.1.3.1. Planning Practices

Human Resource Planning (HRP) has traditionally been used by organizations to ensure that the right person is in the right job at the right time. Under past conditions of relative environmental certainty and stability, HRP focused on the short term and was dictated largely by line management concerns. Increasing environmental instability, demographic shifts, changes in technology, and heightened international competition are changing the need for and the nature of HRP in leading organizations. Planning is increasingly the product of the interaction between line management and planners. In addition, organizations are realizing that in order to adequately address human resource concerns, they must develop long-term as well as short-term solutions. As human resource planners involve themselves in more programmes to serve the needs of the business, and even influence the direction of the business, they face new and increased responsibilities and challenges (Jackson and Schuler, 1990).

A very early definition of HRP was given by Vetter (1967; 1990) who defined HRP as the process by which management determines how the organization should move from its current manpower position to its desired position. According to Vetter's (1967) view, it can be said that through planning, management strives to have the right number and the right kinds of people, at the right places, at the right time, doing things which result in both the organization and the individual receiving maximum long-run benefits.

HRP is a process by which human resources are identified, determined and planned that an organization needs in order to meet both its short term and long term requirements. Bulla and Scoh (1994) defined HRP that "it is the process for ensuring that the human resources requirements of an organization are identified and plans are made for satisfying those requirements". HRP is based on the concept that people are the most important strategic resources of an organization. Generally it is concerned with suitable resources to business needs both in longer term needs and in shorter term needs in terms of both quantity and quality. It also answers two fundamental questions "how many people" and "what kind of people". HRP deals with the bigger issues of the methods of employment and development of people for the purpose of the improvement of effectiveness of an organization (Prashanthi, 2013). Therefore, it can be stated that HRP function plays an important role in strategic HRM.

Contemporary HRP occurs within the broad context of organizational and strategic business planning. It involves forecasting the organization's future human resource needs and planning for how those needs will be met. It includes establishing objectives and then developing and implementing programmes such as staffing, appraising, compensating, and training to ensure that people are available with the appropriate characteristics and skills when and where the organization needs them (Dessler, 2004). It may also involve developing and implementing programmes to improve employee performance or to increase employee satisfaction and involvement in order to boost organizational productivity, quality, or innovation (Mills, 1985). Thus, HRP includes gathering data that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of ongoing programmes and inform planners when revisions in their forecasts and programmes are needed (Jackson and Schuler, 1990).

It is known that, in today's business world, major changes in business, economic, and social environments are creating uncertainties that are forcing organizations to integrate business planning with HRP and to adopt a longer term perspective. Hornby et al. (1980) pointed out that HRP has also traditionally suffered from being concerned merely with numbers of different kinds of staff, while ignoring qualitative aspects. Appropriate planning requires a broader perspective that includes such qualitative issues as relevance of training to health service needs, allocation of tasks and functions, productivity, motivation, etc. (Kolehmainen-Aitken, 1993).

Because a major objective of planning is facilitating an organization's effectiveness, it must be integrated with the organization's short-term and longer term business objectives and plans. Increasingly this is being done in leading organizations, although in the past business needs usually defined personnel needs and HRP which meant that planning became a reactive process. Additionally, it has been noted that human resources is part of the strategic planning process and HRP is an integral part of bussiness planning. The strategic planning process defines the changes protected in the scale and the type of activities carried out by the organization and identifies the core competences the organization needs to achieve its goals (Prashanthi, 2013). Therefore, HRP has critical role in the attainment of organizational strategic goals and effectiveness in long term.

It was claimed that such a planning function requires a specific administrative skills and knowledge of an HR planner with full responsibility for the planning process and

the coordination of the planning team. Besides technical planning skills, the planner needs interpersonal skills that allow him or her to function as a coordinator, facilitator, sponsor and negotiator. It was also noted that an institutional base for personnel management should either be incorporated into the unit's structure, where appropriate, or at the very least, must work very closely with those responsible for HRM (Kolehmainen-Aitken, 1993).

2.1.3.2. Recruitment and selection practices

Recruitment and selection is an important issue within human resource management. In any organization that views the human resource as a major source of competitive advantage, attracting, selecting and retaining the right people to the organisation will be of great importance. It was stated that the key areas of the overall recruitment and selection process were recruitment, testing, and final selection (Pepper, 2013, p.24).

To find and hire appropriate person for the job is totally critical for creating a successful organization (Northwest Territories Municipal and Community Affairs, 2008). Recruitment and selection part of HRM systems is defined with potential severities; the research to develop this element of the system should be carried out carefully. Organizations should be inclusive while employing people; because younger generation have fulfilled with the notion of flexibility.

As one of the most important missions of HRM, in recruitment and selection process, there are a lot of different factors to evaluate the candidates. Surely, every organization has its own values that affect the future of candidate for the organization. Compatibility of candidate with values, expectations, system and structure of organization will have decisive effect for organization's identity and attendance of candidates to these facts in the future.

On the other hand, older employees consider flexible working as an alternative to retirement (CIPD, 2009). This is an example of how comprehensive researches can find important details about the employees. Recruitment and selection are first shaped with the Human Resources planning. This process defines qualifications and quantity of employees necessary for the organizations (Kolehmainen-Aitken, 1993). The process of recruitment and selection of employees is planned with HRM strategies to maximise effectiveness of organisation in the competitive markets. This

process constitutes the main and basic part of the HRM activities, namely, the acquirement, development and reward systems (CIPD, 2010).

In recruitment process, HM authorities should consider the possible compatibility and mismatch of candidates to the current employees' business environment and relations. It is seriously important to make a new employee a natural member of system. There is a need for desire and will of a candidate to realize that; otherwise, during the recruitment phase, wrong choices will probably affect the business relations between employees, managers and board negatively.

Generally, recruitment and selection are the basic work of the HRM managers and specialists. However, more importantly, the decisions of recruiting and selecting employees are mainly made by non-specialists in many organisations (CIP, 2010), which is a problem because defining qualifications is not an easy task to do. As a result, HR managers more often have the role of advising and supporting. As Mullins (2010, p.485) reveals, "If the HRM function is to remain effective, there must be consistently good levels of teamwork, plus ongoing co-operation and consultation between line managers and HR manager". This is definitely the case in recruitment and selection as specialist HR managers or for consultants can be an important data collection of updated knowledge and skills, for example on the important legal dimensions of this area (Mwangi, 2013).

Recruitment and selection means deciding the future of an organization. This is why HM needs qualified and experienced people differentiate useful and unnecessary candidates for future. At the same time, recruitment and selection phases should be including facts to understand level of skill, knowledge, capacity and experience of candidates clearly. In the last years, a lot of institutional organizations began to decide their own and special recruitment and selection phases for creating a permanent and a compatible system with organization's values.

The phases of recruitment and selection of the HRM practices are generally depicted as a planned activity, mainly by the HR planning as defined above. This planning provides specific and connected steps of employee resourcing. Bratton and Gold (2007, p. 239) differentiate the two terms while establishing a clear link between them as follows:

> "Recruitment is a process of procurement of a pool consisting qualified people to employ. Selection, on the other hand, is the process where HR managers choose

applicants from this pool depending upon some basic criteria defined by HRM strategies and the organisation itself".

Recruitment and selection process should be serving the interests and expectations of organization completely. Mostly, personal relationships, educational levels and career information are evaluated sufficient factors to decide about the destiny of a candidate in the organization. However, these facts are not enough for a good and a healthy evaluation about the candidate. Process should be detailed and expository about candidate for the decision making process of human resources management. Foot and Hook (2005, p.63) suggested that these two functions, recruitment and selection, of HRM practices are closely related with each other but each of them requires different strategies and qualifications and different specialists.

2.1.3.3. Training practices

Training intervention in human resources development is very crucial issue in an organization. To an organization, it is regarded as a means to achieve effective human resources development objectives (Saad, Mat and Awadh, 2013). Thus, the most important aim of every training and development programme is to add value to human resource. Any training and development programme that would not add value should be abandoned. Organizations should therefore make training and development of their employees a continuous activity. It was indicated that training and development foster the initiative and creativity of employees, help to increase employee morale, make change in the attitude or the abilities of a person to adapt him or herself to technological or organizational changes.

According to Obisi (2001) training is a process through which skills, talent and knowledge of an employee are enhanced and increased. He argues that training should take place only when the need and objectives for such training have been identified. Thus, training is an important HR function which provides employees to become more effective and productive. It is noted that training is actively and intimately connected with all the personnel and managerial activities. It would be difficult for a new employee to grow on the job and become a manager without adequate training and development. According to Obisi (1996), the concepts of training and development are used interchangeably. However, it can be differentiated from the other. Training is for specific job purpose while development goes beyond

specifics, namely development covers not only those activities which improve job performance, but also those which bring about growth of personality.

According to Mamoria (1995) training is a practical and vital necessity because; it enables employees to develop and rise within the organization and increase their market value, earning power and job security. Mamoria (1995) explained that training helps to mould employees' attitudes and help them to contribute meaningfully to the organization. The organization benefits because of enhanced performance of employees. Thereby, it can be said that a well-trained employee would make a better and economic use of materials and equipment which would go a long way to minimize wastages. Moreover, Obisi (2011) suggested that if organizations train their employees very well, managers and superiors would have confidence to delegate authority to their subordinates but when subordinates are not properly trained, it would be difficult for authority to be delegated to them by their superiors.

With that respect, along with a systematic training programme, employee productivity and performance are expected to increase. The benefits will be to the organization, due to an increase in employee output and productivity, and to the employee, as the increase in output should translate into higher wages and opportunities for career advancement (Brum, 2007). Therefore to sustain this valuable human resource, organizations required to be conscious about the job satisfaction and retention of employees. Consequently, it is not just employee job satisfaction and retention but it has undesirable effects on the organizations. Every organization should have the employees, who are capable to swiftly adjust in continuously fluctuating business environment (Jehanzeb and Bashir, 2013). Today most of the organizations are investing a lot of money on the training and development of employees in order to remain competitive, to achieve high performance and successful part of the organization.

2.1.3.4. Performance appraisal practices

As we have noted previously, the performance of any organization depends on the quality and characteristics of its employees. The employees become a significant factor in any organization since they are the key values of the organization. Organizations simply cannot achieve their goals and objectives without them.

However, it is a fact that any employee for that matter needs something to induce him or to look forward to so that he is motivated to work at the best interest of the organization. This indeed was indicative of the more strategic approach to HRM policies which sought to connect the aims of the organization to the performance of the individual. The organization's key aims, goals and objectives become an embedded part of the process in the performance management and communicated through the performance appraisal process (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005).

A formal employee performance appraisal is regarded as one of the tools of human resources performance management. As we have told in previous sections, employees, their knowledge and skills are currently considered to be the most valuable resource an organization has. The people, their knowledge and skills are considered to be the most valuable resource an organization has, therefore it is necessary not only to reward and develop them (Banfield and Kay, 2008), but also to evaluate them, since employee performance appraisal together with reward system represent an important part of employee performance management (Kondrasuk, 2011; Lussier and Hendon 2012; Snell and Bohlander 2012).

A systematic employee performance appraisal is an evaluation process through which managers evaluate, compare and provide feedback on employee performance and manage human resources in an organization (Spence and Keeping, 2011). Performance appraisal has been defined as the process by which superiors evaluate the performance of subordinates, typically on an annual or semi-annual basis for the purpose of determining raises, promotions, or training needs (Grote, 2011). Daoanis (2012, p.55) described the performance appraisal as "a more limited approach which involves managers making top-down assessment and rating the performance of their subordinates at an annual performance appraisal meeting".

Appraisal efficiency is determined by selected appraisal criteria, selected appraiser(s), selected appraisal methods and the quality of their application (Venclova, Salkova and Kolackova, 2013). There are a number of alternative performance appraisal methods, each with their own strengths and weaknesses that make them more appropriate for use in some situations than in others (Dessler, 2004). Some of the most commonly used performance appraisal methods include the judgmental approach, the absolute standards approach, and the results-oriented approach. Ideally, performance appraisal should be completely accurate and

objective (Lunenburg, 2012). Furthermore, it is assumed that superiors accurately appraise their subordinates' performance leading to unbiased and objective judgments.

Daoanis (2012) have indicated that performance appraisal is a vital tool to measure the frameworks set by any organization to its employees. It is utilized to track individual contribution and performance against organizational goals and to identify individual strengths and opportunities for future improvements and assessed whether organizational goals are achieved or serves as basis for the company's future planning and development. The reason for appraising performance is employees to perform at their best so that the organization can reach its mission and goals, rewarding employees relative to these efforts and contributions reinforces their behaviours in a manner that increases the likelihood that they will achieve their own personal as well as organizational goals (Chukwuba, 2009).

Consequently, employee performance appraisal is valuable for the organization, the manager as well as for the employee evaluated. Performance appraisal functions may include the monitoring of employees, the communication of organisational values and objectives to workers, the evaluation of hiring and training strategies, and the validation of other HRM practices (Moriones, Sanchez and Morentin, 2011). Thus, performance appraisal is the systematic observation and evaluation of employees' performance. Moreover, according to the literature implications, it can be suggested that performance evaluation is key factor in improving the quality of work input, inspires staffs make them more committed (Shaout and Yousif, 2014). Performance evaluation also introduces a foundation for upgrades and increments in the development of an organization and employee succession plans. Performance appraisal system varies according to the nature of the work and designation within an organization. Accordingly, organizational performance and its resultant efficiency and effectiveness can only be achieved when individuals are continuously appraised and evaluated. It is suggested that when the organizations install and conduct an effective performance appraisal strategy, they can become achieving competitive advantage and high performance.

2.1.3.5. Compensation management and rewarding practices

Compensation is a key element of the employment relationship and, in addition to being the single greatest operating cost for many organizations; it has been advocated by some recently as a tool for enhancing organizational performance and sustained competitiveness. Contemporary approaches to compensation emphasize the importance of aligning employee behaviours to the strategic direction of the organization (Trevor, 2008). Unlike traditional forms of remuneration, strategic compensation is not purely a cost of hiring the necessary labour as before; nor is it determined in most parts of the private sector by collective bargaining. Instead compensation is positioned within prescriptive literature as a means of aligning a company's unique and inimitable asset—their employees—to the strategic direction of the organisation and, in doing, securing competitive advantage and promoting shareholder value (Trevor, 2008).

Compensation as a concept, according to Bernadin (2007), refers to all forms of financial returns and tangible benefits that employee receives as part of employment relationship. Compensation as it were is divided into two parts and these are cash compensation which is the direct pay provided by employer for work performed by the employee and fringe compensation which refers to employee benefit programmes. Cash compensation has two elements which include base pay and pay contingent. Base pay has to do with hourly or weekly wages plus overtime pay, shift differential and uniform allowance while pay contingent is concerned with performance allowances such as merit increases, incentive pay bonuses and gain sharing. Fringe compensation, on the other hand, refers to employee benefits programmes. Fringe compensation also has two parts to it which are legally required benefit programmes and discretional benefits (Odunlade, 2012).

Legally required benefit programmes include social security, workers compensation while discretional programmes include health benefits, pension plans, paid time off, tuition reimbursement, recognition award, foreign service premiums, responsibility allowance, child care, on campus accommodation, promotion, annual increment and a host of others (Cascio, 2003; Dessler, 2004; Bernadin,2007). Benefits, in a nutshell are the indirect financial and non-financial payments employees receive for continuing their employment with an organization.

Rewards serve to address individual needs or motives in order to motivate individuals to meet the organization's needs. The first step is to consider the needs or motives of individuals. The basic motivators are listed as follows (Weiss, 2010):

- Praise, recognition, and respect,
- Controlling own destiny by making decisions related to work and having control over their careers,
- Knowing how they are doing,
- Feeling that they are contributing to something worthwhile,
- Desiring to be challenged and to grow professionally.

Individuals are motivated to perform at a high level if the reward for doing so is attractive (i.e., meets their needs), if they believe they can achieve the specified goals, and if they believe that performance will lead to the desired rewards. Finally, people have to believe that compensation and rewards are linked to performance. Therefore, the organization must make the link between performance and rewards visible.

Lawler (1990, p.15) indicated that "the starting point for any compensation system design process needs to be the strategic agenda of the organisation". Once aligned with this agenda, compensation becomes a powerful means through which firms may attract and retain desired talent, and elicit desired behaviour outcomes in the form of employee motivation, commitment and loyalty, all of which are conducive to positive organisational performance. With a particular focus on performance, strategic compensation incorporates considerable scope for 'at risk' compensation, with employees' compensation potentially being contingent upon one, or a combination of, company performance, team/division performance and individual performance.

It was also argued that compensation can be linked to business structure and to employee recruitment, retention, motivation, performance, feedback and satisfaction. It is typically among the first things potential employees consider. For employees, compensation signifies not so much how they are paid, but how they are valued (Fogleman and McCorkle, 2013).Cascio (2003) stated that because of the importance that compensation holds for people's lifestyle and self-esteem, individuals are very concerned about what they are paid a fair and competitive wage, while organizations

are also concerned about what they pay because it motivates important decisions of employees about taking a job, leaving a job and on the job performance. Various studies have established that salaries and benefits are closely related to job satisfaction (Lifer, 1994); and job satisfaction can bring about motivation which in turn affects employee job performance and organizational commitment (Odunlade, 2012). Therefore, the concept of employee compensation and rewards are vital for employee performance and commitment to the job and the organization.

2.1.3.6. Career management and industrial relations practices

HRM in organizations includes many practices that are concerned with the management of careers. Strategic HRM emerged in the 1980s as an attempt to associate HRM with the strategy and direction of organizations (Ghoshaland Bartlett, 1997). The contemporary understanding of HRM regarded careers as a system within the organization, and relating them to strategy and HR practice (Baruch and Peiperl, 2000).

Career planning process involves both individual and organization responsibility. In the contemporary business environment, highly competitive, we find that career management responsibility rests increasingly on the individuals. Organizations also play an important role; its need to have and maintain a competent staff, considered as the main source for obtaining competitive advantage, most advanced companies develop and apply an integrated management career system, beneficial both for themselves and for their employees (Antoniu, 2010, p.13)."Organizational Career Management" (OCM) has been concerned with the organization carrying out activities relevant to the career development of its employees. This is distinct from career management as practiced by individuals, consultants, or job centres, for example, although it is not mutually exclusive with, but rather may complement them. The importance and prominence of OCM has been recognized by many scholars (Baruch and Peiperl, 2000).

In HRM, career planning aims to identify needs, aspirations and opportunities for individuals' career and the implementation ofdeveloping human resources programs to support that career. It has been indicated that career planning is a continuous process of discovery inwhich an individual slow develops his own occupational concept as a result of skills or abilities, needs, motivations and aspirations of his own

value system (Manolescu, 2003). Career planningis seen as a very systematic and comprehensive process of targeting careerdevelopment and implementation of strategies, self-assessment and analysis ofopportunities and evaluation of results. Thus, the individuals must identify their aspirations and abilities, and through assessment and counselling to understand their needs of training and development; the organization needs to identify its needs and opportunities, to plan its employees and to ensure its staff the necessary information and appropriate training for career development (Antoniu, 2010). Neveanu (2003) suggested that career planning must link individual needs and aspirations with organizational needs and opportunities, evaluating, advising and informing its staff on career planning, individual development efforts with training and development programmes.

The reduced number of jobs available within organizations and restrict managerial levels have led to changes in the traditional route to an organizational career development. The traditional career path involved an upward mobility, giving to the employees the certainty of awell-defined promote pathways. Currently, the emphasis is on job rotation, multiple skills development and sideways promotion. Designing and implementing a career planning system is useful to the organizations for identifying the employees' development needs and matching them to the business needs (Antoniu, 2010).

Consequently, it has been argued that the career planning system contribute to increased employees professional satisfaction because it helps them to identify and take positions consistent with their objectives and plans. From the perspective of the organization, career planning system reduces the needed time to fill the vacancies, help succession planning (e.g., preparing employees for filling positions that became vacant following staff turnover or retirement), identify employees with management potential and ensure to all employees the opportunity to identify career goals and develop plans to achieve them. Therefore, from the organization perspective, the failure to motivate the employeesbyplanning their careers can lead to hinder the process of filling vacant posts, a decreaseof the staff involvement and an inappropriate use of the money allocated to trainingand development programmes. From the employees' perspective, the lack of careerplanning can lead to frustration, feelings of not being appreciated by the organizationandnon-identifying the right position leads to the need of a job change and/or the organization.

2.1.4.Factors influencing human resources management

Internal and external environmental influences play a major role in HRM. Organizational climate and culture, work organization and management style help to shape HR policies and practices, which, in turn, have an impact on the quality of candidates that a firm can attract, as well as its ability to retain desired workforce (Jackson and Schuler, 1995, p.1). The economic environment labour market conditions and unions play a role in determining the quality and variety of employees that can be attracted and retained. There are external challenges that are dramatically changing the environment of HRM. These challenges include demographic trends and increasing workforce diversity, trends in technology, increasing government involvement in the employer-employee relationship, globalization, and changes in nature of jobs and work.

