



NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM

**THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT ON JOB
SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT: A STUDY IN MANUFACTURING
SECTORS**

Adnan ALPARSLAN

PhD THESIS

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2020

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PhD THESIS

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2020

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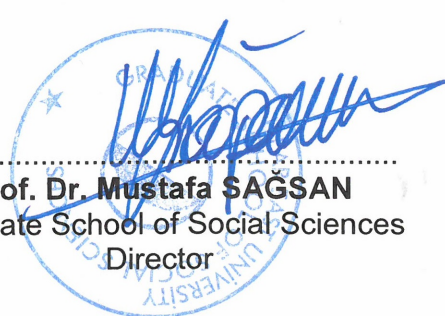
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ABSTRACT

THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A STUDY IN MANUFACTURING SECTORS

One of the most important arguments that enterprises need in order to maintain a sustainable growth process by achieving a competitive advantage in global markets is the need for skilled employees. The ability to keep talented employees in business, to be guided and managed is an area that needs to be specialized. In this sense, a number of personnel from human resources departments to managers are in the process of talent management should work together. In addition to directing and managing talented employees, in-service training of these people is important in the scope of talent management in the satisfaction of their work and the expected organizational commitment as a result of this satisfaction. The aim of this research in in-service company operating in the manufacturing sector in Turkey business of talent management practices of employee's satisfaction is supported with education and examines their impact on commitment to the organization. For this purpose, survey data was collected from 32 production companies from İstanbul operating in the textile, automotive, logistics and pharmaceutical sectors in Istanbul that have institutionalized talent management and in-service training practices to a large extent. In-Service Training Scale, Talent Management Perception Scale, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and Allen Meyer Organizational Commitment Scales were used within the scope of the survey. The hypotheses of the study were tested using independent intergroup t test, variance analysis and hierarchical regression analysis based on data collected from a total of 575 employees working in these businesses. As a result of the analyses, it was determined that job satisfaction levels of employees differed according to gender, duration of work in the institution and title. In addition, it was found that talent management in general positively affects employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and that in-service training mediates this relationship.

Keywords: Talent, Talent Management, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, In- Service Training

ÖZ

YETENEK YÖNETİMİ UYGULAMALARININ PERSONELİN İŞ TATMİNİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIKLARINA ETKİSİ: ÜRETİM SEKTÖRLERİNDE BİR ÇALIŞMA

İşletmelerin küresel piyasalarda rekabet avantajı elde ederek sürdürülebilir bir büyüme sürecini devam ettirebilmek için ihtiyaç duyduğu en önemli argümanlardan biriside bünyesinde yetenekli çalışanlara duyduğu ihtiyaçtır. Yetenekli çalışanların işletmede tutulabilmesi, yönlendirilip yönetilebilmesi ise uzmanlaşmaya ihtiyaç duyulan bir alandır. Bu anlamda işletmelerin İK departmanlarından, yöneticilere kadar bir dizi eleman yetenek yönetimi sürecinde birlikte çalışmalıdır. Yetenekli çalışanların yönlendirilmesi ve yönetilmesinin yanında, bu kişilerin hizmet içi eğitimi, işlerinde yaşadıkları tatmin ve bu tatminin sonucunda beklenen örgütsel bağlılıkta yetenek yönetimi kapsamında önem arz etmektedir. Bu araştırmanın amacı da Türkiye’de üretim sektöründe faaliyet gösteren işletmelerde hizmet içi eğitimle desteklenmiş yetenek yönetimi uygulamalarının çalışanların iş tatmini ve örgüte bağlılıkları üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda İstanbul’da tekstil, otomotiv, lojistik ve ilaç sektöründe faaliyet gösteren ve yetenek yönetimi ve hizmet içi eğitim uygulamalarını büyük ölçüde kurumsallaştırmış 32 üretim işletmesinden anket tekniği ile veri toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın hipotezleri söz konusu işletmelerde çalışan toplam 575 çalışandan toplanan veriler üzerinden bağımsız gruplar arası t testi, varyans analizi ve hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda; çalışanların iş tatmin düzeylerinin cinsiyet, kurumda çalışma süresi ve unvana göre farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Buna ilave olarak, genel olarak yetenek yönetiminin çalışanların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılıklarını olumlu yönde etkilediği ve hizmet içi eğitimin söz konusu ilişkiye aracılık ettiği saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yetenek, Yetenek Yönetimi, İş Tatmini, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Hizmet içi Eğitim

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INTRODUCTION

All types of businesses need to channel their human resources to focus on innovative and creative projects so that they can retain competition in a globalized market in a sustainable and profitable manner and that they can progress in a healthy way. Innovative and creative projects can be realized due to talented personnel who are open to developing themselves in this direction. In order to manage talented personnel, businesses need to establish an effective talent management system; because retaining and directing talented people is a task that requires expertise.

Talent management is a systematic process. The main purpose of this process can be minimized as maintaining leadership in important positions and paving the way for personal development. On the other hand, talent management, which can be described as employing the right employee at the right place at the right time, includes workforce planning, talent analysis, recruitment process, training and development activities, retention and backup plans.

Talent management practices were recently introduced in Turkey as in the world. It is seen that national and international publications on this subject started to enter the literature mostly after 2000's. On the other hand, it is seen that there is almost no study in our country about organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which is the subject of the concept of talent management concerning the "talented" people. In this sense, the main purpose of this study is to make a positive contribution to the literature by examining the effects of talent management practices on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the personnel.

This study consists of five main sections covering all processes in order to better understand the effects of talent management practices on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The first part mentions the capability and talent management. In this section, the phenomenon of talent management is examined with all its stages after the concept of talent is examined in terms of its relations with other similar concepts.

The second part of the study explains the study of the in-service training phenomenon that companies use both to establish the organizational culture and to specialize employees in certain areas. In this sense, firstly, the concept of in-service training has been defined and then the in-service training process has been tried to be explained.

In the third part of the study, the issue of job satisfaction is mentioned. After explaining the concept of job satisfaction, which is one of the important factors of sustaining the continuity of the businesses, the types of job satisfaction and the factors affecting job satisfaction, and then various theoretical approaches aiming to explain the job satisfaction are discussed. Finally, this section examines the possible consequences of job dissatisfaction and describes the various scales introduced to measure job satisfaction.

In the fourth section, the issue of organizational commitment, which is the intended and expected result of job satisfaction, has been explained conceptually first as in previous issues, and the approaches that various scientists have suggested to classify organizational commitment are examined. Then, the factors affecting organizational commitment and the results of organizational commitment are tried to be explained with various concepts related to the subject.

The last part of the study is the application part that aims to reveal the effect of talent management on the job satisfaction and commitment of the employees. A comprehensive survey study covering the textile, automotive, logistics and pharmaceutical sectors was made and the findings were analyzed with the SPSS analysis program in this section. “In-Service Training Scale”, “Talent Management Perception Scale”, “Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale” and “Allen Meyer Organizational Commitment Scale” were used in the analysis, and the information obtained was evaluated in the conclusion part of the study.

CHAPTER 1

1. TALENT MANAGEMENT

The most intense competition is experienced for skilled personnel while moving from the industrial production society to the information and consumption society. Information society is seen as an economic stage in which information is evaluated as the production factor, lifelong learning has become inevitable and information technologies come to the fore. It is observed that the dimensions of competition between nations and organizations have widened while the world shrinks with the developments in information technologies. These developments have led to the emergence of differences in the labor market, where traditionally candidates are sellers and businesses are buyers and they cause an important competition process regarding the employment of talented personnel.

In this context, it is seen that talented employees concentrate on their personal development beyond their work for a particular employer by guaranteeing employability, with the disappearance of the understanding of employment, which is seen as safe, can continue for life, based on predictable progress and requires a guaranteed payment. Skilled employees combine today's understanding of employment in a more flexible and adaptable way. By providing important and interesting works, they provide opportunities for personal development and work-life balance, and they show a big change in business values.

Talent management is a comprehensive and integrated process used to create excellent organizations today. First of all, it is necessary to embrace what is done at the level of management in order to create an organizational structure based on the talent concept and to manage it successfully. Then, a

talent management strategy integrated with corporate culture, goals, objectives and strategies is created.

In this management approach, it is necessary to attract talented people to the company and to provide an environment that will create added value by retaining them through effective development programs. Then, it is evaluated based on the effective performance and competence systems of high-performing people. Successful results can be obtained from the method by applying innovative recognition and rewarding systems by differentiating those who perform differently from others. This requires companies to have a high performance and result oriented culture. (Altuntuğ, 2009, 449).

1.1. Concept of Talent and Its Definition

The word "talent" is one of the frequently used concepts in daily life. The Turkish Language Association has defined the word "talent" in four different ways. These are;

- A person's ability to understand or do something, ability.
- The innate power and capacity of the organism to comply with a situation.
- Limit based on heredity and framing his/her learning.
- The power to get the effect from outside (<http://www.tdk.gov.tr> [14.11.2017]).

Talent is the ability to apply repetitive thinking, emotion, and behavioral skills in a creative and productive way. If a person is competitive, persistent and responsible by nature, he/she can be said to be talented. In human resources, the concept of talent is the ability of the individual to do better on whatever potential. Communication ability, persuasion ability and perception ability are examples of this situation (Akar, 2015, 19).

The concept of ability is expressed in the English language with the word "talent". It is stated that every letter in the original spelling of the concept of talent is the initial of a concept in business world. (Figure 1). Accordingly, T represents Triumph, A represents Ability, L represents Leadership, E represents Easiness, N represents New-Fangled and T represents Time (Doğan, 2008, 147).

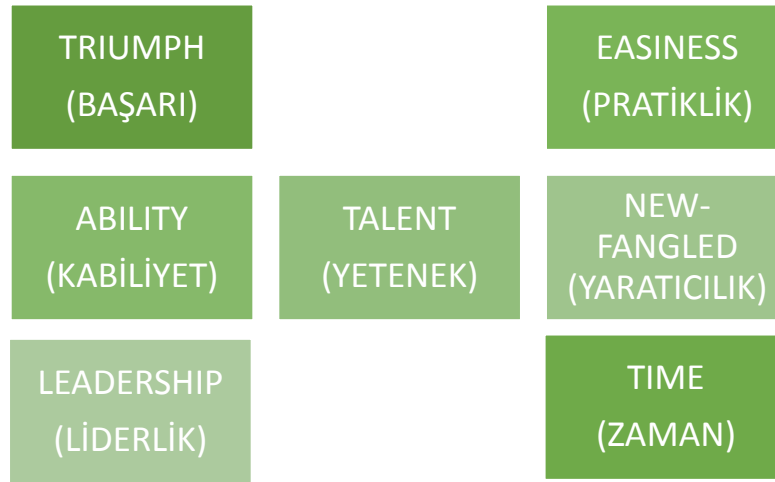


Figure 1.1: Components of “Talent”

Resource: Selen Doğan, Özge Demiral, (2008). İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminde Çalışanların Kendilerine Doğru Yolculuk Yöntemi: Yetenek Yönetimi. Ç.Ü. Journal of Social Sciences Institute, 17(3), 145-166.

The concept of talent at the organizational level is defined by Abraham as “Employees make a difference in terms of their organizational performance either by making immediate contributions or by displaying the highest potential over a long period of time” (Abraham, 2011, 610). Talented individuals in organizations are often immediately noticed. The earlier the organizers can reach the distinction of talented individuals, the greater will be the efficiency and motivation of the individual.

Another definition for “talent” was made in the organizational level by Akar. According to Akar, talent is “all the experience, knowledge, skills and behaviors that a person has and that a person gives to the organization or uses for work” (Akar, 2015, 21).

Erdogan explained the “talent” as follows: “All of the physical features of the person such as comprehending, analyzing, solving, concluding certain works and performing some features” In this case, “talent” can be considered as the “mental and physical capacities that individuals use to regulate their behavior” (Erdoğan, 1999, 87).

Atlı expresses the meaning of talented worker in business life as follows: “They are the people who have high potential, have extensive knowledge and

skills, can manage the changes, and develop the institution by creating value. In other words, the employee is a valuable employee because of his/her knowledge and skills and his/her contribution to the employer.” (Atlı, 2012, 78).

In business life, talent can be thought to be a virtue of managers; however, it includes a wide range from increasingly specialized business segments to employees. It identifies individuals with high talent performance, self-motivation, adaptation to corporate culture, and leadership characteristics in the business world.

1.2. Relation of Talent Concept with Similar Concepts

1.2.1. Talent and Competence-Sufficiency

In the Turkish Language Association dictionary, the concept of “competence” means Sufficiency, maturity, perfection, and ripeness. Competence has the same meaning as “merit” (<http://www.tdk.gov.tr> [14.11.2017]). Competence can be defined as observable behaviors that involve knowledge, skills and personality traits that are distinctive in achieving superior performance in a business (Ünsar, 2009, 44).

The concept of competence first entered the literature on business through the work of Selznick in 1957. Selznick spoke of “Distinguishing skills” in explaining key success factors of a business (Selznick, 2011, 41). This idea was later developed by Coimbatore and Hamel (Coimbatore, Hamel, 1990, 80-81). The introduction of competencies in the field of human resources first took place in 1959 by Robert White. White talked about human characteristics, which was defined as “competence” (ability, skill, competence) (White, 1959, 297).

Later, McClelland used this concept. In this article, McClelland developed an approach to reveal the skills and abilities that he called “competence”, unlike the widely accepted intelligence tests at that time. McClelland used the concept of competence in other works and defined competence as distinguishing features that provide superior success. (McClelland, 1973, 1).

Competence is defined as the information, skills and attitudes that are needed for the position or task in an organization and that distinguish

superior performance. Competence is expressed as the behaviors that employees should have or obtaining the inputs needed to achieve superior performance. Sufficiency is expressed as outputs and performance or standards system (Kozak, Yetgin, 2013, 410). Briefly, while competency refers to certain standards for duties and behaviors, sufficiency is expressed in the form of the knowledge, skill, attitude and behavior level shown by the individual according to these standards.

The level of competence of the individual can be determined on the basis of competence standards. According to Kozak and Yetgin, who stated that factors such as knowledge, skill, attitude, behavior and superior performance are the main pillars of competence, competencies are gathered in five groups.

These competencies are expressed as follows:

- Technical competencies.
- Leadership and management competencies.
- Appropriate thinking and problem solving competencies.
- Success competencies (superior performance).
- Interpersonal competencies (Kozak, Yetgin, 2013, 416).

Self-efficacy belief, which is shown as one of the most important concepts of Social Learning Theory belonging to Bandura, is defined as the belief that individuals have in their ability to plan and organize the processes required to perform a task or behavior, and the self-confidence that individuals have depending on their potential to perform the task. (Bandura, 1982, 122).

Self-efficacy belief creates a difference in the way people feel, think and behave as a difference. Self-efficacy belief also increases the motivational aspect of the person by revealing the effort and ability to successfully complete a task, thereby influencing performance (Çelikkaleli, Çapri, 2008, 95). However, the level of self-efficacy refers to the physical, mental, emotional, and psychological resistance limits the individual has in order to perform a behavior or task. According to Ünsar, four factors are effective in forming the self-efficacy belief. These factors are as follows:

- Successful performances.
- Indirect experiences.
- Social persuasion.
- Emotional state (Ünsar, 2009, 46).

According to Biçer and Düztepe, competence can be evaluated as knowledge and skill groups that affect the role and responsibility of the work done by the employee, related to performance, measurable and developed by education. “Competence” is also defined as observable attitude behaviors that contain the knowledge, skills and attitudes that will make it different in order to achieve the best performance in any task or action. (Biçer, 2003, 13-20).

According to Tak et al., competence is a form of behavior acquired later. It refers to methods of analyzing, interpreting and taking action. Competence creates the first dimension of the skill and character traits by nature. (Tak, Sayılar, Kaymaz, 2007, 240). Features representing competence are discussed below:

- Motives: It is the thoughts, desires and impulses that lead the person to show certain behaviors. Motives lead to the choice, direction and implementation of behavior.
- Personal characteristics: It is the attitudinal behavior of the person against an event. For example, result-oriented approach, self-regulation etc. Motives and personal traits are innate and therefore they are difficult to change.
- Self-view: The person's sense of self, self-perception and basic values.
- Information: It is defined as processed data that a person has in a particular subject.
- Skill: It is the ability to perform physical or mental act. (Tak, Sayılar, Kaymaz, 2007, 241).

As the second dimension, motives, personal characteristics and personality structure are considered as competencies that direct behavior by creating individual performance. A competence has to be able to influence business

performance and has to encompass an intention or desire that leads to action or outcome. In the third dimension, the fact that a competence that is thought to have does not make a significant difference on employee success means that this cannot be evaluated as a skill. Qualifications of competencies can be evaluated by making employees successful (Tak, Sayılar, Kaymaz, 2007, 241-242).

In summary, while the mental and physical capacity of the person shows the phenomenon of talent, how the knowledge, skills and attitudes are used in achieving this performance shows the competence of the person. Knowledge and human resources are the whole talents that distinguish the institution from other institutions and form the basis of the vision of the business. Competence is the combination of the abilities of the institution that makes a difference in a competitive environment (Saruhan, 2012, 26).

1.2.2 Talent and Performance

Performance is a concept that quantitatively and qualitatively determines what is achieved as a result of purposeful and planned activities, and it can be explained as absolute or relative. In general, performance is defined together with efficiency in service, productivity or frugality in production. Here, performance is a quantitative and qualitative statement of the extent to which an individual, a group or an organization doing a job can achieve the intended goal with that job. Briefly, it is the degree of success shown in any job. (Özer, 2008, 44).

The lexical meaning of performance is the power and ability to achieve success and achieve the desired result. The qualitative and quantitative definition of the results of a planned activity that aims the business is called performance. In other words, the outputs or results of the business as a result of a certain period of time (Yıldız, 2010, 181).

There are common features between high performing individuals and talented individuals. These features are listed as follows:

- High level of expertise.
- Leadership behaviors.
- Productivity.

- It is thought that the factors that determine the performance of the enterprise, which is based on self-reliance and originates from the 'ability attitude', are generally intelligence, perseverance, stability, knowledge, and experience (Tansley, 2011, 33).

According to Kaynak, there is a linear relationship between performance and talent (Kaynak, 1990, 12). Accordingly, it is a data in terms of individual talent management and when it is associated with performance, we can say that “performance, therefore, efficiency is a linear function of talent. Considering that the degree of performance is dependent only on talent, “performance is a whole set of talents acquired through birth and later developed through education and experience” (Kaynak, 1990, 16). In Figure 1.2, it is stated that the performance is directly proportional to the talent and shows the total performance.

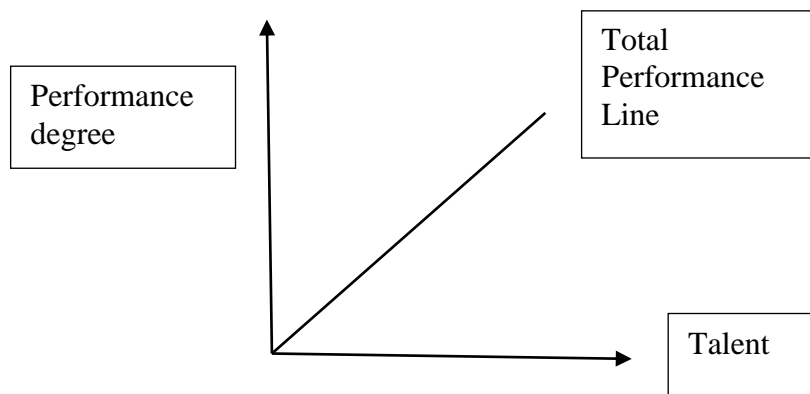


Figure 1.2: The Relationship between Performance and Talent

Tuğray Kaynak, *Organizasyonel Davranış*, İstanbul: Istanbul University Faculty of Business Publications, 1990).

1.2.3 Talent and Skill

Talent and skill are two very close concepts. Skills are acquisitions obtained through academic or self-education ways of trial and error, formal or informal training, and through general ability courses or hobby courses. The acquisitions obtained continue lifelong with the individual, depending on the frequency of repetition of these acquisitions. Skill is a result interpreted concept (Buckingham, Coffman, 2007, 49). In many cases, the question of

whether a success will be evaluated as a talent or a skill cannot be completely separated.

Talent, on the other hand, is a concept that usually comes with birth and can be developed in the life process, and with the acquisition of skills, it can go even higher. While not every talented person may be skilled, every skilled person is talented in terms of skills. Gathering skills on the same subject makes the individual talented in that subject. Perhaps the difference between talent and skill can be explained with one example: Skills can be learned and attempted to be transferred from one individual to another, as in the master-art relationship. But if the transferred individual is talented in terms of skill, he/she can effectively use the skill transferred to him/her. (Tak, Sayılar, Kaymaz, 2007, 248).

1.2.4 Talent and Potential

Potential is another concept associated with talent. When the concept of potential, which expresses the probability of realization, is considered in terms of employees in enterprises, it is a concept used for people who can acquire new skills or struggle with new formations with their current skills in the situations they encounter recently. While performance is related to whether the employee is successful in his/her current job description, roles and responsibilities, potential is the measure of whether the employee will succeed in new positions in the future (Berger, Berger, 2003, 6).

Businesses need talent management practices to gain high potential employees, to retain them and to perform in a way that will add value to the business. When associated with the concept of potential, talent reveals the ability to do a job potentially. Businesses desire to work with candidates who have the potential to adapt to and contribute to the corporate culture. It is an obvious situation that employees with the necessary knowledge, skills and potential will contribute to the business. Potential is regarded as a measure of success for the top tasks that the employee can take responsibility in the future (Akin, 2002, 98).

Potential describes the individual's capabilities and capacities such as leadership characteristics, creativity and innovation, and it is directly related

to talent. The concept of potential and talent cannot be understood to be related as other related concepts. The task of managers is to determine the potential they have in addition to instant performance in the people they will employ in terms of the future of their business. In talent management, it is important to identify potential as well as talent and employ individuals in appropriate positions.

1.2.5 Talent and Experience

Extensive research in many areas has proven that no matter how long they have been doing the job, these people are not exceptionally good at their jobs, or even they aren't beyond their skills when they start work.. It is also proved that highly experienced people are not better than those with the least experience in their work when it comes to basic skills (Colvin, 2011, 10).

In recent researches on business managers, they have obtained findings that will reinforce the above-mentioned. Researchers from the INSEAD School of Business in France and the US maritime school have called this phenomenon the 'Experience Trap'. The key finding is that while companies attach importance to experienced managers with a typical attitude, rigorous research has generally shown that experienced managers do not achieve superior results. This has become even stranger to some situations where some people perform worse as they gain experience. Experienced doctors have almost always received lower scores than inexperienced doctors in exams measuring medical knowledge. It is also found that auditors have become less skilled when assessing certain types of evaluation over time (Colvin, 2011, 11).

In addition to these explanations, Benjamin F. Jones, from the Northwestern University management school, conducted a research on the achievement of Nobel laureates and other innovators. As a result of this research, it has come to the conclusion that scientists and economists can make less frequent contributions in their advanced ages and the age at which people receive their first patents in a wide area from business to management increases every 6-7 percent. (Conaty, Charan, 2011, 163).

As a result, developing the talent with experience increases the skill and capacity in the four core elements of the talent (personality traits, qualifications, building relationships and people, judging the job). The processes of learning and experience by doing is a process that will not be replaced by a book or a course.

1.3 Peter's Principle and the Concept of Talent

The Peter Principle is a concept developed by Laurence J. Peter in the 1980s and penned by Raymond Hull, advocating the view that "everyone working in the bureaucracy will rise to a level where he/she will show incompetence" (Laurence, Hull, 2009, 11). In other words, "Anyone in the bureaucracy has a level of incompetence and he/she can promote only to that level." In summary, if an employee is promoted to the top position as he / she is successful in his/her current position, he/she is finally taken to a position that does not match his/her abilities and he/she is provided to work there for a long time. "As a result, the number of unskilled employees in key positions increases, and the performance of the business decreases (Yalçın, 2006, 54).

Based on this principle, an enterprise should make all necessary preliminary preparations in the vicinity of the human resources policies it implements, before upgrading its employees who are successful in their current duties to an upper position, and it should provide the necessary training and development opportunities for the employee to be successful when he/she reaches the upper position.

Then, if it is concluded that the employee has the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities for the new position, the enterprise should perform the necessary upgrade for its employee. Otherwise, according to the Peter Principle, the enterprise will be filled with untalented employees, especially in key positions, resulting in a decrease in the performance of the enterprise in a competitive environment.

Drucker stated that the key to increasing the productivity of the brain workers is to focus them on real tasks. Drucker stated that upgrading two out of three employees to the top position fails, but only one of the three employees can

succeed in their new positions. (Drucker, 2009, 18). While there is a lot of data that can determine that the employee is successful in his/her current job, the important thing is to determine in advance what skills he/she has to succeed in a higher position.

1.4 Pareto Rule and Concept of Talent

The Pareto rule laid out by Vilfredo Pareto constitutes the most important of 20% of causes and 80% of results in normal distribution. In this context, the Pareto Rule has an effect of 20% to 80%. Situations such as about 80% of the cost are caused by only 20% of the staff or about 80% of the wealth is in the hands of 20% of the population can be examples of this subject. Due to these rates, the Pareto principle is also called the "80-20" rule, the "90-10" rule or the "70-30" rule in the literature. Pareto chart, also called ABC analysis, is used as the usual basic separation method or determination of priorities (Koch, 1998, 21).

The effective implementation of the Pareto rule took place in the period after the Second World War. The Pareto Rule, valid in the concept of talent, reveals that 80% of the work is done by 20% of the employees. 95% of the future of businesses depend on their most valuable employees, which make up only 5% of employees (Koch, 1998, 23).

In this context, it is very important for businesses to be aware of their talented employees and to apply strategies that can achieve maximum efficiency by ensuring their loyalty to the company in order not to lose their employees. In addition, importance should be given to talented employees who will add competitive advantage and value to the business; because companies are unlikely to find a talented employee in the event of losing their skilled employee. In terms of cost, businesses should not ignore the Pareto rule for qualified employees to do quality work and to do this at low cost (Altınöz, 2009, 33).

1.5. The Separation of Individual Talent and Corporate Talent

There are very important developments and changes that businesses face increasingly both inside and outside. This situation has manifested itself especially in the last 20 years. Undoubtedly, the basis of this development

and change is the rapidly increasing different needs and purchasing behaviors of customers (Eren, Alpan, Erol, 2009, 202).

These changes naturally lead businesses to a process such as meeting these needs and leading the competition. In addition, internal and external environmental processes such as increasing local and international competition, rapidly developing technology and intense use of technology, decreasing the lifetime of the products, making new arrangements in the organizational structure, and radical changes that concern the whole business in extraordinary situations are challenging businesses. Implementing these processes correctly is not possible with a simple method such as copying the success of other businesses (Eren, Alpan, Erol, 2009, 204).

Therefore, businesses should be able to find a solution for themselves. Organizations in this case have to direct their attention to their own values and to the basic functional skills they have developed over time. These abilities are unique to each business and ensure that the business maintains its superiority over other businesses, provided that it is used effectively. In other words, they can have an impact that increases the performance of the business (Gümüş, Öksüz, 2009, 2640).

A business can clearly define its institutional boundaries if it recognizes its fundamental capabilities. (Eren, Alpan, Erol, 2009, 205). Another point to be emphasized about talent emerges here. Corporate talent is to meet business operations and stakeholder demands and expectations (Gümüş, Öksüz, 2009, 2642). Individual talent, on the other hand, expresses the superior aspects that an individual possesses and exhibits and consists of a combination of knowledge, skills and other characteristics that are critical to the success of the individual within the organization (Tak, Sayılar, Kaymaz, 2007, 242).

According to these definitions, individual talent is a part of corporate talent and refers to the talents that belong to the staff. We can think of these two concepts as a system. They are both interconnected parts that are combined

to achieve the same purpose. The talents of the employees in the organization will affect the performance and success of the organization.

The aim of corporate talent is to reach the targets previously determined by the institution. It is the fulfillment of the mission undertaken by the institution. In particular, the achievement of distant goals owned by institutions is considered as evidence that it has a different and superior ability than other institutions. Individual talent also brings the person's ability to do a job, having knowledge such as knowledge, skill, leadership, and effective use of time. (Altınöz, 2009, 9).

1.6. The Definition of Talent Management and Its Content

“Talent Management” is one of the most effective solutions that companies can use to meet their innovation needs. For this reason, talent management is one of the topics that occupy both the human resources managers of the companies and academicians. We can define Talent Management as a management process with “human resources” at its center which tries to close the gap between the skills it needs and its existing capabilities systematically in order for the company to cope with the challenges it faces and to achieve its goals by realizing its strategies (Çırpan, 2009, 111).

Many definitions made by both researchers and practitioners regarding Talent Management are included in the literature. However, it should be pointed out that Talent Management does not have a single, consistent and simple definition, and that there are differences in the definitions according to the perspectives of those interested in the subject (Aston, Morton, 2005, 30). The basis of these differences is that some of the definitions are made by practitioners and others are made by researchers. Since each business conducts different applications related to Talent Management within the framework of its special conditions, it is very common. Some of the definitions made by researchers and theorists are as follows:

“Talent management, which covers all HR processes, management and technologies, is talent optimization at the junctions of recruitment, development and workforce management processes.” (Schweyer, 2004, 205).

“Talent management is to ensure that the right employees can perform the right applications in line with the needs of the business at the right time, at the right jobs and through the right applications.” (Mucha, 2004, 99). “Talent management is a perspective or understanding, not a set of topics.” (Creelman, 2004, 3).

“Talent management is beginning to confront many businesses today. Talent management is an approach that requires collaboration and communication between managers, that includes various stages such as talent management, workforce planning, recruitment, training and development of personnel, reviewing the talents of the personnel, success planning, performance evaluation, retention of possessions at all levels of the business.” (McCauley, Wakefield, 2006, 4).

“Talent management is a management process with a 'human resource' at the center, which attempts to systematically close the gap between the talents it needs and its existing talents so that the company can cope with the challenges it faces and reach its goals by realizing its strategies.” (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 110).

Considering some articles published in the literature based on practitioners, it is seen that Talent Management is defined as a “mindset”, “a key component in effective backup planning” and “an attempt to ensure that employees at all levels work at the highest potential”. (Redford, 2005, 20).

As can be understood from the definitions, this approach implies that it is carried out in an integrated and contributing manner to reach the determined targets by taking the strategies of all practices and businesses related to the Talent Management process into account. From this point of view, if a general definition is made, talent management is a process that includes strategic-based human resources management activities aimed at developing a workforce plan that will support the competitive strategy of the enterprise, analyzing existing talents and determining the additional skills needed, creating an appropriate working environment in order to attract qualified employee candidates who will meet these needs (Alayoğlu, 2010, 70-71).

1.7. The Reasons Revealing Talent Management

The works that enabled talent management to be at the forefront were carried out in 1997 by Mc Kinsey & Company, America's largest management consultancy company. In these studies, Mc Kinsey & Company draws attention to the importance of talent management under the name "Battles for Talent". In the study conducted by Mc Kinsey & Company, it is stated that the main source of increase in performance and efficiency is to focus on the talents in the meeting held with around six thousand managers working in seventy-seven large-scale institutions. Mc Kinsey & Company completed the second part of the research in 2000 and held meetings with a total of thirteen thousand managers and one hundred and twelve large-scale companies. Accordingly, the main source of success is to guide and manage talent correctly (Axelrod, Handfield-Jones, Welsh. 2001, 9).

There are many factors in the emergence of the "Talent Management" phenomenon in businesses. However, the biggest reason why this phenomenon is on the agenda of the business world can be listed as Innovation arising from the requirements of the age we live in, the difficulty of maintaining the business existence, the need for growth and leadership, being able to keep up with the rapid demographic changes arising from transportation and globalization, to reach business targets, to meet the expectations of new generation employees from the business, and to increase the market value of the business. What these facts mean for the businesses is tried to be explained as follows:

Information Society and Innovation

Developments in information technologies make their impact felt in every area. Innovations in science and technology also affect the social structure and enable people to interact with information. With the addition of information to the information and making new associations with technological possibilities, it is seen that new information has emerged, new discoveries have been made and this situation has triggered changes and innovations in almost every area of life (Dulkadir, Akkoyun, 2013, 73).

The key words that emerge at a time when knowledge is becoming widespread and making itself felt as an important force are change and innovation. Organizations that monopolize change and innovation will find themselves in the world of competition, otherwise they will have to retreat. Change and innovation occur depending on the level of knowledge and technology, and people process the information that originates from it. (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 112). The fact that organizations hold, train and strengthen qualified people, and ensure that they strive for organizational goals means that they have an important competitive factor.

Change and innovation have a close relationship with the phenomenon of talent. Gifted individuals differ from other individuals in that they present new information and methods using existing information, respond faster to change, and even become providers of change and innovation. In this respect, skilled employees who know how to produce and process information appear as a valuable and irreplaceable competitive factor for organizations (Kaynak, Yılmaz, 2016, 657).

Sustaining Presence

Businesses have to continue to struggle in a business world where more and more intense competition is experienced day by day. As a result, it is seen that well-established companies that were strong in the past have disappeared from the market. Competition and rapid change in the business world cause the knowledge, experience and efforts of the staff who found the company to be insufficient for the continuation of the existence of that institution. At this point, the importance of employing and directing qualified manpower becomes evident for businesses to adapt to the age. Particularly in the key administrative and technical staff, the presence of employees with a high sense of competence and belonging is seen as the most important way to turn these threats into opportunities (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 111).

Growth and Leadership

Dynamism, which continues increasingly in the business world, requires keeping up with the change experienced for the continuation of the existence, and directing the change in order to grow and become a leader. In order to

guide change, it is necessary to constantly question existing methods, products and services, to find and apply the firsts, and to be an innovative company. Being able to innovate emerges as a work that the institution must perform within itself and with its own staff. It is clear that the solution to this situation is the Management of Talents (Yumurtacı, 2014, 189).

Achieving Goals

It has been proven by researches that businesses with effective Talent Management practices are more successful than those lacking these practices. In these studies, it has been determined that companies with good talent management systems have higher profitability and shareholders' earnings compared to those who are inadequate in talent management. From this point of view, we can say that there is a linear relationship between talent management and the financial success of businesses (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 113).

Not Being Affected by Changing Demographic Structure

The demographic structure of the population in the world is not developing in the direction that businesses desire. The studies show that the need for managerial and qualified workforce in the world increases day by day, but in contrast with this, the population with these characteristics decreases. To give an example, while the need for managers in North America is expected to increase from 21 million to 24 million in the next five years, the population between the ages of 30-50 is estimated to decrease from 63 million to 60 million inversely with this need (Wellins, Smith, Erker, 2009, 3).

Meeting Expectations of the Employee

In a study conducted by Hay Group on 330 companies in 50 countries, two important factors that caused employees to leave their jobs were identified. The first one is the opinions of the employees that their managers and their working environment do not allow them to develop and use their talents. The second factor is that employees are unhappy in their relationship with their boss. (Hay, 2002, 52). In other words, wages are not the most important reason for employees to quit. Employees want an environment in which they believe they can improve their skills and pay more attention to the provision

of this condition than their wages. The conclusion of this research clearly indicates the need for the talent management system to ensure job loyalty and satisfaction by meeting the expectations of its employees in terms of the future of the enterprise.

Increasing the Value of the Business

While the value of businesses was measured by the value of tangible assets such as machinery, facilities, buildings, lands owned by that business until the 1990s, intangible assets such as brands, patents, image, reputation, recognition, management and technical staff of the company determine the value of businesses nowadays. The data below explains the impact of tangible and intangible assets on the value of companies over the years we have left behind. According to the results of a research, while 62% of the average company value was intangible assets and 38% was tangible assets in 1982, 20% of the average company value is tangible assets and 80% is intangible assets in 2003. Considering the developments in our time, this trend is expected to continue increasingly. In summary, the investment in Talent Management means that talents, namely, qualified human resources, which are among the intangible assets, exist within the organization and this asset item rapidly increases company value both directly and indirectly because of its contribution to the development of other intangible assets. (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 112).

1.8. The Importance of Talent Management for Enterprises

According to the logic behind talent management, things are run by people. Processes, technology and capital are certainly important, but they are the people who make the decision, and the better an organization's employees, the better the organization becomes. The important thing is to attract and develop these "talented" people and use them in the most effective way (Uren, 2007, 32). Although managers regard talent management positively, they have difficulty in using this management approach effectively and the link between talent management and organizational performance cannot be clearly stated (Collings, 2014, 301).

Talent management is primarily important in terms of bringing together talented individuals and managing them in the most effective way, evaluating these individuals in the most efficient way and developing leadership. Talent management is important because it brings together talented employees who form the foundation of the organization and take the organization one step ahead of its competitive environment, and keeps them connected in the business for many years (Dries, 2013, 273). According to Dries, in line with the reports of researchers working on human resources, talent management is one of the difficulties that 20th century organizations face regarding human capital (Dries, 2013, 274).

In a study, the companies that have applied talent management for a period of five years have observed a 20% increase in investment profitability compared to their non-competitors; however, when only key components of talent management are combined and implemented, a 38% increase in investment profitability was observed over the five-year period (Collings, 2011, 454).

The perception of the Y and Z generations, which constitute the young majority of today's workforce, to their career lives, differs from the previous generations. The career cycle, which was 20 years in the 1980s, has decreased to 20 months for today's workforce. This period is decreasing day by day. People no longer adopt only one workplace and spend their years for the same place. On the contrary, when they do not get the necessary care from their workplaces, they prefer to change that workplace more easily than before. The phenomenon of talent wars will revive, especially for gifted brains in generation Z, who are new university graduates and who will form the future workforce. In the coming years, demographic formation will be one of the determining factors of the business world. (Abrudan, Matei, 2009, 4). Each business will take a step forward and enter a competitive environment to incorporate talented individuals who will make a difference. Enterprises will also have to make an effort to keep these individuals within themselves.

There is a mutual exchange-based relationship between the employer and the employee within the organization. In this relationship, both parties want to see that the result of their contribution to their organizations has come true.

Tsui et al. state that this relationship has two kinds: economic exchange and social exchange. From an economic perspective, the employee expects a monetary reward in return for giving the organization the ability and time. Although employees are financially rewarded for their work these days, researches show that the economic dimension of the work is less important. (Tsui, Wang, 2002, 79).

In a study conducted by Kalleberg and Marsden (2013), it was revealed that although economic conditions have improved in terms of income and job security, non-economic dimensions are also important for employees. Personal achievements, career developments, meaningful and challenging jobs, and mutual relations and justice with colleagues are important according to the results of the research. Therefore, it can be said that it is easier to attract talented employees to institutions with such an organizational environment. (Kalleberg, Marsden, 2013, 256).

Dries et al. (2012) stated in his research that the talent management policy really provides positive results for talented employees in organizations where it is applied. (Dries, Acker, Verbruggen, 2012, 271). The fact that every person has different equipment in terms of knowledge, experience, skill and mastery is the most important cause of inimitability and originality (Altuğ, 2009, 448). In terms of organizations, in this competitive environment in the world, organizations have understood the importance of hiring and retaining talented employees in order to achieve sustainable competition; because the power that structuralizes and mobilizes institutions must be well understood and given due importance in the governing dimension of the fact that it is human. The benefits of effective talent management include increased employee recruitment and retention, and increased employee engagement (Hughes, Rog, 2008, 744).

Studies conducted on the importance of talent management approach for firms suggest that the following causes are effective:

- Lack of talent availability.
- Employee mobility.
- Increase in competition (Polat, 2011, 27).

There are two main reasons for the limitation of “talent availability”, which is one of the issues that makes talent management important:

- As a result of the decrease in the current workforce, the number of talented people also decreased.
- Jobs require a new set of skills.

The most important reason for the decrease in the current workforce is the aging of the population especially in the Western countries and the approach of retirement time of the active workforce day by day. Despite the retired or retiring workforce, the insufficient supply of new workforce to be productive is the basis of this dynamic (Polat, 2011, 27-28).

Calo (2008) argues that the aging of the working population and therefore retirement age and quitting jobs will lead to loss of information, which is very important for businesses, and consequently a decrease in competitiveness. To avoid this situation, Calo suggests that with talent management, information can be transferred from the existing workforce to the new workforce. (Calo, 2008, 404).

1.9. The Process of Talent Management

Talent management system is a comprehensive and integrated process. The first step to manage this process correctly is to adopt a talent perspective. It is very important to adopt this view by all employees. Otherwise, it is inevitable for companies to encounter a process that has been carried out with failure.

Adopting a talent perspective means that talented employees are considered as a critical element and made one of the company priorities, both in achieving company goals and creating competitive advantage. Talent management is the first step in the establishment of the system, for everyone from senior management to line managers to absorb the idea that talent contributes to the success of the company. In such an organization, it will be easier to establish a structure for developing and supporting talents (Atli, 2012, 78).

As well as adopting a talent management perspective, what it will be like, namely which employees it will cover, is also very important. What is

important at this point is what company policies (strategies) are. When looking at talent management systems, there are differences in practice. Some practices are observed to include only critical positions, while others are observed to cover all employees. Preferred is the inclusion of all employees in the system. Determining the potential of all employees will be more productive for both employees and the organization, and will bring job satisfaction and success (Öner, 2014, 31).

Since the talent management system covers all human resources functions, carrying out a systematic study can complicate the process. Therefore, initially system design, namely preparation, is as important as starting the talent management process.

1.9.1. The Planning of Talent Management Process

After emphasizing the importance of talent management for businesses and expressing the necessity of gaining this perspective, the most important step is to design talent management processes in harmony with human resources management systems. Effective design of talent management processes will be discussed in the following sections. The design stages of talent management processes will be discussed as the distribution of responsibilities related to talent management, determination of talent management process design principles and implementation stages of talent management.

1.9.1.1 Talent Management Process Planning Principles

After understanding the talent management mentality and its importance for the business, it should be focused on how to make the necessary changes, how it will affect the elements in the business, and how the ranking and speed in this process will affect the whole structure. It should be noted that the transition to talent management is a process and it is not possible to get immediate results from now until tomorrow (MacFadyen, 2007, 10). In this transition process, it would be correct to state the key applications that should be followed, respectively:

- Planning the process
- Ensuring the support of top management

- Correct and effective use of communication channels within the enterprise
- Providing necessary training and information to all employees and managers.
- Identification of key positions
- Systematic assessment of skills for the identification of employees who will come to key positions
- Development of talent management implementation plan
- Tracking the talent management process (MacFadyen, 2007, 10).

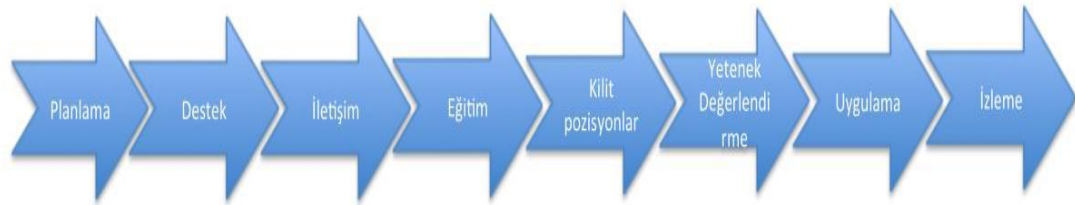


Figure 1.3: Applications in the Process of Transition to Talent Management

Resource: Kendo MacFadyen, Talent Management, an Experience From the Public Sector, (Canada: Public Service Commission Presentation, 2007), 10.

In recent researches, it has been concluded that being very detailed and creating complex structures will not have positive results in terms of gainings for the business while designing the talent management process. Especially in Effron and Ort's "One Page Talent Management" this issue has been examined in detail. When designing and implementing the talent management process, it is recommended that businesses stay away from complex structures and design talent management processes in the most appropriate and simple way with 3 basic principles to be adopted (Effron, Ort, 2010, 15). These three basic principles addressed by Effron and Ort are as follows:

The Principle of Starting Business with Science

Numerous academic studies in the past have scientifically shed light on the behavior of businesses and individuals. There are studies examining which issues should be addressed in order to reach the most favorable results in

many issues from increasing employee satisfaction to establishing effective teams. The basis of this principle is to determine what the goals of the enterprise are and to use the basic behavior and organizational behavioral sciences in achieving these goals. What is important at this stage is to determine how to follow the talent management process by making use of scientific studies and scientific concepts. Under the condition of business science, laying the foundations of a successful talent management process will be possible with the adoption of this principle, provided that it remains in line with the objectives of the business (Effron, Ort, 2010, 15).

The Principle of Removing Complexity and Adding Value

One of the prerequisites for successful talent management practices will be possible by the successful implementation of these processes. At this stage, getting rid of a complex structure and being simple and adding value will reinforce the belief of senior management in talent management. It is useful to consider the Value-Complexity Curve shown below in the talent management process design stage (Figure 1.4). Being able to achieve the balance between the value to be added and the level of complexity is important in designing talent management processes. Choosing a simple structure while creating a process does not cause a decrease in the value added by talent management to the business (Effron, Ort, 2010, 16).

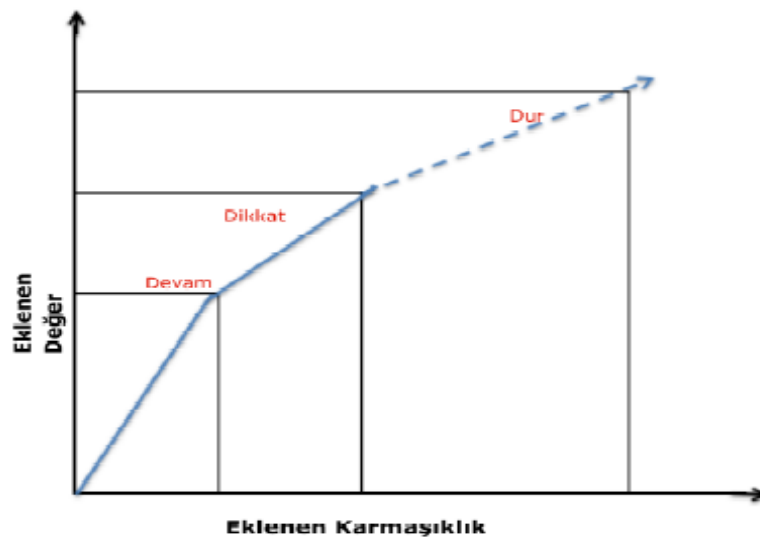


Figure 1.4: Value-Complexity Curve

Resource: Marc Effron, Miriam Ort, "One Page Talent Management", Harvard Business Press, Boston, 2010, p. 16.

It is stated that the most efficient process design will be carried out starting over from scratch, and the most efficient process design process can be achieved with small steps in accordance with the objectives of the business and by comparing complexity-value in each step. At the stage of designing the most efficient talent management process, it is essential to create a balance between complexity and value created. Eliminating complexity in this process does not reduce the value to be created; on the contrary, a simple structure creates value in terms of implementation as it will be more accepted by top management (Effron, Ort, 2010, 17).

Managers can avoid complexity and create value by using a scientifically supported metric for each goal set in talent management process creation. Although it is a good purpose to design a perfect process in the first attempt, it is not possible. It is essential for a successful process design to create talent management with a repetitive process consisting of input, design, trial, and repetition, and to provide feedback from users with clear communication at each stage. To get rid of a complex structure, it is recommended to create the system with as little information as possible to make the right decisions that are recommended. The aim is not to work with enough information to prove that you are moving in the right direction (Tymon Jr, Stumpf, Doh, 2010, 110).

From the point of view of creating value for the subject, eliminating a mixed structure at the design stage of the talent management process will add value to the process in terms of easily implementing the processes to be created without being challenged by the managers. In this context, it will be possible to add value to the process, to make the process easy to apply and to analyze the data in advance for top management. Talent management processes applied continuously and regularly throughout the business will create value in the form of increased business loyalty and motivation for employees (Tymon Jr, Stumpf, Doh, 2010, 111).

Transparency and Accountability Principle

Another factor that increases the power of talent management processes and provides fast, effective and easy implementation is increasing transparency. Here, transparency is the amount of information shared about a process and its results, and with whom this information is shared. For an effective talent management design process, it is recommended to provide full transparency from the very beginning. The reason for the lack of transparency, especially in the talent management process, is fear based. Here, what is meant by fear is that if high-potential and talented employees are noted to be seen as such by the business, it is the possibility of these employees to realize their potential and go to other businesses, but this kind of fear is unwarranted for effective talent management (Martin, Mihnea C. Moldoveanu, 2003, 38).

As a business that implements an effective talent management process, it will be better for employees to hear from you that they are talented and potential, than they hear from skull hunters. Accountability is another important factor in talent management process design. Under ideal conditions, it seems sufficient to build simple structure, easy implementation, discussions with managers about talented employees, provide performance feedback, and make development plans on time. But managers who are very busy in real life do not tend to finalize this kind of work on time. Therefore, accountability will be a sign that the great potential talent management will bring to the business is not wasted (Martin, Mihnea C. Moldoveanu, 2003, 39).

In order to make the accountability principle available at the talent management process design stage, it may be possible to take measures such as social/peer pressure, corporate culture, and compensation. The principle of accountability lies in the idea of "you can manage and accomplish what you can measure". Almost every process of talent management can actually be tracked and measured. Basically, it is important to note which capability output is more important for managers for performance objectives and the results should be quantitatively measurable (Bahadınlı, 2013, 58).

1.9.1.2 Distribution of Responsibilities

In the talent management, all the staff in the organization must fulfill their duties and provide the appropriate working environment, especially the leader, in order to meet the talents needed by the business and to make the most effective use of these talents (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 112).

Top management, human resources department and mid-level managers have responsibilities to manage internal communication to establish balance in talent management practices and to create an organizational environment that enables change (Atlı, 2012, 114-115). Due to the competitive world conditions, both top management and their assistants are separately assigned to the talent management system. For developing, dynamic, motivated, long-term employees, the talent management process is not only the responsibility of the human resources department; the entire management team and top management are also responsible for the talent management process (Lou, 2007, 4512).

“Talent management should not be seen only in the responsibility area of the human resources department. It should be adopted as an organizational strategy, and should be implemented as a comprehensive and integrated system, with the support of senior management.” (Aydınöz, 2009, 19). Comprehensive talent management should start with key managers from the top of the organization, leaving the necessary time. Many companies have implemented talent management in different ways. Apart from the top management, talent management practices are carried out within human resources departments or independently of human resources (Polat, 2011, 27).

When it comes to talent management, employees also have duties outside of management. For example, sharing talent development costs between managers and employees, ensuring volunteering of employees and balancing their mutual interests are talent management strategies (Altuntuğ, 2009, 456).

1.9.1.2.1 Responsibilities of Top Management

It is the responsibility of senior management to adopt the strategic importance of talent in creating competitive advantage in businesses and to spread the talent management approach across the enterprise. The most important starting point of the process is that the business's senior management believes in and supports talent management (Çayan, 2011, 85).

In a study they conducted in 1998, McKinsey researchers stated that talented employees have become the least controllable business assets for the past 20 years and stated that businesses can manage their physical or financial assets with strict supervision, but it is not possible to adopt such a management style against their employees (Çayan, 2011, 86). As a result of the surveys conducted to 6000 managers, only 23% of the managers stated that their businesses can affect highly-talented employees, 10% of the managers stated that they hold highly-talented employees and 16% of the managers stated that they are aware of who their highly-talented employees are. 3% of executives stated that individuals could improve themselves in their businesses and those with low performance were laid off. As can be seen, businesses should make their employees feel that they attach importance to the concept of “talent”. Otherwise, even if talented employees are taken into operation, it will be impossible to employ them for a long time (Hiltrop, 1999, 424).

Top management's role in this process is to demonstrate to managers and employees that it fully supports the implementation steps as well as playing a role in determining strategy and goals. Besides, auditing the system and questioning its success are among the duties that top management cannot transfer. The support of the top management in this process is very important and a talent management system that does not spread from top to bottom without the support of the top management cannot be expected to be successful (Çırpan, Şen, 2009, 117).

1.9.1.2.2 Responsibilities of the HR Department

Since businesses are in an ongoing process of change and development, the human resources department needs to assume new roles in order to add value to the business. These new roles have directed the human resources department as follows:

- From operational role to strategic role
- From quantity to quality
- From controlling to partnering
- From short term to long term
- From managerial to consultancy
- From functional center to business center
- Instead of focusing on the business, focusing on the outside of the business and the customer
- From being reactive to being proactive (Ulrich, Losey, Lake, 1997, 384).

This change process necessitated a change from being activity oriented to being solution oriented. Looking at this mandatory change in terms of talent management, this change has made the human resources department a supplement to the talent management system, the preparer of its infrastructure, its manager, the continuous developer of the system, the coordinator and one of the creators and auditors of a corporate culture based on talent management (Lengick-Hall, Lengick-Hall, 2004, 41).

One of the most important responsibilities of human resources regarding talent management is to succeed in the competition for attracting qualified candidates to businesses. Success in this matter will depend entirely on the performance of the human resources department. In order to attract qualified candidates to businesses, it would be appropriate to express the activities that human resources departments can do as follows: (Hiltrop, 1999, 425)

- The human resources department should create a talent pool to be used at any time and should create a talented employee procurement process without waiting for the need for staff to emerge at the last minute. However, it is also important that the

length of the process of placing the right candidate for the right job is designed at an appropriate level for saving money. (Racz, 2000, 38).

- In the employee recruitment and selection stages, the expectations and satisfaction of the candidates should also be taken into consideration besides the expectations of the companies.
- The process that creates the hiring procedures of the enterprises should not be separated from each other as much as possible and this process should be specialized. The steps that should be focused especially on the provision of talented employees and the sections that should be included in this process should be determined carefully. Recruitment as a whole should be viewed not only as a human resources activity, but also as a marketing and public relations activity. (Racz, 2000, 40).

Ulrich and Beatty underline the fact that human resources play an active role rather than a partner in their study of the roles that human resources should undertake in the context of talent management (Ulrich, Beatty, 2001, 298). The roles that human resources as an active player should undertake are summarized as follows:

- Human Resources is a learning model based on the guidance of an experienced router, discovering its strengths and needs to improve, developing skills and competencies and correcting their mistakes, recognizing problems that create obstacles and producing solutions.
- The Human Resources Department must coach in order to be successful in the race for talent.
- Human Resources play the role of designer (Architecture). When he assumes this role, the question he seeks to answer is “How to design and create the right organizational structure in terms of business culture and existing talents”.
- Human resources play a founding role. Human resources build the business structure suitable for talent management that it has designed with this role. It determines which human resources

practices should be given priority and emphasis and tries to establish the structure that will give the most efficient result for the enterprise.

- • Human resources play a facilitating role. One of their most important responsibilities is to change the existing organization to gain talent. While playing the role of change agent in the business, it should pay attention to the relationship management between teams and employees in terms of strategic change leadership. With the facilitating role undertaken, the aim is to change the targeted business to be successful in every sense.
- Human resources play a leading role. The purpose of assuming this role is to create audiences while contributing to the business's success. In fact, the human resources department is an example for other departments in how a department should be managed effectively and efficiently. Human resources managers should clearly define the behaviors they want to exhibit as leaders. These behaviors can be clearly related to setting goals, stability, managing internal and external communication, and change. (Baltaş, 2011, 7).
- Human resources play a conscientious role. Non-discriminatory rules must prevail in all areas of the business (Ulrich, Beatty, 2001, 305).

Human resources that successfully assume these roles add value and contribute to the ability of the business to compete in the ever-expanding playground and to host the talented individuals within the business. In a sense, human resources must be the pioneer of change. As a pioneer of change, it must fulfill its responsibility to stay up to date on human resources, equipment, techniques and practices. In order to support organizational change strategies to support business strategies, to constantly monitor the perspective and reactions of the business to internal and external problems, to manage change effectively and efficiently, and to respond to the basic needs of the organization (Bahadınlı, 2013, 51).

1.9.1.2.3 Responsibilities of Mid-Level Managers

Managers have important responsibilities in the implementation of talent management and training of talented employees. Managers see this situation as an additional responsibility in addition to daily work as it requires time and effort and they are not very willing. Another reason that managers do not want to take this responsibility may be the concern that these trained people may take their place in the future (Altınöz, 2009, 92).

Top management should be stable to overcome this situation and should eliminate the concerns of unit managers in this regard through clear communication. In this context, the unit managers should spend time and effort to train potential individuals who are evaluated while performing their duties in managing talents without adversely affecting the system and in accordance with the system (Çırpan and Şen, 2009, 116).

In a study published by the American Productivity and Creative Leadership Center for the training of potential candidates, different practices on talent management were specified:

- To define the concept of “Talent Management” broadly,
- Integrating various elements of talent management into a comprehensive system,
- Concentrating on talented employees,
- Ensuring that CEOs and senior managers are committed to talent management,
- Developing competence models that explain what skills and behaviors employees are expected to develop,
- Controlling the talent management system to identify potential talent gaps,
- Increasing the effectiveness of talent management in recruitment, performance evaluation and retention activities,
- Regularly evaluating the results of talent management activities (McCauley, Wakefeld, 2006, 5).

1.9.2. Application Stages of Talent Management Process

1.9.2.1 Determination of Talent Management Strategies

Talent management process stages begin with determining strategies. At this first stage, the answer should be given whether it will be created only for some critical tasks or will cover the whole business with a holistic perspective when designing the talent management system. However, the acceptable approach is to determine the potential of all employees by including them in the system. Such an approach allows all employees of the company to evaluate and become aware of the values and high potentials they possess (Terlemez, 2013, 72).

While determining the talent management strategies, the business objectives and business strategies are determined first. So the answers to questions of "where do we want to be as a business?" and "What is the way we will follow for this?" should be sought. Talent strategies are determined based on these answers. Strategies should be in line with the corporate strategy, basic goals and objectives, and embedded with the business strategy. (Alayoğlu, 2010, 72).

The most important point to be recognized for businesses is the establishment and adoption of a business management talent management perspective. All of the next processes to be implemented within the business are related to the perspective of senior management. In this way, talent management should be an application system spread from the top to the bottom, so that the desired success can be achieved and supported by other employees. (Terlemez, 2013, 74).

It should be noted that talent management is a process that should be comprehensive and integrated with other company strategies. As mentioned earlier, a talent management strategy integrated with the culture, basic purpose, strategy and objectives of the organization should be determined.

After establishing their own strategies, businesses should create a talent management application model for these strategies. This model should be strictly business-specific, and should determine which skills are needed, how much these skills are needed and in what positions the needs are, so that

they do not cause waste or shortage. Talent management practices are specific to the business and may differ in each business according to the characteristics of the business (Terlemez, 2013, 74).

The next step of talent management is to decide where to obtain the talent determined to be lacking. Will the talents be procured internally or externally? The answer to this question will be given by talent management practitioners. The continuity and success of the talent management system is to require the constant attention of everyone in an organization. Contrary to popular belief, the task of running this business is not only the task of the human resources department. In this process, everyone's awareness of their responsibility will increase the effectiveness of the system (Doğan, Demiral, 2008, 151). Here, a system should be created in which top managers, line managers, leaders and human resources departments at all levels will be actively involved and supported.

All talent strategies should be determined with the collaboration and support of human resources, harmonized with business strategies and adopted as the organization's business strategies. Then comes the determination of critical positions.

1.9.2.2 Identifying and Managing Key Positions

After identifying and defining talent strategies, the next step for businesses is to identify key positions in the administrative and technical areas, job descriptions and job requirements related to these positions, and identify the skills these positions need. (Alayoğlu, 2010, 86).

When determining the key positions, the value of the jobs in the organization and the added value of the jobs to the organization should be determined first. The classification made for the works of a firm regarding the added value created by the works and the interchangeability of the person in the position or the convenience of the employment of a new person when leaving is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1.*Classification of Works*

Classification of Works		Value Added of Work	
		Low	High
Difficulty to Replace	Difficult	Difficult to Replace	Difficult to Replace
		Low Value Added(1)	High Value Added (4)
	Easy	Easy to Replace	Easy to Replace
		Low Value Added(2)	High Value Added (3)

Resource: Seçkin Polat, **Yetenek Yönetimi**, Ankara Chamber of Industry Publication. (2011): 30.

Since it will take a long time to meet each individual's wishes separately after these jobs and important positions within the business are determined, Identifying important positions, namely business and management processes that are of key importance for the enterprise, the critical positions the business will need strategically, and the competencies they will need, should be considered as the starting point of the business (Demircioğlu, 2010, 61). Critical jobs and positions should be given importance and investments should be made in this field.

1.9.2.3 Talent Profile and Classification of Talented Employees

Businesses have understood how important people and talent are for the competitive advantage and future anxiety of the business. Some of the questions below will further show the organizations' perspectives on this issue. Some questions that managers are looking for answers are as follows:

- How can I attract talented workforce in the competitive business world?
- Who are my best performing employees for company success?
- How can I develop and maintain the critical workforce within the organization?
- How appropriate are employee competencies to performance goals?
- How efficient are the training-development tools?
- What are the rates of quitting the job? (Terlemez, 2013, 85).

As can be seen from these questions, businesses should analyze the value of their human resources and their role in creating competitive advantage. Thus, they can make good use of their human resources. For the right person for the right job, the classification should be done correctly. For this, the company must know its employees well and must have determined the job of the people very well. The important thing here is not to classify who does what, what matters is the classification of who can do which job better (Demircioğlu, 2010, 63). Because the knowledge, know-how and abilities of each employee may differ from each other, and their performances can be different from each other. What is important for the business is to be aware of these differences and to be able to classify and evaluate in the most appropriate way in terms of skills and business (Altıntuğ, 2009, 455).

Classification of employees according to this determination, as well as determining which employee adds to the business how much value in the business, is a situation that should be managed very well within the organization. At this stage, the first step to be taken is to identify and classify the ideal employee characteristics that can meet desired job definitions and requirements, and perform desired performance in key positions (Alayoğlu, 2010, 88).

There are various employees in each business showing different performance. An assessment from the most successful to the least successful should be done in the classification of these employees. The classification of the employees includes the studies for separating the employees at strategic levels, which are defined as indispensable for the enterprises, and the employees with less efficiency. Starting from the highest performing employee, it is necessary to identify different performance groups and to know that these groups have their own needs and expectations, and to maintain their loyalty by providing them with appropriate development, motivation, compensation and promotion opportunities. (Ağraş, 2013, 52).

Sharma and Bhatnagar (2009) developed a matrix with two main criteria that address performance and potential metrics to determine employee classes. Each box in Table 1.2 defines a different classification created by the researchers. People with both high potential and high performance can be

defined as class A or highly skilled people. Class A people can also be called the stars of the organization, which means they are identified with key positions. People with high performance but low potential are candidates for B class. It is emphasized that it should be the right strategy for the class A people to be included in the talent pool and for the B class people to continue their current jobs (Altınöz, 2009, p.119.)

The relationships of the people with low performance and potential should be questioned. Employees with high potential but low performance create question marks for the company. It is necessary to analyze this situation and take preventive measures accordingly. The conversion of the employees who form question marks into A class should be made the goal of the company; because these employees have high potential even though they have low performance (Polat, 2011, 31).

Table 1.2.

Classification of Employees in Talent Management

		Employee's Potential	
		Low	High
Employee's Performance	Low	The relationship should be questioned.	?
	High	Keep current state.	Get into the talent pool.

Resource: Seçkin Polat, **Yetenek Yönetimi**, Ankara Chamber of Industry Publication (2011): 27.

1.9.2.3.1 McKinsey's Classification

This classification emerged in a survey conducted by Mc Kinsey & Company in 1997 in 77 large-scale, 35 large-scale and 19 medium-sized companies in 2000, and reveals the critical importance of talented people on company performance. The research is designed to reveal what high performing companies do differently from medium performing companies on talent management. Its purpose is to demonstrate how companies build a strong talent pool, how they attract, acquire and develop talent for the top 200 managerial positions, and to understand how they formed the young talent

line that could rise to managerial positions in the future (Chambers et al., 2017, 1).

In the research conducted by McKinsey, a classification made by the British Air Force in World War II was taken as an example. The incident was reconsidered by McKinsey and adapted to a classification for those working in wars of talent as follows:

- Group A Employees in the Research: Represents the standard for exceptional performance and outstanding success. These individuals consist of a group that consistently achieves good results, as well as being an example to other employees and increasing their motivation. This group constitutes the best 10-20% of the employees.
- Group B Employees in the Research: They are employees who meet the expectations but have limited potential and constitute 60-70% of the employees.
- Group C Employees In the Research: They obtain acceptable results at regular intervals. They make up the bottom of the employees with 10-20% (Chambers et al., 2017, 4).

In the classification made according to Altınöz (2009), the company should invest significantly in the “A” group employees, which constitute the most talented group, and should try to develop the “B” group employees whose contribution to the organization is obvious. The performance of low performing “C” group employees should be tried to be improved (Altınöz, 2009, 121).

1.9.2.3.2 Performance Based On Classification

Berger (2005) suggests that the performances of business employees will differ because their knowledge, knowledge and abilities are different. For this reason, classification is considered more suitable for talent management. When classifying according to performance, it is necessary to divide the employees into four groups (Berger, 2005, 95). These groups are shown in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3.*Performance Based On Classification*

Super Performance Group It constitutes 3-5% of the group. Employees who need the most investment.	Key Performance Group It constitutes 20-25% of the group. Employees who need to be invested in important tasks
Compatible Performance Group It constitutes the 70% of the group. Employees who need to invest, support and motivate at a normal level	Incompatible Performance Group It constitutes less than 5% of the group. Employees who need less investment and cannot be in the harmonious group, who need to be dismissed

Resource: Nevriye Altuntuğ, "Rekabet Üstünlüğünün Sürdürülebilmesinde Yeteneklerin Rolü: Yetenek Yönetim Yaklaşımı". Journal of Süleyman Demirel University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, volume:14, p.3, (2009):452.

Super Performance Group: Employees who provide high performance with sustainable competitive advantage, who have a very high potential, who are seen as a role model in the enterprise, who are the source of difference and creativity, the most investment is required for, and they need to be retained and new ones earned. Their size in the total workforce is 3-5%.

Key Performance Group: Employees who are a resource for competitive advantage, who have the opportunity to be promoted, perform above expectations, who are the key elements in the execution of the activities within the enterprise, who are over-invested, whose backups should be raised and whose qualifications need to be raised. It is the group with a size of 20-25% within the total workforce.