Many aspects affect the implementation of HRM practices including: cultural, economic, legal, gender and many other aspects. In this regard, Budhwar and Baruch (2003) examined the developments of certain HR practices in developing economies, their findings were associated with certain organizational and cultural characteristics; in this regard, OinasPaivi and Van Gils (2001) attempted to identify the contextual resources that can build up human resource competencies. These include elements in the external and internal environment, such as organizational size, ownership of these organizations, other corporations, networks, industries, sectors, regions, and nations (Al-Jabari, 2012, p.594).

Thereby, in this part of the study, we will briefly describe the basic internal and external influences that are having the most significant impact on HRM. Firstly, the internal factors and then the external factors will be described.

2.1.4.1. Internal Factors

In the internal environment the factors that have the most direct impact on role of HR in an organization, includes organizational culture, organizational climate, work organization, management style, staff/management relations, budget process, delegation, job description and job protection (Rosman, Shah, Hussain and Hussain, 2013, p.87). Organizational culture consists of the core values, beliefs and assumption that are widely shared by members of an organization. It serves a variety of purposes including communicating what the organization "believe in" and "stand

for", providing employees with a sense of direction and expected behaviour, shaping employee's attitudes about themselves, the organization and their role. Culture is often conveyed through an organization's mission statement, as well as through stories, myths, symbols, and ceremonies. Being aware of an organization's culture at all levels is important because the culture defines appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. In some cultures, for example, creativity is stressed. In others, the status quo is valued. The accessibility of management and the ways in which decisions are made are reflections of an organization's culture as well (Pedersen and Sudzina, 2012). Having a positive culture earns critical acclaim, and has a positive impact on both retention and recruitment (Buller, 1998, p.28) . Organizational climate, defined as the way in which organizational members perceive and characterize their environment in an attitudinal and value-based manner. Organizations have personalities, just like people. They can be friendly or unfriendly, open or secretive, rigid or flexible, innovative or stagnant. The major factors influencing the climate are management's leadership style, HR policies and practices, and amount and style of communication. The type of climate that exists is generally reflected in the level of employee motivation, job satisfaction, performance and productivity, and thus has a direct impact on the role of HR department in an organization (Danison, 1996, p.620). The positive organisational climate has a direct and positive impact on employees and organisation's performance (Abbas, 2012, p.46) . Within the internal environment management style especially towards employees is another factor affecting HR role in an organization. Effective management style provides leadership that uploads the values of and creates commitment to organization, builds the capacity for improved productivity and creates an environment that brings out the best in the staff and recognizes the value of multiculturalism. Staff-management relation serves a critical role in development and maintenance of trust and positive feelings in an organization. To establish good staff-management relation is another challenge for HR in an organization (Rosman et al., 2013, p.87).

Delegate or delegation of authority is one of the vital organizational process in organizational management. Delegation means; "assigning of certain responsibilities along with the necessary authority by a superior to subordinate managers" (Robbins, 1990, p.82). Therefore, delegation of authority can be seen as an interpersonal relationship (Onaran, 1974, p.2).

According to Dawson (1995, p.258), "Delegation takes place when manager gives another the right to perform the job on behalf of his/her name. The delegated staff required to accepts this duty or obligation to perform the job." Wells (1993, p.12), describes the delagation as a assigning operational and management duties or responsibilities to subordinates. In this defination, Wells emphasize that delegation of authority was not a distribution of basic-level or routione tasks. Also, according to Koçel, (2003, p.145), describes delegation of authority as an opposite meaning of making decision.

Delegation is not "a process of abdication or resignation from the job". The manager who delegates of authority does not stand-off himself or herself from the responsibility and the authority which is entrusted to him/her. The delegator (manager or authority owner) remains accountable for the overall performance and fort the subordinates' performances related to the authority delegation. Delegation is needed when the volume of work to be done by authority owner is in excess of an individual's physical and mental capacity. (Elma and Demir, 2003, p.183).

Delegation is quite common management features in all aspects of life including organizational management.

Delegation involves the following three basic elements (Weiss, 1993, p.34):

- Assignment of responsibilities to subordinates,
- Enable the subordinates to perform the responsibilities which are assigned from the authority
- Creation of an obligation for the subordinate to perform the responsibilities in an orderly mode or discipline.

Another internal factor is job description. According to Merriam-Webster, job description definition is "an orderly record of the essential activities involved in the performance of a task that is abstracted from a job analysis and used in classifying and evaluating jobs and in the selection and placement of employees" (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/job%20description, Access date: 10/05/2016).

Also job description is a written document that is produced as the result of a job analysis. It contains information that identifies the job, its essential functions, and the

job specifications or competencies that enable an individual to be successful in the position (Messmer, Bogardus, Isbell, 2008, p.53).

A job description is a summary statement of a job's important duties, responsibilities, working conditions, job specifications derived from the job analysis process (Grant, 1997, p.9).

It should demonstrate what the organization expects the person doing the job or what kinds of duties and responsibilities the employee is assigned. However, it does not involve rules, procedures, work objectives or desired abilities, personal attributes (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, 2001, p.71).

An article by Philip C. Grant argues that job description is not an efficient tool for managing human resources. As asserted by the article, job descriptions have some missing parts for operative employees in terms of planning, communication, control responsibilities, decision-making responsibilities, self-management obligations and temporary or unplanned assignments (Grant, 1997, p.9-10).

According to OECD (1999), job protection can be defined as refers both to regulations concerning hiring (e.g. rules favoring disadvantaged groups, conditions for using temporary or fixed-term contracts, training requirements) and firing like redundancy procedures, mandated prenotification periods and severance payments, special requirements for collective dismissals and short-time work schemes. (OECD Employment Outlook, 1999, p.51).

Worker rights have been becoming more important day by day all around the world. Its significance is increasing. People attach importance to it. Especially in western countries, organizations have to fulfil job protection and safety for employees. People who really need money do not care too much, because the only thing they need is money for surviving. However, governments are trying to implement job protection for every single sector. In organizational commitment practices, job protection plays a key role. Many industries are not easy sectors for working (Yaşarsoy, 2014, p.32).

Policy makers in organizations may design different types of job protection for different job and position in organizations. The position of employees or manager in an organizational hierarchy can affect their identification of job protection.

According to Nikolaou, Theodossiou and Vasileiou (2002) focuses on the influence of job protection. The result indicates that the effect of job protection is significant for both males and females for all seven European Experience countries targeted in the study (Nikolaou, Theodossiou and Vasileiou, 2002, p.11).

On the other hand, Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and König (2010) investigated the effects of job protection and three other faces. They expected that job protection has a negative impact. The result has confirmed their expectation. Based on empirical studies and theoretical points of view, job protection has negative effects on employees (Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and König, 2010, p.77-81).

Also, according to Sun (2008), "job protection is an important motivation influence in his case study in China". This element is also about Maslow's Need Hierarchy. As it is known, the second step of this theory is safety. Before that, physiological needs stage leads to this philosophy (Sun, 2008, p.15).

2.1.4.2. External factors

The external environmental factors that have direct or indirect impact on the role of HR department in an organization includes economic environment, labour market condition, trade unions, demographic trends and workforce diversity, technology and legal regulations. To be effective, HR managers must monitor the environment on an ongoing basis; assess the impact of any factor and be proactive in implementing policies and programs to deal with such factors (Tiwari and Saxena, 2012). The economic environment has a major impact on business in general and the management of human resources in particular. Economic conditions affect supply and demand for products and services, which, in turn, have a dramatic impact on the labour force by affecting the number and types of employees required, as well as an employer's ability to pay wages and provide benefits. When the economy is healthy, companies often hire more workers as demand for products and services increases. Consequently, unemployment rates fall, there is more competition for qualified employees, and training and retention strategies increase in importance . The labour market is the geographic area from which an organization recruits employees and where individuals seek employment (Dessler, 2004). The labour market is often different for various employee groups within an organization. While clerical and technical employees are generally recruited locally, the labour market for senior

managers and highly specialized employees is often national or even international in scope. Many factors motivate candidates to seek employment with a particular organization, including type of business/industry, reputation, opportunities for advancement, compensation, job security, working condition, location , climate and other aspects of firm's physical surroundings can help or hinder a firm's ability to attract and retain employees (Rosman et al., 2013, p.87). The labour market affects role of HR, because, the labour market is not controlled or influenced by any one factor, it is unstructured and often unpredictable.

As it is suggested by Dessler (2004, p.15), the economic environment has a major impact on business in general and the management of human resources in particular. Economic conditions affect supply and demand for products and services, which, in turn, have a dramatic impact on the labour force by affecting the number and types of employees required, as well as an employer's ability to pay wages and provide benefits. When the economy is healthy, companies often hire more workers as demand for products and services increases. Consequently, unemployment rates fall, there is more competition for qualified employees, and training and retention strategies increase in importance. Conversely, during a downturn, some firms reduce pay and benefits in order to retain workers. Other employers are forced to downsize, by offering attractive early retirement and early leave programs or by laying off and terminating employees. Unemployment rates rise, and employers are often overwhelmed with applicants when vacancies are advertised (Dessler, 2014, p.15).

2.1.5. Strategic human resources management

As we have mentioned in previous parts of the current study, the human resource management function has consistently faced a big change in justifying its position in organizations. The advent of the subfield of strategic human resource management (SHRM), devoted to exploring HR's role in supporting business strategy, provided one opportunity for demonstrating its value to the firm. The birth of the field of strategic human resource management can be dated back to 1984, when Devanna, Fombrun and Tichy extensively explored the link between business strategy and human resources (As Cited in Çalışkan, 2010, p.105).

HRM discipline has witnessed a great deal of change over the past 25 years. These changes represent two major transformations. The first is the transformation from

being the field of personnel management to being the field of human resource management. The second is the transformation from being the field of human resource management to being the field ofstrategic human resource management (Schuler and Jackson, 2007). The first transformation incorporated helped the recognition that people are an important asset in organizations and can be managed systematically. The second transformation has built on the preceeding knowledge base of the discipline. This tranformation is based upon the recognition that, in addition to coordinating human resource policies and practices with each other, they need to be linked with the needs of the organization. Given that these needs are reflected in the strategies of the firm, this transformation of "human resource management" came to be known as "strategic human resource management".

Strategic human resource management is based upon the recognition that organizations can be more effective if their human resources are managed with human resource policies and practices that deliver the right number of people with the appropriate behaviours, the needed competencies and the necessary level of motivation to the organization. Specifically, strategic human resource management is "the creation of linkage or integration between the overall strategic aims of business and the human resource strategy and implementation. In principle, the processes and people within the company are managed in such a way as to foster the aims of the business strategy and create an integrated approach to managing the various human resource functions, such as selection, training and reward so that they complement each other" (Çalışkan, 2010, p.106).

Strategic human resource management may bring a number of benefits to the organization (Brewster et al., 2000, p.56):

-Contributing to the goal accomplishment and the survival of the organization,

-Supporting and successfully implementing business strategies of the organization,

-Creating and maintaining a competitive advantage for the organization,

-Improving the responsiveness and innovation potential of the organization,

-Increasing the number of feasible strategic options available to the organization,

-Participating in strategic planning and influencing the strategic direction of the organization as an equally entitled member of top management,

-Improving cooperation between the HRM department and line managers.

The extant literature studies have stated that SHRM has great roles in organizational effectiveness, through the development of internally consistent bundles of human resource strategies which are properly linked to business strategies (Dyer and Reeves, 1995; Dessler, 2004; Kurt, 2008; Cania, 2014). As we have mentioned previously, human resources are regarded as one of the most important sources of today's firms. Strategic human resources management is more important than other competitive sources because these people use other assets in organization, create competitiveness and realize objectives (Cania, 2014, p.373). Thus firstly, organizations must understand the expectations of their workforce in order to achieve the desired performance. The realization of the expectations of employees will enable the desired behavior of employees in the organization. Some of the desired outcomes of the organization in managing their workforce are: competence, cooperation of employees with managers, cooperation of employees between them, showing the capabilities of employees; motivation, commitment and satisfaction; attitude and presence; employee behaviors.

2.2. Organizational Commitment

In this part of the study, the dependent variable which is named as organizational commitment will be defined conceptually and the importance of the concept for the individuals and organizations will be told. Moreover, in this part, the different arguments and conceptualization related with organizational commitment construct will be examined throughout the previous literature studies. Finally, this part will provide knowledge about the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment with the implications of previous empirical findings.

2.2.1. The definition and importance of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is a multifaceted construct and terms like allegiance, loyalty and attachment should be considered in its context as well (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment represents an employee's orientation toward the organization in terms of his or her loyalty to, identification with and involvement in

the organization (Robbins and Decenzo, 2004). Committed employees identify with and agree to pursue the company's mission (Dessler, 2004). Committed employees ensure that the products or services which are involved with are of a high quality can respond to changes in customer demands, contain innovative features and will have no negative impact on the wider community as well (Newell, 1995). Commitment means that workers will share the leader's viewpoint and willingly fulfil instructions Commitment is hold as resource for organizations, contributing for to foster the organizational effectiveness and efficiency. The overall success is high as much as commitment level is high (Ofenloch and Madukanya, 2007). Employee commitment and involvement are vital for companies to compete in today's speedily changingworld.

The first model was developed by Angle and Perry (1981) that consists of two dimensions; value commitment and commitment to stay. The former one refers to the support of the organization's value and the latter refers to being loyal as an organizational membership. Mayer and Schoorman (1992) proposed another model which includes two dimensions; continuance commitment and value commitment.

Buchanan (1974, p.533) described organizational commitment as "an affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth". Although there are many and varied definitions of commitment, they appear to reflect at least three general themes (Porter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian, 1974):

- acceptance of and attachment to organizational goals and values

- to make voluntary effort to work for the organization

- to have a strong willing to remain member of the organization

Furthermore, Nijhof, de Jong and Beukhof (1998) define commitment as "a sense of loyalty to and identification with the organization, the work and the group to which one belongs" (p. 243). This definition not only includes individual characteristics of commitment (sense of loyalty or degree of effort to work tasks) but also, what is termed organizational commitment, which refers to an acceptance of organizational values and willingness to stay (Gallie and White, 1993). The sense of loyalty and identification one feels towards the organization is expressed in the "motivation to bring effort into one's work, the motivation to take responsibility, and willingness to

learn" (Nijhof et al., 1998, p. 243). A precondition to this motivation response is that the employee is well informed and is involved in the decision-making process (Nijhof et al., 1998). All of these definitions are primarily concerned with the experience of the employee and how that experience affects their desire to stay within the organization. In this sense, the complete definition that Mowday et al. (1982) derived to explain organizational commitment is still considered to be one of the most conclusive definitions and it appears to be the most widely cited within the literature.

2.2.2. The conceptualization of organizational commitment

There are various models developed for studying organizational commitment. The Meyer and Allen model is the recent one and the most improved one as considering the contemporary organizational world. Previously there were two more models were developed some of them are namely, O'Reilly and Chatman Organizational Commitment Schemes and Attitude–Behavior Model of Eagly and Chaiken.

Moreover, the organizational commitment model, developed by Steers (1977), is based on the Organizational Commitment Theory (Porter et al. 1974). The organizational commitment is currently the most widely used theory for measuring organizational commitment (Morrow, 1993). In this model, organizational commitment is an attitude that reflects the individual's relative strength of identification with and involvement in a particular organization. More specifically, organizational commitment is defined by three related dimensions:

• A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values;

• A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization;

• A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al. 1979, p. 226).

According to that approach, organizational commitment stresses that individuals will be committed as long as they develop a sufficiently positive attitude towards the organization or its goals (Mowdayet al.1979).

Mowday et al (1979) argued that organizational commitment model consists of three major parts: antecedents, organizational commitment and outcomes of commitment. Antecedents, which draw heavily on previous research, are grouped into three main

categories: work experiences, personal characteristics and job characteristics. Work experiences are identified as group attitudes, organizational characteristics and dependability, and personal importance. Measures of personal characteristics include age, education, tenure and the need for achievement. Job characteristics consist of task identity, feedback and optional interaction.

Wiener argued that the pattern of behaviour resulting from commitment should possess the following characteristics: (1) it should reflect personal sacrifices made for the sake of the organization; (2) it should show persistence - that is, the behaviours should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcements or punishment, and (3) it should indicate a personal preoccupation with the organization, such as devoting a great deal of personal time to organization-related actions and thoughts. In this sense, organizational commitment is viewed as (1) willingness of an individual to identify with and the desire not to leave an organization for selfish interest or marginal gains; (2) willingness to work selflessly and contribute to the effectiveness of an organization; (3) willingness to make personal sacrifice, perform beyond normal expectations and to endure difficult times with an organization-- low propensity to "bail-out" in difficult times (4) acceptance of organization's values and goals -- the internalization factor. This study adopted the organizational commitment behaviour-related approach.

On the other side, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed a different approach to conceptualization of organizational commitment. They adapted Kelman's (1958) processes of attitude change to specify three bases of psychological attachment to the organization: (1) compliance; (2) internalization; and (3) identification

"Compliance "can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence because he hopes to achieve a favourable reaction from another person or group. He adopts the induced behaviour not because he believes in its content but because he expects to gain specific rewards or approval and avoid specific punishments or disapproval by conforming. Thus the satisfaction derived from compliance is due to the social effect of accepting influence (Kelman, 1958). Compliance (or exchange) occurs when attitudes and behaviours are adopted not because of shared beliefs but simply to gain specific rewards (instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards). In this case, public and private attitudes may differ (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). In other words, compliance portrays acceptance of organizational goals and influence not

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because of a personal belief in the organization, but rather due to a desire to gain rewards and avoid punishment (Vandenberg et al., 1994).

"Identification" can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or a group. This relationship may take the form of classical identification, in which the individual takes over the role of the other, or it may take the form of a reciprocal role relationship. The individual actually believes in the responses which he adopts through identification, but their specific content is more or less irrelevant. He adopts the induced behaviour because it is associated with the desired relationship. Thus the satisfaction derived from identification is due to the act of conforming as such (Kelman, 1958). Identification occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship; that is, an individual may feel proud to be a part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without adopting them as his or her own (involvement based on a desire for affiliation) (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Internalization embodies acceptance of organizational influence and goal attachment through a perceived congruence between individuals' personal values and the values exemplified by the organization (Vandenberg et al., 1994).

"Internalization" can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence because the content of the induced behaviour—the ideas and actions of which it is composed—is intrinsically rewarding. He adopts the induced behaviour because it is congruent with his value system. He may consider it useful for the solution of a problem or find it congenial to his needs. Behaviour adopted in this fashion tends to be integrated with the individual's existing values. Thus the satisfaction derived from internalization is due to the contentof the new behaviour (Kelman, 1958). Internalization occurs when influence is accepted because the induced attitudes and behaviour are congruent with one's own values; that is, the values of the individual and the group or organization are the same (involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values) (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Identification is acceptance of influence and goal attachment to maintain satisfying relationships with organizational members (Vandenberg et al., 1994).

Furthermore, Meyer (1996) defined organizational commitment as "psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that

the employee will voluntarily leave the organization". These researchers focused on the reason of the employees to stay in the organization. Therefore, they proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment; affective, normative and continuance commitment. These are called affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991) which can be seen in the below Figure 1.
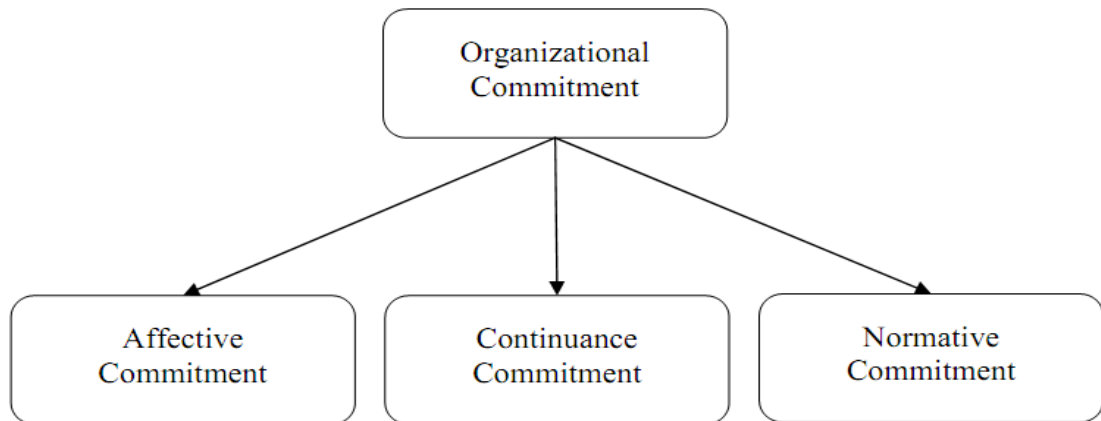
Figure 2.1. Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

The affective, continuance, and normative commitment should be considered as components, of commitment rather than types of it. If they would be types of commitment it would imply that the psychological states characterizing the three forms of commitment are mutually exclusive. To the contrary, an employee can experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Common to all of the three types of commitment is the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implication for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with an organization because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they have to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). However, Allen and Meyer (1990) foundthat these three classifications of commitment are conceptually and empirically separable. Even though there appears

to be some overlap between affective and normative commitment, both were found to be relatively independent of continuance commitment. Therefore, they can be measured separately.