Compatible Performance Group: It is a group of employees that is the guarantee of the survival of the business, that can expand sideways while evaluating the potential, that can meet the performance expectations expected by the business, that has the capacity to exceed the expected performance points, that has a positive impact on employees, is invested normally, and that needs to be supported and motivated. It is the group with a size of 70% in the total workforce.

Incompatible Group: Employees who may be an additional source of talent if directed correctly, who have low potential, whose performance below expectations, who are at the bottom of the skill scale, who require little investment and who should be dismissed if they are not in the compatible group. It is the group with a size less than 5% within the total workforce. (Berger, Berger, 2003, 95-97).

Classification based on performance is the type of classification in which talent management can be applied most actively. Performance results displayed by the employees according to their talents, knowledge and competencies reveal what the value of the employee is for the business. While high-performance employees are evaluated as talents, low-performance employees are tried to be strengthened, developed, or terminated if they are not sufficient for the business. While the high performing employees are classified as super employees, namely the gifted, the employees forming the critical performance group constitute the group that exceeds the expected performance level of another skill group. Businesses should evaluate these employees by being aware of their abilities (Terlemez, 2013, 89).

1.9.2.3.3 Sandberg's Classification

Another classification method is the Sandberg's (2005) classification. Based on a study conducted for the Volvo company, Sandberg, who made the classification, has produced three different thinking profiles with the answers given by the employees of the Volvo company to the questions asked about what the work means for them, their job definitions and perceptions about the integrity of the work. According to this classification:

- First Profile: They emphasize the technical features in the definition of the job and believe that the jobs will be accomplished by following the defined rules. (Rule based)
- Second Profile: In line with the system approach, they consider all the factors affecting the work and attach importance to team work. (Team member)

- Third Profile: Although they reveal the mutual interactions within the system approach, they do not perceive the work only as a technical phenomenon. The people in this group focus on meeting different customer expectations by empathizing with the customer, using initiative and transferring their creativity to their work. The ones in this group are seen in important positions as they can make the variable group a competitive advantage by creating differences in the business (Sandberg, 2005, 24-25).

According to the classification, employees classified as employees who can work as a team from the prescriptive and see the organization as a system, and those who work within a system but are also open to variable groups. When we look at talent management, the main profile is the third profile. Because these profile employees create differences and provide a competitive advantage to the business (Sandberg, 2005, 25).

1.9.2.4 Talent Management in Employee Recruitment and Employee Selection Process

One of the most important processes that provide input to talent management is selection and placement. With the right selection and placement systems and tools, it is an indispensable prerequisite for the success of the process to attract people with high potential, promising, creative, innovative and value added, to choose the most talented among them and to assign them in the right places (Altıntuğ, 2009, 445).

Recruitment in talent management is different from traditional recruitment strategies. It is no longer enough to choose the right candidate from the long list of candidates. Enterprises have to develop creative strategies to find the right candidates with the quality they want. Therefore, businesses that successfully apply talent management are moving away from a recruitment policy that evaluates their applications of people or takes action to fill that vacant position when a position is vacant. A prioritization approach is generally dominant in the recruitment strategies preferred today. Accordingly, one or more of the units, departments, positions and talents that have the

greatest impact on the profitability of the business can be handled simultaneously (Atlı, 2012, 172).

Recruitment practices should go beyond measuring how well candidates will adapt to job requirements, and which types of skills and behaviors are more in line with the future goals of the business should be emphasized. Strategic recruitment can be defined as personnel recruitment and selection activities created by the systematic evaluation of the strategic goals and requirements of the business (Erdemir, 2006, 29-39).

In talent management, some businesses, primarily in line with their structures, cultures, visions and strategic plans, tend towards internal resources and others towards external resources, while others implement a recruitment policy by giving equal chance to both resources. The employee recruitment and selection process consists of three stages. These stages are classified as determining the need for employees, researching and finding candidates who can meet this need, and selecting suitable employees among the candidates by employing various methods (Uyargil, 2008, 86).

The purpose of human resources planning is to estimate the human resources needs arising from inside and outside the enterprise, to determine the priorities to meet these needs and to allocate human resources to the places where they can be most effective. (Uyargil, 2008, 86). While doing these works, first of all, job analyzes should be done and the limitations of the duties, responsibilities and working conditions of the jobs should be determined. The competencies required for the job should be clearly stated. The next stage is research and discovery of the candidates. The aim is to create a candidate pool so that the employee with the necessary skills can be selected for the position required by the business (Erdemir, 2006, 34).

While creating the candidate pool, it is important to ensure that candidates with the appropriate skills apply to the job from existing employees within the business or from external sources by using various methods. It is important to comply with the following points in recruitment based on talent management:

- After the competencies of the business, the measurement scale and all the qualifications required by the position to be recruited are determined and completed, the recruitment process should be started.
- Candidates should not only be evaluated for their superior performance. Attention should be paid to whether candidates will comply with the structure, culture, vision and mission of the enterprise, the company's history, strategic plans, leadership understanding, location, industry, budget and goals, culture, employee structure, and the team he/she will work with.
- Various personality tests and assessment center practices should be used to choose the right candidate.
- In terms of finding talented employees, it may be necessary to turn to resources where employees with different demographic backgrounds, education and experience can be found besides past resources (Atlı, 2012, 176).

Enterprises applying talent management use different tools in the selection of talented employees. These tools will be considered as evaluation center usage, talent pooling, electronic recruitment, and career system typology. (Atlı, 2012, 177).

1.9.2.4.1 Valuation Center Applications

The valuation center is a method in which the various personality traits of those who are assessed are evaluated by trained observers, on the basis of the performances of those who are assessed, especially in selected activities. Valuation centers are used both for the development and selection of managers to make decisions on promotion, evaluation and training of management personnel. In businesses, the development of employees plays an important role in the performance of the entire business. Therefore, Companies use different developmental tools to improve their employees. Therefore, valuation centers are among the useful development tools in many businesses (Erçoksas, 2009, 106).

Today, the companies using the valuation and development center method are spread all over the world. Valuation and development centers are one of

the most widely used tools to accurately identify gaps between individual performance and expected standards. These centers are easy to set up and operate, but they have a large amount of resource requirements and careful positioning is required to be effective in a wider strategy context. The components of a valuation or development center are as follows:

- There are things to do to show certain behaviors. These are group works, pre-determined or unspecified roles, one-on-one exercises, written tasks, interviews, psychometrics and simulation exercises.
- The rate of evaluators should be higher than the participants.
- There must be trained evaluators or coaches working in accordance with common standards.
- There should be an observation process within the scope of the exercise.
- It is necessary to give feedback to the participants about their performances (Yarnall, 2008, 35).

1.9.2.4.2 Strategic Dimensions Approach and Its Applications

There are two approaches that strategically address recruitment and practices in the talent management process. Both of these approaches are based on the strategic typology developed by Miles et al. (1978). Miles et al states that even if they are in the same industry or product group, businesses need to develop different structures and processes in order to achieve their goals and they point out that there are generally four different types of business behavior under different environmental conditions. These are defensive, research, analyst and reactive business. (Miles, Snow, Coleman, 1978, 550).

Defensive firms are firms that specialize in a particular market and product group, and are focused on technology and production. Main strategies of defensive firms include keeping costs low, increasing production, establishing strong collaborations and long-term thinking. Research companies, on the other hand, have features such as innovation, decentralization, informal communication and the search for flexible roles. Analyst firms, on the one hand, engage in trust-based activities in stationary markets, such as

defenders, and on the other hand try to compete in dynamic and risky areas like researchers. Reactive businesses are enterprises that do not have the power to affect environmental conditions and try to survive by making moves according to the state of environmental variables (Miles, Snow, Coleman, 1978, 551).

The strategic dimensions approach, the first of the two approaches based on the strategic typology of Miles and Snow, was developed by Olian and Rynes (1984). This model is based on two basic assumptions:

- Different types of businesses need different types of employees, especially at management levels.
- Finding and selecting personnel of different styles attract different types of candidates (Olian, Rynes, 1984, 184).

According to this approach, they divided the strategic recruitment activity of the enterprises into five basic stages and tried to determine the hiring practices of the first three types of business types in Miles and Snow typology by developing various propositions.

1.9.2.4.3 Career System Typology Practice

Career system typology is the most known strategic recruitment approach. It consists of two stages: In the first stage, the candidates' movements towards the enterprise, namely their openness to the internal and external labor market, are revealed. In the second stage, the direction of the employees in the enterprise, namely the duties and the assignments, nominations, promotions, career goals and conditions of the employees are determined (Altınöz, 2009, 131).

According to Erdemir (2006), enterprises develop two-dimensional career systems in recruitment activities in career system typology. The first of these dimensions is the supply flow dimension, which is the first stage of recruitment, expressing the openness of the business to the internal and external labor market in terms of application. This dimension is related to concepts such as work safety and long-term employment. The second dimension is the assignment and promotion flow, which refers to the tasks and rewards in return. In this dimension, it expresses career opportunities

and individual criteria. In other words, the first dimension defines the direction of the candidates 'move towards the business, and the second dimension defines the direction of the employees' movement within the business (Erdemir, 2006, 31).

According to this approach, there are four business types that are affected by these two dimensions at different rates: These business types are named as clubs, academies, baseball teams and bases (Erdemir, 2006, 34). Career system typology classification is shown in Figure 1.5.

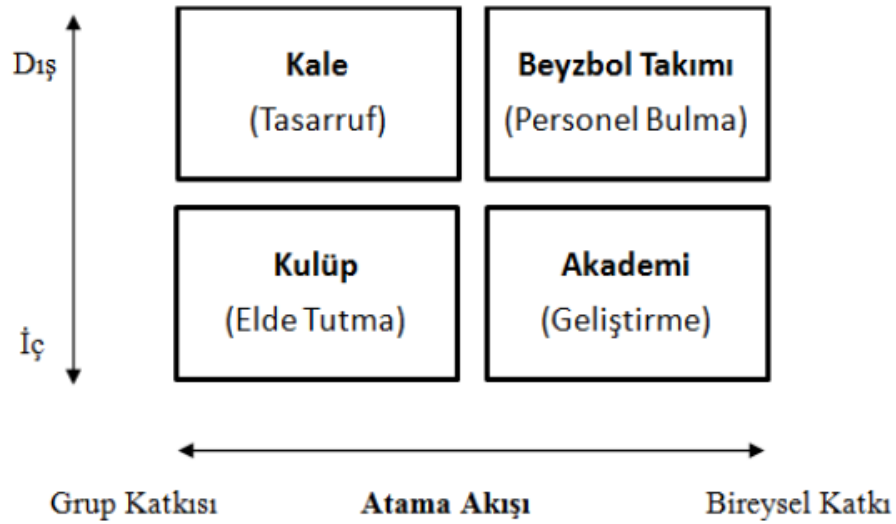


Figure 1.5: Career System Typology

Resource: Erkan Erdemir, "Bilgi Toplumunda İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminin Yeni Rolü: Yetenek Savaşları Olgusu ve Türkiye'deki Yansımaları". 5. National Information, Economy and Management Congress, Proceedings Book 2006, (Kocaeli University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, 2006).

1.9.2.4.4 Creating A Talent Pool

The talent management approach is based on the philosophy of providing talented individuals with a favorable working environment, making the best use of their performance and raising the most talented as strategic leaders. In this regard, first of all, key positions within the organization should be determined and job descriptions should be made according to these areas. Then, a talent pool of talented managers and individuals with high

performance should be created within the organization. The individuals in this pool are placed in the talent matrix in line with the organizational structure (Çelik, Zaim, 2011, 37).

The talent matrix represents potential on the vertical axis and performance on the horizontal axis. In a similar matrix given as an example in Figure 1.6, the qualities of individuals with high / medium performance and potential are compared with job descriptions and skill gap analyzes are carried out for this purpose. After this stage, these individuals are given trainings suitable for the position they will be backed up in the future, and then the values of the individuals in the matrix are updated. Individuals who are placed in the best performance group with these activities are backed forward. The important thing about this is that the data reflect the facts and the evaluations are up to date (Çelik, Zaim, 2011, 38).



Figure 1.6: Talent Pool Matrix Case

Resource: Birsen Çevik, "Turizm Sektöründe Yetenek Yönetimi Uygulamaları: Antalya Yöresinde Beş Yıldızlı Otellerde Bir Araştırma", (Unpublished Master's Thesis, Akdeniz University Institute of Social Sciences, 2014), 85.

Behavioral competencies of an employee with a high level of technical equipment may not be equally potential and may need improvement. Through the talent pool, large companies identify employees with high potential on different topics within their organization. High performance employees are subjected to various training programs in which they can develop their behavioral competencies within the framework of a certain

calendar, as well as they absorb the corporate culture. Ultimately, the aim is to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the employees by developing the equipment of the high potential employees. In the second target, the employees who are included in the talent pool and provide the desired stability with their performances within the corporate structure constitute the infrastructure of the upper level staff needed for the future (Altınöz, 2009, 101-102).

Backup management is not a process to be handled alone, but should be evaluated within the strategic planning process. Businesses that successfully perform backup management will be more successful than others in meeting the future. Backup management is a dynamic and living system. It requires a strategic human resources perspective in line with the future strategic needs of the business. Since it enables talented employees to be raised with the right career planning, it also helps maximize resources and makes a significant difference for businesses in competition (Çevik, 2014, 85).

Enterprises apply compulsory training to those who enter the talent pool. In these trainings, interviews, psycho-analytical tests and valuation center applications are carried out with candidates in order to reveal their potential of management and features for high employee performance are sought. These features include competencies such as the employee's desire to succeed, having common sense and high verbal communication skills, and the employee is required to have continuous learning skills. (Altınöz, 2009, 102).

1.9.3. Retention of Talents

Retention is the ability of a company to retain talented employees. Retention from the organization's point of view does not mean trying to hold on to all employees forever. This means keeping good employees within the appropriate function and level for the appropriate amount of time. Companies have to develop new strategies and implement some retention policies to take precautions in order to prevent “the escape of their talented employees”. Retention efforts are, in a sense, strategies aimed at achieving long-term employee loyalty (Waldroop, Butler, 2011, 3).

1.9.3.1. Cost of Loosing Employees

It is important that employee skills and job requirements match. This match will bring along performance and efficiency. If employee abilities and job requirements do not adapt, poor performance will result in job dissatisfaction. One of the possible behaviors as a result of job dissatisfaction is quitting from the job (Güngör, 2013, 83). The relations between leaving jobs and entering jobs are explained with the concept of “labor turnover”. The frequency of quits shows the height of the labor turnover.

The costs to be incurred by the dismissal of a staff are listed below:.

- Recruitment and time costs to be spent on newly hired person.
- In-service training costs for the newly hired person.
- The cost increase caused by the newly hired person doing less work compared to his salary due to his new learning.
- The cost-increasing effect of work faults and accidents because the newly hired person does not know the job well.
- Loss of empty capacity production due to the newly hired personnel not starting work and starting to work late from the day the employee leaves.
- Loss of productivity due to the absence of a certain period of production due to the new adaptation of the tools used by the newly recruited personnel.
- Loss of productivity because of the absence of a certain period of production due to the new adaptation of the tools used by the newly hired personnel.
- In case the number of people leaving the work is high, the increase of overtime paid to get the jobs done on time or difficulty in meeting orders on time (Güngör, 2013, 84).

1.9.3.2. Career Management and Development

The increasing circulation of employees in today's organizations has significantly increased the labor demand needs of businesses, especially in the areas of managerial, professional and technical talent. In these developing dynamically structured organizations, it has become increasingly

difficult to attract highly talented personnel to the business, to keep them in the organization and to develop them. In this regard, the development of managers in the organization necessitated the company to make basic investments in various business areas (Soysal, 2006, 4).

Career management has developed rapidly and in many ways in recent years and has become one of the most difficult and controversial issues of human resources management. People undoubtedly have the desire to choose a good profession that suits their abilities, to work in jobs appropriate to their profession, and to pursue a career and promote in their profession throughout their working life. Career management is a way of protecting the valuable employees of the businesses (Yaprak, 2010, 401).

1.9.3.3. Training and Development

The talent is not managed only by incorporating talented candidates into the business. Persons cannot contribute to the business if they do not encounter the appropriate business environment where they can realize themselves and improve their skills after being hired. Employees' aspects that are open to development should be identified and after the project, development-oriented activity suggestions should be provided to people and trainings that are important tools to prepare them for their future career positions should be conducted (Çayan, 2011, 72).

Due to the fact that human beings are considered as the most valuable asset for businesses, spending on education and development activities has started to be seen as an investment. In this way, it is thought that the employees will be more knowledgeable, efficient and effective, as a result, customer satisfaction and ultimately profitability will increase. In addition, some businesses mention the insignificance of educational investment due to reasons such as weakening of employee loyalty and increase in the rates of job switches. However, these objections are generally preferred by businesses that think short-term and underestimate investment in educational development activities (Atlı, 2012, 190).

In order to ensure the development of talents in talent management, companies must first determine the development needs of talented

employees, carry out development activities and apply development methods appropriate to their strategies. In order to develop talent development programs, firstly, the demands and needs of talented employees should be determined.

The development needs analysis takes three different needs into account. The first one is the needs of the organization and the strategic needs of the institution are taken into consideration. The second is professional needs; It covers the necessary competencies for the full progress of the works at the functional level. Finally, personal needs should be considered. Accordingly, it defines the needs based on the difference between the person's level of competence and the level of competence he/she should have (Yaprak, Hotamışlı, Gerek, 2010, 404).

1.9.3.3.1. Coaching and Mentoring

Employees with high potential now need one-to-one coaching or mentoring practices rather than classical classroom training. Coaching and mentoring, which is one of the development tools frequently used in talent management, is an effective method used in preparing talented employees for their future roles and giving individual development support by focusing on the development areas determined as a result of evaluations.

Coaching is a managerial action that empowers, develops and encourages individuals and teams to deliver results and that creates appropriate environments and conditions. Coaching is a leader-audience relationship that aims to work with people of different interests, different abilities and experiences, and that aims to see each other as partners. (Barutçugil, 2004, 150).

In general, mentoring is an agreement between two people who share their experiences, expertise and thoughts to assist in personal and professional development. In other words, mentoring is cooperation and sharing relationship that aims to educate, learn and develop. In this relationship, the mentor takes time and effort for a less experienced person to gain knowledge and skills. Thus, the mentor increases his/her efficiency and success. (Çınar, 2007, 5).

Basically, mentoring can be listed as long-term process, experience sharing, encouraging approach, ability to understand and read thoughts, bilateral learning and building relationships.

While mentors transfer their knowledge about the company to their successors, they aim to establish long-term, education-oriented relationships with them. The importance of education in the development of personal career is indisputable, but what makes this education useful and beneficial is its implementation. It is under the guidance of their superiors that young employees adapt more comfortably to the sector, the institution and the culture of the institution they work in. For this reason, mentoring is among the services that bring great benefits to both institutions and individuals today (Çınar, 2007, 8).

1.9.3.4. Charging Skills

The salary is among the most important issues for both the employee and the enterprise in terms of attracting qualified employees, keeping them in the workplace, increasing motivation and ultimately increasing the performance of the enterprise. Enterprises have wage systems that differ according to their structural and financial characteristics, the human resources policy they follow, and the current wage level in the market. Especially in recent years, performance-based salary practices have become widespread by moving away from seniority-based salary systems. Such applications are more adaptable to new production and management techniques (Çınar, 2007, 9).

External environment analysis should also be done very well to establish an effective remuneration policy. It is important to examine the compensation policies and systems of competitors and organizations with similar qualifications, on the one hand, to maintain the competitive cost level, and on the other hand, to maintain the attractiveness of the organization. The high level of general wages weakens the competitive strength of the organization, while low wages make it difficult to retain qualified employees (Barutçugil, 2004, 144).

1.9.3.5. Performance Management and Performance Evaluation

Determining to what extent the tasks assigned to the employees are performed by the employees or determining the employees' ability to work is one of the most important problems faced in organizations in our age. This problem has caused the concept of performance to gain importance rapidly in organizations.

Performance is a quantitative and qualitative description of how successful an individual, a group or an undertaking can be for the intended goal with that job; in other words, it is a quantitative and qualitative expression of what they can achieve. These are studies to determine the actual success levels of employees in a certain period and their future development potentials (Kaynak, Yılmaz, 2016, 657).

Accordingly, performance can be defined as the level of fulfillment of a job according to the specified conditions, or the results achieved by an employee by performing the task assigned to him/her within a certain time section. The performance management system is a set of systems that are effective in determining the strategies of the business by providing reliable and valid information to the business on issues such as planning, evaluating, giving feedback, determining and planning training and development related to employees in a business (Altıntuğ, 2009, 474).

Management tasks in performance management system can be summarized as follows:

- To disseminate and adopt the common goal of the organization to the entire organization, including the specific objectives of these systems, up to the lowest systems that make up the organization,
- To carry out a communication that will ensure the flow of information from top to bottom and from bottom to top within the organization,
- To continuously improve the performance of the managed units, for this purpose, to implement a performance

measurement and audit system for all or the desired units and especially for the employees. (Akar, 2015, 27).

Planning the development of employees is a critical point for the continuity of the performance management system and is of great importance for employee satisfaction and motivation. If an organization prioritizes values such as the development and empowerment of employees, it has to create the necessary resources to ensure this and recognize that there may be decreases in the targets in the short term. A good organization has a culture based on employee development (Akar, 2015, 28).

In the evaluation of performance, it is aimed to realize the steps listed below:

- To see how the purpose, objectives and standards of the institution and the works performed are perceived by the employees.
- To reveal the added values created by individuals and teams.
- Revealing the added values created by affiliated units.
- Sharing expectations and giving feedback from individuals and institutions.
- Taking corrective and preventive measures.
- Collection of benchmarking data needed for the healthy development of the institution (Atlı, 2012, 85).

It is aimed to reveal the potentials and discover individual and institutional abilities, to determine individual and institutional competencies, to reveal what motivates the employees, to share the vision and goals of the employees, to reveal the learning abilities, and to evaluate the system and its functioning individually and institutionally (Yumurtacı, 2014, 192).

Performance management aims to make organizations, teams and individuals more efficient and deals with the subject of knowledge, skills, necessary competencies, work and development plans. It focuses on continually reviewing performance by adhering to goals, conditions, plans, agreement and development plans. It focuses on learning and development (Helvacı, 2002, 156).

The evaluation process shows continuity for the employee. First of all, the person who is evaluated in the recruitment phase is re-evaluated at certain intervals and for certain purposes throughout his life in the business. While recruiting, the person is evaluated in terms of the knowledge, skills and abilities he / she currently possesses, as well as the job characteristics expected from him in the future. In the next evaluation stages, the person's performance at work is examined. Thus, the current position, development, awards and future position of the person in the business are determined as a result of these studies (Demircioğlu, 2010, 71).

1.9.3.6. Ensuring the Continuity of the Talented Employee In the Institution

Companies should support their talented employees with flexible benefits as well as remuneration policies. In fact, supporting employees with a number of additional benefits also leads to continuity in the institution. In other words, the holding efforts of the companies are not sufficient alone. The fact that companies produce some norms that will enable talented employees to continue in the organization will provide them with a strategic advantage. The main examples applied at this stage are listed below: (Güngör, 2013, 97).

Corporate culture: Corporate culture is the understanding that determines what, why and how is done in an institution and the climate where this understanding flourishes. This understanding is determined by the reason for the existence of the institution, its assumptions about the environment, values, norms and practices it performs. The dimensions of the corporate culture can be listed as the mission, vision and values of the institution, organizational structure, authority, responsibility and power distribution, control systems, symbols, habitual practices and legendary stories. Corporate culture includes the values, beliefs and habits that dominate all members' thoughts and behaviors (Demircioğlu, 2010, 92). The harmony of the people who want to be recruited with the corporate culture makes it easier for these people to stay in the business for a long time. It is imperative that the business environment is as peaceful and free from internal conflicts as possible (Çakar, Ceylan, 2005, 66).

Employee loyalty: The common view in the different definitions of the organizational commitment concept is that employee loyalty is a “psychological condition” that “defines the employee relationship with the organization” and “leads to the decision to stay in the organization”. Accordingly, organizational commitment in the most general sense represents the harmony between the goals of the individual and the corporate culture. In this way, the individual can make efforts for the general purposes of the organization and define himself as a member of the organization. Employee engagement will be extensively discussed later in this study (Altıntuğ, 2009, 459).

Work-Life balance programs: It is an important factor in increasing the productivity of the employees by creating a difference in their quality of life and ensuring their loyalty to the company. The basis of the work-private life balance programs offered to the employees of the companies are to solve the problems of the employees regarding social life as much as possible, to ensure that the individual works happily and efficiently, and to create conditions in which he can spare time for himself, his family and the environment. With the programs conducted and implemented for this purpose, employees are provided with opportunities in the form of various child care programs and flexible working arrangements (Güngör, 2013, 101).

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is determined by the degree of difference between what a person expects from his job, what kind of opportunities and facilities the environment offers him and what he can get from that environment. Job satisfaction will be re-evaluated in the second part of the study (Kök, 2006, 295).

1.9.4. Measuring the Success of Talent Management

In talent management and backup practices, it is important for businesses to evaluate whether an effective and operational system is established, and to examine the results of investments and efforts. Based on the fact that we can effectively manage as long as we can measure, it will be necessary to use metrics to measure the success of talent management practices.

Measurement metrics used for talent management are summarized below from an employee and business perspective (Table 1.4).

The important thing in measuring the success of talent management is not to try to use all possible metrics, to give priority to using metrics that are objectively measurable within the enterprise and which are related to the areas that will contribute the most to the company's goals. The adapted version of the model developed for evaluating the trainings given by the enterprises to the employees is shown in the table below. According to this evaluation systematic, the success of talent management is addressed in four basic evaluation stages (Altınöz, 2009, 165).

Table 1.4.

Metrics Used to Evaluate Talent Management Practices

Recommended Metric	Content	Objective
Employee turnover rate of critical positions	Percentage of employee turnover	To follow the quit status and the reasons of quitting of the talented employees, who are candidates for talent pools or critical positions, to take the necessary precautions
Employee turnover rate in critical positions during the trial period	Percentage of employee turnover rate that occurred during the trial period	Tracking talented employees who tend to quit during the trial period, to determine whether the request to quit is fulfilled at their own will or by the business.
Time to fill critical positions in the business	Average number of days of filling the critical positions vacant in the business from outside or inside	Monitoring the filling efficiency of positions
Management's satisfaction with the hiring process	The satisfaction score given by the managers to the relevant questions in the employee satisfaction survey	The level of satisfaction of the management in line with the business objectives related to the systems carried out in the business
Satisfaction of candidates applying to the business with regard to the recruitment process	The satisfaction score given by the employees to the relevant questions in the employee satisfaction survey	Following the impressions of candidates applying for employment regarding the recruitment and selection process
Closing the competence gap that the business needs in critical positions	Identifying the differences between the necessary competencies and the competencies of the employees in critical positions and following them in the applied systems process	Meeting the competencies that the business needs today and in the future with management tools such as talent and backup management

Employee satisfaction survey	Determining the perception of the company regarding competence level capacity in the employee satisfaction survey	Measuring the perception of employees about how much talent and competence the business has
Employee satisfaction survey	Determining the perceptions of employees about their job description and career management in the employee satisfaction survey	Measuring the perceptions and satisfaction of the employees regarding career management and job descriptions and checking whether the company has reached the target level in this direction, and receiving feedback on practices in this direction

Resource: United States Office of Personnel Management Human Resources and Accountability Framework, www.opm.gov. Transmitted by Saynur Yazıcıoğlu, “Yetenek Yönetiminde Bir Uygulama: Üst Düzey Yönetici Yedekleme Amaçlı Geliştirme Programı” (Unpublished Master's Thesis, MU Institute of Social Sciences, 2006), 102.

Table 1.5.

Adaptation of Kirkpatrick Evaluation Model to Talent Management

Evaluation Phase	Content	Sample
Level 1: Measuring the response	Overall satisfaction of all interested parties	How satisfied are the management, human resources, and participants?
Level 2: Development of learning	Ratio of meeting the goals of all stages of the program	To what extent have the target focus areas been successful?
Level 3: Effective job placements	Behavioral findings	Increased leadership competency and percentage of executive positions filled with talented individuals within the business
Level 4: Contribution of talent management to business results achieved in line with business objectives	Competence of the business to be effective	To what extent does backup management contribute to the business results of the business?

Kaynak: Tracy Taylor, Adrienne Bennett, “Strategic Development of Organizational Talent: The use of Succession Management Approaches”, Research and Practice in Human Resource Management, 2002, Vol.10, No.2, p. 56-69.

Assessment of talent management shows difference and flexibility just like the formation of its processes. Therefore, the dimensions of evaluating talent management can be considered from different perspectives. The ability and back-up systems can be evaluated on the basis of contribution to business performance, as well as changes in the individual performance and career of the individuals involved. For this reason, the metrics to be used in the evaluation depend on whether the evaluation will be made from the perspective of the employee or the business perspective (Kök, 2006, 296).

1.9.5 Obstacles Against the Talent Management

Since "dealing with the human factor" is the basis of everything in the organizational and managerial plane, there are some obstacles against the effective realization of talent management. According to Majeed (2013), these obstacles are examined in two parts, internal and external. The internal obstacle is the organization's difficulties in taking a strategic position and trying to use competitive advantages, while the external obstacle is the possibility of brain drain of a talented employee with globalization (Majeed, 2013, 48).

With the increasing demand for talent, talent shortages and aging experienced population, increased mobility and globalization, and transformational changes in the business world are other factors that negatively affect existing talents quantitatively, qualitatively and characteristically (Thunnissen, Boselie, Fruytier, 2013, 1748). In addition, the cultural structure of the organization that is not suitable for talent management and employee exchange rate also negatively affect talent management (Majeed, 2013, 49). In the McKinsey Quarterly research, seven obstacles against effective talent management were mentioned and HR managers from 46 enterprises (n = 98) participated in this research (Abrudan and Mattei, 2009, 29). These obstacles are seen in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6.*Obstacles against Talent Management, McKinsey Quarterly Research*

Order	Obstacle	Rate (%)
1	Senior executives do not spend the necessary time on talent management.	59
2	Organizations do not adequately support constructive collaboration and resource sharing.	48
3	Managers do not contribute enough to improve employees' abilities and careers.	45
4	Managers refrain from classifying their employees as top, middle and inadequate according to their performance.	40
5	Senior management does not adequately support the development of the talent management process.	39
6	Senior executives do not match talent management strategy to business strategy.	37
7	Managers do not take into account those with low performance, even if they are continuous.	37

Resource: Maria-Madela Abrudan ve Mirabela-Constanța Matei "Talent management-a strategic priority". Leadership, v.3, n.2 (2009): 29.

Apart from managing talented employees in enterprises, there are also obstacles in increasing the number of talented employees. These obstacles are as follows:

- Businesses do not see people as assets that need to be invested, but as a cost that needs to be minimized.
- Businesses think that they will make unnecessary investments not only for talented employees but also for all employees.
- Businesses simply choose jobs that are easy to do and the results are more visible.
- Failure of businesses to get caught up in talent race and cannot realize their current talented employees (Cantrell, Benton, 2007, 360).

CHAPTER 2

2. IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The view of today's world towards business life is changing and putting in-service training at the center of working life. Because the skills and professional knowledge gained by graduating from any formal education prior to the profession are insufficient in the information age where rapid and multi-dimensional change and development are experienced. For this reason, in-service training activity is considered as an investment and naturally its return time is calculated. Positive developments in the turnaround time will increase spending on in-service training and making more investments. However, since education is not an element that shows its effect immediately in the short term, managers and decision makers who do not plan in the long term do not attach sufficient importance to in-service training and may prefer not to increase the expenditures made (Bucak, 2011, 20).

2.1 In-Service Training Concept

In-service training is the process of acquiring the related skills and abilities to reach the performance level required by the job from the hiring of the person. With the rapid change in our age, companies producing goods and services have to follow and keep up with innovations. Even if the necessary training is received in educational institutions, the information received in vocational education is insufficient and constantly changing in the face of this rapid change. For this reason, businesses have to follow the innovations and continue the training process (Bucak, 2011, 21).

In-service training is “training to ensure that individuals who are employed in private or legal entities for a salary or wage earn the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes on matters related to their duties” (Canman, 2000, 95).

In-service training becomes compulsory when individuals who complete a certain program of a particular educational institution and participate in the business life are not able to adequately acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by the institution, or when it is necessary to adapt to the innovations that arise during the production process.

In-service training is all of the training that increases the professional knowledge level of individuals in order to enable individuals or the community they come together to perform their duties more effectively and successfully in the business or the tasks they will undertake in the future. In-service education is all of the trainings that provide an increase in the individual's good manners, knowledge and skills in order to provide a positive development in their knowledge, habits and understanding, which increase the professional knowledge level of individuals, in terms of their perspective, habits, decision-making skills and attitudes (Sabuncuoğlu, 1997, 4).

In another definition, in-service training is “programs that are prepared and presented by the organization in order to give individuals who make up the organization in line with organizational purposes to behave in order to achieve these goals or to gain experiences that will contribute to the development of behaviors.” In order to increase the efficiency of the institution and achieve corporate goals and objectives, the professional knowledge and behavioral characteristics of the individuals forming the organization are at the forefront (Öztürk, Sancak, 2007, 763).

The individual appointed to the institution to perform a specific task needs training not to be behind all developments related to his/her profession and to follow these developments continuously from the first day he/she was appointed until the time he/she left the profession. In-service education, in other words, lifelong education is to provide continuity and regular integrity to the educational activities that occur at every moment of life, rather than continuing throughout the professional life of the individual (Sabuncuoğlu, 1997, 5).

2.2 Aims of In-Service Training

In-service training should be considered as an integral part of lifelong education so that individuals working in an institution can serve efficiently and follow developments in their professions and around the world. The purpose of the in-service training is to increase the productivity from the institutional point of view, and to increase the job satisfaction from the individual point of view. In order to achieve these goals, institutions and organizations must fulfill the functions of planning, implementing and evaluating in-service training activities (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 234).

In-service training is “training in businesses that is assigned to people who are assigned and working for a certain salary and wage. It aims to provide people with the necessary knowledge, skills and behaviors in order to increase efficiency in the goods and services produced”. Businesses have to educate employees according to their objectives in order to develop. This obligation covers the requirements of employees such as compliance with the laws of the business, correcting mistakes, raising their morale, developing their personalities, raising their professional competencies (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 235).

In the light of the scope and evaluations described, we can list the aims of in-service training as follows:

Economic objectives: What is called education for production constitutes the economic purpose of in-service training. The main goal since the industrial revolution is to provide the highest production at the lowest cost in the enterprises, that is, to determine how the production will be realized in the most appropriate form (Korkmaz, 2007, 60).

The purpose of in-service training can be expressed briefly as “realizing the production at the highest level with the lowest cost”. In accordance with this basic economic purpose, it is possible to list a number of sub-economic objectives as follows:

- An increase in quality,
- Decrease in costs,
- Saving on time,

- Reduction of wastage,
- Decrease in the number of work accidents,
- Providing job security,
- Rational use of machinery and equipment,
- Reduced personnel turnover rate, decrease in absenteeism,
- Decrease in maintenance and repair costs,
- Decrease in control and supervision,
- Improvement in business methods,
- Decrease in error rates (Korkmaz, 2007, 60-61).

Social goals: Due to the qualified and trained manpower, it both helps the development of the society and ensures that people gain a status within the society.

Cultural Objectives: According to behavioral scientists who interpret the change of administrative behavior as a function of cultural change, the reason why a modern human resource management cannot be realized or the structural status in this field cannot be changed quickly enough are because the changes in the related social sciences occur slowly and these changes are perceived slowly by the society. The orientation of human relations, branches of science such as psychology, social psychology, psychiatry, social anthropology, philosophy reveals the form of "organizational behavior" rather than the concept of "human relations" (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 115).

It is an ideal form of organization for institutions to have a policy on employee development and to have a committee that regulates the training activities of employees. Regardless of the way of organizing, the continuing education needs of the staff should be very well determined. When it comes to the educational needs of individuals, we see that it is evaluated at three levels: institutional, professional and individual (Yüksel, 2007, 179). At the stage of determining training needs, questions such as what are the expectations for the work to be done, how much the employee's skills and experience meet these expectations, what level of motivation and capacity of the person, who will give the training, how much time this training will take, and how much it

will cost can be listed. The training needs of the person can be determined through observations, performance evaluations or interviews during work (Korkmaz, 2007, 62).

The four reasons that direct businesses to the training of human resources and thus to in-service training can be shown as follows:

- Getting new employees to work: Although new employees have some skills, new jobs may require learning new skills.
- Increasing success: In particular, by evaluating numerical data on production costs, labor costs, quality and productivity, it can be tried to increase the current success through training.
- To maintain the same level of success: If the individual in a particular position does not learn the knowledge and skills required by new technologies, the problem of "inadequacy" may occur over time. Deficiencies can decrease when the selection and consultancy of human resources are implemented well and a flexible personnel policy is followed. Job redesign, more professional contribution to decision making and job rotation are measures that reduce deficiencies. This second group of measures requires training and development programs.
- Preparing the employees for new jobs: An additional training is usually required when it is desired to benefit from the staff in other departments for the vacant position in one department (Yüksel, 2007, 189-190).

The objectives of in-service training can be listed as follows:

- It increases knowledge, manners and skills of all personnel working in the workplace from the time of employment to retirement.
- It teaches the new developments brought by science and technology and ensures the renewal of the person in his field.
- It enables him to develop positive behaviors against his job and to perform his duty faster by avoiding unnecessary movements.
- It prepares the person for higher positions.

- It speeds up the adaptation and learning process of the personnel who face a new task.
- It increases the morale of people and groups.
- It improves the skill of solving professional problems.
- It increases work efficiency.
- It has functions such as increase in salary (Taymaz, 1997, 5).

By creating a learning environment with in-service training, it is aimed to make the staff more conscious, to avoid unnecessary processes and to make the best use of public resources. In-service training speeds up the learning process. By the help of in-service training, employees in the same unit are brought together to collaborate. In-service training programs should be prepared with these objectives in mind. An in-service training program should be prepared by taking into account the insufficient aspects of the staff, choosing a training method based on the skills and learning potential of the staff in line with the needs of the job and considering the institutional objectives. Since a program without a purpose cannot be evaluated, it will be done in vain. Therefore, other activities should be carried out after determining what is desired to be achieved through in-service training (Taymaz, 1997, 6).

The main objectives of the in-service training program can be to prepare the newly recruited personnel for their duties, to increase the success of the experienced personnel, to reduce the staff turnover rate, to reduce absenteeism and tardiness, to prevent work accidents, to resolve conflicts and to develop the leadership awareness of managers.

2.3 Types of In-Service Training

Success in education largely depends on the education method to be chosen and followed. For each purpose, a separate training method determined according to the needs should be applied. Thus, various training types are applied to meet the training needs and deficiencies of the employees or to adapt to new developments. In general terms, these types of training can be defined as on-the-job and off-the-job training. (Aydın, 2011, 12).

Different criteria are used in determining the types of education. Various classifications are made according to these criteria, the type of institutions providing training, the place where the training is held, the stage where the trainees are in service, the qualifications and duties of the trainees.

2.3.1 On-the-Job Training

On-the-job training, which aims to train the staff while performing their duties, is generally applied in training newly recruited staff. In this training, the person does his job on the one hand and learns on the other hand. It is based on the principle that the personnel receive training without interrupting his/her job. Business and education are intertwined here (Taymaz, 1997, 11).

In-service training at work is an unchanging factor in the great changes in business life. With the change of the nature of the job, it is aimed to adapt the personnel immediately to this change. Supervisors have a great responsibility in on the job training. Therefore, supervisors should be willing and sufficient to train. They should allow the participation of staff and discuss new techniques with them. Tools for the supervisor to assist him in on the job training should be developed by the training unit and used during training. This includes training for people who will provide on-the-job training (Aydın, 2011, 15).

On-the-job training is accepted by many institutions as a basic approach to acquiring skills. On-the-job training has many benefits and is done in a real environment. Therefore, the effectiveness level is high when on-the-job training programs are well organized. Also, since on-the-job training is done with the same tools and processes as the real production, the training and production are integrated (Taymaz, 1997, 12). On-the-job training methods can be examined in 7 groups:

- Training Under the Supervision of the Admonitor: Training Under the Supervision of the Admonitor, which is one of the oldest training methods, is widely used in enterprises because of its low cost and easy implementation. The aim of this training method is to give an employee who is new to the business or who changes jobs

to be trained by another employee or foreman with knowledge, skills and experience.

- Induction (Orientation) Training: Here, induction training is a short-term training given to the newly hired employee to introduce the general atmosphere of the organization, colleagues, and job to ensure compliance with the job and the organization. It can also be defined as the activity of introducing the person to the institution and introducing the institution to the person. Thus, it is aimed to introduce the workplace policies, plans and the philosophy of the organization to the employee.
- Training Through Job Change (Rotation): Job rotation aims to employ the employee in different jobs in a planned way in order to be trained, thus gaining experience and skills related to these jobs. There are many benefits to changing jobs. Employees believe that special efforts are made to train them and their morale rises. The workplace forms a flexible workforce. An auxiliary staff is formed ready to work at the upper levels. In addition, since the talents of the employee increase with the change of work, the field of work that he can work is expanded.
- Training Through Delegation: Through delegation, the employee is given an authority that the institution does not have in order. Thus, when the employee has the authority, it is desired to develop this ability to use it. It is an important development step for the subordinates to use their priorities by proxy and make decisions and implement them when their superiors are absent. The application of this training method allows the subordinate to gain experience, improve the understanding of cooperation, and improve its auditing and evaluation skills.
- Training Through Mentor (Guide): This training is one of the on-the-job training methods that are mostly applied on lower-level employees. Instead of leaving the jobs that are getting more complicated and require technical training in the enterprises to the teaching of the foremen who do not have a training formation, it is preferred that the people chosen among qualified workers,

foremen or technicians are equipped with pedagogical and technical knowledge and assigned to the training of employees. These selected people are called mentors or guides. The duty of mentors is to give the employees systematic information about the job, purpose and tools, to provide practical information about the job and to show the most effective and economical ways of using the tools. In addition, they perform their educational activities by fulfilling duties such as ensuring the adaptation of employees to new working methods.

- **Special Designs (Project Work):** In this method, the employee is given the responsibility to realize a certain design and asked to manage it. Thus, the employee will not only analyze and manage various issues of the business, but will also have the opportunity to learn in depth the information that may be very necessary for him/her.
- **Training Through Internship:** “Internship is a training method that provides employees with opportunities for their future tasks, such as introducing their working environment and conditions, teaching jobs, taking professional responsibility and improving their ability to adapt to work ” (Aydın, 2011, 16-18).

2.3.2 Off-the-Job Training

It is a method of training the personnel in an environment separate from the workplace, apart from the usual social and psychological environment. Accordingly, it is education outside the workplace that the person participates in educational activities in a place outside the workplace, whether inside or outside the institution.

Off-the-job training has a complementary nature, which does not take the characteristics of certain tasks as its focus. In working life, it is seen that off-the-job training is usually performed by consultancy firms or universities in the management branch. Out-of-job training has distinctive features compared to on-the-job training practices. The most important of these features is that the employee to be trained can be abstracted from the

working conditions during the training process and give their attention to training. (Taymaz, 1997, 25).

Off-the-job training methods allow the employee to move away from daily pressures and think in a comfortable environment. Off-the-job training methods can be examined in 8 groups:

- Group Discussions: Main group discussions performed in front of the audience can be listed as panel, symposium, open session and brainstorming.
- Panel (Collective Discussion): Under the chairmanship of a manager, a group of 3-5 people discuss an issue informally.
- Symposium (Collective Presentation): It is the presentation of a group of speakers of 2-4 speakers under the presidency of a manager, to the listeners within the time allotted to them, respectively.
- Open Session (Forum): It is a meeting in which the audience also attends after a controversial meeting such as panel and symposium.
- Brainstorming: It is an unrestricted discussion that is carried out in an open environment where new ideas (solutions of problems) are nurtured and new understandings are developed by choosing an original problem or topic.
- Lecture Method: Lecture method is for a person who is expert in his field to present certain subject to a community with a certain method. In this method, in which tools that appeal to the eyes can be used in the presentation of the subject, other training methods can also be used.
- Seminar and Courses: The seminar is an education that aims to improve the knowledge of the personnel about their work. The course is an educational study in which the course and the practice are carried out together in order to ensure the professional and intellectual development of the staff. Efficiency is increased by improving knowledge and skills through courses.

- **Case Study Method:** It is a training method that aims to increase the skills of employees to put the learned topics into practice. In this method, those who attend the training programs are expected to present their suggestions for the solution of the problem and solve the problem.
- **Briefcase Technique:** It is a training method used to improve the ability of people working in an organization to search and find solutions to business problems. This method is also called expected problems method. This method is based on the fact that the people to be trained fill the vacant places, in other words, to manage the vacant positions, in an imaginary business, from the managers leaving the job theoretically.
- **Role Playing:** A certain group is selected from among the candidates participating in the training program, and they are asked to address and resolve a problem that may arise in the business as if they were actually the managers of the business. Thus, when a similar event is encountered, candidates are provided with experience on how to solve the problem in the best way
- **Trip and Observation Method:** Observation trips are organized to the centers where the subject is taught with the necessary explanations by an experienced guide. Participants are asked to make more careful observations by asking for a report that includes observations from the places of travel.
- **Simulation (Imitation) Method:** Those trained in this method see what kind of results their decisions can bring in real business situations. Simulations, which enable trainees to see the effects of their decisions in an artificial and risk-free environment, are used in teaching production and processing skills as well as management and interpersonal skills (Aydın, 2011, 21).

2.4 In-Service Training Process

2.4.1 Determining In-Service Training Requirements

The first step of planning, which is the in-service training process, is the determination of the in-service training policy. "Education policy consists of principles and rules to be followed in the education process. Principles are basic thoughts that guide actions. Principles such as justice, equality and honesty are abstract and general. Rules are ways of acting in accordance with the principles. It is more concrete and clear, reveals actions to be done and not to be done ." Policy making is important for the healthy implementation of the program and for the desired benefit from the program. Every institution must have an education policy within its own policies, because policy making means determining the ways to be followed in order to achieve the desired goals. The institution should consider some principles when determining in-service training policies. (Aydın, 2011, 21-22).

These principles can be listed as follows;

- Equal opportunities should be ensured in education
- Training should be given in accordance with the needs of the service, not the personal interests of the staff.
- In education, individuals should be provided with the necessary information and skills.
- The benefit of education should be cost-compatible." (Aydın, 2011, 22).

Each institution should establish an in-service training policy. If an in-service training policy has not been determined in an institution, or if there is a training program that is incompatible with the general policy of the institution, which is far from the objectives of the institution, and is not determined to be understood by everyone, it would be pointless to expect efficiency from the in-service training program implementation (Öztürk, Sancak, 2007, 763).

2.4.2 Determining In-Service Training Requirements

Determining the need for in-service training is a research conducted to reveal the deficiency that affects the productivity of the staff in the institution. How different the personnel of an institution that must have the same

characteristics in order to produce efficient services can only be revealed by determining the training needs (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 52).

The need for training is the deficiency and necessity required by a service or staff working in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform the job or service. In other words, the need for in-service training or the need for in-service training of the personnel is the knowledge, skills and attitudes that the individual feels necessary to solve the problems faced by the individual, and the competencies he / she feels deficient in order to play his/her own role. Competence is the ability of a person to perform a certain work at a certain place in the environment, when necessary (Şimşek and Öge, 2012, 168).

In addition, the need for in-service training also arises when new personnel are recruited to the institution, in case of changing the duties of the personnel, when personnel is required to be prepared for the upper levels, when new technology, such as new machinery, tools and vehicles are purchased, in case of legislative changes, when production and service decrease in terms of quality and quantity (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 50).

2.4.3 Determining In-Service Training Priorities

It is important to which individuals or groups the in-service training programs will be given primarily. Considering that there is a difference of experience, talent, knowledge and skill among individuals, some individuals have to undergo in-service training first. Besides, by determining which unit of the institution needs training, the personnel of that unit should be included in the in-service training practices. "Which segment will be given priority in in-service training programs differs according to the working area and level of the staff." In order to make the right decisions while determining the priorities, the questions of which personnel are given priority, which personnel these individuals will be, when and where the education will be given should be answered (Esin, 2013, 40).

2.4.4 Planning of In-Service Training

"Planning is the process of deciding how to provide and use inputs required for an institution to achieve its goals." The goal of in-service training planning

in businesses should be to train personnel who are aware of their job and responsibility and open to control and supervision. Because the most effective way to train personnel who are aware of their responsibilities is in-service training (Tortop, 1999, 121). In addition, one of the main goals in planning is to train and develop qualified personnel who can provide high efficiency and quality service. Planning forms the basis of the in-service training process. The next steps are built on top of planning. Planning is very important in terms of effective and efficient in-service training program. Even in-service training activities are impossible without planning (Şenviren, 2014, 21).

In-service training activities implemented in businesses are determined for predetermined purposes. In order to provide training services for the purpose of the business in the planning process, it is necessary to determine the training policy and training requirement, which comprise all of the relevant objectives and programs (İnce, 2006, 359).

2.4.5 Implementation of In-Service Training

Technical skills are enhanced by training to improve the understanding of the techniques, processes, operations and techniques required for the business people to achieve the job fulfillment and to use them correctly and safely. These are trainings for the intellectual-psychomotor field such as using the construction machine, engine tester, welding machine, ship, weapon system, etc. "It is put into practice with training programs prepared within the scope of in-service training plans. Training programs aim the continuous improvement in the skills of the employees in terms of technical, human and conceptual fields" (Güney, Varoğlu, Aktaş, 1996, 53).

Regarding the skills of the personnel who work as a team member to solve the problems and preserve the place they should be in the team, their human aspects should be ensured. This aspect of the job can be provided through trainings under certain topics such as leadership, management, organization, motivation, communication, behavioral sciences. In order for the employee to understand the culture of the business to which he belongs, the ethical rules, the environment in which he works and act within this meaning base, the

development of his conceptual skills should be ensured. Care should be taken to include these issues in the programs in order to obtain the desired efficiency from the employer (Demirel, Özçınar, 2006, 227-228).

The implementation of in-service training should be constituted within the framework of the previously prepared training plan and with a specific training technique according to the objectives of the in-service training program. In-service training activity is part of the working life of the employee and it should be applied to the employee during his/her professional life. The continuous and systematic application of in-service training is the main factor in the success of business and business employees. In order for the in-service training application to be successful, attention should be paid to match the requirements of the employees with the objectives of the enterprise (İnce, 2006, 370).

In the implementation of in-service training programs, it should not be forgotten that in-service training is a part of the life of the employee, and in this process, the payment of the fee should be included. The emphasis should be placed on the opinions and problems of the employee, and cooperation with other professional organizations, joint ventures and the assurance of the employee should be included. Likewise, in in-service training applications, it is paid attention to provide a suitable environment for teaching and to focus on personal training rather than the team when it is necessary to gain talent (Demirel, Özçınar, 2006, 372).

The selection of the personnel to participate in the in-service training is an issue that should be carefully considered during the implementation phase. Employees with the greatest contribution to production within the enterprise should be specifically planned for training. Besides in-service training specialists, the employees should also be asked for their opinions on training. Educational ideas, requests, needs should be discussed by both experts and employees.

Another important point to be considered in the implementation of in-service training programs is the selection of trainers who will provide training. The training personnel, who can be selected from inside or outside the business,

must have sufficient knowledge in the field to be trained, have the ability to present this information, and have enough technology to use this ability. Attention should be paid to ensure that training staff are social, people-oriented, and impressive enough to establish good relationships with trained staff. The training staff should have sufficient communication skills to establish good relationships with trained staff, should have high expression skills, and should use the body language well (İnce, 2006, 371).

2.4.6 Evaluation of In-Service Training

In in-service training activities, evaluation is handled together with "measurement", which is defined as determining the number or level of a variable. The results obtained as a result of measurement are not very important unless they are evaluated according to certain standards. On the other hand, unless the evaluation activity is based on a measurement process, it cannot reach a valid and realistic quality. For this reason, evaluation and measurement are parts of the whole that complement each other. According to the evaluation and measurement results, it is an important issue for the business to know the success of an employee who has undergone in-service training before and after the training (Aydın, 2011, 44).

“While evaluating the effectiveness of in-service training, some evaluation indicators are used. These are exams or tests, degree of attendance or interest, degree of application of what is taught, assignment after training, promotion status of the trainees, and reduction in cost expenses. (Esin, 2013, 76). These indicators are some determinants which are emphasized in determining whether the purpose of education is successful, that is, the degree of education success.” Enterprises that spend big expenses on in-service training expect huge gains as a result of this training. Some businesses even choose to hire trained employees by avoiding spending money on training. Since businesses know that investing in people has a very important place in today's business life, they are trying to know and monitor the results of their expenses for training at the highest level. (Taymaz, 1997, 31).

“It is possible to evaluate the effectiveness of a training program in four stages: determining successive impression, revealing the degree of learning, determining behavior changes and evaluating the training according to the concrete results desired.” The answer to the question of how satisfied the in-service trainers are with the training program is. Satisfaction with the training programs is expected to be directly proportional to the opinions of the working people who are trained in the selection of the program course topics. The fact that the trainees increase their knowledge and skills in the trainings is much related with the degree of their interest and relevance to the lessons. The expected efficiency cannot be obtained from a trained employer who does not focus on lessons, deems education unnecessary and dissatisfied with the training (Şenviren, 2014, 32).

At the end of the in-service training application period, it is desired to reach a result by using the numerical results according to the degree of learning on the employees trained. For this, experiment and inspection teams are put into operation. The knowledge and competence degree of both teams are evaluated and compared before and after the training. In addition, it is determined whether there is an awareness of the attitudes and behaviors of the employee who has received in-service training, and to what extent they try to realize the gains of the employee. It is evaluated before and after the training (Aydın, 2011, 46).

Businesses always prioritize their profit goals. They expect returns on everything they spend and want to see clear, tangible data. They want to see the profits they will receive in the service and production fields as soon as possible. Even though businesses have social responsibilities, they always keep this issue in the secondary plan. They expect efficiency, quality, maximum production increase and high service from their employees. The social troubles, needs and morale of its employees are neglected. They do not want to listen to any complaints from the employees. But business owners and managers who understand human psychology expect improvement in this direction from trainings. In the evaluations made before and after the training, the companies that have achieved job satisfaction, high

morale and commitment of their employees to the business know that they are more advantageous than others. (Taymaz, 1997, 20).

2.5 In-Service Training and Its Importance In the Scope of Talent Management

The training provided to the personnel at all levels working in public or private institutions and organizations until they retire, which is carried out with the aim of adapting to the job, increasing their productivity at work, refreshing their knowledge and experience, ensuring their adaptation to new situations and getting ready for advanced positions, is called "In-Service Training". If we shorten this definition, we can say that the education to be given to a person who starts working in his/her career until his/her retirement is qualified as "in-service training". (Taymaz, 1997, 21).

In-service training is planned training activities that increase the level of knowledge, skill and behavior and efficiency for the employees during their working life, as well as the basic vocational and skill training given to the employees in general. In-service training is aimed at increasing efficiency, efficiency, quality in production and service, reducing errors and accidents that may occur during the production and consumption of the product, reducing costs, providing qualitative and quantitative development in sales and service provision, increasing profits, increasing tax revenues and savings (Esin, 2013, 43).

The objectives of in-service training are determined in accordance with the policy and objectives of the organization that will conduct the training. Generally, it is possible to list the aims of in-service training as follows:

- • To increase efficiency,
- To increase employee motivation by increasing performance,
- To prepare the personnel for the top positions and providing the personnel needs from the organization,
- To reduce work accidents and work-related complaints and errors,
- To give dynamism and respect to the organization,
- To make the organizational structure flexible against changes from the external environment,

- Contributing to communication between people and departments,
- To reduce maintenance and repair costs,
- To reduce being late for work and absenteeism,
- To reduce the audit and task load of managers (Tortop, 1999, 121).

Education is an activity to change a person's knowledge, abilities and skills through formal programs in or outside the business or by gaining experience. Training is to ensure that the necessary work is done correctly to work efficiently. As a broader concept than training, development is changing the staff to do the right things (Şenviren, 2014, 20).

Employee training activities organized in enterprises are economic investments, as well as all of the educational actions implemented for individuals and groups to perform their duties more effectively and successfully, to broaden their professional information horizons, to make positive changes in thinking, rational decision-making, behavior, attitude, habits and understanding, and to increase knowledge, manners and skills (Esin, 2013, 45).

In order to survive, an enterprise must train the employee in accordance with its purposes. It is known that those who are proficient in their profession are disturbed by their inadequate colleagues, their morale is disturbed and they are demotivated. The selection of the employed staff is not always accurate, or the information received through pre-service training may be insufficient in the business environment. It is possible with both in-service training to make both the inadequate employees sufficient and to eliminate the frustration that the employer who cares about science has suffered due to inadequate application. In addition, since in-service training will become conscious about the duty of the employee, the areas of acceptance will expand and the friction between them and their managers will be minimized (Taymaz, 1997, 30).

The inability of the employee to perform the service expected from her at the desired level causes the goods and services produced in the sectors not to be of sufficient quality and quantity, causes him/her to fail to perform the service expected at the desired level, causes human and financial opportunities not to be used well, properly and efficiently, and causes the

occupational accidents and occupational diseases to be at the highest level (Şenviren, 2014, 24).

In-service trainings are important for reasons such as following scientific and technological developments, effects of social changes, eliminating pre-service deficiencies, filling the gaps in communication and creating equal opportunities in education (Taymaz, 1997).

CHAPTER 3

3. JOB SATISFACTION

The most important element of businesses is people who work there, manage jobs, and in a sense make the business. "Human being both the intermediary and the purpose of the organizations is one of the most important problems of the management in ensuring organizational efficiency." (Ince, 2006, 359). Because the human, the most important factor in the workplace, also has the feature of being the most difficult factor to direct. In today's conditions, where the creativity of individuals has become important as a result of globalization and increasing competition, it has become a very important and difficult issue to ensure the satisfaction of individuals who have higher expectations due to their professional and personal values, especially with the change in the quality of the workforce. The concept of job satisfaction, which has become one of the most important issues of management, is mentioned below (Demirel, Özçınar, 2006, 227-228).

3.1 The Concept and the Definition of Job Satisfaction

Although the interest in this subject has extended to Taylor's work in 1912, it would not be wrong to say that this concept has not been defined precisely according to the results of many researches on job satisfaction since 1958. However, when the researches about job satisfaction are examined, it is seen that the definitions made have common points (Güney, Varoğlu, Aktaş, 1996, 53).

Job satisfaction is one of the most important attitudes that affect human behavior in businesses. Job satisfaction, which is stated as one of the "positive business attitudes", is a term for a person's general attitude towards his/her job. Job satisfaction is an "attitude that results in the balancing of all

the many desired and undesirable experiences associated with work". In other words, job satisfaction can be expressed as "the comprehensive, positive emotions that people have towards their jobs and the consequences of these emotions on people" (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 91).

Briefly, job satisfaction, which can be stated as positive or negative thoughts of the employees against the job, "shows how the job fits the entire functioning of the individual." Wagner and Hollenbeck briefly cited job satisfaction as a sense of contentment. This feeling consists of a person's satisfaction with the important values he/she gives to her job or the thought that the same job is considered an important job (Wagner, Hollenbeck, 1998, 107).

"If the job positively affects the individual's feelings and value judgments in addition to meeting individual needs, job satisfaction arises." That is, if an employee shows a high and positive attitude towards his job, there is a significant job satisfaction. He is happy with his work and desires to continue this work. Similarly, if the person is not happy with his/her job, it means that he/she has a negative attitude towards his/her job and the degree of unhappiness and negative attitude will develop in parallel with each other. (Erdoğan, 1991, 365).

What should not be forgotten about job satisfaction is that job satisfaction is dynamic. Managers cannot provide high job satisfaction once and then keep this subject out of sight for several years. Therefore, job satisfaction should be carefully monitored and maintained annually or even monthly (Telman, Ünsal, 2004, 12-13).

3.2 The Importance of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been one of the most important issues in the business life, "since man has come to the fore as a resource". One of the reasons why job satisfaction has gained such importance is that the concept is closely related to the worker's health and efficiency. Work is an important part of human life. If a person spends most of his/her day at work and he/she spends most of her life in business life, "It is essential for both his/her organic

and psychological existence in order to be satisfied with his/her job and to be happy in his/her life.”

Those who cannot achieve job satisfaction can never reach psychological maturity. Failure to provide job satisfaction will disappoint individuals. The gap in job satisfaction and disaffection towards the job will be the reason for low morale, low productivity and an unhealthy society. When we look at the results of the event in terms of business, there may be situations for the employee such as reluctance to go to work, leaving the organization, feeling of inadequacy, not being able to cooperate, making mistakes at work, desire to leave the job and making inaccurate decisions (Telman, Ünsal, 2004, 13).

Especially in today's competitive conditions, it is very important for the continuity of the enterprises to ensure employee satisfaction and creativity, and to provide employee productivity and creativity, which is seen as the most valuable resource that a business can have. Providing the job satisfaction of the individual plays a big role in increasing the happiness and productivity of the individual (Erdoğan, 1991, 365).

3.3 The Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

All employees want to improve their working conditions and meet their economic, psychological and social needs, aspirations and wishes related to working life. Employees are satisfied as long as their needs are met in the institutions they work for (Güney, Varoğlu, Aktaş, 1996, 54).

Job satisfaction, which can be defined as the response that occurs as a result of the evaluation of the work done by the working individuals, the work environment and the working life in the workplace, can have different expansions caused by many external factors such as the nature of the work done, the conditions of the business environment, various features of working life and working relationships as well as internal expansions in a way caused by various personal factors (İnce, 2006, 360).

“The level of job satisfaction, which includes a person's positive or negative feelings” about their job, is influenced by social, cultural, environmental, individual and organizational factors. All of these different factors affect the job satisfaction of individuals more or less under certain conditions. Since

individual and organizational factors have a great impact on job satisfaction, only individual and organizational factors will be considered here. (Akıncı, 2002, 7).

3.3.1 Individual Factors

The scope of individual factors affecting job satisfaction generally consists of the following variables:

- Age and Experience
- Gender
- Occupation and Job Position
- Personality characteristics
- Education level

3.3.1.1 Age and Experience

One of the personal factors that affect job satisfaction is age. Researches related to job satisfaction show that the level of job satisfaction also increases depending on the progress of age in general (Yelboğa, 2007, 3). Individuals have less job satisfaction at a young age due to reasons such as inexperience and high expectations from life. With the advancement of age, the level of job satisfaction increases with the influence of reasons such as individuals becoming more established within their working environment, balancing their individual desires and getting a better position with opportunities such as promotion (Angi, 2002, 47).

In many studies, it is seen that as the duration of professional work increases, satisfaction with work increases. This situation arises from the fact that the expectations from the work begin to settle on more realistic foundations, to adapt itself to the work environment, and to have good wages and working conditions in high positions. If the working conditions improve and develop with seniority, there will be an increase in job satisfaction depending on seniority. Considering the opposite, the job satisfaction level of the employee whose experience has increased depending on the seniority will decrease (Angi, 2002, 48).

3.3.1.2 Gender

It is seen that studies on the relationship between job satisfaction and gender do not yield consistent results. In a study conducted in Korea, it was found that female employees have higher job satisfaction than male employees, and this is explained by the fact that women may have fewer expectations about their jobs. A second reason is that female employees do not express their dissatisfaction too much. There are also studies showing that the motivation factors of men and women may differ. Men and women may find the features of the same job equally attractive, but women can expect less from the same job than men. As a result, women can get more job satisfaction than men from the same job. In addition, women are more prone to desk office work due to their creation, while men generally enjoy mobile and mainly non-desk jobs (Kirel, 1999, 116).

3.3.1.3 Occupation and Job Status

Some related researches on occupational groups examined the relationship between job satisfaction and the level of profession, status, and addressed professions in terms of their respectability in society. It has been demonstrated that there is a consistent relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction. Higher job satisfaction was observed in socially high status occupations (Özkan, 2011, 155).

Since the occupational level factor is about appreciation and acceptance in the community, it is addressed in the sociocultural environment by environmental factors rather than individual factors by some of the researchers who group the factors affecting job satisfaction. In the studies related to the subject, it was found that the employees who have an administrative title or those who have a high status have higher job satisfaction compared to those who do not have such a title or those who work in low status jobs (Sevimli, Işcan, 2005, 55-64).

In a study, it was found that professionals and managers have the highest level of job satisfaction, whereas non-skilled heavy industry workers experience the lowest level of job satisfaction. (Silah, 2005, 45).

3.3.1.4 Personality Traits

Employees have a range of value judgments and beliefs, depending on the personality they have. While some employees want to be independent in their work and do not want their managers to interfere with themselves, others desire to organize the work environment themselves, some employees prefer hard jobs and enjoy the work that others have difficulties in doing (Dorman, Dieter, 2001, 480).

In general, it is seen that those who are less satisfied in their jobs are those who have limited general abilities, are not able to adapt to the environment, have poor human relations, show very irritable symptoms, and are dissatisfied with their personal positions. In a meta-analysis study based on the assumption that personality factors have an important role in achieving high job satisfaction, it was determined that personality does not have a direct impact on obtaining job satisfaction, it affects the job conditions of the person, and job conditions also affect job satisfaction (Dorman, Dieter, 2001, 481).

3.3.1.5 Education Level

The level of education is a variable from the expression to what extent the employees benefit from educational institutions and which types of educational institutions employees use that provide the educational needs of the society. Education level changes not only the knowledge and expertise of the employees but also the way they perceive the world (Öztürk, Güzelsoydan, 2001, 334).

Education is one of the most important factors of job satisfaction and education level has a structure that also affects the satisfaction level of the employee. The important thing here is to find a balance between the environment and opportunities provided by the work done with factors such as knowledge, work values, desire levels, and organizational expectations. For example, in some job positions, employees with higher education are known to be less satisfied than the employees who have been trained at middle-high school and primary school level. (Dikili, 2012, 96).