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2.2.2.1. Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Affective organizational commitment was found to be related to a wide variety of correlates. The literature (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Morrow, 1993) suggested that affective commitment is related to both demographic characteristics and work experience. Affective commitment was also found to be positively related to performance (Meyre, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson, 1989). The literature also indicated positive spill over between variables representing no work domains and affective commitment (Kirchmeyer, 1992).

Affective commitment is based more on perceptions of similar values and goals, and it occurs when an individual identifies with and is involved in a particular organization. It is the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, belongingness, and it describes the employees' emotional bond or attachment to an organization (Jaros, Jermier, Koehierand Sincich, 1993).

2.2.2.2. Continuous commitment

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This dimension reflects a relationship that is largely based on an exchange

between the employee and the organization; members develop commitment to the organization. Because they see it as beneficial regarding costs and rewards (Randall and O'Driscoll, 1997). Employees whose commitment is continuance stay because they need to; they feel they have no other choice. Continuance commitment presumably develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investments or "side bets" that could be lost if they were to leave the organization or as they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited (Meyer and Allen, 1993). This approach is developed from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, in which individuals engage in consistent lines of activity because they recognize the costs associated with discontinuing the activity.

2.2.2.3. Normative commitment

Normative commitmentreflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Allen and Meyer (1997) suggested that normative commitment could be developed on the basis of the "psychological contract" between an employee and the organization. Psychological contracts consist of the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligation. Unlike more formal contracts, psychological contracts are subjective and therefore, might be viewed somewhat differently by the two parties. Psychological contracts are also subject to change over time as one or both parties perceive obligations to have been fulfilled or violated (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Thus, for example, it might be that an employee who initially responds to an organizational investment with feelings of indebtedness will later re-evaluate these feelings if it is determined that the organization has violated some other aspects of the psychological contract. Finally, psychological contracts can take different forms, the most widely recognized of which are transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1989). Transactional contract tend to be somewhat more objective and based on principles of economic exchanges, whereas relational contracts are more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Of the two forms, relational contracts seem more relevant to normative commitment; in contrast, transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1995).

Thus, normative commitment refers to an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Thus, employees with strong normative commitment will remain with an organization by virtue of their belief that is the "right and moral thing to do" (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Wiener, 1982).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991) normative commitment refers to a perceived obligation to remain with the organization. These individuals stay with the organization because they feel they should. Normative commitment develops as a result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer (Wiener, 1982) or through the receipt of benefits (e.g. tuition payments and skill training) that create within the employee a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Scholl, 1981).

2.2.3. The antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment

The literature indicates that there are various antecedents that contribute to organizational commitment of the employees in the organizations. These antecedents are having been usually examined in terms of individual and organizational antecedents (Chughtai and Zafar, 2006). Some studies have indicated contextual factors, job-related factors, personal factors and environmental factors that have impacted organizational commitment. For example, Mowday et al (1982) have suggested four broad categories of issues that affect commitment: personal characteristics, role-related characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experiences. These characteristics are embodied in the organizational commitment definition described by Mowday (1982). Morris et al. (1993) argued that personal characteristics do not bear significant relevance in determining commitment compared with the other attributes that affect commitment. In view of this contention, it can be argued that many issues can be more adequately explained through personal characteristics (i.e. age and education). For example, it is suggested that younger employees are more committed than older employees because they are highly motivated to start a career and are able to cope with change, whereas older employees are less committed because they are often disappointed and frustrated when structural instability due to change occurs (Morris et al., 1993). Robbins (1996 as Cited in Şahin, 2012, p.33) discussed role-related characteristics in terms of job characteristics, which refer to skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy

and feedback. If a job contains these elements they are referred to as high involvement jobs. "The high involvement approach relies on employee self-management and participative management styles, where employees are at all levels are given authority to influence decisions considering their own work" (Nijhof et al., 1998, p. 244).

The consequences of commitment are also examined with categories of individual and organizational consequences. Organizational commitment levels are linked to the individual positive attitudes. Individual creativity and development were also among the results of commitment. In addition, low levels of the individual organization for his commitment to explore alternative business opportunities (Arı, 2011, p.30). In this case, the use of human resources can provide more effective. The organization can benefit from the time of spontaneous and informal, this communication system is, it could cost more to overcome the problems could be shared (Balay, 2000, p.110).

The high level of commitment to individual success in the profession and provided free of charge, such as satisfaction, loyalty, also maintains a high degree of organization against outside pressures (Arı, 2011, p.30). Employee response to the loyalty of the organization by delegating authority to him and reward him by bringing the top positions. Showing a high level of commitment in ensuring the continuity of individuals and organizations have important roles in the balance. They do not leave their job voluntarily and also do not neglect the organization's non-legitimate rules. In addition, the high degree of commitment leads to excessive integration of individual with the group and the loss of identity within the group. When these individuals attempt to be more active in the group in order to close personnel deficiencies, live in tension in their family relationships. Because of large portion of their time gave their organizations they could not construct a balance between work and home life. In parallel they could not develop sufficient (Balay, 2000, p.108).

2.3. Organizational and Individual Performance

In this part, other dependent variables of the study which are organizational and individual performance will be examined briefly. Initially, the brief definitions of

organizational performance and its significance will be told. Then the definition of individual performance and it significance will be presented.

Mary (1996 as Cited in Dobre, 2013, p.2) explained organizational effectiveness as the extent to which an organization fulfills its objectives, by using certain resources and without placing strain on its members. The goal model defines organizational effectiveness referring to the extent to which an organization attains its objectives (Zammuto, 1982), while the system resource model defines it in terms of the bargaining power of the organization and its ability to exploit the environment when acquiring valuable resources (Yuchtman, 1987).

Conceptually, organizational performance has been defined as the comparison of the value produced by a company with the value owners expected to receive from the company (Alchian and Demsetz 1972 as Cited in Cania, 2014, p.375). Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986) indicate that a narrow definition of performance focus on the use of simple outcome-based financial indicators that are assumed to reflect the fulfilment of the economic goals of the firm.

Another way, the concept of performance has been expressed by Brumbrach (1988) as follows: performance means both behaviours and results. Behaviours emanate from the performer and transform performance from abstraction to action. Not just the instruments for results, behaviours are also outcomes in their own right – the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks – and can be judged apart from results. This definition of performance leads to the conclusion that when managing performance both inputs (behaviour) and outputs (results) need to be considered. It is not a question of simply considering the achievement of targets, as used to happen in 'management by objectives' schemes. Competency factors need to be included in the process (Armstrong, 2006).

Organizational performance of an organization endorses a process perspective where the focus is on the internal process of quantifying the effectiveness and the efficiency of action with a set of metrics (Neely, Gregory and Platts, 2005). The measures and indicators act as surrogates or proxies for organizational phenomena (Henri, 2003). Performance measurement represents management and control systems that produce information to be shared with internal and external users. Furthermore, as it encompasses all aspects of the business management cycle, this model constitutes a

process for developing and deploying performance direction (Nanni, Dixon and Vollmann 1992). The performance measurement models evolved from a cybernetic view whereby performance measurement was based mainly on financial measures and considered a component of the planning and control cycle to a holistic view based on multiple nonfinancial measures where performance measurement acts as an independent process integrated in a broader set of activities. Performance measurement is traditionally viewed as an element of the planning and control cycle that captures performance data, enables control feedback, influences work behavior (Flamholtz, Das and Tsui 1985) and monitors strategy implementation (Simons 1990). It is mainly underpinned by a financial perspective (Johnson and Kaplan 1987). In a holistic view, performance measurement plays a key role in the development of strategic plans and evaluating the achievement of organizational objectives) as well as acting as a signalling and learning device (Henri, 2003).

Campbell's (1999) theory defines performance as behaviour or action relevant to the attainment of an organization's goals that can be scaled, that is, measured. Moreover, job performance is defined as what one is paid to do, or what one should be paid to do. The theory states that the measurement options, be they ratings from a supervisor, peer, or self, a simulated work sample, or hard criteria (e.g. tallying revenue generated, costs saved, customer complaints, or some variant of a computerized performance assessment) besides being valid, reliable, and not deficient should be free of contamination from sources of variation that are not under the control of the individual (e.g. differences in technology impacting a person's performance) (Cania, 2014, p.375).

The overall goal of performance management is to create a culture as high performance in which individuals and teams to take responsibility for the continuous improvement of business processes and their skills and contribute in achieving the targets set by managers. In particular, management performance can be expressed as the approximation of individual objectives of employees with organizational objectives provided that employees support the culture of the organization. It provides for expectations to be defined and agreed in terms of role responsibilities and accountabilities (expected to do), skills (expected to have) and behaviors (expected to be)(Armstrong, 2006).

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2.4. Theoretical Framework: The Relationship of HRM Practices with Organizational and Individual Performance and Organizational Commitment

The previous literature has indicated that HRM practices have significant impacts on positive individual and organizational outcomes. Organizational performance and effectiveness and individual job performance have been linked to successful implementation of HRM practices in the organizations. Additionally, positive employee attitudes such as loyalty, identification, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were also associated with HRM practices' effectiveness.

In order to create and sustain competitive advantage in this type of environment, organizations must continually improve their business performance. Increasingly, organizations are recognising the potential of their human resources as a source of sustained competitive advantage. Linked to this, more and more organisations are relying on measurement approaches, such as workforce scorecards, in order to gain insight into how the human resources in their organisation add value. The increasing interest in measurement is further stimulated by a growing number of studies that show a positive relationship between human resource management and organizational performance (Voorde, Van De, Paauwe and Veldhoven, 2010, p.45). The relationship between HRM and firm performance has been a hotly debated topic over the last two decades with various scientific researches. Both organizations and academics are striving to prove that HRM has a positive impact on bottom line productivity (Çalışkan, 2010, p.113). The published research generally reports positive statistical relationships between the greater adoption of HR practices and business performance.

The literature reveals that studies into the HRM performance have not determined a specific and precise meaning for the organizational performance construct. Some studies have used subjective measures to evaluate firms' performance, such as employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, executives' perceptions about the company's performance, absenteeism, employee commitment, and other behaviour aspects. Other studies reference various objective measures for evaluating firms' performance, such as financial and market indicators. As a result, there is no common theory concerning organizational performance, and researchers utilize different indicators or variables to measure this construct. For this reason, there is

also a call for a precise theory of organizational performance (Janssens and Steyaert, 2009) and HRM researchers and professionals might give crucial and special consideration to filling such a gap (Guest, 2011)

Huselid (1995) found that productivity is influenced by employee motivation;financial performance isinfluenced by employeeskills, motivation andorganizational structures. Patterson et al. (1997) examined the linkbetween business performanceand organization culture and theuse of a number of HR practices.HR practices explainedsignificant variations inprofitability andproductivity (19% and 18%respectively). Two HRpractices were particularlysignificant: (1) theacquisition anddevelopment of employeeskills and (2) job designincluding flexibility,responsibility, variety andthe use of formal teams.

Purcell et al. (2003) conducted a research study of 12companies to establish howpeople management impacts onorganizational performance.The most successfulcompanies had what theresearchers called 'the bigidea'. The companies had aclear vision and a set ofintegrated values whichwere embedded, enduring,and collective, measured andmanaged. Clear evidenceexisted between positiveattitudes towards HRpolicies and practices,levels of satisfaction,motivation andcommitment, andoperational performance.

The assumption underpinning the practice of HRM is that people arethe organization's key resource and organizational performance largelydepends on them. If, therefore, an appropriate range of HR policies andprocesses is developed and implemented effectively, then HR will make asubstantial impact on firm performance. Although there are various stakeholdersin an organization, the chief strategic goal of any business is higher financial performance or maximization of wealth for the shareholders (Paul and Anantharaman, 2003, p.1248). Financial performance of an organization depends to a large extent on effective operational performance. The operational performance of an organization is a function of people, process and technology. For effective interaction ofpeople with technology and process, the people in the organization have tobe competent enough, with the required knowledge, skill and abilities.Competence of the individual is an important factor that decides operationaleffectiveness in terms of providing quality products and services within ashort time. HRM practices such as selection, training, work

environment and performance appraisal may enhance the competence of employees for higher performance.

Commitment is one of the factors of HRM policy for an effective organization. Many major reviews of commitment theory and research are available (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991, Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1997) compiled a list of definitions and analysed the similarities and differences. Moreover, commitment is one of the original 4-Cs (Commitment, Congruence, Competence, Cost effectiveness) in the influential Harvard model of HRM (Beer et al., 1984). It is regarded as an immediate and, perhaps, the most critical outcome of human resource strategy. In this model, employees' commitment is seen as the key factor in achieving competitive performance. For Hendry (1995) commitment 'implies an enhancement of the individual and his or her skills, and not simply what this can deliver to the organization'.

Shahnawaz and Juyal (2007, p.171) conducted a research study aimed at assessing how much of commitment in the two industries can be attributed to HRM practices. HRM practices were found significantly different in two organizations and mean scores on various HRM practices were found more in the fashion organization. Regression result showed that various HRM practices were significantly predicting organizational commitment in two organizations and also when they were combined. Performance appraisal and 'attitudes towards HRM department' were the significant predictors of organizational commitment in the both the organizations.

Obviously, human resources rarely has a direct effect on firm performance. This is particularly true when the business logic of HR's effect requires that human resources drive firm performance through its contribution to effective strategy execution. HR professionals (and linemanagers) need to recognize that effective strategy execution is the basis ofshareholder value and that effective strategy execution is a system ofintermediate outcomes. Thinking like a strategy manager means recognizingthe importance of the causal relationships between HR decisions and these intermediate outcomes that ultimately drive strategic success in organizations (Huselid and Becker, 2005, p.281). The practice areas covered by HR strategies that impacton performance are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1.
The HRM Practices that Impact on Performance

HRM Practice Area	How it Impacts
Attracting, developing and retaining high-quality people	Matches people to the strategic and operational needs of the organization. Provides for the acquisition, development and retention of talented employees who can deliver superior performance, productivity, flexibility, innovation and high levels of personal customer service and who 'fit' the culture and the strategic requirements of the organization.
Talent management	Wins 'war for talent' by ensuring that the talented and well-motivated people required by the organization to meet present and future needs are available.
Working environment – core values, leadership, work– life balance, managing diversity, secure employment	Develops 'the big idea', ie a clear vision and a set of integrated values. Makes the organization 'a great place to work'.
Job and work design	Provides individuals with stimulating and interesting work and gives them the autonomy and flexibility to perform their jobs well. Enhances job satisfaction and flexibility, which encourages high performance and productivity
HRM Practice Area	**How it Impacts**
Learning and development	Enlarges the skill base and develops the levels of competence required in the workforce. Encourages discretionary learning, which happens when individuals actively seek to acquire the knowledge and skills that promote the organization's objectives. Develops a climate of learning – a growth medium in which self-managed learning as well as coaching, mentoring and training flourish.
Managing knowledge and intellectual capital	Focuses on both organizational and individual learning and on providing learning opportunities and opportunities to share knowledge in a systematic way. Ensures that vital stocks of knowledge are retained and deals with improving the flow of knowledge, information and learning within the organization.
Increasing motivation, commitment and role engagement	Encourages people to identify themselves with and act upon the core values of the organization and willingly to contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. Develops a climate of cooperation and trust, clarifying the psychological contract.

High-performance Management	Develops a performance culture that encourages high performance in such areas as productivity, quality, levels of customer service, growth, profits and, ultimately, the delivery of increased shareholder value. Empowers employees to exhibit the discretionary behaviours most closely associated with higher business performance such as risk taking, innovation, knowledge sharing and establishing trust between managers and subordinates.
Reward management	Develops motivation, commitment, job engagement and discretionary behaviour by valuing and rewarding people in accordance with their contribution.

Source: Michael Armstrong (2006). Strategic Human Resource Management: A Guide toAction. Kogan Page. London. p. 77-78.

CHAPTER III

PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

According to the previous studies, it is recognized that researches have linked several individual perceptions in the studies related to HRM practices such as individual performance, organizational identification, organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, commitment, etc. and some organizational outcomes such as organizational effectiveness and performance. Therefore, it is suggested that in order to understand how organizational and individual performance and organizational commitmentare enhanced, it is important to look at what factors influence these individual and organizational outcomes within a specific group of organizations in tourism sector.

Accordingly, the proposed research model of this study can be presented on a model with the below Figure 3.1.
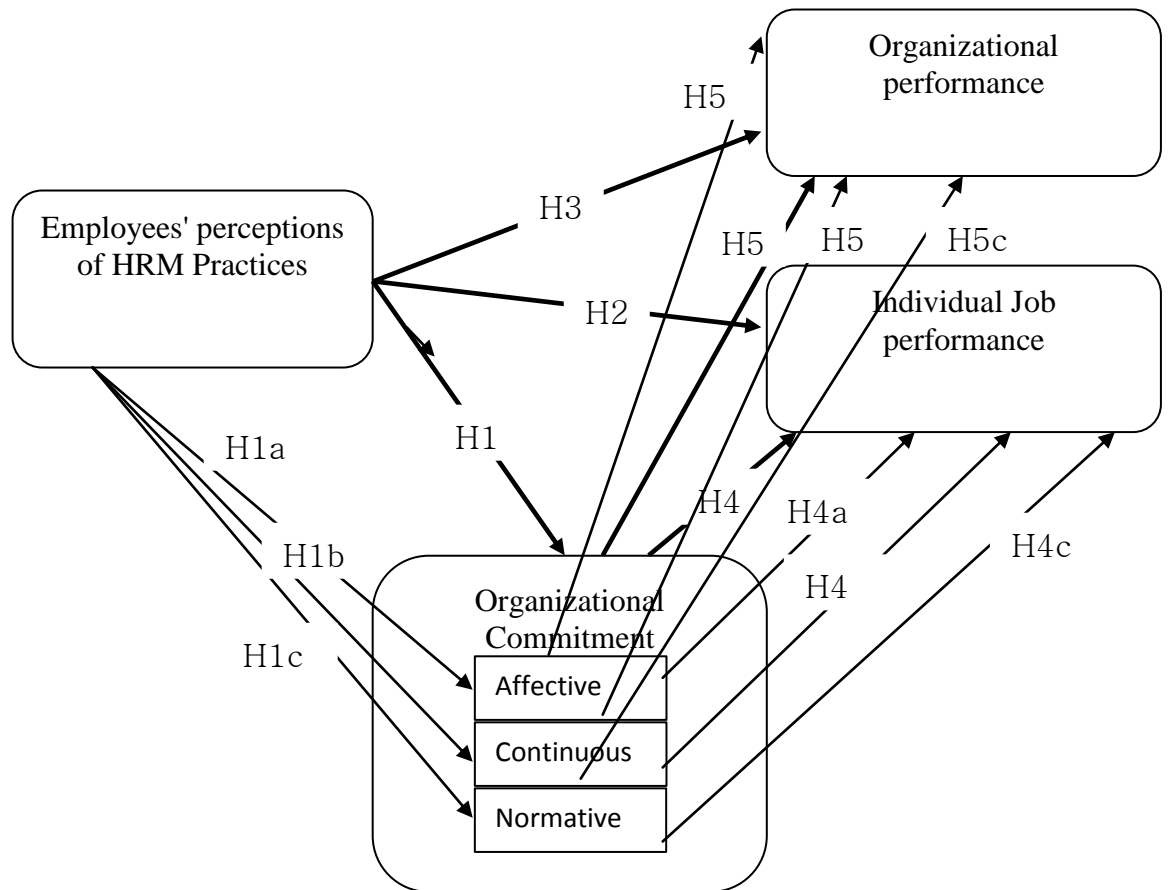
Figure 3.1. Overview of The Research Model of The Study

In accordance with the objectives of the study, it is tried to find answers for the following research question:

Research Question 1: Do HRM practices in the organization have significant relationship with organizational performance and individual outcomes of job performance and organizational commitment?

Suggested Hypotheses

H1: HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Commitment (OC).

H1a: HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Affective Commitment (AC)

H1b:HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Continuous Commitment (CC)

H1c:HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Normative Commitment (NC)

H2: HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with IndividualJobPerformance (IJP).

H3: HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance (OP).

H4: Organizational Commitment (OC) will have significant positive relationship with IndividualJobPerformance (IJP).

H4a: Affective Commitment (AC) will have significant positive relationship with Individual Job Performance (IJP).

H4b:Continuous Commitment (CC) will have significant positive relationship with Individual Job Performance (IJP).

H4c:Normative Commitment (NC) will have significant positive relationship with Individual Job Performance (IJP).

H5: Organizational Commitment will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance (OP).

H5a:Affective Commitment (AC) will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance (OP).

H5b:Continuous Commitment (CC) will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance (OP).

H5c:Normative Commitment (NC) will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance (OP).

At this point, in this study a conceptual framework is developed after reviewing the literature on HRM practices in organizations, organizational commitment and individual and organizational performance. The model was developed in order to examine the hypothesized relationship between the independent and dependent

variables of concern. This hypothesized relation will be tested on data collected from the participants of the survey.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1.Research Aim and Approach

The aim of this study is to understand the impact of human resources practiceson the achievement of organizational performance, individual performance and organizational commitment. This study is based on two major sources of research. Firstly, it is conducted through the collection and analysis of data through questionnaires in tourism agencies in Iran and Turkey. Secondly, it makes reference to various publications highlighting empirical findings that have been made in this area.

4.1.2 Model of the study

This research is designed as "review model". Review models are the research approaches aiming at depicting a situation which existed or still existing as it is. The event, individual or object subject to the research are tried to be defined as they are within their own conditions. There is no struggle to change or affect them (Karasar, 2009,pp.77).

As we have mentioned before, the sample of the research consisted the employees working in tourism agencies in Iran and Turkey. The survey was conducted through personal interviews and via email communication. During the survey, 1000 questionnaires were delivered however, at the end of the survey, totally 700 questionnaires could be collected out of 1000 questionnaires. Therefore, the response rate for the survey was calculated as 70%. Among the fulfilled questionnaires, 350 were from Turkish sample group and 350 were from Iranian sample group.

4.1.3.Data collecting tools

4.1.3.1 Organization commitment scale

To calculate the reliability of 18 items in the "*Organization Commitment*" scale, "Cronbach Alpha", the coefficient of internal consistence, is calculated. The general reliability of the scale was found high as alpha=0.823. To put forward the construct validity of the scale, explanatory (exploratory) factor analysis method is used. As the result of the Barlett test, (p=0.000<0.05) it is detected that there is a relation between the variables taken to the factor analysis. As the result of the test, (KMO=0.717>0,60) sample size is enough for the application of factor analysis. For factor analysis, varimax method is chosen to stabilize the structure of the relation between the factors. As the result of the factor analysis, the variables are gathered under 3 factors whose total explained variance is 52,338%. According to alpha found related with the reliability and explained variance value, it is understood that the "*Organization Commitment*" scale is a valid and reliable tool. The factor structure formed regarding the scale is shown below (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1.
Organization Commitment Scale Factor Structure

Size	Item	Factor Load	Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Affective Commitment	ac17	0,848	21,325	0,776
	ac20	0,814		
	ac19	0,812		
	ac16	0,793		
	ac15	0,596		
	ac18	0,567		
Continuance Commitment	cc24	0,714	16,854	0,782
	cc23	0,652		
	cc21	0,633		
	cc22	0,614		
	cc25	0,543		
	cc26	0,523		
Normative Commitment	nc27	0,817	14,159	0,739
	nc30	0,610		
	nc31	0,594		
	nc28	0,567		
	nc32	0,521		
	nc29	0,503		
Total Variance: 52,338%				

The reliability of 6 items forming the *Affective Commitment* factor is found as α=0,776. After factor analysis, the variance rate is found as 21,33%.

The reliability of 6 items forming the *Continuance Commitment* factor is found as α=0,782. After factor analysis, the variance rate is found as 16,85%.

The reliability of 6 items forming the *Normative Commitment* factor is found as α=0,739. After factor analysis, the variance rate is found as 14,16%.

4.1.3.2.Performance scale

To calculate the reliability of 16 items in the "*Performances*" scale, "Cronbach Alpha", the coefficient of internal consistence, is calculated. The general reliability of the scale was found too high as alpha=0.953. To put forward the construct validity of the scale, explanatory (exploratory) factor analysis method is used. As the result of the Barlett test, (p=0.000<0.05) it is detected that there is a relation between the variables taken to the factor analysis. As the result of the test, (KMO=0.859>0,60) sample size is enough for the application of factor analysis. For factor analysis, varimax method is chosen to stabilize the structure of the relation between the factors. As the result of the factor analysis, the variables are gathered under 2 factors whose total explained variance is 58,89%. According to alpha found related with the reliability and explained variance value, it is understood that the "*Performance*" scale is a valid and reliable tool. The factor structure formed regarding the scale is shown below (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2.
Performance Scale Factor Structure

Size	Item	Factor Load	Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Organizational Performance	kp33	0,845	32,254	0,929
	kp39	0,817		
	kp37	0,795		
	kp36	0,780		
	kp40	0,779		
	kp38	0,727		
	kp34	0,711		
	kp35	0,689		
Individual Performance	ip44	0,905	26,638	0,905
	ip45	0,806		
	ip48	0,772		
	ip42	0,752		
	ip46	0,706		

ip47	0,669
ip43	0,644
ip41	0,612

Total Variance: 58,892%

The reliability of 8 items forming the *Organizational Performance* factor is found as α=0,929. After factor analysis, the variance rate is found as 32,25%.

The reliability of 8 items forming the *Individual Performance* factor is found as α=0,905. After factor analysis, the variance rate is found as 26,64%.

The evaluation criteria to evaluate the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (Özdamar, 2004);

If $0,00 \leq \alpha < 0,40$ the scale is not reliable.

If $0,40 \leq \alpha < 0,60$ the scale's reliability is low.

If $0,60 \leq \alpha < 0,80$ the scale is very reliable.

If $0,80 \leq \alpha < 1,00$ the scale is highly reliable.

For the Likert scale used in the research, the attendants were asked to list their views regarding statements from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". According to this, a scale of; (5) strongly agree, (4) agree, (3) uncertain, (2) disagree, (1) strongly disagree, was used. The results of the scale were distributed to the range of 5.00-1.00=4.00 score. This range was divided into five and the break score levels are determined. Below criteria were considered while evaluating the scale statements (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3.
Criteria for the Evaluation of the Scale Means

Options	Score	Score range	Scale evaluation
Strongly disagree	1	1,00 - 1,79	Very low
	2	1,80 - 2,59	Low
	3	2,60 - 3,39	Medium
	4	3,40 - 4,19	High
Strongly agree	5	4,20 - 5,00	Very high

4.1.4.Statistical analysis of the data

The data gathered in the research are analysed by using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 21.0 program. While evaluating the data, definitive statistical methods (i.e., Number, percent, average, standard variation) were used.

To compare the quantitative data, for the difference between two groups, T-test was used and for the inter-group comparison of the parameters for more than two groups, one way Anova test was used. For the test of the group creating the difference, Tukey Post Hoc was used.

The relationship between the dependent and independent variables of the research was tested by Pearson correlation, and the effect was tested by regression. The correlation relations between the scales are evaluated upon underwritten criteria (Kalaycı, 2006, pp.116);

Table 4.4.
Criteria for the Evaluation of the Scale Correlation Coefficients

R	Relation
0,00-0,25	Very Weak
0,26-0,49	Weak
0,50-0,69	Medium
0,70-0,89	High
0,90-1,00	Very High

The findings are evaluated in 95% confidence interval and 5% significance level.

In this chapter of the study, data analysis results will be presented. Firstly, the descriptive statistics and the frequencies of the demographic data and the scales of the research will be evaluated. After the evaluation of the sample descriptive results, the mean scores of the scales will be descibed and displayed with tables. Then, the factor analysis and reliability analysis results of each of the scales will be presented. For testing the generated hypothesis of the study, correlation analysis will be done and the results of the analysis will be evaluated. Following the correlation analysis, regression analysis will be performed and the finding of the tests will be discussed.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Tourism Sector Workers' Distribution According to The Countries They Work

Table 5.1.
Tourism Sector Workers' Distribution According to The Countries They Work

		Iran		Turkey	
		n	**%**	**n**	**%**
Gender	Female	106	%44,2	85	%42,5
	Male	134	%55,8	115	%57,5
Age	20-25 Age	100	%41,7	76	%38,0
	26-35 Age	89	%37,1	79	%39,5
	36 Age and above	51	%21,2	45	%22,5
Marital status	Married	114	%47,5	98	%49,0
	Single	126	%52,5	102	%51,0
Education	High school graduate	97	%40,4	88	%44,0
	Two-year degree graduate	55	%22,9	34	%17,0
	Bachelor's degree	58	%24,2	60	%30,0
	Postgraduate	30	%12,5	18	%9,0
Position in the work	Upper-tier	20	%8,3	16	%8,0

		Medium Level	49	%20,4	40	%20,0
		Lower level	25	%10,4	27	%13,5
		Worker	146	%60,8	117	%58,5
The time of working in the Tourism sector		0-1 years	69	%28,7	55	%27,5
		1-5 years	60	%25,0	53	%26,5
		5-10 years	78	%32,5	62	%31,0
		11 and more	33	%13,8	30	%15,0
Average Monthly Income		400-2000 TL	171	%71,2	144	%72,0
		More than 2000 TL	69	%28,7	56	%28,0

Table 5.1 illustrates that 106 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%44,2) are female and 134 (%55,8) are male; 85 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%42,5) are female and 115 (%57,5) are male.

100 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%41,7) are between 20-25 Age, 89 of them (%37,1) are between 26-35 Age, 51 of them (%21,2) are 36 Age and above; 76 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%38,0) are between 20-25 Age, 79 of them (%39,5) are between 26-35 Age, 45 of them (%22,5) are 36 Age and above.

114 of tourism sector workers working in (%47,5) are married, 126' of them (%52,5) single; 98 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%49,0) are married, 102' of them (%51,0) are single.

97 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%40,4) are High school graduate, 55 of them (%22,9) are Two-year degree graduate, 58 of them (%24,2) have Bachelor's degree, 30 of them (%12,5) are Postgraduate; 88 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%44,0) are High school graduate, 34 of them (%17,0) are Two-year degree graduate, 60 of them (%30,0) have Bachelor's degree, 18 of them (%9,0) are Postgraduates.

20 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%8,3) are Upper-tier, 49 of them (%20,4) are medium Level, 25 of them (%10,4) are Lower level, 146' of them (%60,8) are Workers; 16 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%8,0) are Upper-tier, 40 of them (%20,0) are medium Level, 27' of them (%13,5) are Lower level, 117' of them (%58,5) are Workers.

69 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%28,7) are working between 0-1 years, 60 of them (%25,0) are working between 1-5 years, 78 of them (%32,5) are working between 5-10 years, 33 of them (%13,8) are working more than 11 years; 55 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%27,5) are working between 0-1

years, 53 of them (%26,5) are working between 1-5 years, 62' of them (%31,0) are working between 5-10 years, 30 of them (%15,0) are working more than 11 years in the tourism sector.

171 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%71,2) earn 400-2000 TL, 69 of them (%28,7) earn more than 2000 TL; 144 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%72,0) earn 400-2000 TL, 56' of them (%28,0) earn more than 2000 TL in terms of Average Monthly income.

5.2 Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment, Human Resources Practices and Performance Level Averages

When tourism sector workers' Organization Commitment (OC) level averages are evaluated, "affective commitment" (AC) level average is found as medium ($3,299 \pm 0,827$); "continuance commitment" (CC)level average as medium ($2,816 \pm 0,814$); "normative commitment" (NC) level average as medium ($2,933 \pm 0,660$); and "general organization commitment" level average as medium ($3,016 \pm 0,596$) (Table 5.3 and Figure 5.1).

Table 5.2.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages

|	N	Average	Sv	Min.	Max.
Affective Commitment	440	3,299	0,827	1,670	5,000
Continuance Commitment	440	2,816	0,814	1,170	5,000
Normative Commitment	440	2,933	0,660	1,330	4,500
General Organization Commitment	440	3,016	0,596	1,830	4,280
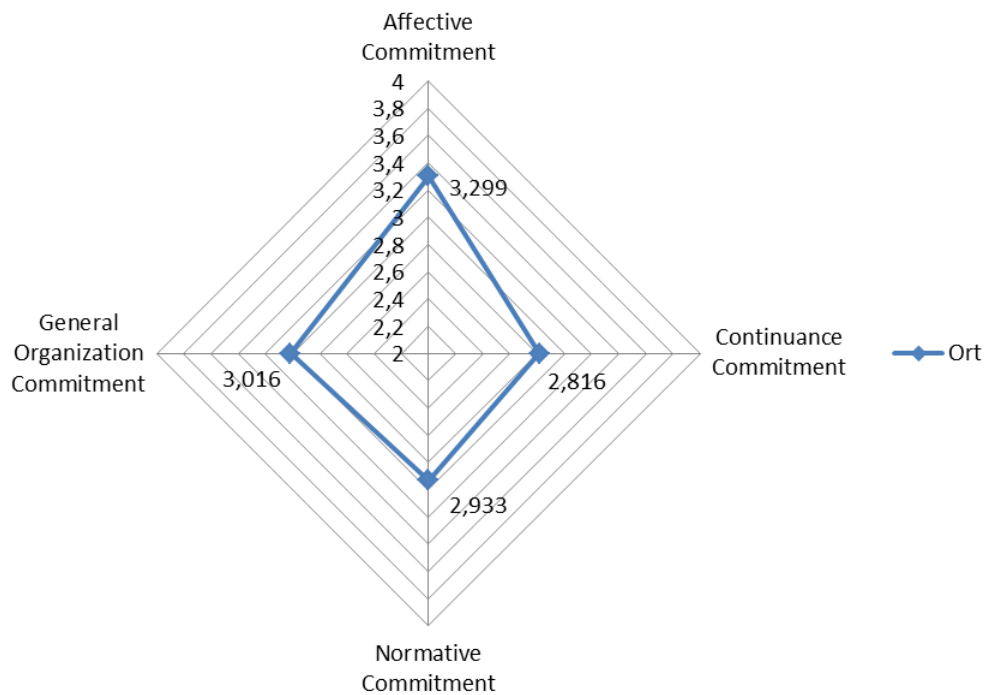
Figure 5.1. Organization Commitment Level Averages of the Tourism Sector Workers

When human resource practice averages of tourism sector Workers are evaluated, "recruitment and selection " level average is found as medium (3,207 ± 1,248); "training" level average is medium (3,136 ± 1,105); "payment and reward " level average is medium (3,058 ± 0,812); "salary and wage " level average is medium (2,827 ± 1,191); "team working " level average is high (3,420 ± 0,937); "job description " level average is high (3,402 ± 1,099); "delegation " level average is medium (3,194 ± 0,830); "protection" level average is high (3,833 ± 0,950); "career management" level average is medium (2,959 ± 1,224); "HRM" level average is medium (3,283 ± 0,693) Table 5.3 and Figure 5.2).

Table 3.3.
Human Resources Practice Averages of TheTourism Sector Workers

	N	Average	Sv	Min.	Max.
Recruitment And Selection	440	3,207	1,248	1,000	5,000
Training	440	3,136	1,105	1,000	5,000
Payment And Reward	440	3,058	0,812	1,500	4,500
Salary And Wage	440	2,827	1,191	1,000	5,000
Team working	440	3,420	0,937	1,000	5,000
Job Description	440	3,402	1,099	1,000	5,000
Delegation	440	3,194	0,830	1,000	4,500
Protection	440	3,833	0,950	1,000	5,000

|					
Career Management	440	2,959	1,224	1,000	5,000
HRM	440	3,283	0,693	1,570	4,640
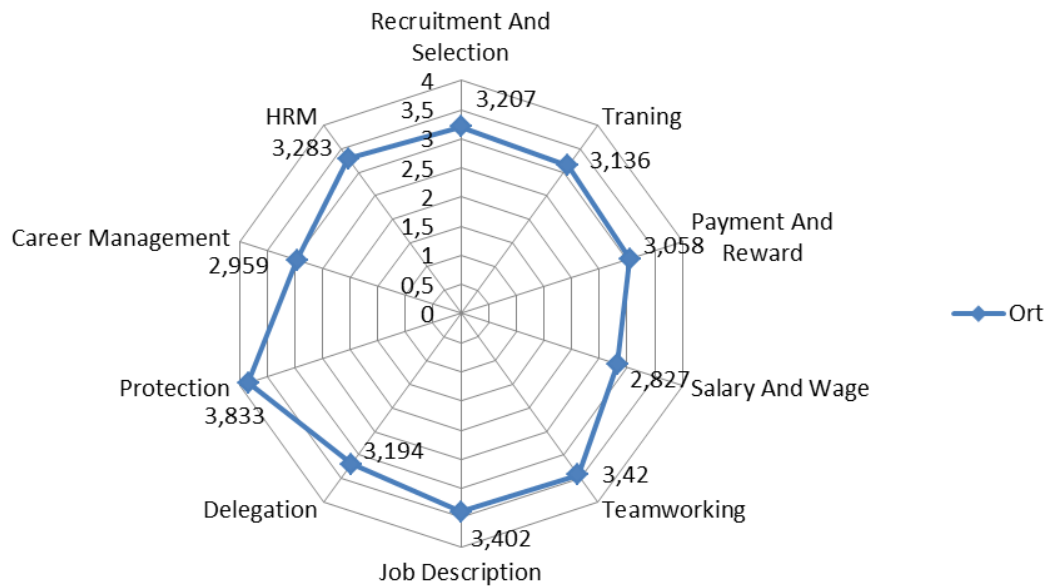
Figure 5.2. Tourism Sector Workers' Human Resources Practice Averages

When performance level averages of tourism sector Workers are evaluated, "organizational performance" (OP) level average is medium (3,317 ± 0,946); "individual performance" (IP) level average is medium (3,344 ± 0,796); "general performance" level average is medium (3,330 ± 0,839) (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3).

Table 5.4.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages

|	N	Average	Sv	Min.	Max.
Organizational Performance	440	3,317	0,946	1,000	5,000
Individual Performance	440	3,344	0,796	1,000	5,000
General Performance	440	3,330	0,839	1,000	5,000
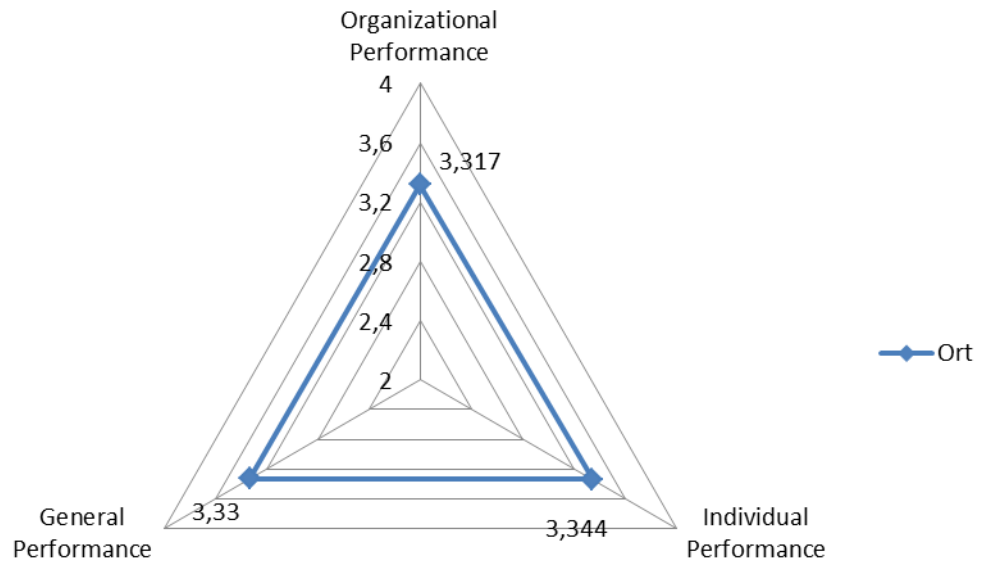
Figure 5.3. Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages

5.3 Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Levels Averages according to demographic qualifications

To define if countries make a significant difference in affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is not found significant statistically (p>0,05) (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Levels Averages According to Countries They Work in

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	P
Affective Commitment	Iran	240	3,283	0,825	-	0,667
	Turkey	200	3,318	0,830	0,431	
Continuance Commitment	Iran	240	2,842	0,824	0,727	0,468
	Turkey	200	2,785	0,803		
Normative Commitment	Iran	240	2,945	0,682	0,437	0,662
	Turkey	200	2,918	0,634		
General Organization Commitment	Iran	240	3,023	0,602	0,292	0,770
	Turkey	200	3,007	0,590		

To define if genders make a significant difference in affective commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (t=2.645; p=0.008<0,05). Female tourism workers' affective commitment score (x=3,417), are found higher than male tourism workers' affective commitment score (x=3,208) (Table 5.6).

To define if genders make a significant difference in continuance commitment, normative commitment, general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is not found significant statistically (p>0,05).