In some studies examining the relationship between the education levels of the employees and job satisfaction, it was found that the general job satisfaction of the employees with higher education levels is higher compared to the less educated employees. However, in some cases, it is seen that highly educated employees fall into job dissatisfaction especially due to high wage expectations. Sometimes job satisfaction increases as employees with higher education have more access to organizational rewards and receive more wages. As a result, uncertainty arises because variables such as education, intelligence, age and occupational position and wages cannot be considered separately (Dikili, 2012, 97).

3.3.2. The organizational Factors

Organizational factors affect the job satisfaction of employees by interacting with individual factors. Organizational factors that affect job satisfaction can be listed as salary, promotions, work and workplace, job security, management and audit, physical conditions of the work environment and relationships with colleagues. These issues are briefly explained below:

3.3.2.1 Salary

The money they receive in return for the labor force of the employee is defined as “salary”. The most important tool in meeting the basic needs of people is money. It is important that the salary of the employees are fair and satisfactory. The emotional morale and motivation of an employee who financially meets the basic needs of himself and his family increases. Salary systems in institutions should ideally depend on the employee's position in the organization and then on the person's performance. The belief and trust of the employees of the institution in performance evaluation compensation systems is related to the fairness and transparency of the systems. It is understood that when these processes take place under ideal conditions and the Human Resources department of the institution applies a fair and objective method, the institution doesn't allow favoritism (Özkanan, Erdem, 2015, 8).

3.3.2.2 Promotion

One of the important factors affecting job satisfaction is the fact that the employee has promotion opportunities. The high probability of ascension, frequency and fairness, and the fact that the desire to rise is heard by the employees are the factors that increase the satisfaction of this factor. Employees expect the promotion policy implemented by the workplace to be fair and in line with their expectations. Individuals who think that their promotion decisions are made honestly and fairly will probably provide more satisfaction (Sevimli and İşcan, 2005, 60).

Promotion provides opportunities for personal development and more responsibility and higher social status. It also means an increase in the level of profession. It is known that there is a consistent relationship between job level and job satisfaction (Özkalp, Kirel, 2010, 116). By looking at this finding, it can be concluded that promotion and thus promotion opportunities affect job satisfaction.

Employees are positively impacted and job satisfaction is high in a system in which the rise in order of seniority is valid. However, as a result of the performance of the reverse, the satisfaction level of a person who gets promotion is higher than the individual who gets promotion according to the seniority. The promotion of an undeserved person when there is an employee who deserves to promote more creates unrest and negatively affects job satisfaction. The promotion leads to higher job satisfaction in senior executives, while promotion in lower-level employees leads to lower job satisfaction (Başaran, 2008, 266).

3.3.2.3 Work and Workplace

Another aspect that affects job satisfaction is the perspective of the employee and his / her work and working life, the meaning he/she places and the characteristics of the work. According to research on the subject, the characteristics of the job directly affect job satisfaction. The variety of work done, the need for creativity, the difficulty of the targets require that the employee has special skills and knowledge. It was observed that the satisfaction of the individuals increased as the change in the content of the

work grew and the recurrence of the tasks decreased. The monotonous and boring turning of the work created problems such as job dissatisfaction, mental and physical fatigue, stress, alienation to work and to their environment (Cohrs, Abele, Dette, 2006, 367).

Researches on the fact that such problems faced by individuals in working life cause absenteeism within the organization, increase in employee turnover rate, decreases in the quality and quantity of production, deterioration in inter-individual relations and increasing complaints have revealed the importance of the content of the work in organizational activity (Öztürk, Dündar, 2003, 36).

Apart from this, the fact that the employee has fully undertaken the work done is an issue affecting job satisfaction. The more the employee is responsible for the majority of a job, the higher his satisfaction level will also increase. The more freedom the person is given when doing the job, the more satisfaction it provides. Apart from this, the employee should receive sufficient, detailed and understandable information about the quality and quantity of the work he/she performs, that is, regarding the performance he/she has achieved. If the individual is frequently informed about how good he is at what he is doing, job satisfaction will be higher. The important thing here is that the feedback should be given constructively, which will not upset the individual's morale (Özkalp, Kirel, 2010, 120).

3.3.2.4 Job Security

The phenomenon of job security is accepted as one of the main factors affecting employee satisfaction. Confusion about whether job security points to a process related to the current job currently underway or a lifetime employment guarantee makes it difficult to define this concept (Keser, 2009, 110).

The employment problem is an important problem in all countries. Creating employment for the unemployed is one of the most challenging issues of the economy. The pressure created by being unemployed affects the individual adversely. The individual, who does not want to face such a situation, tries to

protect his current job. Therefore, the issue of job security becomes even more important (Keser, 2009, 113).

Having job security is another reason for job satisfaction. Job security is that the organization provides its employees with a continuous and permanent working environment. As the age of the employees increases, financial security becomes very important for them. Confidence is a more comprehensive feeling than an economic guarantee for the employee. Therefore, the sense of assurance also includes the feeling of self-confidence, which arises from conforming to a particular business environment or business conditions (Özkalp, Kirel, 2010, 120).

If someone works in an organization knowing what to do, who to work with, how to do it, and to what extent he/she can achieve success, self-confidence will increase. When an individual feels an uncertainty about job security in the organization he / she enters, he/she cannot enter into a tight bonding process regarding his/her new organization and does not have commitment to the organization.

Seeing those who are laid off at any time in the institution they work at will create concern that people who are working may lose their jobs at any time. It is not easy for the individual to refind a job in environments where the job markets are shrinking and unemployment is intense. For this reason, such anxiety will create a low job satisfaction in all employees. However, when it comes to layoffs due to realistic reasons (such as economic crisis, technology renewal), employees are less affected than the effect of arbitrary removal. In this case, it can be said that the uncertain environment in the workplace affects people more negatively than job security (Başaran, 2008, 270).

3.3.2.5 Management and Audit

One of the factors that have a significant impact on job satisfaction is the leadership behavior displayed by the organization manager; Because in order to take people to certain goals, it is necessary to follow what the personal desires and needs and interests they will provide in reaching these goals, and then to increase their strength, courage, desire and energy by

gathering these people around a group. This is possible with effective leadership (Tengilimoğlu, 2005, 43).

Although the concepts of manager and leader have similar features in managing employees to the target and achieving the goals, the difference between these two facts is the power source used to direct the employees to the target. While the manager takes power from the office, leaders draw their strength from knowledge, expertise and charisma. While the responsibility of the manager is to make the existing system work and minimize the risk, the responsibility of the leader is an innovative and creative, questioning way of action (Tengilimoğlu, 2005, 26).

If many definitions about leadership are examined and attempted to create a synthesis, this concept can be defined as the sum of the ability and knowledge to gather a group of people around specific goals and mobilize them to achieve these goals (Eren, 2010, 435). Today, the way to good management is to be a good leader. The leadership behaviors of the managers, who have an important role in the success of the organization, play an important role in increasing the job satisfaction of the employees.

3.3.2.6 Physical Conditions of the Working Environment

Physical working conditions are another factor affecting job satisfaction. The conditions of the working environment must comply with rules such as health and cleanliness; because physical working conditions have a big impact on one's performance, motivation and job satisfaction (Bayraktar, 2002, 37). Negative working conditions lead to job dissatisfaction. Excessive noise, high or low temperature conditions, excessive use of body strength, low safety facilities are conditions that create job dissatisfaction with various diseases in individuals. Proper working conditions are important both for personal comfort and for doing the job well and properly. Apart from this, the tools and equipment necessary for doing the job must be provided completely (Öncer, 2000, 136).

In summary, the disturbances in physical environmental conditions, which are stated as factors such as warming conditions, lighting and ventilation, both significantly disrupt the work and cause deterioration in the physical

conditions of the individual. As a result of all these negative situations, there will be a decrease in production related to the enterprise and the employees may be dragged into mental disorders. For this reason, businesses are required to make arrangements to prevent these situations. Otherwise, job dissatisfaction and complaints will arise (Bayraktar, 2002, 38).

3.3.2.7 Colleagues

Job satisfaction is defined as the relationship between the financial benefits obtained from the job and the colleagues who the employee enjoys working together and the happiness provided by the formation of a structure. Relations with colleagues are also important for job satisfaction. Especially the manner of supervisors overseeing employee affects job satisfaction. If the supervision keeps the employee away from the participation and the employee cannot express an opinion in the decisions taken, it usually reveals job dissatisfaction. (Eren, 2010, 492).

Whether the staff within the group is technically and socially competent and supportive may affect the level of job satisfaction. The good or bad relationship at the social level within the organization affects satisfaction (Özkalp, Kirel, 2010, 123).

Being able to get along with the colleagues and making friends with them outside of the workplace is a factor that connects the organization member to a working environment and contributes to the harmony of the employee. If there is an intense atmosphere of friendship and solidarity among the employees, this environment improves the sense of trust and encourages employees to connect more and achieve success in the organization (Bayraktar, 2002, 40).

3.4 The Types of Job Satisfaction

It is possible to consider job satisfaction in two groups: internal satisfaction, which is the satisfaction that occurs while doing the job, and external satisfaction, which is the result of the job.

3.4.1. Intrinsic job satisfaction

The satisfaction of the individual as a result of his/her work is different from the satisfaction he/she feels during his/her work. The inner satisfaction is the satisfaction about the factors such as the ability of the employee to demonstrate his / her talents in the workplace, the extent to which he / she can feel his goals, to establish authority over the people, to work independently, to comply with the ethical values of the organization, to take authority and responsibility, the feeling of trust, the existence of social opportunities, and the social status provided (Şimşek, Çelik, Akgemci, 2014, 125).

3.4.2. Extrinsic job satisfaction

The satisfaction obtained by the employee in return for the work is called “external satisfaction”. According to another definition, external satisfaction refers to the satisfaction with the factors that are not directly related to the work itself. Factors such as business policy, wages, appreciation and promotion opportunities are among the factors included in extrinsic job satisfaction. The presence of such opportunities helps to create a sense of satisfaction in the employee. Examining basic theories explaining job satisfaction after types of satisfaction is important in terms of seeing different perspectives (Şimşek, Çelik, Akgemci, 2014, 126).

3.5. The Theories and Approaches Explaining Job Satisfaction

3.5.1 Theories of Process

Process theories investigate the causes of job satisfaction, how they occur; and classify variables such as job satisfaction needs, values, hopes, and perceptions (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 89). In other words, process theories tried to explain the source of motivation based on external variables (Davran, 2014, 42).

The focal point of motivation theories gathered under the name of process theories is about what goals people are motivated and how they are motivated. In other words, the question of how the person showing a certain behavior can be made to repeat this behavior is the main problem that process theories try to answer. According to process theories, requirements

are just one of the factors that lead the individual to behavior (Şimşek, 1995, 126).

Process theories for job satisfaction are Locke's goal setting theory, Adams' equity theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Lawler and Porter's expectancy theory.

3.5.1.1. Edwin Locke- Goal Setting Theory

The "Goal Setting" theory was developed in 1968 by Edwin Locke. According to the theory, the main reason for the behavior is the conscious aims and intentions of the individuals. According to this theory, each individual determines his own goals and these goals determine his level of motivation. It gives information about the determined goals, what needs to be done and how much effort is made accordingly. (Erdem, 1998, 52).

According to this motivation theory developed by Edwin Locke, the goals set by individuals will also determine their degree of motivation. A person who has a hard-to-reach and high-goal set will perform better and be more motivated than a person who has set goals that are easy to achieve. The main idea of the theory is the degree of accessibility of the goal that people set for themselves. Locke's theory is specific to future behavior rather than past or present behavior (Kök, 2006, 86).

This approach emphasized the importance of setting goals in organizations and made several suggestions on how this should be. These suggestions can remain valid in terms of goal theory. What is important for the manager is to ensure the compatibility between the goals stipulated by the management and the goals determined by the employee. While doing this, the contribution of subordinates should be taken. (Koçel, 2003, 525).

3.5.1.2. J. Stacy Adams- Equity Theory

According to this theory developed by Adams (1963), one compares the effort he / she has achieved and the result he / she has achieved with the effort and results that others have achieved in the same business environment. Any unequal situation that a person perceives as a result of this comparison will result in a person's behavior to eliminate this inequality (Erdem, 1998, 56).

One can take the following actions to overcome this inequality:

- Changing their inputs,
- Changing their output,
- Quitting the job,
- Changing the comparison point,
- Finding a reasonable reason for inequality in comparison,
- Take action to change the input and output of the person he / she is comparing (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 89).

The person who feels that the balance turns against him/her if the balance is broken, he/she will look for ways to increase his/her own rewards in order to get rid of the pressure of this dissatisfaction, and if the individual does not succeed in this, he/she will reduce the amount of inputs and values he/she offers to the business. In addition, he/she will try to reduce the activities of other people by decreasing their rewards or by demoralizing them by going into rumors and attrition activities. The employee will be at peace when he believes that equality and balance are achieved. According to this theory, the aim was to seek equality and balance in reward justice (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 95).

3.5.1.3. Victor H. Vroom-Expectancy Theory

Victor H. Vroom has argued that the need satisfaction and motivation is far more complex than others claim. According Vroom and to supporters of his expectation theory, motivational power in need satisfaction is a function of the individual's preferences to achieve a goal and the actions that follow this goal (Boyett, Henry, 1991, 99). Expectancy theory combines parts of other theories. In general, we can explain our behavior in expectation theory with the expectation that our goals and choices will come true (Evens, Lowell, 1997, 36).

In theory, the elements that have satisfaction and the results of job satisfaction are mentioned. The parallelism between satisfaction and performance are sought. According to Vroom, the individual will achieve maximum performance by adopting the formula of desire + effort =

expectancy to reach the result, and job satisfaction will occur. (Ergül. 2015, 40).

“According to Vroom, motivation depends on two concepts. These are valance and expectation. The concept of valance refers to the preference of a person for the degree of preference for a particular outcome, in other words, whether it is worth reaching the outcome. However, people can evaluate the results in different ways. What matters to the Theory of Expectancy is not the real values of the results, but their conceptual values (Türk, 2007, 89).

Conceptual value, valance, can be said to be the level of satisfaction that the employee hopes to get from the result he hopes to encounter. Accordingly, the power of any result to motivate the person at the first moment depends on the positive returns that the person hopes to gain when he / she achieves that result in the future. There are two different results that people aim to achieve. These are primary and secondary results. Primary results are related to the performance shown in the organization. Secondary outcomes are individual outcomes targeted by the individual. Primary outcomes become steps to achieve secondary outcomes. For example, in a factory that applies a piece rate system, the number of pieces produced daily by the worker is the primary result, and the wages to be received by the number of pieces is the secondary result. The perception that there is a connection between these two results is expressed as instrumentalism. In other words, even if the primary results do not attract the attention of people, knowing that they help them reach secondary results will make their interest in primary results positive.” (Türk, 2007, 89-90).

According to the expectancy theory, human motivation equals the expectation that the behavior will reach the goal, multiplied by the importance given by that person to the goal. According to this theory, people will try hard for the purposes that have high expectations and reach the desired results, but they will not spend much effort for the purposes with low expectations. People will not strive for unwanted purposes but with high expectations. Vroom has defined the importance attached to the purpose as "Valence". (Türk, 2007, 90).

A person's motivation power will be equal to the multiplication of expectation of achieving a certain result and the value he/she gives to that result. So the ability of a person to act is equal to the sum of the values of all results or goals and the probability of realizing these results or goals (Eroğlu, 2009, 270). In order to increase the level of job satisfaction, it is important to determine the individual needs of employees, their perception of reward and punishment and to take initiatives towards these expectations (Luthans, 1992, 162).

3.5.1.4. Lawler-Porter- Expectancy Theory

The first part of this theory is the same as the expectancy theory of Victor Vroom. So the degree of motivation of the person is influenced by Valence and expectancy (Akal, 2005, 105). However, Lawler and Porter made some additions to Victor Vroom's theory. This theory, which is based on the self-evaluation of the individual and provides a contribution to the rewarding justice that affects his ultimate satisfaction, suggests that there are role conflicts in organizations that reduce the expected behavioral power of the employee, which negatively affects efforts and achievements (Koçel, 2010, 133). In other words, he argues that many variables affect one's motivation.

Lawler and Porter developed managerial motivation theories, assuming a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. According to Lawler and Porter, a person's being at pains to doing his/her work does not automatically result in a high effort. Two new variables are required for this to happen. The first is that the person has the necessary knowledge and skills; the second is the role that one perceives for himself (Türk, 2007, 91).

In this theory, a balance must be established between the expectations of the employees and the reward, and the rewards distributed within the organization must be fair in order to achieve high satisfaction. The theory emphasizes that there may be people who have low success in an organization but found what they are looking for, as well as employees who have high success but whose expectations are not rewarded appropriately. From this point of view, it becomes clear that it is impossible to satisfy everyone as much as they wish (Eren, 2010, 567).

3.5.2. Theories of Contents

Content theories try to answer the question of how and why people act like this. In other words, the goal that the human is motivated to achieve, the direction of his/her behavior and how his/her needs are affected in the organization are important. However, scope theories give importance to understanding the factors that exist within the person and lead the person to conduct in certain directions. These theories, which emphasize motivations which is an expression of the needs of individuals, are based on the assumption that if the manager can grasp the factors that force his employees to act in a certain direction, he can motivate his employees, manage them better and refer them to act for organizational purposes (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 234).

The main scope theories are Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Alderfer's ERG Theory, Mc Clelland's Theory of Needs, and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.

3.5.2.1. Abraham Maslow- Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs Approach" is the most well-known approach among motivation theories. Maslow has arranged the needs underlying human behavior according to a hierarchical structure. The basic element that directs people to a certain behavior is their needs. It is necessary to identify different organizational tools in order to determine these needs of the employees in the organization and to meet these needs (Vural, Coşkun, 2007, 120).

Maslow did not find a classification such as physical and social requirements sufficient and provided a list of basic human needs. Maslow listed the requirements from the most basic to the most complex (Tokat, Şerbetçi, 2009, 7). In order for people to meet their needs, they must satisfy these needs respectively. This approach, which evaluates motivation as a dynamic concept, includes personality variables and social change (Sabuncuoğlu, Tüz, 1998, 112).

The physiological needs, which are the most basic requirements, are located at the lowest level of the hierarchy (Tokat, Şerbetçi, 2009, 8). According to Maslow, one acts first to satisfy his/her physiological needs which are at the

lowest level. It is very difficult to list the physiological needs in a precise list. People's needs are ranked at various levels according to their importance. For example, a person can live only by eating bread; however, if there is no bread, needs such as position and recognition will not matter.

The needs included in this group are needs such as hunger, thirst, shelter, sleep and sexual desires. Physiological needs cannot sustain human life when they are not satisfied, even to a minimum. For this reason, these needs must be met immediately in order to make biological life permanent (Eren, 2010, 500).

In the second stage of the needs hierarchy, there is a need for security. When it comes to the place and time, the need for security becomes as important as physiological needs. For example, for a person who is under the threat of life and property, the need for security becomes of primary importance. Security needs are known as the first type of need people learn, and these needs are acquired later in life (Eroğlu, 2009, 50).

As with physiological needs, the continuity of security needs is not infinite. As it can end when it is met, meeting these needs more than enough can hurt the person. The harmful part of having too much trust is the excessive attachment of people to the person who provides this trust. If a person is dependent on someone, self-valuing and creating may lose their personality to such an extent that they do not reach the high needs level. (Ertürk, Keçecioğlu, 2012, 10).

After providing security and continuity in the needs, it is important to satisfy social factors such as belonging to a social group and love. People will want to establish relationships with people with whom they have mutual love ties. Thus, they will want to be included in the groups they care about or to be accepted. Needs reflecting the social aspect of human relationships such as belonging, coexistence, acceptance and love are evaluated within this group (Kantar, 2008, 36).

In order to satisfy these needs, which constitute the social aspect of human relations, people want to belong to one or more people, institutions or associations. They are very happy to belong to these institutions and

associations, and they boast of it. When the need for belonging and love is satisfied, the mental health of the individual will also be good (Tokat, Şerbetçi, 2009, 8-9).

Once people in the community belong to a group or after a group spirit is formed, they want to be constantly valued and respected by themselves and by others, both within and outside the group. Now that the person has self-confidence and prestige, with the effect of this driving force, the human tries to gain a healthy sense of self-confidence and provide a well-deserved prestige. If this need is not satisfied, some feelings of inferiority occur in the individual (Ertürk, 2011, 11).

The individual's usage of all his/her abilities and skills and constantly improving himself/herself is considered to be living as a creative individual. In order for these needs at the top level of the Hierarchy of Needs to emerge, all other needs at the lower level must be satisfied. The need for self-actualization leads the person to use all his abilities to serve society. It is impossible to motivate people who have reached this level of need with money, title or any material and spiritual reward (Kantar, 2008, 37).

The need for self-identification is less clear than other needs; because some people have not realized the existence of this need or have not yet found the conditions to fulfill them. Self-knowledge, knowing what characteristics he/she has, having the idea of creativity, autonomy and democratic thinking are included in this group. In addition to these, there is understanding the world, sincerity, simplicity, purposefulness, desire to be alone and open mindedness. For managers, self-complement needs that they can use for their employees to satisfy their needs are as follows: Providing opportunities for development and promotion within the organization, and giving creative works to show the potential (Aşan, 2001, 228).

Maslow assumed that on average, the individuals can satisfy 85% of their physiological needs, 70% of their security needs, 40% of their social needs, and 10% of their self-fulfillment needs. However, Maslow's hierarchy of needs does not always have the same importance. Sometimes social needs can prevent physiological needs (Aşan, 2001, 229).

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Approach is based on three basic assumptions. First of all, human needs depend on a cause. Man has some desires as a living being. He constantly wants things, but what he wants depends on what he has at that moment (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 137). When one of the human needs is met, someone else takes its place. This process is endless and continues from birth to death. Secondly, if human needs are met, this situation does not reveal some behavior. However, if some human behavior is not met, human behaves in certain ways (Kantar, 2008, 38). Third, human needs are ranked according to a certain hierarchy. Needs at the upper levels do not refer people to behavior before the needs at the lower levels are fulfilled. The ability of needs to direct the person to behavior depends on their degree of satisfaction. A satisfactory need loses its behavioral motive and higher-level needs begin to affect behavior (Şimşek, Öge, 2012, 138).

A lot of research has been done to investigate the degree of suitability for this approach developed by Maslow. Some of these studies have confirmed the assumptions of this approach, while others have not confirmed their assumptions. Some studies have even claimed that this approach is based on the attitude of only the average American worker. However, despite such criticisms, The Hierarchy of Needs Theory has become the most well-known motivation theory for reasons such as its simplicity, its comprehensibility and its logic (Aşan, 2001, 230).

3.5.2.2. Frederick Herzberg-Two Factor Theory

According to Herzberg's Double Factor Theory, the hygienic factors that lead people to be pessimistic in the workplace and cause dismissal and dissatisfaction and the factors that make the employee happy and connect him/her to the workplace should be separated from each other (Lundberg, Gudmundson, Andersson, 2009, 891).

Herzberg (1959) developed Maslow's theory and tried to support this theory, which he called "Two Factor Theory", with research. These two factors are Motivational (Internal) factors and Hygienic (External) factors (Budak, Budak, 2004, 76).

In the first group called motivating factors, there are factors such as work itself, responsibility, progress opportunities, status, success and recognition. The presence of these factors will motivate the person, as they give the person a sense of personal accomplishment. Their absence will result in the person not being motivated (Koçel, 2003, 518).

Hygienic factors are external factors and are related to the workplace. These include working conditions, wages, location, security, management, company policies, and interpersonal relationships. Herzberg gave these factors this name because the absence of them caused the employee to quit, just as the living beings could not live in environments devoid of cleaning, and that the employee could not work in his business. The absence of hygienic factors can cause dissatisfaction. However, only hygienic factors may not provide employee satisfaction. Therefore, motivating factors are also needed (Örücü, Yumuşak, Bozkır, 2006, 40).

Herzberg acknowledges that only those who achieve satisfaction with their hygienic factors may exist. According to him, such people are those who have not come to an advanced personality stage where their need for self-realization will appear, and the basic needs of this type of people are more directed towards the need to avoid unpleasant things in the environment. These needs can only be met for a short time and reappear after they are met. (Onaran, 1981, 46).

Before the two factor theory emerged, only single scales were used to measure job satisfaction. High score reflects high job satisfaction, low score reflects high job dissatisfaction. (Erdoğan, 2005, 62).

3.5.2.3. Mc. Clelland-Theory of Needs

Another need theory was developed by McClelland and his friends. McClelland's theory is closely related to the theory of learning, in which people argue that they have learned or gained their own needs in various situations in their own culture. McClelland et al., especially John Atkinson and Murray investigated three needs. These needs are success, relationship and strength. (Eren, 2010, 579).

These requirements are important in both individual and community and nation life. According to the idea, the need to be successful is reserved under the passions and feelings of people being the best and seeking perfection in their profession. According to this theory, the people act under three groups of needs such as success, power, and relationship (Riggio, 2003, 186).

The need for success: Many studies in this area have focused on the relationship between entrepreneurial behavior and qualities of success motive. Researchers have defined the motivation of success as a motivant that exists in the person and uses it to face the difficulties faced by the person in achieving success and perfection. According to this approach, the motivation for success is expressed through behaviors such as undertaking a difficult job or taking personal responsibility for success when faced with uncertain situations (Koçel, 2003, 328).

Need to establish a relationship: It means establishing relationships with others, joining the group and developing social relationships. The person with this strong need will attach importance to establishing and developing interpersonal relations. In this type of need, importance is given to establishing and developing interpersonal relationships (Coşkun, 2013, 48).

The need to gain strength: A person who has a strong need to gain strength will demonstrate the behaviors of expanding power and authority, keeping others under influence, and preserving their power (Barlı, 2008, 97).

All efforts to be superior and to control the work and activities of others can push people into conflict and disagreement with other people. This danger somewhat curbs the desire to be strong. Therefore, the severity of this need arises in very different ways from person to person (Coşkun, 2013, 49).

Mc Clelland emphasized the need for more success. The need for success occurs depending on many factors. Experiences during the upbringing period and the importance that family elders attach to the success of the child lead to the need to be successful.

3.5.2.4. Clayton Alderfer-ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer has improved Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Approach by simplifying it. This theory assumes that the situations occurring around the

individual are effective in the formation and persistence of individual behaviors. Alderfer has collected Maslow's model in three main categories: the need to exist, the need to relate, and the need to develop (Onaran, 1981, 47-48).

According to the ERG theory, these needs are as follows:

- Needs to exist: Needs for physical well-being,
- Need to establish a relationship: Needs for developing interpersonal relationships,
- Needs for improvement: Needs for personal development and progress. (Barlı, 2008, 97).

In ERG theory, the direction of needs does not always go up. This theory has frustration and retreat principle (Budak, Budak, 2004, 80).

If one cannot satisfy his/her higher-level needs, his/her unhappiness and disappointment in this regard will bring him/her back to the satisfaction of the lower-level need and the person will be motivated in this way.

This theory suggests that various needs can operate simultaneously. According to Maslow, while the need for self-completion depends on satisfying the other four needs at lower levels, Alderfer argues that especially the people working in our post-industrial society can be motivated to satisfy both the existence and growth needs simultaneously (Coşkun, 2013, 50).

Just like Maslow, Alderfer agrees to satisfy the low level needs before the high level is activated. However, ERG theory is different from Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Approach due to a few details. Any or all of the three types of needs that exist in the ERG theory can affect individual behavior at the given time (Koçel, 2003, 330). Alderfer does not accept that a need once satisfied, has lost its motivational effect. . Only the regret principle is essential in the ERG theory. Alderfer's need to exist corresponds to the safety and physiological needs at Maslow. Likewise, the need to establish a relationship corresponds to social needs and the need to develop corresponds to the need to complete self (Barlı, 2008, 98).

3.6 The Results of Job Dissatisfaction

It is known that job satisfaction has some important results in terms of employees and businesses. These results are very important in terms of affecting the physical and mental health of the employee, the working environment and efficiency of the business, peace of the society, economic development, and understanding of saving and social waste (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 68). According to the modern management approach, the success and performance of businesses should be measured not only by variables based on material data such as profitability, market share, tax paid, but also by the human dimension. For businesses, job satisfaction should be a social responsibility and ethical requirement first of all. Just as the factors affecting job satisfaction vary from person to person, the results of job satisfaction occur in different ways from person to person (Akıncı, 2002, 6).

3.6.1 Individual Results of Job Dissatisfaction

3.6.1.1 Life Dissatisfaction

“Life satisfaction is the emotional response of the person to life, which is defined as the combination of working time, leisure time and non-working time”. Researches reveal that there is a moderate positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Although this positive relationship does not give an idea about which one is causing which, job satisfaction and life satisfaction affect each other mutually. It is usual for the employee to generalize his feelings in family life by reflecting his work in the organization and his feelings in his work to his family life (Sabuncuoğlu, 2009, 72).

Job provides satisfaction to the individual in many aspects in his life. It is known that having an employment or working is an important factor on the satisfaction of the individual. Another factor that is as effective as having a job on the life satisfaction of the individual is high satisfaction in working life; because one's work experiences are carried to life. The high job satisfaction of the individual contributes to the high satisfaction of life. It is observed that individuals who have happiness in their work have high life satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001, 12).

In addition to job factors, demographic variables also have some effects on life satisfaction levels. However, while women stated more life satisfaction than men, older ages (old age), marital status and higher education were associated with higher life satisfaction, and professional promotions also played a role in life satisfaction. Emotional exhaustion, personal success and satisfaction from professional status were also stated to be the determinants of life satisfaction (Telman, Ünsal, 2004, 117).

The relationship between an individual's job and satisfaction with life can be in three ways:

- Expansionist: The business life spreads to the private life of the individual and the private life of the individual to the business of the individual.
- Segmentation: Business life and private life are separate from each other and there is little relationship between them.
- Compensatory: The individual tries to compensate for his dissatisfied job in his private life in which he is satisfied, or on the contrary, his dissatisfied private life with his work in which he is satisfied. (Oksay, 2005, 37).

3.6.1.2 Alienation

Unsatisfied working conditions cause employees to be alienated from their own workplaces. Employers alienated from the workplace are only for the purpose of making money and will enter the vicious cycle of dissatisfaction. Employees who do not make any effort to improve the workplace conditions will not be able to do their best to achieve organizational goals and objectives, as people who continue their work because they do not only have the opportunity to find a better job (Whiteacre, 2006, 70).

It is seen that there is a high relationship between job dissatisfaction and alienation, and that the alienated employees do not see their job as a cross-section of life, they do not accept themselves as a member of the organization and even reverse themselves from being identified by alienating themselves (Whiteacre, 2006, 71).

3.6.1.3 Stress

Stress is generally considered as a term that affects people's behaviors, performances, and relationships with others and describes negative stimuli. Stress is expressed as a physical, psychological or behavioral response given by a person in a situation that threatens the person (Oksay, 2005, 38).

One of the most important sources of stress in the business environment of the individual concerns working conditions and work difficulties. Stress is also related to the problems caused by the disorder of the work organization, the division of work and the work flow irregularities. Another source of stress in the business environment is the disturbances in the distribution of roles, duties and responsibilities in the organizational structure, the knowledge, ability, experience and skills of the staff to work, and the incompatibilities of knowledge, skills and experience required by the job (Terekli, 2010, 79).

On the other hand, organizational stress has negative consequences such as negatively affecting individuals' health, decreasing the performance and job satisfaction levels of employees, increasing job absenteeism and economic costs (Ağırbaş, Çelik, Büyükkayıkçı, 2005, 328).

3.6.1.4 Offensive Behaviors

It has been observed that employees with job dissatisfaction tend to fight and try to fight with others in the organization.

Aggression occurs as a result of physical or verbal stimulation. As long as the individual experiences dissatisfaction in his job, he will accumulate negative emotions over time and show aggressive behaviors in a great emotional destruction. In some cases, such difficult and violent movements can be directed to the person and objects that have nothing to do with the events, as well as the person and object that triggered the individual (Terekli, 2010, 80). Incompatibility, absenteeism, membership of unions, equipment and material destruction and complaints about management are the most common aggression events. These negative behaviors that occur in cases of dissatisfaction greatly affect beliefs and attitudes. In such cases, it is difficult to explain to the individual that he/she is unfair and to persuade him about it. The response of employers and management as a result of such

dissatisfaction is manifested in the form of disciplinary tightening, punishment, assault on unions and labor laws and regulations. (Eren, 2010, 440).

3.6.1.5 Return Behaviors

Psychological dissatisfaction can also lead to backward behavior. The sense of inadequacy and dysfunction occurs after long-term stress situations and leads the employee to despair and depression. Thus, the bad loop that takes place takes the energy of the employee and leaves no power to do work. Suicide, getting caught up in religious affairs, gossip, crying in female employees, aggressive behavior in male employees can be counted as the most observed behaviors in return behavior. One of the most common situations is childish behavior (Davran, 2014, 63).

3.6.1.6 Fixed Behaviors To Be Retried

The employee may not want to abandon the tools, methods and habits that he is used to. In the face of innovations in working life, they may fall into psychological situations such as shock and panic and try to prove that they are right. The reason for such movements is due to the psychological dissatisfaction of the employee, and in enterprises where psychological dissatisfaction is eliminated, the employees accept the changes with less resistance.

3.6.1.7 Leaving The Job to Chance

Another symptom encountered in employees who suffer from psychological dissatisfaction is the state of leaving their job to chance. Employees who are discouraged and fall into despair may be caught up in the flow of life instead of being a fighter. Some people who do not have to wait many years to retire are people who have lost their fighting spirit. Such employees can have a low morale level, as well as they have negative effects on others' morale.

3.6.1.8 Physical Results

It has been understood that job dissatisfaction causes psychological disturbances in employees. Stomach diseases, muscle stiffness, many pains can be seen in discordance as well as dissatisfaction (Eren, 2010, 441). It is

known that there is a close relationship between employees' mental and physical health and job satisfaction. Psychological dissatisfaction occurs in employees working in stressful environments, resulting in mental and physical behavior disorders.

Job dissatisfaction, which occurs as a result of not meeting the expectations, leads to nervous and emotional disorders and causes discomfort such as insomnia, anorexia, emotional breakdown and disappointment. As a result, it can be said that job dissatisfaction creates vicious cycles in the lives of employees and causes many symptoms (Kök, 2006, 296).

Also, our thoughts about our health status are important determinants of job satisfaction; because those who think that their health is excellent or very good have higher job satisfaction than those who believe their health is bad. In addition, the most important job feature for good mental health is the opportunity to use the skills and abilities of the job; because jobs that create dissatisfaction cause people to feel more physical and mental fatigue. Therefore, the importance of hobbies, holidays and social interactions outside of work is increasing day by day for people with job dissatisfaction (Öztekin, 2008, 55).

3.6.2 Organizational Consequences of Job Dissatisfaction

3.6.2.1 Increase in Absenteeism

Absenteeism is one of the most important facts of today's business and management problems. Absenteeism affects the effectiveness of the organization as well as the human relationships of individuals within the organization, the health of the individual and the morale power of the employee. Socio-psychological absenteeism is felt at the moment when the desire and need for joint work begins. The in-depth examination of the absenteeism with its causes was carried out after the birth of the human relations movement in management and especially after the Second World War (Öztekin, 2008, 55).

Another consequence of job dissatisfaction is absenteeism, which means that the employee is not present during working hours. It is generally accepted in the literature that absenteeism increases as job satisfaction

decreases. When dealing with the relationship between job dissatisfaction and absenteeism, it would be more appropriate to consider unexcused absenteeism. It should be considered that job dissatisfaction may be the case especially if the employees are absent due to fatigue, boredom, tiredness, and desire to take a break.

3.6.2.2 Labor Turnover Increase

Labor turnover rate refers to the percentage of employees working in a business in a given period to employees leaving the job in that period. High employee turnover causes problems for the business. Studies show that in general, there is a negative relationship between labor turnover and job satisfaction (Carsten, Spector, 1987, 375).

3.6.2.3 Performance

The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is a very controversial issue. There are three kinds of relationships between job satisfaction and job performance. The first is that job satisfaction leads to job performance, and secondly, job performance leads to job satisfaction. The third is that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has been partially changed by other variables such as rewards.

Because employees often think they will be rewarded for their high performance and punished for their low performance, they get rewards by working harder, which increases job satisfaction. Also, since success is a need for the individual, the employee who knows that he/she is working efficiently will be satisfied. Employees who are happy in the workplace will not only be more productive, but if good performance is rewarded, they can continue their job satisfaction apart from performing a good job.

Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction always remain important for organizations, as they are very effective on employee performance in the business environment; because the effective and efficient work of the employees in the enterprise depends largely on their high job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is one of the important factors affecting employee performance, employee turnover, growth rate, efficiency and consequently the success of the organization (Aydemir, Erdoğan, 2013, 131).

If the employee has the perception that his expectations from his job and work environment are not adequately met, job dissatisfaction arises. Job dissatisfaction causes the workforce productivity to be negatively affected, decrease in the commitment to work and increase in the optional labor turnover rate.

3.6.2.4 Organizational Citizenship

There are several studies confirming that job satisfaction is an important variable affecting organizational citizenship behavior. The employee, who is satisfied with his job, feels positive feelings about the organization he works for and speaks positive about the organization, helps others and behaves beyond what the organization expects from him. In the first studies on organizational citizenship behavior consistent with these thoughts, strong relationships were found between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship. In recent researches on the subject, there was a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior, but it was determined that perceived justice had an important effect in this relationship (Aydemir, Erdoğan, 2013, 131-132).

3.7 Measuring of Job Satisfaction

An important part of the research on job satisfaction is related to measuring job satisfaction. Various assessment scales are used to measure job satisfaction. These evaluation scales started to be used in the 1930s. The most important benefit of these scales is the ability of quickly and efficiently evaluating a large number of employees. Another advantage is that the same survey can be applied to many employees in different jobs and organizations, which provides an opportunity to identify and compare job satisfaction of employees in a particular organization. The results obtained are important and can be used not only in terms of scientific studies on job satisfaction, but also in business management, whose demand is towards understanding their employees (Greenberg, Baron, 1995, 152).

Scoring, Interview, Interviews and Confrontation meetings, Survey method are among the scales related to measuring job satisfaction in the literature.

3.7.1 Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale

Minnesota satisfaction scale is a frequently used scale. Minnesota job satisfaction scale was developed in 1967 by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist. The scale basically relates business conditions to job satisfaction (Kantarci, 1997, 21).

The short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Survey, whose long form consists of a total of one hundred items, consists of twenty items with scoring ranging from one to five, revealing internal and external satisfaction factors. One to five options are selected for each expression in the evaluation. The score received by the option equals to its own score. In other words, the score (2) was received by the subject who marked the number two, the score (1) was received by the subject who marked the number one. Minnesota Satisfaction Survey gives internal satisfaction, external satisfaction, general satisfaction scores. The overall satisfaction score is obtained by dividing the sum of the scores obtained from the items by twenty. The high scores achieved indicate high job satisfaction (Kantarci, 1997, 21-22).

The internal satisfaction score consists of satisfaction related items such as success, recognition or appreciation, the job itself, the responsibility of the job, the change in the job due to rise and promotion. The internal satisfaction score is found by dividing the sum of the points obtained from the items of this dimension into twelve. External satisfaction score, on the other hand, consists of elements of the business environment such as corporate policy and management, mode of control, manager, working and relations with subordinates, working conditions and wages. By dividing the sum of the points obtained from the items of this dimension by eight, the external satisfaction score is found.

Among the advantages of using the rating methods of the Minnesota satisfaction survey are that it can be applied to a large number of employers to obtain average data in many organizations. In this case, it provides a relative measure of satisfaction and the ability to compare data. However, as with all individual reporting measures, the accuracy of the results depends on

the fact that the respondents are honest and that they can express their feelings clearly (Kantarci, 1997, 22).

3.7.2 Job Identification Scale (İTE)

This method is one of the most frequently used analytical methods. The scale was developed by Smith, Kendal and Hulin in 1969 and was developed by the JDI (Job Descriptive Index) research group in 1985 and was designed to obtain results suitable for the original study by examining for validity and reliability (Kök, 2006, 297).

In addition, while the triple format was used in the scale until 1982, it was revealed that the five Likert scale gave more healthy results with the studies of Johnson, Smith and Tucker after this date. The scale adapted to Turkish consists of ninety questions and five factors: the job itself (thirty six items), wages (nine items), promotion (nine items), management (eighteen items) and colleagues (eighteen items). In the scale, the subjects are asked to what extent the options given describe their work (Kantarci, 1997, 22).

Subjects are asked to answer "Yes", "No" or "I don't know" for each option or paragraph. While the scores obtained from the dimensions can be used separately, the total "job satisfaction" score can also be obtained from the scale. The general job satisfaction score and satisfaction value of each employee can be calculated by giving Likert approach points to the options of this scale (Kök, 2006, 299).

Job identification scale provides valuation opportunity in the following subjects:

- Business activities and required skills,
- The meaning of the job and its effects on people,
- The level of autonomy given by the job,
- Performance evaluation of the individual about himself/herself,
- Emotional responses to work:
- Employees' level of satisfaction with the job,
- The expression of perceptions about themselves,
- Work motivations,
- Security at work,

- Fees,
- Social structure of the work,
- Surveillance,
- Valuation on personal development issues (Aydemir ve Erdoğan, 2013, 131-132).

3.7.3 Kunin's Faces Scale

In the "Faces Scale" developed by Kunin in 1955, there are six face pictures. In this scale, the person answering the questionnaire answers questions about work, wages, management, promotion opportunities, colleagues, by choosing the most suitable face picture that expresses himself / herself (Kantarıcı, 1997, 24). As with the job description index, this method uses a yes-no and indecisive ternary response format and allows some expressions and adjectives to be used when evaluating the work of the employee. However, unlike the job description index, the general comparison method doesn't use the individual's job descriptions, but his/her feelings about the job (Kök, 2006).

CHAPTER 4

4. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.1 The Concept of Organizational Commitment

In today's competitive conditions, organizational commitment should be created and developed between the employee and the organization in order to prevent the employees from leaving the organization, which adds significant value to the organizations and increases their competitive power, equipped with a significant amount of information capital. Although there is no fully understood definition by academicians, the most important point accepted by all circles regarding organizational commitment is that organizational commitment is a vital issue for the continuity and success of organizations (Kolay, 2012, 29).

Although there is no consensus on the definition of organizational commitment in the related literature, organizational commitment states the following issues:

- Carrying the classical attachment to the organizational context with affective, continuance, and normative dimensions (Meyer, Allen, 1991, 63).
- An attitude towards the loyalty of the employees to the organization (Luthans, 1995, 111).
- The desire of the employee to identify with her organization and goals and to continue his/her membership in the organization (Robbins, 1998, 48).
- An attitude towards the organization in which the person is identified with the organization (Sheldon, 1971, 144).

- Total of internalized normative pressures to act in a way to meet organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982, 423).
- Identification of the organization with its goals and values, with the desire to remain in the organization, without financial concerns (Geartner, Nollen, 1989, 978).
- The degree of strength unit that the employee established with the organization and the degree of feeling of himself/herself as part of the organization (Schermerhorn, 1991, 45).
- The loyalty attitude of the individual towards the organization and the strength of the bond that the employee feels against the organization he/she works for (Bayram, 2005, 126).

From this perspective, there are three important elements of organizational commitment. Accordingly, the individual's acceptance and strong belief in organizational goals, the willingness to strive for the organization, and the firm desire to remain in the organization are indicative of organizational commitment (Balay, 2000, 49).

Commitment has three stages: obedience, inclusion, and identity acquisition. At the stage of obedience, the individual accepts the influence of other people for the purpose of self-promotion and is proud to join the organization. At the last stage, the individual realizes that the values of the organization are commendable and the same as his/her own values. The applicability of commitment in organs and organizations has revealed the concept of organizational commitment. For this reason, many researches and studies related to organizational commitment have been conducted (Ölçüm, 2004, 44).

In some studies, the concept of organizational commitment has been described as a commitment to the institution. The corporate loyalty of the employees is related to the behaviors they display in order to ensure the peace of the individuals, groups and institutions they interact with while performing their roles in the organization, in other words, "prosocial organizational behaviors" (Ölçüm, 2004, 45). Such behaviors are positive social behaviors exhibited by the individual in order to provide and protect the integrity and peace of the people around him/her.

Prosocial organizational behaviors are divided into two as “undefined role” and “defined role” behavior. Undefined role behaviors are positive social behaviors that are not included in formal role definitions. It is the activity of the individual for the benefit of the institution other than the one specified to him/her. Defined role behavior, on the other hand, is the behavior that is a part of a job and that is performed as a requirement of a job. It also reflects the business behavior characteristics specified in the role definitions (Özsoy, Ergül, Bayık, 2004, 3). In recent years, the concept of organizational commitment has been one of the important research topics because of its meaning, strong motivation and internal status for organizations (Kaya, Selçuk, 2007, 176).

4.2 Indicators of Organizational Commitment

While organizational commitment has a subjective structure that varies according to person, time and place, there are some criteria used to determine whether an employee shows commitment to the organization. These criteria can be listed as adopting the goals and values of the organization, making sacrifices for the organization, requesting the continuation of the membership of the organization, identification with the identity of the organization, and internalizing (İbicioğlu, 2000, 16).

4.2.1 Embracing the Aims and Values of the Organization

The most important indicator and first condition of organizational commitment is the overlap of the purpose, value and vision of the employee and organization. An employee who cannot accept the goals and values of an organization cannot be expected to show loyalty to that organization. It is important to have a relationship between the personal values, goals and expectations of the employee and what the organization can offer to its employees at this point for creating a healthy and high level of loyalty. The difference between expectations and what is presented is the most important criterion that will determine the level of organizational commitment (İnce, Gül, 2005, 38). The contribution of the employee to the organization's objectives while achieving its own objectives on the one hand will both

provide personal satisfaction and positively affect the organizational commitment.

4.2.2 Making Sacrifices for the Organization

One of the indicators of organizational commitment is the extraordinary effort of the employee in favor of the organization. This effort should exceed the expected and formal criteria. Employees' effort to exceed what is considered normal for the organization to be successful can only be explained by their loyalty (Bulbul, 2007, 16).

The fact that the employee can make self-sacrifices only for the success of the organization he works without any financial benefits and expectations is an indication that the person is identified with his or her organization. Despite the damage caused by Germany during the World War II, the role of the feature in the dynamics of the social structure as a cultural argument should not be overlooked in Germany's economically recovering very quickly (İnce, Gül, 2005, 40).

4.2.3 Requesting For the Continuation of Membership of the Organization

Parallel to the first two indicators examined, the strong desire of the employee to maintain the membership of the organization is a result of the positive practices of the employee towards the organization. Organizational commitment is also closely related to the organization's dealing with employee problems (Özsoy, Ergül, Bayık, 2004, 4). Factors such as communication channels functioning effectively within the organizational structure, effective human resources policies, social activities, adequate career opportunities, and intra-organizational justice are expected to have a positive impact on the employee's desire to continue organizing membership.

4.2.4 Identification With Organizational Identity

The adoption and acceptance of the organizational goals and values of the employee means identification. Identification is the effect resulting from the desire to imitate an organization that employees are satisfied with. Organizations and organizational management achieve this effect in the eyes of employees due to their vision, strategic intuition, persuasion skills, self-

confidence and dynamic energies. Approving and praising employees' performance and behavior is one of the main methods to be used in providing identification. This will enable employees to trust themselves and have a greater sense of obligation to meet their organizations' future expectations (Bulbul, 2007, 18).

How much do employees identify with the organization? How much does the employee approve of the work the organization does or does not do? The answers to these questions will determine the degree of employee identification and being part of the organization. A person is identified with a group or organization for various reasons. Group membership helps people get to know themselves and realize themselves. It gives a sense of belonging to the individual. If the organization's image, prestige and reliability are high, the members show more identification (İbicioğlu, 2000, 21).

4.2.5 Internalization

Internalization, which is the last indicator of organizational commitment, is to adopt values and rules about one's culture by evaluating them in their own personality. Thus, while the person is socializing, he/she both learns and accepts what he/she has learned. Internalization is an influencing process that includes a combination of values that guide behavior. Organizational goals and values are internalized to the extent that organizational management's attitudes and beliefs coincide with the employees' own goals and values (İnce ve Gül, 2005, 40).

4.3 The Importance of Organizational Commitment

Organizations' productions are realized by intensifying the employees and their labor, knowledge and skills. The quality of the production process carried out in the form of goods, services or thoughts is directly related to the competence of the employees. The concept of competence is a concept that includes knowledge, skills and attitudes and means that the employee performs the expected roles in the quantity and quality expected. However, focusing not only on competence is enough; because it does not make sense to have skilled but unconnected employees to achieve good work.

The concept of organizational commitment is one of the key points of the organization-employee relationship. Commitment refers to continuous communication and interaction between the organization and the employee. The most important problem encountered especially in business life is the dissatisfaction of the employees towards the workplace. Eliminating this problem is a vital function for organizations. The satisfaction of the members of the organization is as important as producing goods and services for organizations; because the organizational commitment provided within the organization affects the organizational performance of individuals positively (Kaya, Selçuk, 2007, 180).

When we look at the concept of organizational commitment, it is seen that they have a separate importance for the organization and its members. Organization and individual are indispensable parts of a whole. In order to achieve the goals of the individual and the organization, it is necessary to strengthen them by balancing them; because both sides need each other to achieve their goals (Bayram, 2005, 6). The individual can realize some goals in the organization, and the organization achieves its goals through individuals. If this integrity is broken, both parties will lose their meaning.

The more common values shared among employees who come together for certain goals, values and beliefs in the organization, the more organizational culture is strong. A strong organizational culture brings unity in the organization, bringing efficiency, strength and continuity. Organizational commitment continues as long as the organization and employees continue to contribute constantly. One of the most important issues to be emphasized here is the voluntary creation of loyalty by employees in the organization (Tanrıverdi, 2012, 191).

4.4 The Classification of Organizational Commitment

Many researchers on organizational belonging have made different approaches. As a result of these studies, it was revealed that organizational commitment is based on an attitudinal and behavioral basis. Later, a third approach was introduced with the addition of the multi-commitment approach.

4.4.1 Attitudinal Commitment Approaches

Attitudinal commitment occurs when individuals are associated with high values and loyalty to their business activities by identifying their values and goals with the values and goals of the institution they work for. Attitudinal commitment is based on the relations of employees with their organizations. In other words, it is an emotional reaction that connects the individual to the organization, which is formed as a result of the assessment of the working environment of the individual. This type of commitment is expressed in the form of a trade relationship in which individuals attach themselves to the organization in exchange for some spiritual rewards and interests.

Attitudinal commitment approaches are generally focused on the Classifications of Etzioni, Kanter, O'Reilly and Chatman, Penley and Gould, and Allen and Meyer.

4.4.1.1 The Classification of Etzioni, Penley and Gould

The classification formed by Penley and Gould's approach is supported by Etzioni's model of participation in the organization (Penley, Gould, 1988, 45). Etzioni analyzed the compliance systems in organizations and the way employees turn to these systems. Accordingly, the orientation of the employees to the compliance system is named as participation in the organization. The degree of this orientation can be high or low, and its direction can be positive or negative. Etzioni calls positive participation as commitment and negative participation as alienation (Etzioni, 1961).

Etzioni divides organizational commitment into three in terms of members' commitment to the organization:

Moral commitment: The objectives of the organization are based on its identification with values and norms. In other words, moral commitment is explained by the intense positive orientation of the individual to the organization.

Calculative commitment: It is based on the trade relationship between the organization and the employees. Members are loyal to the reward they will receive for the benefits they have added to the business. In this type of

commitment, individuals adjust their loyalty to the organization to meet their needs. (Güçlü, 2006, 12).

Alienating commitment: It expresses the negative attitude of individuals towards the organization. The individual is not psychologically loyal to the organization, but is mandatory to remain a member. If the individual does not want to leave his / her job due to reasons such as possible losses and no other options, he / she is faced with alienating commitment (Güçlü, 2006, 13).

4.4.1.2 The Classification of Kanter

Kanter (1968) defined commitment as the willingness of the employees to give their strength and loyalty to the social systems and to combine their personalities with the social relationships that will satisfy their wishes and needs. Organizations have certain desires, needs and expectations as social systems. Employees can achieve these by adopting positive attitudes towards the organization, by loving the new organization, being compatible and loyal to the organization, and dedicating themselves to the organization. (Kanter, 1968, 500).

According to Kanter (1968), commitment occurs in two separate systems: the social system and the personality system. In social systems, people's loyalty consists of three main areas: these are social control, group unity and continuity of the system. The personality system consists of cognitive, emotional and normative orientations. Each of these orientations supports a certain social system (Kanter, 1968, 501).

In addition, according to the two mentioned systems, there are three main forms of commitment. Continuity commitment, clamping commitment and control commitment. Continuance commitment is to remain in the organization by continuing the membership and dedication to the continuity of the organization. This type of commitment depends on one's role in the organization and includes cognitive orientations. Cognitive orientation is to give positive or negative values to them by examining the objects without any emotional or normative evaluation. In order for a social system to be cognitively positive, the system must be perceived as rewarding (Kanter, 1968, 501).

The person has to continue his membership considering that the cost of leaving the system will be higher than the cost of staying in the system, that is, it is profitable to stay in the system. When a person realizes that what is profitable for him depends on his/her membership in the organization and that he/she can provide it with his/her position in the organization, the individual will be tied to his/her role in the organization and will not go through emotional or normative evaluation by attributing a positive cognitive value to his/her role (Kanter, 1968, 502).

Kanter (1968) states that devotion to continuity has two elements: dedication and investment. The dedication is that one can give up valuable and pleasurable things in order to become a member of the organization. If the person accepts such devotion, his motivation to continue his membership will increase.

The investment is to connect the existing and potential resources of the person to the organization. Therefore, it is in an interest relationship with the organization. The person will be earned from these investments in the future by adhering to the organization. Resources related to the person's commitment to the organization can be financial resources such as financial donations, retirement cuts, or moral resources such as time and energy spent for the organization (Kanter, 1968, 502).

Clamping commitment is the individual's commitment to a group and the relationships in the group. This form of commitment includes positive emotional orientation towards the group. The individual's close attention to all members of the group, identification with the group and participation will provide emotional satisfaction. As a result, the individual will be linked to the group. In such groups with tight relationships, members will be loyal and loyal to the group. In these groups, intra-group conflicts and jealousy will be very rare and group awareness and group unity will be high. In this way, individuals in the group will be strong enough to resist the external forces that threaten the existence of the group.

In order for the clamping commitment to be strong, members must become a part of the whole and have the awareness of "we". For this purpose,

organizations can apply methods such as introducing their members to everyone, creating solutions to their employees' problems, ensuring that they benefit equally from the distributed awards, and implementing orientation programs.

The commitment to control is that the individual adheres to the norms. Employees find the behavior expected by the organization and the demands that the organization wants to comply with are true and moral; because they see that they fit their values. Thus, they think that it is necessary to comply with the wishes of the organization (Kanter, 1968, 502-503).

4.1.3 The Classification of O'Reilly and Chatman

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) stated that the psychological link between the individual and the organization occurs in three ways: identification, adaptation and adoption. This approach links the foundation of organizational commitment to the individual's psychological bond with the organization. Identification is another mechanism that plays an important role in the development of the psychological link between the individual and the organization. The commitment of the individual to the organization is formed by the identification of the individual with the goals, values and attitudes of the organization. This degree of identification may vary depending on the reasons for the commitment to the organization and the characteristics of the organization (O'Reilly, Chatman, 1986, 493).

The bond of the employee in the form of identification with the organization is aimed at establishing and maintaining a satisfactory relationship within the group. In this case, the employee is proud to be a member of the organization, believes in, respects and accepts the goals and values of the group. The individual wants to form the basis of identification by establishing close relationships with colleagues in the organization (O'Reilly, Chatman, 1986, 493).

The main purpose in adaptation is to see the organization as a tool to achieve material rewards. Thus, individuals perform their attitudes and behaviors on the basis of winning certain rewards and protection from penalties. (Cramer, 1996, 390).

Adoption-based commitment is entirely based on the harmony of individual and organizational values. The employees' attitudes and behaviors towards this commitment occur when they are compatible with other people's values system. Accordingly, in the commitment based on adaptation, the link between the organization and the individual is based on seeing the organization as a means to achieve certain material rewards. In commitment based on identification, this bond is intended to be a member of the organization. In commitment based on adoption, this bond is based on the adoption of the values of the individual and the organization. (Balay, 2000, 253).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) stated that the stated dimensions of organizational commitment will produce different results in terms of superior-role behaviors and desire to remain in the organization. Superior-role behaviors are behaviors that are beyond the behavior of all the people in the organization related to their officially determined roles and for the benefit of the organization. These behaviors, which do not directly benefit the employee, but require extra time and effort for the benefit of the organization, are the result of commitment based on identification and adoption. The desire to stay in the organization is also very high among those who have job loyalty. No significant relationship was found between the superior-role behaviors and adaptation. Employers with this commitment are only interested in the organization to get certain rewards, that is, for their interests. Therefore, they do not make an effort to do more than their job requires. Individuals with this opinion have very little desire to stay in the organization. Employees need to be more voluntary than their formally determined roles, and need more identification and adoption-based commitment rather than adaptive commitment to work for the benefit of the organization (O'Reilly, Chatman, 1986, 494).

4.4.1.4 The Classification of Allen and Meyer

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), attitudinal commitment is a psychological condition that reflects the relationship of employees with the organization. This situation is explained by the behavior of individuals. Its symptoms are that the individual continues to stay in the organization. In

1984, Meyer and Allen suggested that commitment was conceptualized in two dimensions: “affective commitment” and “continuance commitment”, based on the work done on organizational commitment. However, in 1990 they added a third dimension called "normative commitment" (Allen, Meyer, 1990, 4).

4.4.1.4.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment involves employees' acceptance of organizational goals and values and exceptional efforts for the benefit of the organization (McGee, Ford, 1987, 638).

Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that the most consistent and strongest relationship with affective commitment is related to work experiences. Employees' experiences in the organization are consistent with their expectations. In addition, employees tend to experience stronger affective commitment to the organization, rather than less satisfying experiences to meet their basic needs (Allen, Meyer, 1990, 6).

Affective commitment is the type of commitment most frequently discussed in the literature. Allen and Meyer consider this type of commitment very important because it is because one sees himself as part of the organization. Strong affective commitment means that individuals stay in the organization and accept the goals and values of the organization (İnce, Gül, 2005).

4.4.1.4.2 Continuance commitment

Based on the "Side Bet Theory" of Becker (1960), Allen and Meyer have developed continuance commitment. In the literature, continuance commitment, also referred to as "rational commitment" or "perceived cost", means being aware of the costs of leaving the organization (Chen, Francesco, 2003, 491).

Lamas and Savolainen (1999), on the other hand, define continuance as “the condition of continuing membership of the organization because it is thought that the cost of leaving the organization will be high”. Continuance commitment emerges through the assessment of the employee's desire to remain in the organization, the total of their investments in the organization, the loss they will lose when they leave the organization, and the limited

comparable alternatives (Lämsä, Savolainen, 1999, 10). Accordingly, continuance commitment arises if it values its investments in a working organization such as seniority, career and other opportunities.

Continuance commitment means that the individual feels obliged to stay in that organization due to the high costs of leaving the organization. These costs occur in two different ways: First, the longer the time that individuals work in a particular organization, the more individual investments will be sacrificed in case of leaving the organization. The absence of alternative job opportunities is the second factor that increases the cost of leaving the organization. If employees believe that there are few suitable job alternatives for them, their commitment to their existing organizations will be much higher. Therefore, the employee may face the situation of continuing to work in the organization even if he/she does not want to (Allen, Meyer, 1990, 10).

The relationships between affective commitment and continuance commitment have been examined by some researchers and it has been determined that continuance commitment increases affective commitment and affective commitment decreases continuance commitment. Accordingly, important investments that connect individuals to the organization can reduce the incompatibility between the individual and the organization and cause a high level of affective commitment. Continuity commitment, which is based on the absence of alternative job opportunities, has a similar impact on affective commitment. Employees with high affective commitment can go to resolve the dissonance they feel by rejecting that their decision to stay in the organization is due to the lack of alternative job opportunities or the fear of losing their side benefits, thereby reducing their continuance commitment. (Kaya, Selçuk, 2007, 180).

According to Tolay, it can be said that these two organizational commitment dimensions do not always affect each other. Since affective commitment and continuance commitment reflect two different psychological situations that are largely independent of each other, it seems possible that they feel an affective commitment to the individual organization, at the same time be

aware of the costs of leaving the organization and that these two situations have no impact on each other (Tolay, 2003, 22).

Meyer et al. point out that employees with high continuance commitment do not positively affect productivity at the workplace, and that their performance is low or at least not high (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, 1989, 153).

Allen and Meyer listed the factors that affect continuance commitment as follows:

- Transfer of talents: The ability and experience of the employee, the ability to transfer to another organization.
- Training: Whether the training of the employee is useful for another organization or not.
- Investment in self: Employee has devoted most of his time and effort to his current organization.
- Retirement premium: Fear of losing the various benefits that the employee deserves, especially the retirement premium in case of leaving the organization.
- Alternative job opportunities: In case the employee leaves the organization, the alternatives of finding a similar or better job (Allen ve Meyer, 1990, 12).

4.4.1.4.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment shows employees' beliefs about their responsibilities towards their organizations. Employees with such beliefs think that the organization deserves their loyalty because of organizational practices, socialization efforts or their own personal circumstances. Normative commitment develops as a result of socializing experiences that emphasize that it is appropriate for the employee to remain loyal to her employer and expresses a sense of responsibility based on a belief that characterizes staying in the organization as moral and correct (Meyer, Allen, Smith, 1993, 540).

This type of commitment includes an "imperative" element. Employees' commitment is not because they are asked to act this way for their personal benefit, but because they believe that what they do is true and moral. Social

pressures play an important role in the development of normative commitment (Powell, Meyer, 2003, 160).

Normative commitment differs from affective commitment in that the individual sees working in the organization as a task for himself/herself and believes that it is true that he/she shows loyalty to her organization. Normative commitment is different from continuance commitment because it is not affected by the losses that may arise as a result of leaving the organization. The imperative in normative commitment is based on virtue and moral emotions, not on interest as in continuance commitment. While affective commitment and continuance commitment are affected by a number of material and spiritual means gained after entering the organization, normative commitment is mostly affected by the values held before entering the organization (Powell, Meyer, 2003, 161).

Meyer et al. (1993) demonstrated a high relationship between emotional and normative commitment in their study. The most important reason for this is that both commitment dimensions have many common determinants. In contrast, the researchers state that the positive effects of normative commitment may have a shorter life than affective commitment, and that there may be significant differences between the results of these two dimensions. In the light of these results, another reason for the development of normative commitment is that employees feel obliged to pay for the benefits that their organizations provide for them (Tolay, 2003, 24).

It has been revealed that there is a relationship between commitment to the organization and many personal variables, and between the various aspects of the business environment, from role structure and job characteristics to the dimensions of the organizational structure. As an indicator, commitment to the organization has been used to understand employee performance, employee turnover rate, absenteeism and other behaviors. In addition, it is observed that variables such as job satisfaction and participation are associated with commitment to the organization. All three commitment dimensions have 3 common aspects.

Accordingly, all three commitments:

- reflect the relations of employees with their organizations,
- reflect a psychological situation with the decision to continue organization membership,
- create a link between the individual and the organization, which reduces the possibility of leaving the organization (İnce, Gül, 2005, 50).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), although there are common features between organizational commitment dimensions, the psychological structures of the dimensions are different because each of them develops due to different experiences and practices. Individuals with high affective commitment stay in the organization "because they want it", employees who are based on continuance commitment with their organization stay "because they need it". Employees with high normative commitments decide to continue membership of the organization because they "feel obligation" towards the organization (Allen, Meyer, 1990, 14). According to Meyer et al., all three commitment dimensions must be handled together in order to better understand the relationship of an employee with its organization. This is because employees can live each type of loyalty simultaneously and to varying degrees. (Meyer et al., 1989, 153).

4.4.2 Behavioral Commitment Approaches

Behavioral commitment is based on a socio-psychological perspective. It is about the process of becoming attached to their organizations according to the past experiences of individuals and their adaptation to the organization (Motaz, 1989, 145). According to Allen and Meyer (1990), behavioral commitment is a concept related to the problem of individuals staying in a certain organization for a long time and how they deal with this problem. According to these authors, employees with behavioral commitment are tied to a specific activity they do rather than the organization itself (Allen, Meyer, 1990, 18).

In other words, behavioral commitment develops more towards the behavior of the individual rather than the organization. For example, after an individual

behaves in a certain way, he / she continues his behavior due to some factors and after a while it is attributed to this behavior. As time goes on, he/she develops attitudes that are appropriate or justify the behavior in question, which increases the probability of repetition of the behavior. (Oliver, 1990, 21).

In this approach, the need to make a sacrifice to join a certain organization is considered as the starting point of commitment to the organization. The common form of this is admission ceremonies. In the literature, there are Becker's side bet approach and Salancik's approaches on behavioral commitment.

4.4.2.1 Becker 's Side-Bet Approach

Behavioral approach was developed by Becker (1960), who made the first study on organizational commitment (Becker, 1960, 33). Becker's approach, which bases its organizational commitment on an economic basis, has been called the side betting theory in the literature and focused on the "behavioral" aspect of commitment. According to Becker, commitment is when a person makes some side bets and combines a consistent behavior with interests that are not directly related to those behaviors. In other words, commitment is the tendency to continue this sequence of behavior thinking about the investments that a person will lose when he / she ends a consistent behavior (Becker, 1960, 34).

There is a difference in the organizational commitment literature in terms of which classification of Becker's side bet approach should be evaluated. Contrary to the general view, Allen and Meyer criticized the evaluation of Becker's approach in a behavioral approach and evaluated it in their own research with behavioral commitment. According to the researchers in question, the realization of leaving an organization has an attitudinal nature since it reflects a psychological dimension of the employee's relationship with the organization. Therefore, according to Allen and Meyer, the side bet approach, which is based on the costs of leaving the organization, should be evaluated in an attitudinal commitment (Aksoy, Yılmaz, 2016, 74).