Table 5.6.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to Gender

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	p
Affective Commitment	Female	191	3,417	0,838	2,645	**0,008**
	Male	249	3,208	0,808		
Continuance Commitment	Female	191	2,883	0,874	1,518	0,130
	Male	249	2,764	0,762		
Normative Commitment	Female	191	2,926	0,648	-	0,851
	Male	249	2,938	0,670	0,188	
General Organization Commitment	Female	191	3,075	0,650	1,840	0,073
	Male	249	2,970	0,549		

To define if age makes a significant difference in AC, NC, general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (F=20,135; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. AC score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (3,313 ± 0,654) are found higher than AC score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (3,065 ± 0,859). AC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,703 ± 0,884) is found higher than AC score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (3,065 ± 0,859). AC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,703 ± 0,884) is found higher than AC score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (3,313 ± 0,654).

To define if age makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (F=24,814; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. CC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,290 ± 0,661), is found higher than CC score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (2,760 ± 1,002). CC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,290 ± 0,661), is found higher than CC score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (2,604 ± 0,514).

To define if age makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (F=22,921; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. NC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,295 ± 0,674), is found higher than NC score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (2,906 ± 0,712). NC score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,295 ± 0,674), is found higher than NC score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (2,753 ± 0,496).

To define if age makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (F=34,054; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. General organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,429 ± 0,401), is found higher than general organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (2,910 ± 0,725). General organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,429 ± 0,401), is found higher than general organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (2,890 ± 0,407) (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7.

Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to Age

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
Affective Commitment	20-25 Age	176	3,065	0,859	20,135	**0,000**	**2 > 1**
	26-35 Age	168	3,313	0,654			**3 > 1**
	36 Age And above	96	3,703	0,884			**3 > 2**
Continuance Commitment	20-25 Age	176	2,760	1,002	24,814	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	26-35 Age	168	2,604	0,514			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,290	0,661			
Normative Commitment	20-25 Age	176	2,906	0,712	22,921	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	26-35 Age	168	2,753	0,496			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,295	0,674			
General Organization Commitment	20-25 Age	176	2,910	0,725	34,054	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	26-35 Age	168	2,890	0,407			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,429	0,401			

To define if marital status makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector Workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (t=5.426; p=0.000<0,05). Married tourism sector Workers' CC score (x=3,028) is found higher than single tourism sector Workers' CC score (x=2,619).

To define if marital status makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector Workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (t=3.257; p=0.001<0,05). Married tourism sector Workers' NC score (x=3,038) is found higher than single tourism sector Workers' NC score (x=2,835).

To define if marital status makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector Workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (t=4.551; p=0.000<0,05). Married tourism sector workers' general organization commitment score (x=3,147) is higher than single tourism sector workers' general organization commitment score (x=2,894).

To define if marital status makes a significant difference in AC score averages of tourism sector Workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is not found statistically significant (p>0,05) (Table 5.8).

Table 5.84.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to Marital Status

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	P
Affective Commitment	Married	212	3,376	0,830	1,887	0,060
	Single	228	3,227	0,819		
Continuance Commitment	Married	212	3,028	0,844	5,426	**0,000**
	Single	228	2,619	0,734		
Normative Commitment	Married	212	3,038	0,595	3,257	**0,001**
	Single	228	2,835	0,703		
General Organization Commitment	Married	212	3,147	0,555	4,551	**0,000**
	Single	228	2,894	0,608		

To define if education makes a significant difference in AC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=31,985; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. High school graduate tourism workers' AC score (3,513 ± 0,661) is found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism workers' AC score (2,620 ± 0,719). Two-year degree graduate tourism workers' AC score (3,355 ± 0,733) is found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' AC score (2,620 ± 0,719). Postgraduate tourism Workers' AC score (3,597 ± 1,103) is found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' AC score (2,620 ± 0,719).

To define if education makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=8,305; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Postgraduate tourism Workers' CC score (3,215 ± 0,645) are found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' CC score (2,672 ± 0,752). High school graduate tourism Workers' CC score (2,908 ± 0,892) are found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' CC score (2,617 ± 0,714).

Postgraduate tourism Workes' CC score (3,215 ± 0,645) are found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' CC score (2,617 ± 0,714).

To define if education makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=9,367; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. High school graduate tourism Workers' NC score (3,037 ± 0,441) are found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' NC score (2,689 ± 0,686). Postgraduate tourism Workers' NC score (3,198 ± 1,031) are found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' NC score (2,689 ± 0,686). Postgraduate tourism Workers' NC score (3,198 ± 1,031) are found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' NC score (2,845 ± 0,670).

To define if education makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=21,788; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. High school graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (3,153 ± 0,466) are found higher two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,660 ± 0,592). Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,939 ± 0,561) are found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,660 ± 0,592). Postgraduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (3,337 ± 0,773) are found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,660 ± 0,592). High school graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (3,153 ± 0,466) are found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,939 ± 0,561). Postgraduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (3,337 ± 0,773) are found higher than bachelor's degree graduate tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,939 ± 0,561) (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to Education

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
AC	High school graduate	185	3,513	0,661	31,985	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
							3 > 2
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,620	0,719			**4 > 2**
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,355	0,733			
	Postgraduate	48	3,597	1,103			
CC	High school graduate	185	2,908	0,892	8,305	**0,000**	**4 > 2**
							1 > 3
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,672	0,752			**4 > 3**
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,617	0,714			
	Postgraduate	48	3,215	0,645			
NC	High school graduate	185	3,037	0,441	9,367	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
							4 > 2
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,689	0,686			**4 > 3**
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,845	0,670			
	Postgraduate	48	3,198	1,031			
General Organization Commitment	High school graduate	185	3,153	0,466	21,788	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
							3 > 2
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,660	0,592			**4 > 2**
							1 > 3
							4 > 3
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,939	0,561			
	Postgraduate	48	3,337	0,773			

To define if position in the work makes a significant difference in AC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=14,838; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Upper-tier tourism Workers' AC score (3,417 ± 0,996) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' AC score (2,631 ± 0,508). Medium Level tourism workers' AC score (3,273 ± 0,758) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' AC score (2,631 ± 0,508). Worker-level tourism workers' AC score (3,423 ± 0,814) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' AC score (2,631 ± 0,508).

To define if position in the work makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=4,523; p=0,004<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Worker-level tourism workers' CC score (2,890 ± 0,768) are found higher than medium Level tourism workers' CC score (2,536 ± 0,920).

To define if position in the work makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=7,476; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Upper-tier tourism Workers' NC score (3,208 ± 0,769) are found higher than medium Level tourism workers' NC score (2,803 ± 0,828). Upper-tier tourism workers' NC score (3,208 ± 0,769) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' NC score (2,651 ± 0,720). Worker-level tourism workers' NC score (2,994 ± 0,533) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' NC score (2,651 ± 0,720).

To define if position in the work makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=9,128; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Upper-tier tourism workers' general organization

commitment score (3,167 ± 0,640) are found higher than medium Level tourism workers' general organization commitment score (2,871 ± 0,667). Worker-level tourism workers' general organization commitment score (3,103 ± 0,558) are higher than medium Level tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (2,871 ± 0,667). Upper-tier tourism Workers' general organization commitment score (3,167 ± 0,640) are found higher than Lower level tourism workers' general organization commitment score (2,720 ± 0,482). Worker-level tourism workers' general organization commitment score (3,103 ± 0,558) are found higher than lower level tourism workers' general organization commitment score (2,720 ± 0,482) (Table 5.10).

Table 5
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to Position in The Work

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
AC	Upper-tier	36	3,417	0,996	14,838	**0,000**	**1 > 3**
	Medium Level	89	3,273	0,758			**2 > 3**
							4 > 3
	Lower level	52	2,631	0,508			
	Worker	263	3,423	0,814			
CC	Upper-tier	36	2,875	0,857	4,523	**0,004**	**4 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,536	0,920			
	Lower level	52	2,878	0,736			
	Worker	263	2,890	0,768			
NC	Upper-tier	36	3,208	0,769	7,476	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,803	0,828			**1 > 3**
							4 > 3
	Lower level	52	2,651	0,720			
	Worker	263	2,994	0,533			
General Organization Commitment	Upper-tier	36	3,167	0,640	9,128	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,871	0,667			**4 > 2**
							1 > 3
	Lower level	52	2,720	0,482			**4 > 3**
	Worker	263	3,103	0,558			

To define if the time of working in the tourism sector makes a significant difference in AC score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=14,653; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 5-10 years (3,517 ± 0,764) are found higher than AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 0-1 years (3,047 ± 0,837). AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,667 ± 0,730) are found higher than AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 0-1 years (3,047 ± 0,837). AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 5-10 years (3,517 ± 0,764) are found higher than AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 1-5 years (3,100 ± 0,803). AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,667 ± 0,730) are found higher than AC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 1-5 years (3,100 ± 0,803).

To define if the time of working in the tourism sector makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=10,717; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,310 ± 0,692) are found higher than NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 0-1 (2,758 ± 0,783). NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,310 ± 0,692) are found higher than NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 1-5 years (2,881 ± 0,607). NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,310 ± 0,692) are found higher than NC score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 5-10 years (2,960 ± 0,479).

To define if the time of working in the tourism sector makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, one

way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (F=9,052; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. General organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 5-10 years (3,094 ± 0,465) are found higher than general organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 0-1 years (2,889 ± 0,730). General organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,294 ± 0,417) are found higher than general organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 0-1 years (2,889 ± 0,730). General organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 5-10 years (3,094 ± 0,465) are found higher than general organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 1-5 years (2,903 ± 0,603). General organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector more than 11 years (3,294 ± 0,417) are found higher than general organization commitment score of the tourism workers who are in the sector between 1-5 years (2,903 ± 0,603).

To define if the time of working in the tourism sector makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is not found significant statistically (p>0.05) (Table 5.11).

Table 65.11.
Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to The Time They Worked in The Tourism Sector

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	P	Difference
AC	0-1 years	124	3,047	0,837	14,653	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	1-5 years	113	3,100	0,803			**4 > 1**
	5-10 years	140	3,517	0,764			**3 > 2**
	11 years and more	63	3,667	0,730			**4 > 2**
CC	0-1 years	124	2,863	0,862	0,842	0,471	
	1-5 years	113	2,727	0,930			
	5-10 years	140	2,806	0,751			
	11 years and more	63	2,905	0,601			
NC	0-1 years	124	2,758	0,783	10,717	**0,000**	**4 > 1**
	1-5 years	113	2,881	0,607			**4 > 2**
	5-10 years	140	2,960	0,479			**4 > 3**
	11 years	63	3,310	0,692			

	and more						
General	0-1 years	124	2,889	0,730	9,052	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
Organization	1-5 years	113	2,903	0,603			**4 > 1**
Commitment	5-10 years	140	3,094	0,465			**3 > 2**
	11 years and more	63	3,294	0,417			**4 > 2**

To define if the average monthly income makes a significant difference in AC score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (t=-4.322; p=0.000<0,05). AC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,564) are found higher than AC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=3,194).

To define if the average monthly income makes a significant difference in CC score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (t=-4.076; p=0.000<0,05). CC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,063) are found higher than CC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,718).

To define if the average monthly income makes a significant difference in NC score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (t=3.833; p=0.002<0,05). NC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=3,007) are found higher than CC score of the tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is more than 2000TL (x=2,744).

To define if the average monthly income makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found statistically significant (t=-2.401; p=0.031<0,05). General organization commitment score of tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,124) are found higher than General organization commitment score of tourism sector workers whose Average Monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,973) (Table 5.12).

Table 75.12.

Tourism Sector Workers' Organization Commitment Level Averages According to The Average Monthly Incomes

	Group	**N**	**Average**	**Sv**	**T**	**p**
AC	400-2000 TL	315	3,194	0,768	-4,322	**0,000**
	Above 2000 TL	125	3,564	0,909		
CC	400-2000 TL	315	2,718	0,753	-4,076	**0,000**
	Above2000 TL	125	3,063	0,908		
NC	400-2000 TL	315	3,007	0,552	3,833	**0,002**
	Above2000 TL	125	2,744	0,849		
General Organization Commitment	400-2000 TL	315	2,973	0,548	-2,401	**0,031**
	Above2000 TL	125	3,124	0,694		

5.4 Tourism Sector Workers' Human Resources Practices' Averages According to Demographic Features

As a result of the t-test made to define if the country they work makes a significant difference in terms of recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management, HRM score averages, the difference between the groups is not found significant statistically (p>0,05) (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13.
Tourism Sector Workers' Human Resources Practice Averages According toTheCountries They Work

	Group	N	Average	Sv	T	p
Recruitment And Selection	Iran	240	3,254	1,253	0,871	0,384
	Turkey	200	3,150	1,243		
Traning	Iran	240	3,167	1,085	0,630	0,529
	Turkey	200	3,100	1,130		
Payment And Reward	Iran	240	3,098	0,805	1,131	0,259
	Turkey	200	3,010	0,821		
Salary And Wage	Iran	240	2,863	1,204	0,679	0,497
	Turkey	200	2,785	1,177		
Teamworking	Iran	240	3,465	0,907	1,118	0,264
	Turkey	200	3,365	0,971		
Job Description	Iran	240	3,417	1,098	0,301	0,764
	Turkey	200	3,385	1,101		
Delegation	Iran	240	3,175	0,824	-	0,593
	Turkey	200	3,218	0,840	0,534	
Protection	Iran	240	3,881	0,922	1,169	0,243
	Turkey	200	3,775	0,981		
Career Management	Iran	240	3,050	1,213	1,711	0,088
	Turkey	200	2,850	1,231		
HRM	Iran	240	3,318	0,692	1,167	0,244
	Turkey	200	3,241	0,695		

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender makes a significant difference in terms of team working score averages, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=7.256; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' team working score (x=3,770) are found higher than male tourism Workers' team working score (x=3,151).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender makes a significant difference in terms of job description score averages, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=7.256; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' job description score (x=3,618) are found higher than male tourism Workers' job description score (x=3,237).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender makes a significant difference in terms of delegation score averages, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=6.532; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' delegation score (x=3,476) are found higher than male tourism Workers' delegation score (x=2,978).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender makes a significant difference in terms of protection score averages, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=5.648; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' protection score (x=4,115) are found higher than male tourism Workers' protection score (x=3,617).

As a result of the t-test made to define if HRM score averages show a significant difference in terms of the gender variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=4.807; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' HRM score (x=3,460) are found higher than male tourism Workers' HRM score (x=3,147).

As a result of the t-test made to define if recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, career management score averages show a significant difference in terms of the gender variable, the difference between the groups is not found statistically significant (p>0,05) (Table 5.14).

Table 85.14.
Tourism Sector Workers' HRM Averages According to Gender

	Group	N	Average	Sv	T	p
Recruitment And Selection	Female	191	3,319	1,141	1,660	0,091
	Male	249	3,121	1,320		
Training	Female	191	3,126	1,013	-	0,856
	Male	249	3,145	1,172	0,178	
Payment And Reward	Female	191	3,073	0,776	0,347	0,729
	Male	249	3,046	0,841		
Salary And Wage	Female	191	2,812	1,284	-	0,812
	Male	249	2,839	1,117	0,243	
Team working	Female	191	3,770	0,663	7,256	**0,000**
	Male	249	3,151	1,025		
Job Description	Female	191	3,618	0,943	3,655	**0,000**
	Male	249	3,237	1,180		
Delegation	Female	191	3,476	0,654	6,532	**0,000**
	Male	249	2,978	0,886		
Protection	Female	191	4,115	0,634	5,648	**0,000**
	Male	249	3,617	1,086		
Career Management	Female	191	2,927	1,126	-	0,627
	Male	249	2,984	1,295	0,486	
HRM	Female	191	3,460	0,489	4,807	**0,000**
	Male	249	3,147	0,791		

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the recruitment and selection score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=4,590; p=0,011<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,427 ± 1,344) are found higher than Recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (2,988 ± 1,257).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the training score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=7,653; p=0,001<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Training score of the tourism

workers' aged 36 and above (3,479 ± 1,248) are found higher than training score of the tourism workers' aged between 20 and 25 (3,142 ± 1,165). Training score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,479 ± 1,248) are found higher than Recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35.

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the salary and wage score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=35,142; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,635 ± 0,634) are found higher than salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (2,472 ± 1,326). Salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,635 ± 0,634) are found higher than salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (2,738 ± 1,068).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the team-working score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=3,618; p=0,028<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Team-working score of the tourism workers' aged between 20 and 25 (3,510 ± 0,757) are found higher than team-working score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,268 ± 0,944).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the job description score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=7,793; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,648 ± 0,801) are found higher than job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,274 ± 1,114). Job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,648 ± 0,801) are found higher than job description score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and more (3,177 ± 1,422).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the job delagation score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=13,787; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 20 and 25 (3,321 ± 0,664) are found higher than delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (2,941 ± 0,894). Delegation score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,406 ± 0,884) are found higher than delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (2,941 ± 0,894).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the job protection score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=4,938; p=0,008<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. Protection score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (4,047 ± 1,140) are found higher than protection score score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,676 ± 1,075).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the HRM score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=6,750; p=0,001<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. HRM score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,468 ± 0,871) are found higher than HRM score score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,151 ± 0,705).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the payment and reward, career management score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages is not found statistically significant (p>0.05) (Table 5.15).

Table 5.15.
Tourism Sector Workers' HRM Averages According to Age

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	P	Difference
Recruitment And Selection	20-25 Age	176	3,296	1,158	4,590	**0,011**	**3 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	2,988	1,257			
	36 Age And above	96	3,427	1,344			
Training	20-25 Age	176	3,142	1,165	7,653	**0,001**	**3 > 1**
	26-35 Age Arası	168	2,935	0,890			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,479	1,248			
Payment And Reward	20-25 Age	176	3,037	0,826	0,358	0,699	
	26-35 Age	168	3,045	0,690			
	36 Age And above	96	3,120	0,975			
Salary And Wage	20-25 Age	176	2,472	1,326	35,142	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	26-35 Age	168	2,738	1,068			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,635	0,634			
Team-working	20-25 Age	176	3,510	0,757	3,618	**0,028**	**1 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	3,268	0,944			
	36 Age And above	96	3,521	1,170			
Job Description	20-25 Age	176	3,648	0,801	7,793	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	3,274	1,114			**1 > 3**
	36 Age And above	96	3,177	1,422			
Delegation	20-25 Age	176	3,321	0,664	13,787	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	2,941	0,894			**3 > 2**
	36 Age And above	96	3,406	0,884			
Protection	20-25 Age	176	3,867	0,635	4,938	**0,008**	**3 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	3,676	1,075			
	36 Age And above	96	4,047	1,140			
Career Management	20-25 Age	176	2,778	1,257	3,337	0,056	
	26-35 Age	168	3,054	0,949			
	36 Age And above	96	3,125	1,524			
HRM	20-25 Age	176	3,308	0,534	6,750	**0,001**	**3 > 2**
	26-35 Age	168	3,151	0,705			
	36 Age And above	96	3,468	0,871			

As a result of the t-test made to define if recruitment and selection score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-2.292; p=0.023<0,05). Single tourism sector Workers' recruitment and selection score (x=3,338) are found higher than Married tourism sector Workers' recruitment and selection score (x=3,066).

As a result of the t-test made to define if salary and wage score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=3.124; p=0.002<0,05). Married tourism sector Workers' salary and wage score (x=3,009) are found higher than single tourism sector Workers' salary and wage score (x=2,658).

As a result of the t-test made to define if delegation score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-2.508; p=0.014<0,05). Single tourism sector Workers' delegation score (x=3,290) are found higher than Married tourism sector Workers' delegation score (x=3,092).

As a result of the t-test made to define if protection score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-3.207; p=0.002<0,05). Single tourism sector Workers' protection score (x=3,972) are found higher than Married tourism sector Workers' protection score (x=3,684).

As a result of the t-test made to define if career management score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-2.139; p=0.034<0,05). Single tourism sector Workers' career management score (x=3,079) are found higher than Married tourism sector Workers' career management score (x=2,830).

As a result of the t-test made to define if training, payment and reward, team working, job description, HRM score averages show a significant difference in terms of the marital status variable, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (p>0,05) (Table 5.16).