Becker stated that there are four side bets that cause employees to show commitment. These are summarized below:

- Social expectations: One can make some side bets that limit the behavior of the expectations of the society due to social and spiritual sanctions. It is possible to show that people who change jobs frequently are not seen as reliable in the society as an example of such social pressures.
- Bureaucratic regulations: The second source of side bets are bureaucratic regulations. For a retirement pension, if someone with a monthly deduction from his salary wants to quit, he/she will lose this money, which has been cut from his/her pension for many years, and he/she will not receive pension. This bureaucratic arrangement on retirement pension has put a person on a side bet.
- Social interactions: Another source of Becker's side bets is social interactions. When a person is in a relationship with others, he / she ensures that an opinion is settled and he / she has to act accordingly in order not to spoil this opinion.
- Social roles: Side bets can also arise from the person's accustomed to social role and adaptation. In such a situation, the person is so accustomed to fulfilling the requirements of his social role that he/she can no longer adapt to another role (Aksoy, Yilmaz, 2016, 90).

4.4.2.2 Salancik's Approach

In Salancik's approach, commitment is considered as attachment to one's behavior. According to this approach, the person exhibits behaviors that are consistent with their previous behavior. According to Salancik, "commitment is the state of attachment to one's behavior and beliefs that strengthen their activities and interest in the organization through their behavior." (Mowday, Porter, Steers, 1982, 86).

Salancik's approach to behavioral commitment is based on Festinger's theory of contradiction. In this theory, it is assumed that people tend to maintain consistency between their attitudes and behaviors. According to the theory, when one's attitudes and behaviors are inconsistent with each other, one will

feel tense. The more important the conflicting attitudes and behaviors are for the person, the higher the tension will be. To reduce this tension, it will be necessary to harmonize one of the conflicting attitudes and behaviors with the other.

Salancik has revealed that behavioral commitment is primarily due to perceived limitations in the event that the employee leaves the organization and the conditions that make the individual connected to the organization. In contrast, he stated that attitudinal commitment stems from shared values and goals (Balay, age, 116).

The mismatch between attitude and behavior can occur as a result of an individual's behavior that is against attitudes. For example, if an individual in need of money works in a job he/she does not like, this will cause conflict between attitude and behavior. However, since the individual cannot quit his/her job, he/she will try to change his/her negative attitude towards his job. The individual tends to justify his behavior in order to overcome the discrepancies between his attitude and behavior. For this, he changes his attitude to be compatible with his behavior (Balay, 2000, 118).

One of the important reasons of the individual's attachment to behavior is that he / she performs the behavior willingly. Voluntary behaviors are those that are carried out without any pressure. Failure to engage in behavior for any external cause creates a sense that the individual bears responsibility for his/her behavior and its consequences. This will increase the individual's desire to continue his/her behavior and ensure that he/she is connected to this behavior (Bayram, 2005, 125).

4.4.3 Integrative Approach

Reichers (1985) developed the attitudinal commitment a little more and introduced the multi-commitment approach. Classifications related to organizational commitment are generally based on the idea that commitment is to the whole organization. (Reichers, 1985, 466). According to Reihers, other commitment approaches suggest that the organization typically symbolizes an undifferentiated one-piece entity that elicits attachment for the individual. However, according to Reichers, organizations do not include an

undifferentiated whole, but on the contrary, coalitions, each with a different set of goals and values. In this context, the multi-commitment approach is considered separately from the other two types of commitment, as it suggests that different elements within the organization can lead to the emergence of different types of commitment types (Reichers, 1985, 467).

Organizational theorists focus on the characteristics of organizations based on coalitions, while commitment theorists treat organizations as a single, homogeneous whole. Reichers argues that the organization in organizational commitment symbolizes an undifferentiated one-piece entity that typically results in attachment for the individual. According to Reichers, organization theorists have not been sufficiently concerned with the nature of the organization, even though they focused heavily on sequences of goals that conflict with the different values that members of the organization try to serve (İnce, Gül, 2005, 102). However, the nature of the organization, certain groups in the organization and their goals form the center of multiple commitments. Therefore, in order to overcome this deficiency, it is necessary to focus on research on reference groups and role theory as well as macro approaches regarding organizational structure.

The multi-commitment approach acknowledges that people will show different commitment to their organizations, professions, customers, managers, and colleagues. Therefore, in order to identify multiple sources of commitment, several groups related to an organization must be identified. The sources of multiple commitments are various groups, employers, customers, managers, unions, and the general public. It is generally accepted that the reasons for the existence of organizations are to facilitate the achievement of the goals of more than one group (Gül, 2018).

Studies on the structures of organizations and coalitions show that managers are aware of the multiple role orientation of the members of the organization. Likewise, it is accepted in the organizational commitment literature that the members of many organizations are aware of the multiple goals and values set. The multiple commitments approach predicts that the commitment felt by one person may differ from the commitment felt by another. Therefore, the source of one's commitment to the organization may be that it offers quality

products at an affordable price, while another's source of commitment may be the close attention of the organization to its employees (İnce, Gül, 2005,105).

In the multi-commitment approach, organizational commitment emerges as a sum of multiple commitments of the various internal and external elements that make up the organization. People can develop different loyalties to organization managers, colleagues, and reference groups. At the same time, employees can show different loyalties to the customers, suppliers, trade associations, unions, and society that make up the external environment of the organization.

4.5 Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Factors affecting organizational commitment can be addressed under three groups. These groups are called personal factors and organizational factors. However, it is not possible to say that the same factors are effective in organizational commitment of employees in all researches. In studies with different employees in different organizations, conflicting results emerge.

4.5.1 Personal Factors

Personal factors in organizational commitment can be examined under two headings as the individual psychological expectations and demographic characteristics of the employees. Personal expectations include job expectations and psychological contract issues that determine the relationship between the workplace and the employee, while demographic factors include age, gender, marital status, seniority and education. These points are briefly mentioned below (Cohen, Vigoda, 2000, 598).

4.5.1.1 Job Expectations

Employees see the organization as a tool to meet needs and achieve their goals. Contracts between employees and the organization form the beginning of organizational commitment. Organizations' meeting these needs and goals and possession of this ability and capacity, which are important for the employees, affect organizational commitment. The long-term contract with the employee also means that a well-defined task is accepted by the employee, and in this case, the employee displays the behavior of staying as

a member of the organization by accepting the organization's goals, objectives and values (Zaccaro, Dobbins, 1989, 269).

Organization's commitment will be positively influenced by the organization's well-defined expectations, setting the framework, setting them out clearly, and being compatible with the expectations of the employee. If the employees get the idea that they are in a business environment where their personal goals and objectives can be met, their loyalty to the organization will be strengthened (Cohen, Vigoda, 2000, 599).

4.5.1.2 Psychological Contract

The contract between the organization and the employee is not just a written contract. The written contract includes the rights and responsibilities of the organization and the employee. However, for the employee, another unilateral contract is concluded. This contract, which is called a psychological contract, includes expectations such as career, managerial position, respect for the business environment or social environment, having a say in organizational structure and activities according to the level of commitment of the employees. The organization may also have expectations other than the contract written by the employee (Köse, Tetik, Ercan, 2001, 220).

The psychological contract takes place with the belief that at least one party is talking about the addressee, even though it is not bilateral as in the written formal contract. Responsibilities for the future are imposed on the other party and the reason for this responsibility is its contribution. The employee shapes the psychological contract mostly according to his/her own perception. In this perception, which is called the cognitive framework, there is a question of stagnation and resistance to change, but this can change over time. Similarity to the previous contract and differentiation and quality in the relationship with the organization are effective in change (Köse, Tetik, Ercan, 2001, 221).

4.5.1.3 Personal Demographic Features

4.5.1.3.1 Organizational Commitment and Age

Employees' attitudes towards the organization differ according to their age periods. At every age period, the behavior, perceptions, desires and

expectations of the employee about the job are different. Age and time worked in the organization are interrelated factors. Therefore, age is an indicator of the organizational commitment of the employee (Cohen, 1993, 145).

When the age periods are classified as young, middle and old, it can be said that job searching and starting work occur at a young age, this period is also the period in which the education of individuals continues or has been completed and this is the period when individuals want to work in jobs that are suitable for their educational and personal characteristics. However, for organizational commitment, employees need to get to know their jobs and business environment, adapt, need to feel that there is a positive environment for them and spend a certain time in the organization. In this case, age will progress and organizational commitment will appear with aging (Cohen, 1993, 145-146).

4.5.1.3.2 Organizational Commitment and Gender

Female and male factors are important variables in organizational commitment. The duties imposed on women and men from the individual factors to the organizational commitment relationship of the gender factor affect women and men in business life and create an important distinction in the view of working life and work. The intrinsic motivation factors of women and men differ from time to time. While women attach importance to the organization's working conditions and social relations, men respect issues such as wages, careers and opportunities for promotion. Women's expectations from the organization are lower than men; because in some studies, the level of organizational commitment of women is low, while in others, the level of organizational commitment is high. In some studies, it is seen that the commitment of the organization is higher in men compared to women. In short, there are contradictions in the researches. However, the final judgment is that the gender factor has an impact on organizational commitment (Kirel, 1999, 118).

4.5.1.3.3 Organizational Commitment and Marital Status

It is suggested that one of the personal factors affecting the organizational commitment is the marital status. It is claimed that married employees do not want to quit their job due to their family responsibilities and as a result of economic reasons. It is suggested that they show more commitment to their organizations than single employees, as they will remain unemployed and experience economic difficulties in the process of finding new jobs (Mathieu, Zajac, 1990, 175).

4.5.1.3.4 Organizational Commitment and Seniority

The time that the employee is in the organization is perceived by the person as an investment both in himself and in the organization. Thus, as the working time increases, the commitment to the organization increases. Due to factors such as retirement pensions and holiday opportunities, as the time that people work in that organization increases, their commitment to the organization will increase as these expectations will be met better (Güllüoğlu, 2011, 50).

The more time a person remains in the organization, the more he will be connected to that institution. However, the importance of the relations within the organization stands out here; because no matter how long they have worked at the institution, people may lose their commitment as a result of the organization's negative relations. In order to prevent this, organizations should direct the relations between the employees at the best level.

The fact that the relations are at a good level is related to the satisfactory level of organizational communication. Employees who are satisfied with the relations between employees and sharing information within the organization will not want to leave the organization. In addition, it is observed that those who are more senior in the organization than the new members participate in the communication processes more in the formation of these good relations. For this reason, if people with a longer working period take part in communication more effectively, their commitment levels will be more affected as a result of communication (Özkaya, Deveci, Karaa, 2006, 78).

4.5.1.3.5 Organizational Commitment and Education

The level of education of employees also affects their commitment to the organization. The existence of an inverse relationship between educational level and organizational commitment has been revealed by some researchers.

As the level of education increases, the meaning and expectations from the job increase. People who have sacrificed for a while to endure the cost of getting longer education and earn income, rather than entering the business life, are involved in working life as a qualified workforce as a result of their education. As a response to investment in education and time spent, demands for wages and other working conditions also increase. In addition, business life means more than just a monetized place for these people, but also an environment in which they have the opportunity to have a high status in the society, to have a respected job and to develop social relations (Danış, 2009, 11).

As the level of education and knowledge increases, the opportunity to use personal initiative, to take responsibility, to make more independent decisions and to implement these decisions increases. This helps employees to adopt the work by eliminating monotony and boredom, and reducing the discomfort and absenteeism that arises (Özkaya, Deveci, Karaa, 2006, 78).

It is stated that employees with high level of education can put the interests of the organization to the second plan as they prioritize developing their professional careers. On the other hand, it explains the commitment of employees with low level of education with anxiety about not being able to work in another organization. The commitment of employees with low level of education to their organization stems from the fact that they see the organization they work as the only option. In case of dismissal from the organization, not being able to find a new job, that is, anxiety about being unemployed causes commitment to the organization (Danış, 2009, 15).

4.5.2 Organizational Factors

Another topic that affects organizational commitment is the factors arising from the organization. These factors include topics such as the nature and

importance of the job, management and leadership, the level of remuneration, surveillance, organizational culture, organizational justice, organizational rewards, teamwork, role ambiguity and conflict (Kirel, 1999, 124).

4.5.2.1 The Nature and Importance of the Job

In studies conducted on this subject, the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational characteristics is very strong. While personal factors such as age, marital status, and education affect lower organizational commitment for lower level employees, organizational features affect organizational commitment more for upper level employees. Variables such as participation in decisions, role uncertainty and autonomy appear to be a more important factor for commitment for such senior employees (Danış, 2009, 16).

Among the factors related to the quality of the work, the relationship between the task area and organizational commitment is mostly examined. It is assumed that as the fields of duty of the employees expand, their experience will increase and so will their organizational commitment. This hypothesis was tested on different samples and the results supported the hypothesis (Danış, 2009, 20).

Both the potential and difficulty of motivation of the job and its characteristics such as identification with the business subject, feedback, having responsibility and authority directly affect the organizational commitment. In this context, business enrichment is also on the agenda as a business related factor. Job enrichment is giving empowerment and responsibility of the employee in planning, organizing and supervising his / her job. With the increase of such powers and responsibilities, it may be possible to increase the commitment of the employees (İnce, Gül, 2005, 126).

4.5.2.2 Management and Leadership

In the researches, it has been determined that there is a close relationship between management and leadership style and organizational commitment. According to İnce and Gül's reports (2005), the management and leadership styles exhibited by managers in organizations affect the commitment to

organizational goals and values. As a result of factors such as the manager's relations and communication with his/her employees, whether he/she gives them the opportunity to participate and specialize, and how much trust he/she gives them, the employees start to evaluate the organization. If their results are positive due to management, their commitment will be high; on the contrary, they feel low organizational commitment when they believe that there is a negative management attitude (İnce, Gül, 2005, 127).

4.5.2.3 Salary Level

The level of salary earned by employees is also an important factor in organizational commitment. The level of salary is also an element that determines the status of the employee in the organization and social life. The salary is an important element provided by the organization, enhancing the attractiveness of the business, and a higher pay to the employee often results in higher organizational commitment (Balay, 2000, 88).

In a study, it was suggested that the wage level is one of the most important factors in quitting the job. Low wage levels force employees to seek better financial opportunities. In this case, the employee does not feel dependent and thinks that he has to work temporarily at work. Accordingly, the employee turnover rate in low-wage jobs is generally high. Employees' perceptions of justice in the distribution of wages also affect organizational commitment. The more fair and balanced employees perceive the salary policy of the organization management, the higher their loyalty will be (Eren, 2010, 40).

4.5.2.4 Supervision

Another organizational factor that affects organizational commitment is management's oversight of employees, and the oversight of the job affects employees' perceptions of responsibility. Managers who follow a repressive management style, do not encourage subordinates to participate in decisions and implement strict control create an environment for their subordinates not to take responsibility. In this case, when the employee encounters work-related problems or difficulties, he/she prefers to escape instead of struggling

and puts the reason as his/her managers' attitude and pressure (Varoğlu, 1993, 39).

Supervision is a concept that is closely related to the employees' sense of responsibility. Tight and close supervision has an impact on reducing the degree of satisfaction of employees with their jobs. On the other hand, the fact that managers take an indirect way to determine the behavior of their employees, in other words, to make their presence felt without taking an active role, has a strengthening impact on the responsibility of the employees.

4.5.2.5 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is the assumptions, values and symbols that reveal the organization with its unique personality and distinguish it from other organizations. Organizational culture includes the way things are done and the perceptions of the features that affect the organization shared by the members of the organization. Organizational culture is important because culture helps to express how employees feel about their jobs and organizations (Balay 2000, 90).

Positive aspects of organizational culture are seen in individuals creating a common sense of identity. Organizational culture also helps to create organizational commitment through participation in organizational goals. It helps to provide employees with a framework of interest that they can evaluate, and to balance their interpersonal relationships by affecting their perspectives and perceptions. But organizational culture can also lead to a high level of resistance to change, to encourage bureaucracy and rigor, and unproductive system in the organization. Although the organization's needs and actions must change regularly, its dominant culture may remain the same. The outdated attitudes, perspectives and working methods that continue among the employees after the change of the organizational structure is called "cultural gap". (Balay 2000, 99).

4.5.2.6 Organizational Justice

The concept of organizational justice is addressed from two perspectives, distributive and methodological justice. Distributive justice is about how

employees perceive the issue of whether material and intangible rewards, duties and responsibilities are distributed fairly among individuals. Procedural justice, on the other hand, describes the justice in the process of making the decisions and the mechanisms that affect the employees of the organization, and the mechanisms involved in the organization. While distributive justice provides two personal outcomes such as job and wage satisfaction, procedural justice causes two organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment and fair management (Tanrıverdi, 2012, 191).

It is possible that employees' perceptions about the fairness of the practices in the organization affect firstly the trust in managers and then the commitment to the organization. The belief that the policies implemented by the management are fair, will lead employees to think that they are valued and respected, and as a result, to make more sincere efforts towards the goals and values of the organization. On the other hand, there is no doubt that the feeling of being subjected to incompatible treatment will decrease commitment to the organization. It is stated that poor performance, ineffective evaluation and planning systems weaken employees' perceptions of justice, and as a natural consequence of this, employees tend to leave the organization (Tanrıverdi, 2012, 192).

4.5.2.7 Organizational Awards

The awards are a good way for management to send an "appreciation" message to its successful employee. The way the employee perceives and interprets this message will affect the employee's commitment to the organization. The award received against the effort shown is also an important factor as a means of motivation in realizing the future activities of the organization.

It has been determined that the success of the managers in the fair distribution of awards is an element that improves the organizational commitment of the employees. It is claimed that organizational commitment is influenced by both material rewards and internal rewards such as a respectful task and a friendly environment where the employee can find support. (Varoğlu, 1993, 44).

If the employee perceives that the rewards offered by the organization are sufficient and fairly distributed, he/she is more committed to the organization. The opinion that the level of earnings of employees affects their organizational commitment is supported by research results. Accordingly, earnings are an important reward provided by the organization and determine the appeal of the business. An overpayment to the employee often results in a higher commitment (Güllüoğlu, 2011, 79).

4.5.2.8 Teamwork

Teamwork helps employees to increase their job satisfaction and organizational commitment by enabling them to make effective plans, spend innovations quickly, increase their motivation, improve their sharing feelings and do the job in a quality and efficient manner. The more jointly the decisions are made within a team, the greater the organizational commitment of the members. Ensuring the active participation of employees in the decision process, as well as individually as well as in terms of the team, will be perceived as an indication that the management values them. This will increase organizational commitment. In team work, the status of the relations between members will affect organizational commitment (Güllüoğlu, 2011, 80).

4.5.2.9 Role Uncertainty and Role Conflict

There is a negative relationship between role conflict and commitment. It is also determined that there is a negative relationship between role uncertainty and commitment. Role conflict means that the duty of the person does not match the expectations of that task. Organizational commitment decreases due to role conflict when the values of the individual do not match the values of the organization. (Çakar, 2005, 23).

Role uncertainty arises as a result of the organization's failure to fully communicate the limits of its expectations regarding the role to the employee. Lack of clear information about his / her job and not giving clear information will cause the employee to experience uncertainty. As a result, the employee will meet the inadequate information and will not want to establish positive ties with the organization. At this point, the concept that we may encounter

will be the concept of “organizational cynicism”, which may be a danger to the organization. The employee, who has a role ambiguity, will not be able to find exactly what he/she means for the organization, and will find himself/herself in organizational cynicism rather than feeling attached to the organization while in such a deadlock (Çakar, 2005, 23).

4.6 The Results of Organizational Commitment

4.6.1 Commitment and Performance

Organizations that have employees with high organizational commitment are more effective than other organizations. It is very unlikely to engage in behaviors such as being late for work or absenteeism. Employees, who adopt the objectives of the organization in general, do much more than expected, and will increase the competitiveness of the organization. The greater the commitment to the organization, the better the opinions of the organization will be, making it easier to attract quality employees from other organizations by advertising the organization (Demir 2007, 36).

Employee performance is time and effort spent on earning what they desire as a result of assuming duties and responsibilities in an organization to meet the needs of the employee. Employees' performance levels differ according to each person's characteristics, mental abilities and belief values. The employee has different expectations when entering a job. When these expectations are met, job satisfaction and motivation increases (Barutçugil, 2004, 8).

Employees must have a strong morale and motivation to provide the performance expected of them. In order to achieve this, employees should be given a good wage and an opportunity to rise, and senior administrations should be close to their employees (Akyay, 2009, 69). In cases where it is difficult for the organization to reach its general objectives, a noticeable decrease in their commitment occurs in the employees. As a result, we can say that the decrease in performance is observed in the employees.

4.6.2 Commitment and Absenteeism

Worker absenteeism is an expensive personnel problem that equally attracts the attention of theorists and professionals. An employee who does not come

to work express a negative relationship with the organization, consciously or unconsciously. One of the most researched subjects about the results of organizational commitment or its effects on job behavior is absenteeism. In studies conducted on the relationship of commitment to absenteeism, different correlations were found. There is a relationship between commitment and continuity, although not very strong, but commitment is not the only factor enabling employees to maintain continuity (İnce, Gül, 2005, 66).

Theoretically, we can say that individuals with higher levels of commitment to the organization will be more motivated about attendance. This motivation will exist even if the employee does not like some aspects of the business. There are studies supporting this. On the other hand, if the employee's commitment to other issues than work, the continuation pressure on the employee will be less. It can be said that commitment to the organization is a factor affecting the continuation of the job rather than there is one-to-one relationship between commitment to the organization and absenteeism.

4.6.3 Commitment and Being Late For Work

There is a significant negative relationship between adherence to the organization and being late. The positive attitudes of the employees towards the organization ensure that they display consistent behaviors with these attitudes. Coming to work on time is also among these behaviors. Angle and Perry have revealed that employees with high loyalty have a low rate of being late for their jobs (İnce, Gül, 2005, 66).

4.6.4 Commitment and Employee Turnover Rate

Theoretically, one of the most important behavioral consequences of commitment to the organization is the decrease in the labor turnover rate. By definition, employees with high levels of commitment wish to stay more in the organization and work for the organization's goals, and as a result, they are less likely to leave. In the studies conducted, it has been observed that there is a statistically significant relationship between the commitment to the organization and the turnover of the labor force. In studies that examine employee commitment and release behaviors over time, it has been

observed that the commitment to the organization has developed over time and that the employees with low commitment levels have reduced their commitment levels as the time to leave from work approaches (Çırpan, 1999, 17).

The commitment of the employees depends on their satisfaction with the work, in other words, they can get the return of their investments in their organizations. Employees will want to quit when they believe they are unable to get their investment back in their organizations.

4.6.5 Commitment and Stress

Another one of the most important behavioral consequences of commitment is job stress. It is stated that employees with high organizational commitment are more affected by stress than other employees. Increased organizational sensitivity of such employees causes them to be more affected by organizational hazards, threats and problems (Çırpan, 1999, 18).

As with employers, excessive commitment of employees to the organization can also have a cost to the organization. First, organizational effectiveness decreases as a result of employees with low achievements remaining in the organization. The fact that low-achieving employees are in the business may prevent new individuals with high success skills from entering the company. If the commitment of individuals with relatively high success to the organization is low, the organization faces the worst of the alternatives it can afford. Employees that the organization wants to remain want to leave, employees who the organization wants to leave want to stay. Another negative result that can be caused by excessive commitment in terms of the organization is the behaviors that result from the dedication of some of the employees to this organization.

CHAPTER 5

5. THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A STUDY IN MANUFACTURING SECTORS

5.1. The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to examine the effects of talent management applications supported by in-service training in enterprises operating in the manufacturing sector in Turkey on job satisfaction and commitment to the organization, to make recommendations and thus contribute to academic literature and business world in this field.

In the research, companies operating in the production sector and applying in-service training and talent management were selected. The reason for choosing the production sector is that manufacturing industries are accepted as the driving force due to both export revenues and employment potentials for many developing countries.

5.2. Variables and Model of the Research

The dependent variables of the research are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The independent variable of the research is the talent management perceptions of the employees working in companies that have talent management. The mediating variable is in-service training. According to the perception of talent management, individuals supported by in-service training will be examined whether their job satisfaction and their commitment to the organization are affected or not. In the study, talent management was treated as an independent variable, in-service training tool was treated as a mediator variable, while job satisfaction and organizational

commitment were treated as a dependent variable. Within the framework of these variables, the model of the research is given in figure 5.1.

The model of the research within the framework of these variables is as follows:

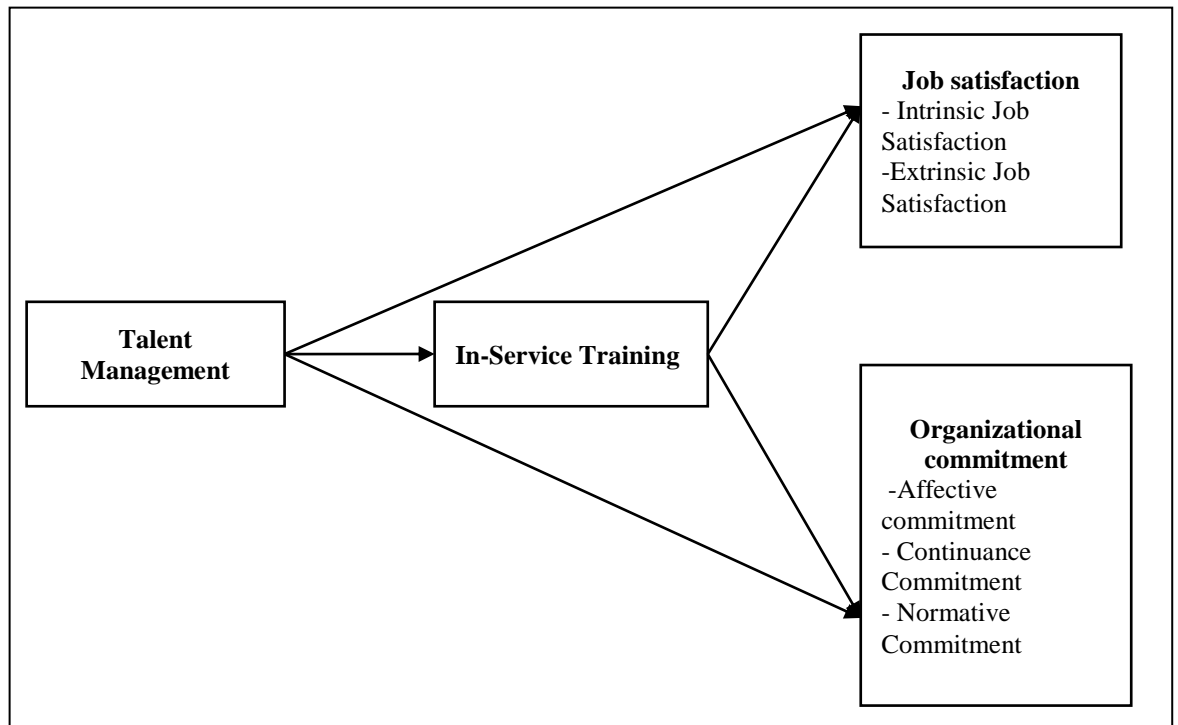


Figure 5.1: Model of the Research

5.3 Hypotheses of the Research

Based on the research model, the following hypotheses have been formed:

Hypothesis 1: Employees ' attitudes toward talent management differ based on their gender.

Hypothesis 2: Employees ' job satisfaction differs based on their gender.

Hypothesis 3: Employees ' organizational commitment differs based on their gender.

Hypothesis 4: Employees ' attitudes towards talent management differ based on age groups.

Hypothesis 5: Employees' job satisfaction differs according based on age groups.

Hypothesis 6: Employees ' organizational commitment differs based on age groups.

Hypothesis 7: Employees ' attitudes towards talent management differ based on the duration of their work at the institution.

Hypothesis 8: Employees' job satisfaction differs based on the duration of their work in the institution.

Hypothesis 9: Employees ' organizational commitment differs based on the duration of work in the institution.

Hypothesis 10: Employees ' attitudes towards talent management differ based on the department types.

Hypothesis 11: Employees' job satisfaction differs according based on the department types.

Hypothesis 12: Employees ' organizational commitment differs based on the department types.

Hypothesis 13: Employees ' attitudes toward talent management differ based on their title.

Hypothesis 14: Employees ' job satisfaction differs based on their status.

Hypothesis 15: Employees ' organizational commitment differs based on their status.

Hypothesis 16: Talent management practices have a significant impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 17: Talent management practices have a significant impact impact on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 18: Talent management practices have a significant impact impact on in-service training.

Hypothesis 19: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19a: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on intrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19b: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on extrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 20: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 20a: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on continuance commitment

Hypothesis 20b: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 20c: In-service training practices have a significant impact impact on normative addiction.

Hypothesis 21: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 21a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 22b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and extrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 22: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 22a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 22b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 22c: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.

5.4. Sample of the Study

The businesses which are operating in the textile, automotive, logistics and pharmaceutical sectors and which are applying talent management and in-service training constitute the main universe of this research. The reason why these four sectors were chosen especially for the importance of these four industries in Turkey's economy and employment they provide. The

institutional structures of large enterprises operating in these sectors are such that they will help them adopt and implement talent management and in-service training approaches.

The sample of the research is the production companies operating in Istanbul. The research was carried out in a total of 32 enterprises in four sectors.

In July 2018 the number of employed persons in Turkey increased by 507 thousand persons compared to the same period last year, that rose to 29 million 265 thousand people. Employment rate increased by 0.2 points to 48.2 percent (TUIK Data, 2018).

Employment increased to 6 million 658 thousand in 2018 in İstanbul, which meets about 20% of total employment in Turkey. As throughout Turkey, in Istanbul's employment, the services sector was decisive. The share of the textile sector in total employment is 2.4%. The share of the logistics sector in total employment is 1.8% and the share of the pharmaceutical sector in total employment is around 1.1% (TUIK Data, 2018).

There are a total of 2942 employees of the 32 companies surveyed. This number represents the population of the research. According to Gurbuz and Sahin (2018) a sample size consisting of 384 participants represents a large population with a 95% confidential level. The sample of the research was determined according to the random sampling method and a questionnaire was organized on 601 employees. Among these individuals, 575 questionnaires that were found suitable for evaluation were included in the study.

5.5. Characteristics of Participants

The demographic characteristics of the subjects participating in the study are given in Table 5.4. 38.6% of the participants in the study are female and 61.4% are male. The number of male participants is higher. The majority of the participants (45.9%) are in the 26-30 age group. This is followed by the 31-35 age group with 26%. Therefore, the majority of the respondents are young people. 51.3% of the participants in the study are married and 48.7% are single. Therefore, most of them are married people. 46.4% of the participants in the

research have a graduate degree. This is followed by those with postgraduate degree with 37.2%. In general, the majority of the participants are university or master's and doctorate graduates. 43.7% of the participants of the research work in their units for 1-5 years. 21% of the participants work in their own units for 5-10 years. 19,5% of them work in their units between 10-15 years. However, most of them have short working experience. The majority of the participants in the research work 51.3% outside the units mentioned above. 14.1% of the participants work in the technical support department. 7.8% of them work in the human resources department. 6.4% of them work in the production department. 5.6% of them work in the accounting department. 5.4% of them work in the R&D department. 4.2% work in the marketing department and 3.8% work in the finance department. 37.4% of the participants are civil servants, 29.9% are experts, 19.1% are managers, 9.2% are assistant experts and 4.3% are senior managers.

Table 5.1.

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age	Female	222	38,6
	Male	353	61,4
	Total	575	100,0
	26-30	264	45,9
	31-35	147	25,6
	36-40	73	12,7
	41-45	46	7,8
	46-50	26	4,5
	50 and above	19	3,3
	Total	575	100,0
Marital Status	Married	295	51,3
	Single	280	48,7
	Total	575	100,0
Educational Status	Primary school	7	1,2
	High school	27	4,7
	Associate	60	10,4
	Bachelor's degree	267	46,4
	Graduate	214	37,2
	Total	575	100,0
	1-5	251	43,7
Duration of work in the department	5-10	121	21,0
	10-15	112	19,5
	15 and above	91	15,8
	Total	575	100,0
Department	Production	37	6,4

	Accounting	32	5,6
	Financing	22	3,8
	Marketing	24	4,2
	R & D	31	5,4
	Human resources	45	7,8
	Hardware / Electronics	8	1,4
	Technical Support	81	14,1
	Other	295	51,3
	Total	575	100,0
Status	Expert	172	29,9
	Manager	110	19,1
	Senior executive	25	4,3
	Officer Responsible	215	37,4
	Assistant Specialist	53	9,2
	Total	575	100,0

5.6. Measurement Instruments

In this study, how talent management perceptions of employees supported by in-service training affect employees' job satisfaction and commitment to the organization was examined. From this point of view, a survey was carried out in the research. In the first part of the survey, a personal data form is given to determine the demographic information of the participants. The second part of the survey included scales related to in-service training, perception of Talent Management, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment to the organization, respectively. The questionnaire is presented in the annexes section.