Table 95.16.
Tourism Sector Workers' HRM Averages According to TheirMarital Status

	Group	N	Average	Sv	T	P
Recruitment And Selection	Married	212	3,066	1,368	-2,292	**0,023**
	Single	228	3,338	1,113		
Training	Married	212	3,170	1,131	0,612	0,541
	Single	228	3,105	1,081		
Payment And Reward	Married	212	3,007	0,818	-1,268	0,206
	Single	228	3,105	0,806		
Salary And Wage	Married	212	3,009	1,106	3,124	**0,002**
	Single	228	2,658	1,244		
Team-working	Married	212	3,333	1,033	-1,870	0,064
	Single	228	3,500	0,832		
Job Description	Married	212	3,373	1,238	-0,545	0,589
	Single	228	3,430	0,952		
Delegation	Married	212	3,092	0,943	-2,508	**0,014**
	Single	228	3,290	0,699		
Protection	Married	212	3,684	1,055	-3,207	**0,002**
	Single	228	3,972	0,818		
Career Management	Married	212	2,830	1,302	-2,139	**0,034**
	Single	228	3,079	1,135		
HRM	Married	212	3,215	0,792	-1,980	0,051
	Single	228	3,346	0,582		

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the recruitment and selection score averages depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=7,272; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The recruitment and selection scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,519 ± 1,059) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,989 ± 1,006). The recruitment and selection scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,519 ± 1,059) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (2,915 ± 1,381).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the average training scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average

scores of groups (F=6,652; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The training scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,227 ± 1,028) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 1,104). The training scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (3,314 ± 1,175) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 1,104). The training scores of tourism workers with a master's degree (3,188 ± 1,024) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 1,104).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the average payment and reward scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=10,931; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The payment and reward scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,257 ± 0,707) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 0,810). The payment and reward scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (3,072 ± 0,771) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 0,810).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the average protection scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=11,894; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The protection scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (4,119 ± 0,912) were higher than the protection scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,651 ± 0,975). The protection scores of tourism workers with a master's degree (4,271 ± 0,449) were higher than the protection scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,651 ± 0,975). The protection scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (4,119 ± 0,912) were

higher than the protection scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (3,596 ± 0,980).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the average career management scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=4,294; p=0,005<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The career management scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,178 ± 1,271) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (2,685 ± 1,193). The career management scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,178 ± 1,271) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (2,797 ± 1,136).

One One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was a significant difference between the average HRM scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=3,444; p=0,017<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The HRM scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,323 ± 0,707) were higher than the HRM scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (3,079 ± 0,581). The HRM scores of high school graduate tourism workers (3,328 ± 0,689) were higher than the HRM scores of tourism workers with a bachelor's degree (3,079 ± 0,581). The HRM scores of tourism workers with a master's degree (3,399 ± 0,787) were higher than the HRM scores of tourism workers with an associate's degree (3,079 ± 0,581).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (p>0.05) (Table 5.17)

Table 105.17.

Average of HRM practices of participant Tourism Sector Workers According to Education Levels

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
Recruitment And Selection	High school graduate	185	3,519	1,059	7,272	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,989	1,006			**1 > 3**
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,915	1,381			
	Postgraduate	48	3,125	1,684			
Traning	High school graduate	185	3,227	1,028	6,652	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,685	1,104			**3 > 2**
							4 > 2
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,314	1,175			
	Postgraduate	48	3,188	1,024			
Payment And Reward	High school graduate	185	3,257	0,707	10,931	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,685	0,810			**3 > 2**
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,072	0,771			
	Postgraduate	48	2,948	1,033			
Salary And Wage	High school graduate	185	2,887	1,239	0,808	0,490	
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,685	1,104			
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,788	1,154			
	Postgraduate	48	2,958	1,254			
Teamworking	High school graduate	185	3,449	0,883	1,265	0,286	
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,300	0,698			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,387	1,121			
	Postgraduate	48	3,611	1,014			
Job Description	High school graduate	185	3,281	1,254	1,865	0,135	
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,393	0,668			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,585	0,973			
	Postgraduate	48	3,438	1,335			
Delegation	High school graduate	185	3,132	0,824	1,878	0,133	
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,101	0,708			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,322	0,895			
	Postgraduate	48	3,292	0,874			
Protection	High school graduate	185	3,651	0,975	11,894	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,596	0,980			**4 > 1**
							3 > 2
	Bachelor's degree	118	4,119	0,912			**4 > 2**
	Postgraduate	48	4,271	0,449			
Career Management	High school graduate	185	3,178	1,271	4,294	**0,005**	**1 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	2,685	1,193			**1 > 3**
	Bachelor's degree	118	2,797	1,136			
	Postgraduate	48	3,021	1,176			
HRM	High school graduate	185	3,323	0,707	3,444	**0,017**	**1 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,079	0,581			**3 > 2**
							4 > 2
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,328	0,689			
	Postgraduate	48	3,399	0,787			

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average recruitment and selection scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=5,594; p=0,001<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to tourism workers with a top level of professional status (3,750 ± 1,663) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with a low level of professional status (3,039 ± 1,171). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (3,750 ± 1,663) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,065 ± 1,266). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (3,506 ± 0,906) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,065 ± 1,266).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average training scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=4,613; p=0,003<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The training scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (3,750 ± 1,105) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (2,966 ± 1,123). The training scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (3,750 ± 1,105) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers with a low level of professional status (3,058 ± 1,145). The training scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (3,750 ± 1,105) were higher than t he training scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,126 ± 1,068).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average payment and reward scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=3,935; p=0,009<0.05). Complementary

post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The payment and reward scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,145 ± 0,795) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (2,815 ± 0,744).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average team working scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=6,338; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The team working scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,570 ± 0,822) were higher than the team working scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (3,120 ± 1,034).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average job description scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=23,326; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The job description scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (3,079 ± 0,944) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (2,250 ± 1,663). The job description scores of tourism workers with a low level of professional status (3,539 ± 0,753) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (2,250 ± 1,663). The job description scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,643 ± 0,982) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers with a top level of professional status (2,250 ± 1,663). The job description scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,643 ± 0,982) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (3,079 ± 0,944).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average career management scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the

study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=3,717; p=0,012<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The career management scores of tourism workers with an employee status (3,065 ± 1,162) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers with a mid-level of professional status (2,674 ± 1,194).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average salary and wage, delegation, protection, HRM scores depending on the professional duty of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (p>0.05) (Table 5.18).

Table 115.18.

Average of HRM Practices of Participant Tourism Sector Workers According to Position in The Work

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
Recruitment And Selection	Upper-tier	36	3,750	1,663	5,594	**0,001**	**1 > 3**
	Medium Level	89	3,506	0,906			**1 > 4**
	Lower level	52	3,039	1,171			**2 > 4**
	Worker	263	3,065	1,266			
Training	Upper-tier	36	3,750	1,105	4,613	**0,003**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,966	1,123			**1 > 3**
	Lower level	52	3,058	1,145			**1 > 4**
	Worker	263	3,126	1,068			
Payment And Reward	Upper-tier	36	3,125	0,974	3,935	**0,009**	**4 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,815	0,744			
	Lower level	52	2,990	0,825			
	Worker	263	3,145	0,795			
Salary And Wage	Upper-tier	36	3,000	0,717	0,299	0,826	
	Medium Level	89	2,820	1,192			
	Lower level	52	2,769	0,877			
	Worker	263	2,818	1,295			
Team working	Upper-tier	36	3,333	1,242	6,338	**0,000**	**4 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	3,120	1,034			
	Lower level	52	3,231	0,930			
	Worker	263	3,570	0,822			
Job Description	Upper-tier	36	2,250	1,663	23,326	**0,000**	**2 > 1**
	Medium Level	89	3,079	0,944			**3 > 1**
	Lower level	52	3,539	0,753			**4 > 1**
	Worker	263	3,643	0,982			**4 > 2**
Delegation	Upper-tier	36	3,250	1,045	0,865	0,459	
	Medium Level	89	3,180	1,023			
	Lower level	52	3,029	0,479			
	Worker	263	3,224	0,778			
Protection	Upper-tier	36	3,750	1,457	0,961	0,411	
	Medium Level	89	3,888	1,125			
	Lower level	52	4,010	0,783			
	Worker	263	3,791	0,821			
Career Management	Upper-tier	36	3,250	1,811	3,717	**0,012**	**4 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,674	1,194			
	Lower level	52	2,712	0,957			
	Worker	263	3,065	1,162			
HRM	Upper-tier	36	3,304	1,130	1,825	0,142	
	Medium Level	89	3,155	0,646			
	Lower level	52	3,205	0,577			
	Worker	263	3,339	0,648			

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average recruitment and selection scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=14,179; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (4,000 ± 0,539) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,355 ± 1,184). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,355 ± 1,184) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,929 ± 1,387). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (4,000 ± 0,539) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,929 ± 1,387). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,355 ± 1,184) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (2,943 ± 1,251). The recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (4,000 ± 0,539) were higher than the recruitment and selection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (2,943 ± 1,251).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average training scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=4,549; p=0,004<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (3,460 ± 1,173) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,065 ± 0,969). The training scores of

tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (3,460 ± 1,173) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,000 ± 0,796). The training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (3,460 ± 1,173) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,000 ± 1,616).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average payment and reward scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=18,091; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,196 ± 0,881) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (2,915± 0,729). The payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,571 ± 0,683) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (2,915 ± 0,729). The payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,196 ± 0,881) were higher than the training scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,757 ± 0,704). The payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,571 ± 0,683) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,757 ± 0,704). The payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,571 ± 0,683) were higher than the payment and reward scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,196 ± 0,881).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average salary and wage scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers

participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=53,996; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,443 ± 0,712) were higher than the salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (2,113 ± 1,238). The salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,571 ± 0,499) were higher than the salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (2,113 ± 1,238). The salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,443 ± 0,712) were higher than the salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,434 ± 1,267). The salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,571 ± 0,499) were higher than the salary and wage scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,434 ± 1,267).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average team working scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=2,876; p=0,036<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The team working scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (3,552 ± 0,584) were higher than the team working scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,143 ± 1,413).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average job description scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=4,251; p=0,006<0.05). Complementary

post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The job description scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years ($3,487 \pm 1,078$) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over ($3,000 \pm 1,426$). The job description scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years ($3,564 \pm 1,068$) were higher than the job description scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over ($3,000 \pm 1,426$).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average delegation scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups ($F=6,591$; $p=0,000<0.05$). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years ($3,336 \pm 0,727$) were higher than the delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year ($3,028 \pm 0,722$). The delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over ($3,500 \pm 1,078$) were higher than the delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year ($3,028 \pm 0,722$). The delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over ($3,500 \pm 1,078$) were higher than the delegation scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years ($3,089 \pm 0,823$).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average protection scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups ($F=3,544$; $p=0,015<0.05$). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The protection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for

1-5 years (4,035 ± 0,674) were higher than the protection scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,637 ± 0,905).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average career management scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=16,121; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,714 ± 1,396) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (2,766 ± 1,083). The career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,136 ± 1,177) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,531 ± 1,094). The career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,714 ± 1,396) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 1-5 years (2,531 ± 1,094). The career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,714 ± 1,396) were higher than the career management scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 5-10 years (3,136 ± 1,177).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average HRM scores depending on the duration of professional service of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (F=3,710; p=0,012<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify the causes of the differences. The HRM scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 11 years and over (3,469 ± 0,936) were higher than the HRM scores of tourism workers who had been working in the tourism sector for 0-1 year (3,138 ± 0,516) (Table 5.19).

Table 5.19.
Average of HRM practices of participant Tourism Sector Workers According to The Time They Have Been Working in The Sector

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
Recruitment And Selection	0-1 Years	124	3,355	1,184	14,179	**0,000**	**4 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	2,929	1,387			**1 > 2**
	5-10 Years	140	2,943	1,251			**4 > 2**
	11 Years and More	63	4,000	0,539			**1 > 3**
							4 > 3
Training	0-1 Years	124	3,065	0,969	4,549	**0,004**	**2 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	3,460	1,173			**2 > 3**
	5-10 Years	140	3,000	0,796			**2 > 4**
	11 Years and More	63	3,000	1,616			
Payment And Reward	0-1 Years	124	2,915	0,729	18,091	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	2,757	0,704			**4 > 1**
	5-10 Years	140	3,196	0,881			**3 > 2**
	11 Years and More	63	3,571	0,683			**4 > 2**
							4 > 3
Salary And Wage	0-1 Years	124	2,113	1,238	53,996	**0,000**	**3 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	2,434	1,267			**4 > 1**
	5-10 Years	140	3,443	0,712			**3 > 2**
	11 Years and More	63	3,571	0,499			**4 > 2**
Team working	0-1 Years	124	3,376	0,729	2,876	**0,036**	**2 > 4**
	1-5 Years	113	3,552	0,584			
	5-10 Years	140	3,476	1,040			
	11 Years and More	63	3,143	1,413			
Job Description	0-1 Years	124	3,347	0,902	4,251	**0,006**	**2 > 4**
	1-5 Years	113	3,487	1,078			**3 > 4**
	5-10 Years	140	3,564	1,068			
	11 Years and More	63	3,000	1,426			
Delegation	0-1 Years	124	3,028	0,722	6,591	**0,000**	**2 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	3,336	0,727			**4 > 1**
	5-10 Years	140	3,089	0,823			**4 > 3**
	11 Years and More	63	3,500	1,078			
Protection	0-1 Years	124	3,637	0,905	3,544	**0,015**	**2 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	4,035	0,674			
	5-10 Years	140	3,832	0,944			
	11 Years and More	63	3,857	1,339			
Career Management	0-1 Years	124	2,766	1,083	16,121	**0,000**	**4 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	2,531	1,094			**3 > 2**
	5-10 Years	140	3,136	1,177			**4 > 2**
	11 Years and More	63	3,714	1,396			**4 > 3**
HRM	0-1 Years	124	3,138	0,516	3,710	**0,012**	**4 > 1**
	1-5 Years	113	3,268	0,516			
	5-10 Years	140	3,339	0,800			
	11 Years and More	63	3,469	0,936			

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of recruitment and selection score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-4.062; p=0.000<0,05). Recruitment and selection score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,584) is found higher than the recruitment and selection score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=3,057).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of training score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-4.492; p=0.000<0,05). Training score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,504) are found higher than the training score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,991).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of payment and reward score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-3.391; p=0.003<0,05). Payment and reward score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,264)) are found higher than the payment and reward score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,976).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of salary and wage score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-2.735; p=0.002<0,05). Salary and wage score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,072) are found higher than the salary and wage score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,730).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of protection score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-3.888; p=0.001<0,05). Protection score of tourism sector workers whose average

monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=4,108) are found higher than the protection score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=3,724).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of career management score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-5.355; p=0.000<0,05). Career management score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,440) are found higher than the career management score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=2,768).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of HRM score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=-3.335; p=0.006<0,05). HRM score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is more than 2000 TL (x=3,456) are found higher than the HRM score of tourism sector workers whose average monthly income is between 400-2000 TL (x=3,214).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the Average Monthly Income variable makes a significant difference in terms of team working, job description, delegation score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is not found significant statistically (p>0,05) (Table 5.20).

Table 5.20.
Tourism Sector Workers' HRM Averages According to Average Monthly Income

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	p
Recruitment And Selection	400-2000 TL	315	3,057	1,174	-4,062	**0,000**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,584	1,351		
Traning	400-2000 TL	315	2,991	1,008	-4,492	**0,000**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,504	1,248		
Payment And Reward	400-2000 TL	315	2,976	0,735	-3,391	**0,003**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,264	0,954		
Salary And Wage	400-2000 TL	315	2,730	1,257	-2,735	**0,002**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,072	0,969		
Team working	400-2000 TL	315	3,418	0,803	-0,061	0,959
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,424	1,213		
Job Description	400-2000 TL	315	3,451	0,984	1,473	0,198
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,280	1,342		
Delegation	400-2000 TL	315	3,175	0,753	-0,790	0,485
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,244	1,001		
Protection	400-2000 TL	315	3,724	0,862	-3,888	**0,001**
	More than 2000 TL	125	4,108	1,097		
Career Management	400-2000 TL	315	2,768	1,140	-5,355	**0,000**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,440	1,298		
HRM	400-2000 TL	315	3,214	0,581	-3,335	**0,006**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,456	0,897		

5.5. Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Demographic Features

As a result of the t-test made to define if the country variable makes a significant difference in terms of organizational performance (OP) score averages of tourism

sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=2.035; p=0.042<0,05). Organizational performance score of tourism sector workers in Iran (x=3,400) are found higher than Organizational performance score of tourism sector workers in Turkey (x=3,216).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the country variable makes a significant difference in terms of individual performance (IP), general performance score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is not found significant statistically (p>0,05) (Table 5.21)

Table 125.21.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to The Country They Work

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	P
OP	Iran	240	3,400	0,933	2,035	**0,042**
	Turkey	200	3,216	0,955		
IP	Iran	240	3,390	0,792	1,322	0,187
	Turkey	200	3,289	0,800		
General Performance	Iran	240	3,395	0,831	1,775	0,077
	Turkey	200	3,253	0,845		

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender variable makes a significant difference in terms of OP score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=2.783; p=0.005<0,05). OP score of Female tourism sector workers (x=3,459) are found higher than male tourism sector workers' OP score (x=3,207).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender variable makes a significant difference in terms of IP score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=3.579; p=0.000<0,05). IP score of Female tourism sector workers (x=3,497) are found higher than male tourism sector workers' IP score (x=3,227).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender variable makes a significant difference in terms of general performance score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=3.269; p=0.001<0,05). General performance score of Female tourism sector workers

(x=3,478) are found higher than male tourism sector workers' general performance score (x=3,217) (Table 5.22)

Table 5.22.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Gender

	Group	N	Average	Sv	t	p
OP	Female	191	3,459	0,843	2,783	**0,005**
	Male	249	3,207	1,007		
IP	Female	191	3,497	0,693	3,579	**0,000**
	Male	249	3,227	0,850		
General Performance	Female	191	3,478	0,719	3,269	**0,001**
	Male	249	3,217	0,906		

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to see whether OP score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age or not, the difference in group averages is found statistically significant (F=6,024; p=0,003<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. OP score of the tourism workers who are aged 36 and more (3,577 ± 1,136) are found higher than OP score of the tourism workers aged between 26-35 (3,162 ± 0,764).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to see whether general performance score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age or not, the difference in group averages is found statistically significant (F=3,590; p=0,028<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. General performance score of the tourism workers who are aged 36 and more (3,498 ± 1,031) are found higher than OP score of the tourism workers aged between 26-35 (3,215 ± 0,700).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to see whether IP score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age or not, the difference in group averages is not found statistically significant (p>0.05) (Table 5.23).

Table 13
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Age

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
OP	20-25 And	176	3,322	0,964	6,024	**0,003**	**3 > 2**

	above					
	26-35 Age Arası	168	3,162	0,764		
	36 Age And above	96	3,577	1,136		
IP	20-25 Age above	176	3,376	0,801	1,324	0,267
	26-35 Age above	168	3,269	0,677		
	36 Age And above	96	3,419	0,963		
General Performance	20-25 Age above	176	3,349	0,832	3,590	**0,028** **3 > 2**
	26-35 Age above	168	3,215	0,700		
	36 Age And above	96	3,498	1,031		

As a result of t-test applied to see whether performance, IP, general performance score averages of the tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to marital status variance, the difference between the group averages is not found statistically significant (p>0,05) (Table 5.24).

Table 5.24.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Marital Status

	Group	**N**	**Average**	**Sv**	**t**	**p**
OP	Married	212	3,267	1,054	-1,068	0,290
	Single	228	3,363	0,833		
IP	Married	212	3,330	0,921	-0,374	0,712
	Single	228	3,358	0,661		
General Performance	Married	212	3,298	0,966	-0,779	0,441
	Single	228	3,361	0,702		

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether OP score averages of tourism sector Workers participating in the research show a significant difference according to Education variance or not, the difference between group

averages is found statistically significant (F=3,486; p=0,016<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. OP score of postgraduate tourism workers (3,716 ± 0,757) is found higher than High school graduate tourism Workers' OP score (3,249 ± 1,083). OP score of postgraduate tourism workers (3,716 ± 0,757) is found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' OP score (3,229 ± 0,796).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether IP score averages of tourism sector Workers participating in the research show a significant difference according to Education variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=4,789; p=0,003<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. IP score of high school graduate tourism workers (3,412 ± 0,885) is found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' IP score (3,143 ± 0,581). Postgraduate tourism Workers' IP score (3,628 ± 0,842) is found higher than two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' IP score (3,143 ± 0,581). IP score of Postgraduate tourism workers (3,628 ± 0,842) is found higher than Bachelor's degree graduate tourism workers' IP score (3,274 ± 0,731).

As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether general performance score averages of tourism sector Workers participating in the research show a significant difference according to Education variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=3,643; p=0,013<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. Postgraduate tourism Workers' general performance score (3,672 ± 0,774) is found higher than Two-year degree graduate tourism Workers' general performance score (3,186 ± 0,671). Postgraduate tourism Workers' general performance score (3,672 ± 0,774) is found higher than Bachelor's degree graduate tourism Workers' general performance score (3,300 ± 0,767) (Table 5.25).

Table 5.25.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Education Levels

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	P	Difference
OP	High school	185	3,249	1,083	3,486	**0,016**	**4 > 1**

	graduate						**4 > 2**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,229	0,796			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,326	0,856			
	Postgraduate	48	3,716	0,757			
IP	High school graduate	185	3,412	0,885	4,789	**0,003**	**1 > 2** **4 > 2** **4 > 3**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,143	0,581			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,274	0,731			
	Postgraduate	48	3,628	0,842			
General Performance	High school graduate	185	3,330	0,947	3,643	**0,013**	**4 > 2** **4 > 3**
	Two-year degree graduate	89	3,186	0,671			
	Bachelor's degree	118	3,300	0,767			
	Postgraduate	48	3,672	0,774			

The a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether OP score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to Position in the work variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=13,667; p=0,000<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. OP score of upper-tier tourism workers (3,688 ± 1,260) is found higher than middle management tourism Workers' OP score (2,803 ± 1,166). OP score of low-level tourism workers (3,236 ± 0,554) is found higher than middle management level tourism Workers' OP score (2,803 ± 1,166).

The a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether IP score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to Position in the work variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=16,635; p=0,000<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. IP score of upper-tier tourism workers (3,500 ± 1,091) is found higher than middle

management tourism workers' IP score (2,879 ± 0,881). IP score of ordinary tourism workers (3,511 ± 0,691) is found higher than middle management level tourism Workers' IP score (2,879 ± 0,881).

The a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether general performance score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to Position in the work variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=15,977; p=0,000<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. General performance score of upper-tier tourism workers (3,594 ± 1,163) is found higher than middle management tourism workers' general performance score (2,841 ± 0,977). General performance score of low-level tourism workers (3,214 ± 0,519) is found higher than middle management level tourism Workers' general performance score (2,841 ± 0,977). General performance score of ordinary tourism workers (3,483 ± 0,713) is found higher than middle management level tourism Workers' general performance score (2,841 ± 0,977) (Table 5.26).

Table 5.26.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Position in The Work

	Group	N	Average	Sv	F	p	Difference
OP	Upper-tier	36	3,688	1,260	13,667	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,803	1,166			**3 > 2**
							4 > 2
	Lower level	52	3,236	0,554			
	Worker	263	3,455	0,802			
IP	Upper-tier	36	3,500	1,091	16,635	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,879	0,881			**4 > 2**
							4 > 3
	Lower level	52	3,192	0,535			
	Worker	263	3,511	0,691			
General Performance	Upper-tier	36	3,594	1,163	15,977	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	Medium Level	89	2,841	0,977			**3 > 2**
							4 > 2
	Lower level	52	3,214	0,519			
	Worker	263	3,483	0,713			

The a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether OP score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant

difference according to the time they have been working in the tourism sector variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (F=6,629; p=0,000<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, a complementary post-hoc analysis is applied. OP score of tourism workers who has ben working between 0-1 year (3,429 ± 0,757) is found higher than tourism workers', who have been working between 1-5 years, OP score (3,025 ± 0,951). OP score of tourism workers who have been working more than 11 years, (3,625 ± 1,222) is found higher than tourism workers', who have been working between 1-5 years, OP score (3,025 ± 0,951).

The a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) to define whether IP and general performance score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to the time they have been working in the tourism sector variance or not, no statistically significant difference was found (p>0.05) (Table 5.27).

Table 5.2714.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages according to The Time They Have Been Working

	Group	N	Average	Sd	F	p	Difference
OP	0-1 Years	124	3,429	0,757	6,629	**0,000**	**1 > 2**
	1-5 Years	113	3,025	0,951			**4 > 2**
	5-10 Years	140	3,313	0,896			
	11 Yıl Years	63	3,625	1,222			
IP	0-1 Years	124	3,258	0,816	1,790	0,148	
	1-5 Years	113	3,396	0,593			
	5-10 Years	140	3,301	0,728			
	11 Years	63	3,518	1,136			
General Performance	0-1 Years	124	3,344	0,753	2,574	0,053	
	1-5 Years	113	3,211	0,736			
	5-10 Years	140	3,307	0,801			
	11 Years and more	63	3,571	1,165			

The a result of t-test to define whether OP score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to their average monthly salaries variance or not, the difference between group averages is found

statistically significant (t=-5.302; p=0.000<0,05). OP score of tourism workers who has average salary of more than 2000tl (x=3,685) is found higher than tourism workers', whose average salary is 400 – 2000tl, OP score (x=3,170).

The a result of t-test to define whether general performance score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to their average monthly salaries variance or not, the difference between group averages is found statistically significant (t=-3.799; p=0.001<0,05). General performance score of tourism workers who has average salary of more than 2000tl (x=3,568) is found higher than tourism workers', whose average salary is 400 – 2000tl, general performance score (x=3, 236).

The a result of t-test to define whether IP score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to their average monthly salaries variance or not, the difference between group averages is not found statistically significant (p>0,05) (Table 5.28).

Table 5.28.
Tourism Sector Workers' Performance Level Averages According to Their AverageMonthly Salary

	Group	N	Average	Sd	t	p
OP	400-2000 TL	315	3,170	0,870	-	**0,000**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,685	1,031	5,302	
IP	400-2000 TL	315	3,302	0,742	-	0,106
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,451	0,914	1,775	
General Performance	400-2000 TL	315	3,236	0,769	-	**0,001**
	More than 2000 TL	125	3,568	0,957	3,799	

5.6. Correlations

5.6.1.Evaluation of the relationship between human resource practices and performance levels with correlation analysis

Table 5.29.
Evaluation of the Relationship between Human Resources Practices and Performance Levels with Correlation Analysis

		OP	IP	General Performance
Recruitment	r	0,310**	0,269**	0,302**
And Selection	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Training	r	0,237**	0,310**	0,281**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Payment And	r	0,487**	0,528**	0,525**
Reward	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Salary And	r	0,294**	0,294**	0,305**
Wage	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Team working	r	0,539**	0,642**	0,609**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Job Description	r	0,358**	0,474**	0,427**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Delegation	r	0,376**	0,504**	0,451**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Protection	r	0,520**	0,568**	0,563**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Career	r	0,604**	0,610**	0,630**
Management	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
HRM	r	0,623**	0,708**	0,687**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**

The relation between Recruitment And Selection and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.31; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase, OP increases as well.

The relation between Recruitment And Selection and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase, IP increases as well.

The relation between Recruitment And Selection and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.302; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase, general performance increases as well.

The relation between training and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.237; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase, OP increases as well.

The relation between training and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.31; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when training increases, OP increases as well.

The relation between training and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.281; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when training increases, general performance increases as well.

The relation between payment and reward and organisational performance is found statistically significant (r=0.487; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when payment and reward increase, OP increases as well.

The relation between payment and reward and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.528; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when payment and reward increase, IP increases as well.

The relation between payment and reward and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.525; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when payment and reward increase, general performance increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.294; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when wage increases, OP increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.294; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when wage increases, IP increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.305; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when wage increases, IP increases as well.

The relation between Team-working and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.539; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when team-working increases, OP increases as well.

The relation between Team-working and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.642; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when team-working increases, IP increases as well.

The relation between Team-working and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.609; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when team-working increases, general performance increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.358; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when job description increases OP increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.474; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when job description increases, IP increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.427; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when job description increases, general performance increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.376; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when delegation increase OP increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.504; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when delegation increase IP increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.451; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when delegation increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between Protection and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.52; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when protection increase OP increases as well.

The relation between Protection and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.568; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when protection increase IP increases as well.

The relation between Protection and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.563; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when protection increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.604; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when career management increase OP increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.61; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when career management increase IP increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.63; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when career management increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between HRM and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.623; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when HRM increase OP increases as well.

The relation between HRM and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.708; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when HRM increase IP increases as well.

The relation between HRM and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.687; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when HRM increase general performance increases as well.

5.6.2.Evaluation of the relationship between organization commitment and performance levels with correlation analysis

Table 5.30.
Evaluation of the Relationship BetweenOrganization Commitment and Performance Levels with Correlation Analysis

		OP	IP	General Performance
Affective	r	0,383**	0,532**	0,469**
Commitment	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Continuance	r	0,632**	0,600**	0,641**
Commitment	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Normative	r	0,296**	0,473**	0,392**

Commitment	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
General Organization Commitment	r	0,574**	0,694**	0,653**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**

The relation between AC and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.383; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when AC increase OP increases as well.

The relation between AC and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.532; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when AC increase IP increases as well.

The relation between AC and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.469; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when AC increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between CC and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.632; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when CC increase OP increases as well.

The relation between CC and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.6; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when CC increase IP increases as well.

The relation between CC and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.641; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when CC increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between NC and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.296; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when NC increase OP increases as well.

The relation between NC and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.473; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when NC increase IP increases as well.

The relation between NC and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.392; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when NC increase general performance increases as well.

The relation between General Organization Commitment and OP is found statistically significant (r=0.574; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when general organization commitment increase OP increases as well.

The relation between General Organization Commitment and IP is found statistically significant (r=0.694; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when general organization commitment increase IP increases as well.

The relation between General Organization Commitment and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.653; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when general organization commitment increase general performance increases as well.

5.6.3. Evaluation of the relationship between human resource practices and organization commitment levels with correlation analysis

Table 5.31.
Evaluation of the Relationship BetweenHR Practices and Organization Commitment Levels with Correlation Analysis

		Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	General Organization Commitment
Recruitment And Selection	r	0,183**	0,120*	-0,056	0,119*
	p	**0,000**	**0,012**	0,243	**0,013**
Training	r	0,269**	0,159**	0,093	0,231**
	p	**0,000**	**0,001**	0,052	**0,000**
Payment And Reward	r	0,515**	0,318**	0,200**	0,456**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Salary And Wage	r	0,298**	0,249**	0,289**	0,358**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Team working	r	0,397**	0,269**	0,203**	0,381**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Job Description	r	0,400**	0,389**	0,124**	0,408**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,009**	**0,000**
Delegation	r	0,249**	0,160**	0,190**	0,258**
	p	**0,000**	**0,001**	**0,000**	**0,000**
Protection	r	0,286**	0,295**	0,020	0,274**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	0,678	**0,000**
Career Management	r	0,471**	0,392**	0,081	0,426**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	0,091	**0,000**
HRM	r	0,495**	0,374**	0,192**	0,470**
	p	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**	**0,000**

The relation between Recruitment and Selection and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.183; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase AC increases as well.

The relation between Recruitment and Selection and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.12; p=0,012<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase CC increases as well.

However, it reported that the relation between Recruitment and Selection and NC was not statistically significant.

The relation between Recruitment and Selection and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.119; p=0,013<0.05). According to this, when recruitment and selection increase general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Training and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when training increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Training and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.159; p=0,001<0.05). According to this when training increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Training and NC is not found statistically significant.

The relation between Training and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.231; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when training increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Payment And Reward and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.515; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when payment and reward increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Payment And Reward and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.318; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when payment and reward increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Payment And Reward and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.2; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when payment and reward increases NC increases as well.

The relation between Payment And Reward and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.456; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when payment and reward increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.298; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when salary and wage increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.249; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when salary and wage increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.289; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when salary and wage increases NC increases as well.

The relation between Salary And Wage and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.358; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when salary and wage increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Team working and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.397; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when team working increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Team working and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when team working increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Team working and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.203; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when team working increases NC increases as well.

The relation between Team working and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.381; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when team working increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.4; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when job description increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.389; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when job description increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Job Description and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.124; p=0,009<0.05). According to this when job description increases NC increases as well.

The relation between According to this when job description increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.249; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when delegation increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.16; p=0,001<0.05). According to this when delegation increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.19; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when delegation increases NC increases as well.

The relation between Delegation and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.258; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when delegation increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Protection and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.286; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when protection increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Protection and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.295; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when protection increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Protection and NC is not found statistically significant

The relation between The relation between Protection and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.274; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when protection increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.471; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when career management increases AC increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.392; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when career management increases CC increases as well.

The relation between Career Management and NC is found statistically significant.

The relation between Career Management and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.426; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when career management increases general organization commitment increases as well.

The relation between HRM and AC is found statistically significant (r=0.495; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when HRM increases AC increases as well.

The relation between HRM and CC is found statistically significant (r=0.374; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when HRM increases CC increases as well.

The relation between HRM and NC is found statistically significant (r=0.192; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when HRM increases NC increases as well.

The relation between HRM and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (r=0.47; p=0,000<0.05). According to this when HRM increases general organization commitment increases as well.

CHAPTER VI

RESEARCH FINDINGS

In order to test the suggested hypothetical relationships within the research model of the current study and to examine the descriptive findings, various statistical analyses have been applied. As we have mentioned before, the research of the study was designed as review model which was seen as an approach to depict a situation which existed or still existing as it is. As a data collection tool, a questionnaire survey has been performed by utilizing four different scales which are measuring organizational commitment, individual performance, organizational performance, and HR practices. Thereby, after gathering data by questionnaire survey, the data has been entered to the statistical programme named as SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 21.0 program. Initially, the descriptive analysis for each of the scale was applied and the findings were evaluated. In the second stage, the descriptive analysis for the sample groups of the survey was done and the comparative evaluations were performed. In the last stage, the hypotheses tests were done by using correlation and regression. The relation between the dependent and independent variables of the research was tested by Pearson correlation, and the effect was tested by regression. The correlation relations between the scales are evaluated upon underwritten criteria. Finally, the results of the statistical test were evaluated and presented.

To calculate the reliability of 18 items in the "Organization Commitment" scale, "Cronbach Alpha", the coefficient of internal consistence was calculated. The general reliability of the scale was found high as alpha=0.823. In addition, the construct validity of the scale, explanatory (exploratory) factor analysis method was used and the result of the Barlett test (p=0.000<0.05) showed a relation between the variables taken to the factor analysis. According to the result of the test, (KMO=0.717>0,60) sample size was found to be enough for the application of factor analysis. As the result of the factor analysis, the variables were gathered under 3

factors whose total explained variance is 52,338%. The reliability of 6 items forming the Affective Commitment factor was found as α=0,776 and the variance rate was found as 21,33%. The reliability of 6 items forming the Continuance Commitment factor was found as α=0,782 and the variance rate is found as 16,85%. Finally, the reliability of 6 items forming the Normative Commitment factor was found as α=0,739 and the variance rate was found as 14,16%.

To evaluate the reliability of 16 items in the "Performances" scale, "Cronbach Alpha", the coefficient of internal consistence was calculated. The general reliability of the scale was found too high as alpha=0.953. According to the result of the Barlett test, (p=0.000<0.05) it was seen that there was a relation between the variables taken to the factor analysis since the sample size was also enough for the application of factor analysis (KMO=0.859>0,60). The result of the factor analysis showed that variables were gathered under 2 factors having total explained variance as 58,89%. The reliability of 8 items forming the Organizational Performance factor was found as α=0,929 and the variance rate was found as 32,25%. The reliability of 8 items forming the Individual Performance factor was found as α=0,905 and the variance rate was found as 26, 64%.

After the evaluation of the scales' reliabilities and validities, in order to compare the quantitative data, for the difference between two groups, t-test was used and for the inter-group comparison of the parameters for more than two groups, one way Anova test was used. For the test of the group creating the difference, Tukey Post Hoc was utilized. As it was stated before, the findings were evaluated in 95% confidence interval and 5% significance level.

Firstly, we began the analysis with the examination of the tourism sector workers' distribution according to the countries they work and the demographic structure of the participants. It is seen that 106 of tourism sector Worker working in Iran (%44,2) are female, 134 are (%55,8) male; 85 of tourism sector Worker working in Turkey (%42,5) female, 115'i (%57,5) male.100 of tourism sector Worker working in Iran (%41,7) were between 20-25 Age, 89 of them (%37,1) were between 26-35 Age, 51 of them (%21,2) were 36 Age and above; 76 of tourism sector Workers working in Turkey (%38,0) were between 20-25 Age, 79 of them (%39,5) were between 26-35 Age, 45 of them (%22,5) were 36 Age and above. 114 of tourism sector workers working in (%47,5) are married, 126' of them (%52,5) single; 98 of

tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%49,0) were married, 102' of them (%51,0) were single. 97 of tourism sector workers working in Iran (%40,4) were High school graduate, 55 of them (%22,9) were Two-year degree graduate, 58 of them (%24,2) have Bachelor's degree, 30 of them (%12,5) were Postgraduate; 88 of tourism sector workers working in Turkey (%44,0) were High school graduate, 34 of them (%17,0) were Two-year degree graduate, 60 of them (%30,0) have Bachelor's degree, 18 of them (%9,0) were Postgraduates. 2ears, 30 of them (%15,0) are working more than 11 years in the tourism sector.

After the evaluation of the demographic findings, the tourism sector workers' Organization Commitment level averages were examined. It was reported that "affective commitment" level average was medium (3,299 ± 0,827); "continuance commitment" level average was medium (2,816 ± 0,814); "normative commitment" level average was medium (2,933 ± 0,660). The "general organization commitment" level average was also reported as medium (3,016 ± 0,596).

Later, the human resource practice averages of tourism sector workers were evaluated. The results showed that "recruitment and selection " level average was medium (3,207 ± 1,248); "training" level average was medium (3,136 ± 1,105); "payment and reward " level average was medium (3,058 ± 0,812); "salary and wage" level average was medium (2,827 ± 1,191); "team working " level average is high (3,420 ± 0,937); "job description " level average was high (3,402 ± 1,099); "delegation " level average was medium (3,194 ± 0,830); "protection" level average was high (3,833 ± 0,950); "career management" level average was medium (2,959 ± 1,224). Thus, the "HRM" level average was found to be medium (3,283 ± 0,693).

When performance level averages of tourism sector Workers are evaluated, it was seen that "organizational performance" level average was medium (3,317 ± 0,946); "individual performance" level average was medium (3,344 ± 0,796); "general performance" level average was also medium (3,330 ± 0,839).

Moreover, in order to see if genders made a significant difference in affective commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, t-test was applied and the difference between the resulting group averages was found significant statistically (t=2.645; p=0.008<0,05). Female tourism workers' affective commitment score (x=3,417) was found higher than male tourism workers' affective commitment score

(x=3,208). In addition, for defining if age made a significant difference in affective commitment, normative commitment, general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, ANOVA analysis was done and the difference between the resulting group averages was found significant statistically (F=20,135; p=0,000<0.05). For continuance commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the resulting group averages was found significant statistically (F=24,814; p=0,000<0.05). For normative commitment score averages of tourism sector workers, the difference between the resulting group averages was found significant statistically (F=22,921; p=0,000<0.05).

To define if age makes a significant difference in general organization commitment score averages of tourism sector Workers, one way variance analysis (Anova) is applied and the difference between the resulting group averages is found significant statistically (F=34,054; p=0,000<0.05). Complementary post-hoc analysis is applied to define the sources of the differences. General organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,429 ± 0,401), is found higher than general organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged between 20-25 (2,910 ± 0,725). General organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged 36 and more (3,429 ± 0,401), is found higher than general organization commitment score of tourism Workers aged between 26-35 (2,890 ± 0,407).

As a result of the t-test made to define if the country they work makes a significant difference in terms of recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management, HRM score averages, the difference between the groups was not found significant statistically (p>0,05).As a result of the t-test made to define if the gender makes a significant difference in terms of team working score averages, the difference between the groups is found significant statistically (t=7.256; p=0.000<0,05). Female tourism Workers' team working score (x=3,770) are found higher than male tourism Workers' team working score (x=3,151).Female tourism Workers' job description score (x=3,618) are found higher than male tourism Workers' job description score (x=3,237). In addition, female tourism Workers' delegation score (x=3,476) are found higher than male tourism Workers' delegation score (x=2,978).Female tourism Workers' protection score (x=4,115) are found higher than male tourism Workers' protection score (x=3,617).Further, female

tourism Workers' HRM score (x=3,460) are found higher than male tourism Workers' HRM score (x=3,147).

On the other side, the results of the t-test made to define if recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, career management score averages showed a significant difference in terms of the gender variable showed that the difference between the groups is not found statistically significant (p>0,05). However, it was found that recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,427 ± 1,344) were found higher than Recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (2,988 ± 1,257).Training score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,479 ± 1,248) were found higher than training score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,142 ± 1,165). Training score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,479 ± 1,248) were found higher than Recruitment and selection score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35. Moreover, salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,635 ± 0,634) were found higher than salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged between 20 and 25 (2,472 ± 1,326). Salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,635 ± 0,634) were found higher than salary and wage score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (2,738 ± 1,068). In addition, team working score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,510 ± 0,757) were found higher than team working score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,268 ± 0,944).Job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,648 ± 0,801) were found higher than job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (3,274 ± 1,114). Job description score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,648 ± 0,801) were found higher than job description score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and more (3,177 ± 1,422). Further, delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 20-25 (3,321 ± 0,664) were found higher than delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 26-35 (2,941 ± 0,894). Delegation score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,406 ± 0,884) were found higher than delegation score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (2,941 ± 0,894). Additionally, protection score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (4,047 ± 1,140) were found higher than protection score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (3,676 ± 1,075). Lastly, HRM score of the tourism workers' aged 36 and above (3,468 ± 0,871) are

found higher than HRM score of the tourism workers' aged between 26 and 35 (3,151 ± 0,705).As a result of one way variance analysis (Anova) applied to define if the payment and reward, career management score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age variance, the difference between group averages was not found statistically significant (p>0.05).As a result of the t-test analysis, it was seen that single tourism sector Workers' recruitment and selection score (x=3,338) were higher than Married tourism sector Workers' recruitment and selection score (x=3,066), married tourism sector Workers' salary and wage score (x=3,009) were higher than single tourism sector Workers' salary and wage score (x=2,658). Moreover, it was observed that single tourism sector workers' delegation score (x=3,290) were higher than married tourism sector workers' delegation score (x=3,092), single tourism sector Workers' protection score (x=3,972) were higher than Married tourism sector Workers' protection score (x=3,684). Moreover, single tourism sector Workers' career management score (x=3,079) were found higher than Married tourism sector Workers' career management score (x=2,830).

Further, ANOVA was performed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the average salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation scores depending on the educational level of tourism sector workers participating in the study. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the average scores of groups (p>0.05). As a result of Anova applied to see whether individual performance score averages of tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to age or not, the difference in group averages was not found statistically significant (p>0.05). Moreover, as a result of t-test applied to see whether performance, individual performance, general performance score averages of the tourism sector workers in the research show a significant difference according to marital status variance, the difference between the group averages was not found statistically significant (p>0,05).The a result of ANOVA to see whether individual performance and general performance score averages of tourism sector workers participating in the research shows a significant difference according to the time they have been working in the tourism sector variance or not, no statistically significant difference was found (p>0.05).

After the evaluations of the statistical results regarding the descriptive findings of the demographics and the comparisons among the groups, the hypothesis test were applied to define the relationships between the variables of the research model. evaluation of the relationship between HR practices and performance levels were done by using Pearson's correlation analysis.

The relation between Recruitment and Selection and organizational performance is found statistically significant (r=0.31; p=0,000<0.05). It was seen that there was a positive relationship between Recruitment and Selection dimension of HR practices and organizational performance meaning that when recruitment and selection increase, organizational performance increases as well.   The relationship between Recruitment and Selection and individual performance was also found statistically significant and positive (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between training and organizational performance (r=0.237; p=0,000<0.05) and the relation between training and individual performance were found statistically significant and positive (r=0.31; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between payment and reward and organisational performance is found statistically significant (r=0.487; p=0,000<0.05). According to this, when payment and reward increase organizational performance increases as well. The relation between payment and reward and individual performance (r=0.528; p=0,000<0.05 and the relation between payment and reward and general performance were found statistically significant and positive also (r=0.525; p=0,000<0.05). Moreover, the relation between Salary and Wage and organizational performance was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.294; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Salary and Wage and individual performance was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.294; p=0,000<0.05). It was also seen that there was a positive significant relation between Team working and organizational performance (r=0.539; p=0,000<0.05) and individual performance (r=0.642; p=0,000<0.05). In addition, the relation between Job Description and organizational performance was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.358; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Job Description and individual performance was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.474; p=0,000<0.05). Another dimension of HR practices was delegation and this dimension again was positively significantly related with organizational performance (r=0.376; p=0,000<0.05) and individual performance (r=0.504; p=0,000<0.05). The

relation between Protection and organizational performance was found statistically significant (r=0.52; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Protection and individual performance is found statistically significant (r=0.568; p=0,000<0.05). Moreover, it was reported that there was a positive significant relationship between career management and organizational performance (r=0.604; p=0,000<0.05) and individual performance also (r=0.61; p=0,000<0.05). Finally, it was seen that the relation between overall HRM and organizational performance (r=0.623; p=0,000<0.05) and individual performance (r=0.708; p=0,000<0.05) was statistically significant and positive. Thereby, the relation between HRM and general performance is found statistically significant (r=0.687; p=0,000<0.05).

After the analysis of the relationships between the dimensions of the HRM practices and the individual and organizational performance, the relations of HR practices with the organizational commitment variable were examined. Again correlation analysis was applied for these examinations.

Firstly, the relationship between organization commitment and performance levels was tested with correlation analysis. It was revealed that the relation between Affective Commitment and organizational performance was significant and positive (r=0.383; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Affective Commitment and individual performance was significant and positive. (r=0.532; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Continuance Commitment and organizational performance (r=0.632; p=0,000<0.05) and the relation between Continuance Commitment and individual performance were also found statistically significant and positive (r=0.6; p=0,000<0.05). At last, it was found that there was a positive significant relation between Normative Commitment and organizational performance (r=0.296; p=0,000<0.05) and individual performance as well (r=0.473; p=0,000<0.05). On the other hand, when the relation between General Organization Commitment and organizational performance was examined it was seen that there was a significant positive relation (r=0.574; p=0,000<0.05). In addition, the relation between General Organization Commitment and individual performance was also found statistically significant and positive (r=0.694; p=0,000<0.05).

In the next stage, the relationship between HR practices and organization commitment levels were tested with correlation analysis. According to the findings, the relation between Recruitment and Selection and affective commitment was found

statistically significant and positive (r=0.183; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Recruitment and Selection and continuance commitment was found significant and positive (r=0.12; p=0,012<0.05). On the other side, it reported that the relation between Recruitment and Selection and normative commitment was not statistically significant. Further, it was observed that there was a significant and positive relation between Recruitment and Selection and general organization commitment (r=0.119; p=0,013<0.05). The relation between Training and affective commitment was also found statistically significant and positive (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Training and continuance commitment was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.159; p=0,001<0.05). However, the relation between Training and normative commitment was not found statistically significant.

Moreover, it was seen that there was a significant and positive relation between Payment and Reward and affective commitment (r=0.515; p=0,000<0.05) and continuance commitment (r=0.318; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Payment and Reward and general organization commitment was also found statistically significant (r=0.456; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Salary and Wage and affective commitment (r=0.298; p=0,000<0.05) and continuance commitment were found statistically significant and positive (r=0.249; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Salary and Wage and normative commitment was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.289; p=0,000<0.05) while the relation between Salary And Wage and general organization commitment was found statistically significant and positive (r=0.358; p=0,000<0.05).

Furthermore, when the relation between Team working and affective commitment was examined, it was seen that there was a significant positive relationship (r=0.397; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Team working and continuance commitment was also found statistically significant and positive (r=0.269; p=0,000<0.05). The relation between Team working and normative commitment was significant positive (r=0.203; p=0,000<0.05). While the relation between Team working and general organization commitment was statistically significant and positive (r=0.381; p=0,000<0.05).

The Job Description and affective commitment was also positively and significantly (r=0.4; p=0,000<0.05) related with each other. The relation between Job

Description and continuance commitment was found statistically significant (r=0.389; p=0,000<0.05). In addition, it was seen that the relation between Job Description and normative commitment (r=0.124; p=0,009<0.05) was found statistically significant.

On the other side, the relation between Delegation and affective commitment (r=0.249; p=0,000<0.05), continuance commitment (r=0.16; p=0,001<0.05) and normative commitment (r=0.19; p=0,000<0.05) were found statistically significant and positive. Thus, it was observed that the relation between Delegation and general organization commitment was found statistically significant (r=0.258; p=0,000<0.05).

Further, the relation between Protection and affective commitment (r=0.286; p=0,000<0.05) and continuance commitment (r=0.295; p=0,000<0.05) were found statistically significant. However, the relation between Protection and normative commitment were not found statistically significant

At last, the relation between Career Management and affective commitment (r=0.471; p=0,000<0.05), continuance commitment (r=0.392; p=0,000<0.05) and normative commitment were found statistically significant and positive.

Finally, it was reported that the relation between HRM and affective commitment (r=0.495; p=0,000<0.05), continuance commitment (r=0.374; p=0,000<0.05) and normative commitment were found statistically significant and positive (r=0.192; p=0,000<0.05). Thereby, it was observed that the relation between HRM and general organization commitment is found statistically significant and positive (r=0.47; p=0,000<0.05).

After the correlation analysis, regression analysis was applied in order to examine the contributions of each of the HR practices on the individual performance, organizational performance, and organizational commitment. The evaluation of the effect of HR practices on performance levels with regression analysis showed that the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and organizational performance was statistically significant (F=45,395; p=0,000<0.05). As the determinant of the Organizational performance level, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team

working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationships (explanatory potency) were found to be very strong (R^2=0,476). The recruitment and selection level of the tourism workers affected their organizational performance level (p=0.926>0.05). The level of training of the tourism workers decreased their performance levels (ß=-0,153). The level of payment and reward of the tourism workers does not affect their organizational performance level (p=0.929>0.05). The salary and wage level of the tourism workers does not affect their organizational performance level (p=0.193>0.05). The team working level of the tourism workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,274). The job description level of the tourism workers does not affect their organizational performance level (p=0.588>0.05). The delegation level of the tourism workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,112). The protection level of the tourism workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,146). The career management level of the tourism workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,375).

Moreover, the regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and individual performance was found statistically significant (F=70,517; p=0,000<0.05). As the determinant of the Individual performance level, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationships (explanatory potency) are found to be very strong (R^2=0, 588). The recruitment and selection level of the tourism workers increases their individual performance level (ß=-0,063). The level of training of the tourism workers decreases their performance levels (ß=-0, 083). The level of payment and reward of the tourism workers does not affect their individual performance level (p=0.180>0.05). The salary and wage level of the tourism workers decreases their individual performance level (ß=-0,049). The team working level of the tourism workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0, 282). The job description level of the tourism workers does not affect their individual performance level (p=0.173>0.05). The delegation level of the tourism workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0, 214). The protection level of the tourism workers does not affect their individual performance level

(p=0.116>0.05). The career management level of the tourism workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0, 264).

Moreover, the regression analysis showed that the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and general performance was statistically significant (F=63,014; p=0,000<0.05). As the determinant of General performance level, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be very strong (R^2=0,560). The recruitment and selection level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general performance level (p=0.210>0.05). The training level of tourism sector workers decreases their general performance level (ß=-0,118). The payment and reward level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general performance level (p=0.502>0.05). The salary and wage level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general performance level (p=0.085>0.05). The team working level of tourism sector workers increases their general performance level (ß=0,278). The job description level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general performance level (p=0.769>0.05). The delegation level of tourism sector workers increases their general performance level (ß=0,163). The protection level of tourism sector workers increases their general performance level (ß=0,103). The career management level of tourism sector workers increases their general performance level (ß=0,320).

Moreover, the regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between HRM and general performance was found statistically significant (F=392,210; p=0,000<0.05). HRM variables as being the determinants of general performance level (explanatory power) were found to be very strong (R^2=0,471). The HRM level of tourism sector workers increases their general performance level (ß=0,832).

Furthermore, the regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between Affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational performance is found statistically significant (F=105,962; p=0,000<0.05). as the determinant of the Organizational performance level, affective

commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be very strong (R^2=0,418). The affective commitment level of tourism sector workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,141). The continuance commitment level of tourism sector workers increases their organizational performance level (ß=0,654). The normative commitment level of tourism sector workers does not affect their organizational performance level (p=0.136>0.05). In addition, the regression analysis performed to see the relationship between Affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and individual performance is found statistically significant (F=142,291; p=0,000<0.05). as the determinant of the Individual performance level, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be very strong (R^2=0,491). The affective commitment level of tourism sector workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0,239). The continuance commitment level of tourism sector workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0,424). The normative commitment level of tourism sector workers increases their individual performance level (ß=0,263).

The regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and affective commitment is found statistically significant (F=24,656; p=0,000<0.05). as the determinant of Affective commitment, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be very strong (R^2=0,327). The recruitment and selection level of tourism sector workers does not affect their affective commitment level (p=0.239>0.05). thetraining level of tourism sector workers does not affect their affective commitment level (p=0.839>0.05). The payment and reward level of tourism sector workers increases their affective commitment (ß=0,329). The salary and wage level of tourism sector workers does not affect affective commitment level (p=0.328>0.05). The team working level of tourism sector workers increases the affective commitment level (ß=0,145). The job description level of tourism sector workers increases their affective commitment level (ß=0,138). The delegation level of tourism sector

workers does not affect their affective commitment level (p=0.080>0.05). The protection level of tourism sector workers decreases their affective commitment level (ß=-0,134). The career management level of tourism sector workers does not affect affective commitment level (p=0.098>0.05).

Moreover, it was reported that the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and continuance commitment was statistically significant (F=13,868; p=0,000<0.05). As the determinant of the Continuance commitment, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found (R^2=0,209). The recruitment and selection level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.668>0.05). The training level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.573>0.05). The payment and reward level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.343>0.05). The salary and wage level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.159>0.05). The team working level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.850>0.05). The job description level of tourism sector workers increases their continuance commitment level (ß=0,204). The delegation level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.786>0.05). The protection level of tourism sector workers does not affect their continuance commitment level (p=0.759>0.05). The career management level of tourism sector workers increases their continuance commitment level (ß=0,212).

The regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and normative commitment is found statistically significant (F=13,177; p=0,000<0.05). Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management as being the determinants Normative commitment level (explanatory power) are found to be weak (R^2=0,200). The recruitment and selection level of tourism sector workers decreases their

normative commitment level (ß=-0,112). The training level of tourism sector workers did not affect normative commitment (p=0.186>0.05). The payment and reward level of tourism sector workers increases their normative commitment level (ß=0,251). The salary and wage level of tourism sector workers increases their normative commitment level (ß=0,162). The team working level of tourism sector workers increases their normative commitment level (ß=0,167). The job description level of tourism sector workers does not affect their normative commitment level (p=0.836>0.05). The delegation level of tourism sector workers increases their normative commitment level (ß=0,131). The protection level of tourism sector workers decreases their normative commitment level (ß=-0,171). The career management level of tourism sector workers decreases their normative commitment level (ß=-0,146).

The regression analysis carried out to find out the relationship between Recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management and general organization commitment is found statistically significant (F=22,950; p=0,000<0.05). as the determinant of the General organization commitment level, recruitment and selection, training, payment and reward, salary and wage, team working, job description, delegation, protection, career management variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be strong (R^2=0,310). The recruitment and selection level of tourism sector workers decreases their general organization commitment level (ß=-0,055). The training level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general organization commitment level (p=0.874>0.05). The payment and reward level of tourism sector workers increases their general organization commitment level (ß=0,168). The salary and wage level of tourism sector workers increases their general organization commitment level (ß=0,081). The team working level of tourism sector workers increases their general organization commitment level (ß=0,107). The job description level of tourism sector workers increases their general organization commitment level (ß=0,112). The delegation level of tourism sector workers does not affect their general organization commitment level (p=0.063>0.05). The protection level of tourism sector workers decreases their general organization commitment level (ß=-0,096). The career management level of

tourism sector workers does not affect their general organization commitment level (p=0.174>0.05).

Finally, it was seen that the relationship between HRM and general organization commitment was statistically significant (F=123,944; p=0,000<0.05). As the determinant of the General organization commitment level, HRM variables and relationship (explanatory power) are found to be strong (R^2=0,219). The HRM level of tourism sector workers increases their general organization commitment level (ß=0,404).

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The current study investigated the relationships between HRM practices, organisational commitment and individual and organizational performance. The extant literature has argued that HRM practices would provide positive contributions to both individual and organizational performance and the attitudinal outcomes of the employees. It has been reported that employees could perform better and have growth within the organization through greater organizational commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001) so that the organizational performance may increase. In this study, organizational performance construct has been examined with two sub dimensions of performance in organizations which are named as organizational performance and individual performance. Additionally, due to the several conceptualizations of organizational commitment in the literature, Meyer and Allen's (1990) conceptualization has been regarded for the framework of the study. Thereby, the study included and investigated three types of commitment named as affective, continuance and normative commitment.

The preliminary literature study has showed that there was an empirical support indicating that HRM practices would affect organisational commitment that would have an effect on individual and organizational level performance and overall effectiveness within several areas of organizations. Therefore, based on the previous conceptual arguments and evidences, it has been expected that HRM practices would have positive relations with organizational commitment, individual and organizational performance. In sum, the main question of this was based on to understand the relationships between HRM practices, Organizational Commitment, Individual Job Performance and Organizational Performance. In order to test the assumptions of this study, a research study has been conducted in travel agencies in Iran and Turkey comparatively throughout a questionnaire survey.

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In order to test the hypothesis regarding the relationships between the variables of the research model, Pearson's correlation analysis and regression analysis were applied. As it can be seen in the previous parts, the suggested relationships between the HRM practices and organizational commitment were supported. Thus, it can be stated that H1 which indicated that "HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Commitment" has been supported. H1a, H1b, and H1c were also supported since each dimension of organizational commitment including affective, continuous and normative commitment was significantly and positively related with HRM practices. Moreover, H2 which indicated that "HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Individual Job Performance" was supported since each of the dimensions of HRM practices was significantly and positively related with individual job performance. Finally, it was seen that HRM practices were significantly and positively related with organizational performance also, therefore H3 which stated that "HRM practices will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance" was also supported.

In the next stage, H4 and H5 were tested. H4 which stated that "Organizational Commitment" will have significant positive relationship with Individual Job Performance" and H5 which stated that "Organizational Commitment will have significant positive relationship with Organizational Performance" were supported. H4a, b, c and H5a, b, c were all supported also since each of the dimensions of organizational commitment has significant and positive relationship with individual and organizational commitment.

The previous literature has indicated that HRM practices have significant impacts on positive individual and organizational outcomes. Organizational performance and effectiveness and individual job performance have been linked to successful implementation of HRM practices in the organizations. Additionally, positive employee attitudes such as loyalty, identification, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were also associated with HRM practices' effectiveness. Therefore, it can be suggested that the results of the currents study are consistent with the previous literature arguments and evidences.

In this context, we suggest that for creating and sustaining competitive advantage in nowadays turbulent environment, organizations should continually improve their business performance. The organizations should recognize the potential of their human resources as a source of sustained competitive advantage. In addition, it is known that tourism sector has great importance for both Turkish and Iranian economies. Iran as a big country in the Middle East has many natural, historical and cultural resources. However, but Turkish and Iranian tourism sectors still have some problems. Therefore, it would be better for the tourism agencies to implement successful HR practices in order to create higher performance. Accordingly, it is suggested that the organisations may use better measurement approaches, such as workforce scorecards, in order to gain insight into how the human resources in their organisation add value as Voorde et al (2010) have stated. The relationship between HRM and firm performance has been indicated by various scientific researches. Therefore, it is observed that the results of this study are consistent with the previous studies. This study proves evidence between positive attitudes towards HR policies and practices, levels of satisfaction, motivation and commitment, and operational performance. We suggest that people are the organization's key resource and organizational performance largely depends on them. Thus, an appropriate range of HR policies and processes is developed and implemented effectively, then HR will make a substantial impact on firm performance. This suggestion has been also stated in a prior study by Paul and Anantharaman (2003). Consistent with previous arguments, we also point out that HRM practices such as selection, training, work environment and performance appraisal may enhance the competence of employees for higher performance. Furthermore, commitment is one of the factors of HRM policy for an effective organization. In the literature, employees' commitment has been seen as the key factor in achieving competitive performance. Shahnawaz and Juyal (2007) indicated that HRM practices were significantly predicting organizational commitment in organizations. Therefore, we may say that our results are consistent with prior findings.

It can be said that the relationships that are suggested in this study have not been investigated comparatively between the employees working in the tourism sectorsin Turkey and in Iran. In both Iranian and Turkish business literature, there are

few research conducted regarding employee perceptions of HRM practices and organisational commitment and employees' performance in tourism sectors. Thus, this study may provide a significant contribution to the Turkish and Iranian business worlds, in particular tourism sectors through examining the impacts of HRM practices such as selection, training and development, performance appraisal and employee support on organizational commitment and individual and organizational performance.

First limitation of this study is its generalizability due to the geographic boundaries of the data collected for the study. The inferences drawn from such a sample in Turkey and Iran may not be fully generalizable to whole country or the tourism agencies from other countries in different cultures. Also, since the questionnaires were distributed by using convenient sampling method, the control pertaining to who fills the questionnaire was limited. Related with this limitation, a major constraint was the disability of getting the respondents to fill in the questionnaire in a complete way although they were just on feet and continuing their works, so that a limited number of complete questionnaires were obtained in the study. Moreover, the sample size of the study was limited to respondents in Iran and Turkey. Hence, this situation limited to generalize the findings to the overall population.

Another limitation is about the content of the measurement items. The commitment, individual performance, organizational performance and HRM practices' scales were developed for Turkish and Iranian culture by the help of original scales and the scales used by the Turkish researchers earlier. Finally, due to the research scope that focuses on commitment, performance and HRM practices, this study did not address other personality and environmental variables, such as personality traits of the employees, socio-cultural features, economic conditions etc.

Thus, in order to make a better explanation of the relationship between the research concepts, a broader geographic region can be chosen with a higher number of respondents as the sample group. This would enable the research findings to be more valid. Additionally, to increase the credibility of the study, like scales used

measuring research variables in this study, new scales characterizing Turkish and Iranian beliefs, values and norms might be developed and used.

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