Talent Management Perception Scale, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and Allen Meyer Organizational Commitment Scale were used in the study of Bahadınlı (2013) on the Effect of Talent Management Practices on Employees' Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment (Research in Pharmaceutical, Textile and Automotive Sectors) and reliability analysis of each scale was performed. The reliability analysis results of Bahadınlı regarding these scales are as follows: The alpha value of the Job Satisfaction

Scale is 0.865, the alpha value of the Organizational Commitment Scale is 0.6683, and the alpha value of the Talent Management Perception Scale is 0.935.

In order to determine the demographic information of the participants, the questions in the personal information form were asked. Then, they were asked to answer the questionnaire questions regarding In-Service Training, Talent Management Perception, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, respectively. The questionnaires related to these scales are presented in the appendix section of the research.

5.6.1. In-Service Training Scale

The "In-Service Training Scale" consisting of 6 questions was developed in the study of Barışkan (2014) "The Investigation of The Effects of Received Total in-Service Training on Overall Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment of Employees in The It Sector" by the researcher.

5.6.2. Job Satisfaction Scale

In order to measure the job satisfaction of the participants, the "Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale" developed by David et al. (1967) consists of 20 questions was used. This scale has the 5-point Likert type. In the scale, business conditions are associated with job satisfaction. MSQ aims to measure job satisfaction in 20 different dimensions. These dimensions are listed below:

The statements in the scale require choosing one of the options "I am not satisfied at all ", "I am dissatisfied", "I am undecided", "I am satisfied" and "I am very satisfied" according to the decision levels. As a result, according to the information provided by all employees, there will be satisfactory aspects of the job, as well as the level of satisfaction of the employees in total, and the factors that create satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale consists of 20 items that determine the level of internal satisfaction, external satisfaction and general satisfaction. Statements in the category of internal satisfaction include activity, independence, diversity, social status, moral values, job security, social work, responsibility, using skills, creativity, authority and success. In the questions of external

satisfaction, manager - human relations, business policies, wages, progress and discretion were measured. Sample item: "I am pleased with my current job as it keeps me busy at all times."

5.6.3. Organizational Commitment Scale

To measure participants' organizational commitment, the "Organizational Commitment Scale" developed by Allen and Meyer and translated into Turkish by Wasti consists of 18 questions was used. It consists of 3 factors: affective, normative and continuance commitment. Each statement included in the questionnaire was evaluated with the 5-point Likert scale as "Absolutely Disagree", "Disagree", "I have no idea", "I agree", "I totally agree". Sample item: "I feel "emotionally attached" to the institution I work for."

5.6.4. Talent Management Practices Perception Scale

To measure participants' attitudes towards talent management practices, the "Talent Management Practices Perception Scale" developed in 2006 by Society for Human Resource Management was used. The Talent Management Practices Perception Scale examines the talent management practices of businesses in terms of recruitment, development and retention of employees. This scale, consisting of a total of 16 questions, was evaluated according to the 5-point Likert scale by the employees participating in the study as "I strongly disagree", "I disagree", "I am indecisive", "I agree" and "I strongly agree". Sample item: "It has policies that support career development and promotion opportunities."

5.7. Analyses and Procedures

The data of this research was analyzed using IBM SPSS 25 package programs. The reliability of the scales was evaluated by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The independent sample t test was used for two group comparison (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2014). One-way variance analysis (ANOVA) was used for three or more group comparisons in the study. Before the ANOVA test, the assumption that the prerequisite variance is homogeneous (homogeneity of variance) was tested with the Levene test. Multiple comparison analysis and Tukey test from Post Hoc tests were used

to determine the source of differences found to be significant in ANOVA results (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018).

Regression analysis was used to test relational hypotheses. The bootstrap technique has been preferred to test mediating hypotheses. The Bootstrap technique is claimed to be robust than the classical method proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and the Sobel test (Gürbüz, 2019, Hayes, 2018). 5000 resampling options were used in the Bootstrap technique. Process Macro application was used to test mediational effects (Gürbüz, 2019, Hayes, 2018).

CHAPTER 6

6. RESULTS

6.1. Reliability of Scales

Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the scales used in the study are given in Table 6.1. Accordingly, the internal consistency coefficients for each scale used in the research were found to be over 0.70. Since these values are above 0.70, which is widely accepted as the threshold value in the literature (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018), it can be stated that the scales in question are reliable scales.

Table 6.1.

Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients of the Scales

Scale	Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Talent Management	20	,935
Job Satisfaction	15	,901
Intrinsic job satisfaction	10	,836
Extrinsic job satisfaction	10	,701
Organizational Commitment Scale	30	,844
Affective commitment	6	,914
Continuance commitment	6	0,723
Normative commitment	6	0,736

6.2. Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation and Pearson correlation values of talent management, in-service training, job satisfaction and organizational commitment variables and demographic variables discussed in the study are

presented in Table 6.2. It has been determined that there is a positive relationship between talent management and in-service training ($r = 0.150$; $p < 0.01$) variables. It was determined that there was a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.261$; $p < 0.01$) and extrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.222$; $p < 0.01$). It was determined that there was a positive relationship between affective commitment ($r = 0.245$; $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment ($r = 0.145$; $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.211$; $p < 0.01$) variables. From this point on, it can be said that the participants' attitude scores for talent management increased, while their attitude scores for in-service training, job satisfaction and organizational commitment increased.

Similarly, there was a positive relationship between the following variables; in-service training and intrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.236$; $p < 0.01$), extrinsic job satisfaction ($r = 0.196$; $p < 0.01$), affective commitment ($r = 0.245$; $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.210$; $p < 0.01$). However, no significant relationship was observed between in-service training and continuance commitment ($r = 0.037$; $p = 0.377$).

Table 6.2.

Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Values of the Study Variables.

	Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Talent management	3.68	0.71	-							
2	In-Service Training	1.79	0.72	.150**							
3	Intrinsic job satisfaction	2.73	0.60	.261**	.236**						
4	Extrinsic job satisfaction	2.45	0.47	.222**	.196**	.803**					
5	Job satisfaction	2.59	0.51	.257**	.229**	.961**	.937**				
6	Affective commitment	3.37	1.00	.149**	.245**	.586**	.530**	.591**			
7	Continuance Commitment	2.98	0.80	.145**	.037	.066	.081	.078	.101*		
8	Normative Commitment	3.07	0.75	.174**	.210**	.454**	.430**	.466**	.549**	.262**	
9	Organizational commitment	3.14	0.62	.211**	.199**	.524**	.490**	.535**	.796**	.589**	.806**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ significant correlation.

6.3. Hypotheses Testing

6.3.1. Differential Analyses

T-test was conducted to test two-group comparison (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used in the study for group comparisons of three or more. Before the ANOVA test, the assumption that the prerequisite variance was homogeneous (homogeneity of variance) was tested with the Levene test. Multiple comparison analysis and Tukey test, one of the Post Hoc tests, were used to determine the source of differences found to be significant in ANOVA results (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018).

Hypothesis 1: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on their gender.

T-test was conducted between Independent Groups to determine whether attitudes regarding talent management differed significantly by gender (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018). The results of the T test performed by gender are presented in Table 6.3. According to the results of T test, it was determined that attitudes towards talent management did not differ significantly according to gender ($t = 0.451$; $p = 0.652$). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-1 was rejected.

Table 6.3.

T Test Results of the Talent Management by Gender

Dependent variable	Gender	n	Mean	S.D.	t	p
Talent Management	Female	222	3.69	.72	.451	0.652
	Male	353	3.67	.69		

Hypothesis 2: Employees' job satisfaction differs based on their gender.

T test was conducted between Independent Groups in order to determine whether job satisfaction varies significantly according to gender (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018). The results of the T test conducted by gender are presented in Table 6.4. According to the results of the T test, it was determined that intrinsic job satisfaction did not differ significantly according to gender ($t =$

0.093; $p = 0.926$), but extrinsic job satisfaction differed significantly by gender. ($t = -2.621$; $p < 0.05$). Accordingly, it is seen that men (Mean. = 2.49) are more satisfied with their jobs than women (Mean = 2.38) and this difference is significant. Based on this finding, Hypothesis-2 was partially supported.

Table 6.4.

T Test Results of the Job Satisfaction by Gender

The Dependent variable	Gender	n	Mean	S.S.	t	p
Intrinsic job satisfaction	Female	222	2.73	0.62	.093	.926
	Male	353	2.73	0.58		
Extrinsic job satisfaction	Female	222	2.38	0.48	-2.621	.009
	Male	353	2.49	0.46		

Hypothesis 3: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on their gender.

T-test was conducted between Independent Groups to determine whether organizational commitment varies significantly by gender (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018). The results of the T test performed by gender are presented in Table 6.5. According to the results of T test, it was determined that affective, continuance and normative commitment did not differ significantly according to gender ($t = 0.752$; $p = 0.452$, $t = 0.018$; $p = 0.986$, $t = 0.989$; $p = 0.478$, respectively). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-3 was rejected.

Table 6.5.*T Test Results of the Organizational Commitment by Gender*

Dependent variable	Gender	n	Mean	S.S.	t	p
Affective Commitment	Female	222	208	3.32	.752	.452
	Male	353	326	3.39		
Continuance Commitment	Female	222	212	3.00	.018	.986
	Male	353	326	3.00		
Normative Commitment	Female	222	207	3.06	.989	.478
	Male	353	317	3.11		

Hypothesis 4: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ according to age groups.

The ANOVA test was used to determine whether employees' attitudes towards talent management differ significantly according to age groups. ANOVA results according to age groups are presented in Table 6.6. Accordingly, attitudes towards talent management were found not to differ significantly according to age groups ($F=0.338$; $p=0.890$). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-4 has been rejected.

Table 6.6.*The Result of ANOVA for Talent Management by the Age Groups*

Dependent variable	Age Groups	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Talent Management	26-30	264	3.66	.69	.338	.890
	31-35	147	3.74	.62		
	36-40	73	3.65	.691		
	41-45	46	3.66	.98		
	46-50	26	3.68	.66		
	50 and above	19	3.6086	.87		

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction of employees differs based on the age groups.

The ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the attitudes of employees towards job satisfaction differed significantly according to age groups. ANOVA results according to age groups are presented in Table 6.7. Accordingly, it was determined that intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction did not differ significantly according to age groups. ($F=2.175$; $p=0.055$; $F=2.099$; $p=0.064$ respectively). Based on this finding, hypothesis-5 has been rejected.

Table 6.7.

The Result of ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by the Age Groups

Dependent variable	Age Groups	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	26-30	264	0.58	0.04	2.175	.055
	31-35	147	0.58	0.05		
	36-40	73	0.66	0.08		
	41-45	46	0.59	0.09		
	46-50	26	0.60	0.12		
	50 and above	19	0.59	0.14		
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	26-30	264	0.60	0.02	2.099	.064
	31-35	147	0.46	0.03		
	36-40	73	0.46	0.04		
	41-45	46	0.49	0.06		
	46-50	26	0.47	0.07		
	50 and above	19	0.51	0.10		

Hypothesis 6: Organizational commitment of the employees differs based on age groups

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the organizational commitment of the employees differed significantly by age groups. ANOVA

results performed by age groups are presented in Table 6.8. Accordingly, it was determined that affective, continuance and normative commitment did not differ significantly according to age groups ($F=0.601$; $p=0.699$; $F=0.869$; $p=0.502$; $F=0.289$; $p=0.919$ respectively). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-6 was rejected.

Table 6.8.

The Result of ANOVA for Organizational Commitment by the Age Groups

Dependent variable	Age Groups	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Affective Commitment	26-30	264	3.32	0.96	.601	.699
	31-35	147	3.48	1.00		
	36-40	73	3.32	1.10		
	41-45	46	3.31	1.01		
	46-50	26	3.37	1.11		
	50 and above	19	3.50	0.89		
Continuance Commitment	26-30	264	2.99	0.80	.869	.502
	31-35	147	2.93	0.79		
	36-40	73	2.95	0.78		
	41-45	46	3.14	0.86		
	46-50	26	3.15	0.83		
	50 and above	19	2.98	0.80		
Normative Commitment	26-30	264	3.10	0.74	.289	.919
	31-35	147	3.08	0.77		
	36-40	73	3.05	0.71		
	41-45	46	2.99	0.86		
	46-50	26	3.00	0.65		
	50 and above	19	2.99	0.71		

Hypothesis 7: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on tenure in the institution.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the attitudes of the employees towards talent management differ significantly according to the tenure in the institution. ANOVA results performed according to tenure in the institution are presented in Table 6.9. Accordingly, it was determined that attitudes towards talent management did not differ significantly in terms of tenure in the institution ($F=0.297$; $p=0.828$). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-7 was rejected.

Table 6.9.

The Result of ANOVA for Talent Management by Tenure in the Institution

Dependent variable	Tenure	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Talent Management	1-5	251	3.69	.67	.297	.828
	5-10	121	3.65	.70		
	10-15	112	3.71	.67		
	15 and above	91	3.64	.826		

Hypothesis 8: Employee satisfaction varies based on tenure in the institution.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the attitudes of employees towards job satisfaction differ significantly according to the tenure in the institution. ANOVA results performed according to the tenure in the institution are presented in Table 6.10. Accordingly, it was determined that intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction differ significantly according to the tenure in the institution. ($F=3.344$; $p<0,05$; $F=3.015$; $p<0,05$ respectively). Tukey test was carried out to determine which groups are different. According to the results of the Tukey test, it is seen that the mean scores of the employees with an intrinsic job satisfaction of 10-15 years are higher than the average of other employees and this difference is significant. In terms of extrinsic job satisfaction, it is observed that the average scores of employees

with a working period of 10-15 years in the institution are higher than the average of employees with an average of 15 and above working hours, and this difference is significant. Based on this finding, Hypothesis-8 was supported.

Table 6.10.

The Result of ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Tenure in the Institution

Dependent variable	Tenure	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	1-5	251	2.71	0.59	3.344	0.019
	5-10	121	2.68	0.59		
	10-15	112	2.89	0.59		
	15- and above	91	2.67	0.62		
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	1-5	251	2.43	0.47	3.015	0.030
	5-10	121	2.41	0.46		
	10-15	112	2.56	0.46		
	15 and above	91	2.39	0.50		

Hypothesis 9: Organizational commitment of employees differs according to the tenure in the institution.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the organizational commitment of the employees differed significantly in terms of tenure in the institution. ANOVA results performed according to the tenure in the institution are presented in Table 6.11. Accordingly, it has been determined that affective, continuance, and normative commitment do not differ significantly in terms of tenure in the institution. ($F=1.629$; $p=0.182$; $F=0.826$; $p=0.480$; $F=1.382$ $p=0.247$ respectively). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-9 was rejected.

Table 6.11.

The Result of ANOVA for Organizational Commitment by Tenure in the Institution

Dependent variable	Tenure	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Affective Commitment	1-5	251	3.30	1.01	1.628	.182
	5-10	121	3.37	1.01		
	10-15	112	3.55	0.95		
	15 and above	91	3.34	0.99		
Continuance Commitment	1-5	251	2.97	0.80	0.826	.480
	5-10	121	2.91	0.86		
	10-15	112	3.02	0.70		
	15 and above	91	3.08	0.84		
Normative Commitment	1-5	251	3.09	0.78	1.382	.247
	5-10	121	3.09	0.71		
	10-15	112	3.12	0.67		
	15 and above	91	2.93	0.78		

Hypothesis 10: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on the department type.

The ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the attitudes of employees towards talent management differ significantly according to the department employed in the institution. The ANOVA results performed according to the departments of employees at the institution are presented in Table 6.12. Accordingly, attitudes towards talent management were found not to differ significantly according to the department employed in the institution ($F=1.674$; $p=0.102$). Based on this finding, hypothesis-10 has been rejected.

Table 6.12.*The Result of ANOVA for Talent Management by the Departments*

Dependent variable	Departments	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Talent Management	Production	37	3.63	0.69	1.674	.102
	Accounting	32	3.38	0.83		
	Finance	22	3.71	0.69		
	Marketing	24	3.42	0.80		
	R and D	31	3.81	0.60		
	Huma Resources	45	3.68	0.73		
	Electronics	8	3.38	0.66		
	Technical Support	81	3.73	0.55		
	Other	295	3.72	0.72		

Hypothesis 11: Employees ' job satisfaction differs according to the department they work for.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the job satisfaction of the employees differ significantly according to the department they work in. The ANOVA results performed according to the department worked in the institution are presented in Table 6.13. Accordingly, it was determined that intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction did not differ significantly according to the department employed in the institution. (F=1562; p=0.133; F=1.439; p=0.177 respectively). Based on this finding, hypothesis-11 has been rejected.

Table 6.13.*The Result of ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by the Departments*

Dependent variable	Departments	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Production	37	2.57	0.59	1.562	.133
	Accounting	32	2.68	0.49		
	Finance	22	2.76	0.57		
	Marketing	24	2.67	0.49		
	R and D	31	2.81	0.55		
	Huma Resources	45	2.92	0.46		
	Electronics	8	3.13	0.38		
	Technical Support	81	2.75	0.60		
	Other	295	2.71	0.64		
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Production	37	2.33	0.44	1.439	.177
	Accounting	32	2.34	0.49		
	Finance	22	2.48	0.44		
	Marketing	24	2.40	0.43		
	R and D	31	2.51	0.43		
	Huma Resources	45	2.49	0.44		
	Electronics	8	2.80	0.43		
	Technical Support	81	2.52	0.53		
	Other	295	2.44	0.47		

Hypothesis 12: The organizational commitment of employees differs based on the department types.

The ANOVA results performed according to the department worked in the institution are presented in Table 6.14. Accordingly, it was determined that

affective, continuance and normative commitment did not differ significantly based on the department types. ($F=1.141$; $p=0.334$; $F=1.000$; $p=0.435$; $F=1.062$ $p=0.389$ respectively). Based on this finding, hypothesis-12 has been rejected.

Table 6.14.

The Result of ANOVA Organizational Commitment by the Departments

Dependent variable	Departments	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Affective Commitment	Production	37	2.57	0.59	1.141	.334
	Accounting	32	2.68	0.49		
	Finance	22	2.76	0.57		
	Marketing	24	2.67	0.49		
	R and D	31	2.81	0.55		
	Huma Resources	45	2.92	0.46		
	Electronics	8	3.13	0.38		
	Technical Support	81	2.75	0.60		
	Other	295	2.71	0.64		
Continuance Commitment	Production	37	2.33	0.44	1.000	.435
	Accounting	32	2.34	0.49		
	Finance	22	2.48	0.44		
	Marketing	24	2.40	0.43		
	R and D	31	2.51	0.43		
	Huma Resources	45	2.49	0.44		
	Electronics	8	2.80	0.43		
	Technical Support	81	2.52	0.53		
	Other	295	2.44	0.47		
Normative Commitment	Production	37	2.33	0.44	1.062	.389
	Accounting	32	2.34	0.49		
	Finance	22	2.48	0.44		
	Marketing	24	2.40	0.43		
	R and D	31	2.51	0.43		
	Huma Resources	45	2.49	0.44		

Electronics	8	2.80	0.43
Technical Support	81	2.52	0.53
Other	295	2.44	0.47

Hypothesis 13: Employees ' attitudes toward talent management differ based on the status.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the attitudes of employees towards talent management differ significantly according to their titles in the institution. The ANOVA results according to their titles are presented in Table 6.15. Accordingly, attitudes towards talent management were found not to differ significantly according to their title ($F=1.132$; $p=0.340$). Based on this finding, hypothesis-13 has been rejected.

Table 6.15.

The Result of ANOVA for Talent Management by the Status

Dependent variable	Status	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Talent Management	Expert	172	3.68	.77	1.132	.340
	Manager	110	3.74	.70		
	Senior executive	25	3.41	.78		
	Officer Responsible	215	3.68	.60		
	Assistant Specialist	53	3.70	.80		

Hypothesis 14: Job satisfaction of employees differs according to their titles.

ANOVA test was applied in order to determine whether the job satisfaction of employees differed significantly according to their titles at the institution. ANOVA results performed according to their titles are presented in Table 6.16. Accordingly, it was determined that the intrinsic job satisfaction significantly differentiated according to the titles ($F = 2.758$; $p < 0.05$), but the extrinsic job satisfaction did not differ ($F = 1.859$; $p = 0.116$). Tukey test was carried out to determine which groups the difference was between. According

to the results of the Tukey test, it is seen that the average scores of the intrinsic job satisfaction of the employees with the title of senior manager are higher than the average of the intrinsic job satisfaction of the employees with the title of expert assistant and this difference is significant. Based on this finding, Hypothesis-14 was partially supported.

Table 6.16.

The Result of ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by the Status

Dependent variable	Status	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Expert	172	2.70	0.62	2.758	.027
	Manager	110	2.86	0.57		
	Senior executive	25	2.95	0.58		
	Officer Responsible	215	2.68	0.57		
	Assistant Specialist	53	2.67	0.65		
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Expert	172	2.46	0.49	1.859	.116
	Manager	110	2.51	0.46		
	Senior executive	25	2.62	0.50		
	Officer Responsible	215	2.40	0.44		
	Assistant Specialist	53	2.41	0.52		

Hypothesis 15: Organizational commitment of employees differs according to their status.

ANOVA test was applied to determine whether the organizational commitment of the employees differed significantly according to their titles at the institution. ANOVA test results made by titles are presented in Table 6.17. Accordingly, it was determined that affective, continuance, and normative commitment did not differ significantly according to titles. (F

=1.620; $p=.170$; $F=0.517$; $p=.724$; $F=1.523$; $p=.194$ respectively). Based on this finding, Hypothesis-15 was rejected.

Table 6.17.

The Result of ANOVA for Organizational Commitment by the Status

Dependent variable	Status	n	Mean	S.D.	F	p
Affective Commitment	Expert	172	3.34	1.03	1.620	.170
	Manager	110	3.51	0.93		
	Senior executive	25	3.69	1.04		
	Officer Responsible	215	3.31	1.00		
	Assistant Specialist	53	3.25	0.95		
Continuance Commitment	Expert	172	2.98	0.80	0.517	.724
	Manager	110	2.91	0.76		
	Senior executive	25	2.99	0.92		
	Officer Responsible	215	3.04	0.83		
	Assistant Specialist	53	2.93	0.74		
Normative Commitment	Expert	172	3.02	0.70	1.523	.194
	Manager	110	3.15	0.75		
	Senior executive	25	3.35	0.83		
	Officer Responsible	215	3.04	0.76		
	Assistant Specialist	53	3.08	0.80		

6.3.2. Regression Analysis Results

Hierarchical regression analysis, which is a robust analysis, was used to more clearly determine the relative effects and predictive powers of independent and mediating variables on the dependent variable and to test the research hypotheses. (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2018). In the first step of the

regression analysis, the gender and age variables that may have an impact on the dependent variable are taken under control.

Hypothesis 16: Talent management practices have a significant impact on job satisfaction.

Firstly, the effect of talent management practices on job satisfaction was tested. In the first step of the regression analysis, the variables of gender and age were taken under control. Table 6.18 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis showing the impact of talent management practices on job satisfaction. The Model-1 includes the effects of talent management practices on intrinsic job satisfaction practices. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management applications are added to regression analysis, approximately 7% of the change in intrinsic job satisfaction can be explained ($R^2=0.070$). It is understood from adjusted beta values that talent management practices positively and significantly affect intrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta=0.262$; $p<.001$).

The Model-2 reveals the effects of talent management practices on extrinsic job satisfaction practices. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management applications are added to regression analysis, approximately 6% of the change in Extrinsic job satisfaction can be explained ($R^2=0.063$). It is understood from adjusted beta values that talent management practices positively and significantly affect extrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta=0.224$; $p<.001$). Based on these findings, hypothesis-16 was supported.

Table 6.18.

Regression Analyses Results of Talent Management on Job Satisfaction (N=575)

Independent Variables	<i>Dependent variables</i>			
	<i>Model-1: Intrinsic Job Satisfaction</i>		<i>Model-2: Extrinsic Job Satisfaction</i>	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
Gender	-.005	.050	.107	.040
Age	.037	.018	.036	.014
Talent Management	.262***	.034	.224***	.027
R^2	0,001		0,013	
ΔR^2	0,070***		0,063***	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps.

Hypothesis 17: talent management practices have a significant impact on organizational commitment.

Second, the impact of talent management practices on organizational commitment has been tested. In the first step of regression analysis, gender and age variables are controlled. Table 6.19 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis showing the impact of talent management practices on organizational commitment. The Model-1 includes the effects of talent management practices on affective commitment. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management practices are included in regression analysis, approximately 2% of the change in affective commitment can be explained ($R^2=0.023$). It is understood from adjusted beta values that talent management practices positively and significantly affect affective commitment ($\beta=0.149$; $p<.001$).

The Model-2 includes the effects of talent management practices on continuance commitment. According to these findings, the effect of the

variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management applications are included in regression analysis, approximately 2% of the change in continuance commitment can be explained ($R^2=0.021$). It is understood from adjusted beta values that talent management practices positively and significantly affect continuance commitment ($\beta=0.145$; $p<.001$).

The Model-3 includes the effects of talent management practices on normative commitment. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management practices are included in regression analysis, approximately 3% of the change in normative commitment can be explained ($R^2=0.034$). It is understood from adjusted beta values that talent management practices positively and significantly affect normative commitment ($\beta=0.174$; $p<.001$). Based on these findings, hypothesis-17 was supported.

Table 6.19.

Regression Analyses Results of Talent Management on Organizational Commitment (N= 575)

Independent Variables	<i>Dependent variables</i>					
	<i>Model-1: Affective Commitment</i>		<i>Model-2: Continuance Commitment</i>		<i>Model-3: Normative Commitment</i>	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
Gender	.026	.086	-.006	.069	.041	.064
Age	.013	.031	.020	.025	-.054	.023
Talent Management	.149***	.058	.145***	.047	.174***	.044
R^2	0,001		0,000		0,004	
ΔR^2	0,023***		0,021***		0,034***	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps.

Hypothesis 18: Talent management practices have a significant impact on in-service training.

Secondly, the impact of talent management practices on in-service training has been tested. In the first step of the regression analysis, the variables of gender and age were taken under control. Table 6.20 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis that shows the effect of talent management practices on in-service training. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as the control variable on the dependent variable was not significant. When talent management practices are included in the regression analysis, approximately 3% of the change on in-service training could be explained ($R^2 = 0.025$). It is understood from the standardized beta values that talent management practices affect in-service training positively and significantly ($\beta = 0.150$; $p < .001$). Based on these findings, Hypothesis-18 was supported.

Table 6.20.

Regression Analyses Results of Talent Management on In-Service Training (N= 575)

Independent Variables	Dependent variable: In-Service Training	
	β	S.E.
Gender	.026	.024
Age	.043	.009
Talent Management	.150***	.016
R^2	0,003	
ΔR^2	0,025***	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps.

Hypothesis 19: In-service training practices have a significant impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19a: In-service training practices have a significant impact on intrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19b: In-service training practices have a significant impact extrinsic job satisfaction.

The impact of in-service training practices on job satisfaction was tested by hierarchical regression analysis. In the first step of regression analysis, gender and age variables are controlled. Table 6.21 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis showing the impact of in-service applications on job satisfaction. The Model-1 includes the effects of in-service applications on intrinsic job satisfaction practices. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When in-service training applications are added to regression analysis, approximately 6% of the change in intrinsic job satisfaction can be explained ($R^2=0.056$). The standardized beta values indicate that in-service applications positively and significantly affect intrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta=0.235$; $p<.001$).

Model-2 depicts the impact of in-service training on extrinsic job satisfaction. According to these findings; It was determined that the effect of the variables included in the analysis as the control variable on the dependent variable was not significant. When in-service training is added to the regression analysis, approximately 5% of the change on extrinsic job satisfaction could be explained ($R^2 = 0.050$). It is understood from the standardized beta values that in-service training influences extrinsic job satisfaction positively and significantly ($\beta = .1914$; $p <.001$). Based on these findings, Hypothesis-19 was supported.

Table 6.21.

Regression Analyses Results of In-Service Training on Job Satisfaction (N= 575)

Independent Variables	Dependent variables			
	Model-1: Intrinsic Job Satisfaction		Model-2: Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
Gender	-.016	.051	.098	.040
Age	.025	.018	.026	.014
In-Service Training	.235***	.086	.191***	.068
R^2	0,001		0,013	
ΔR^2	0,056***		0,050***	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps.

Hypothesis 20: In-service training practices have a significant impact on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 20a: In-service training practices have a significant impact on affective commitment

Hypothesis 20b: In-service training practices have a significant impact on continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 20c: In-service training practices have a significant impact on normative commitment.

The impact of in-service training practices on organizational commitment has been tested by hierarchical regression analysis. In the first step of regression analysis, gender and age variables are controlled. Table 6.22 shows the results of hierarchical regression analysis showing the impact of in-service training practices on organizational commitment. The Model-1 includes the effects of in-service training practices on affective commitment. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control

variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When in-service training practices are included in regression analysis, approximately 6% of the change in affective commitment can be explained ($R^2=0.061$). The standardized beta values indicate that in-service training practices positively and significantly affect affective commitment ($\beta=0.245$; $p<.001$).

The Model-2 includes the impacts of in-service training practices on continuance commitment. According to these findings, the effect of the variables included in the analysis as control variables on the dependent variable was not significant. When in-service training practices are included in the regression analysis, the change on continuance commitment not significantly explained ($R^2=0.021$). It is understood from the standardized beta values that in-service training applications do not significantly affect continuance commitment. ($\beta=-0.038$; $p= 0.119$).

Model-3 includes the effects of in-service training practices on normative commitment. According to these findings, the impact of the variables included in the analysis as the control variable on the dependent variable was not significant. When in-service training practices are included in the regression analysis, approximately 5% of the change on normative commitment could be explained. ($R^2=0.049$). It is understood from the standardized beta values that in-service training applications affect normative commitment positively and significantly. ($\beta=0.212$; $p<.001$). Based on these findings, Hypothesis-20a and Hypothesis-20c were supported whereas Hypothesis-20b was rejected.

Table 6.22.

Regression Analyses Results of In-Service Training on Organizational Commitment (N= 575)

Independent Variables	Dependent variables					
	Model-1: Affective Commitment		Model-2: Continuance Commitment		Model-3: Normative Commitment	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
Gender	.018	.084	-.007	.070	.033	.064
Age	.002	.030	.020	.025	-.064	.023
In-Service Training	.245***	.144	-.038	.119	.212***	.109
R^2	0,001		0,000		0,004	
ΔR^2	0,061***		0,002		0,049***	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps.

Hypothesis 21: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 21a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 21b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and extrinsic job satisfaction.

Regression analysis based on the bootstrap method was performed to test whether the talent management practices have an indirect impact on job satisfaction through in-service training. Bootstrap technique is claimed to be stronger than the classical method proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and the Sobel test (Gürbüz, 2019; Hayes, 2018). 5000 resampling options were used in the Bootstrap technique. The mediation test was conducted via the Process macro proposed by Hayes (2018). According to MacKinnon et al

(2004) to confirm the mediating hypothesis, values in the 95% confidence interval (CI) found in the Bootstrap result should not contain zero (0).

In order to test whether talent management practices indirectly affect job satisfaction through in-service training practices (mediating effect), Bootstrap-based regression analysis was performed and results were interpreted according to the confidence intervals obtained. The results of the regression analysis for the determination of the indirect effect are presented in Table 6.23. Accordingly, the indirect impact of talent management practices determined on both intrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.031$ 95% CI [0.0114, 0.0536]) and extrinsic job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.025$ 95% CI [0.0081, 0.0462]) through in-service training was found to be significant. In other words, the in-service training variable is a mediator variable in the relationship in question. Because the Bootstrap lower and upper confidence interval values obtained by the percentile method do not cover 0 (zero). In light of these results, hypothesis-21 was supported.

Table 6.23.

Regression Analyses Results of Mediating Role of In-Service Training in relationship between Talent Management and Job Satisfaction (N= 575)

Variables	Job Satisfaction	
	β	S.E.
Talent Management → In-Service Training → Intrinsic Job Satisfaction		
Talent Management	0.231***	0,033
In-Service Training	0.201***	0,085
R ²	0.108***	
Indirect effect	0.031 % 95 CI [0.0114, 0.0536]	
Talent Management → In-Service Training → Extrinsic Job Satisfaction		
Talent Management	0.197***	0.027
In-Service Training	0.166***	0.068
R ²	0,076***	
Indirect effect	0.025 % 95 CI [0.0081, 0.0462]	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps. CI= Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 22: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 22a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 23b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 23c: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.

Regression analysis based on the bootstrap method was conducted to test whether talent management practices have an indirect impact on organizational commitment through in-service training and findings were interpreted according to the confidence intervals obtained. Regression analysis results for the determination of indirect effects are presented in Table 6.24. Accordingly, indirect effects of talent management practices on affective commitment ($\beta = 0.034\%$ 95% CI [0.0124, 0.0536]) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0.028\%$ 95% CI [0.0100, 0.0516]) were found to be significant through in-service training. In other words, it can be stated that the in-service training variable mediates the relationship in question. Because Bootstrap lower and upper confidence interval values obtained by percentage method do not include 0 (zero) value. In the light of these results, Hypothesis-21 was supported. However, it was found that the indirect effect of talent management practices on continuance commitment. ($\beta = -0.009\%$ 95 GA [-0.0258, 0.0036]) through in-service training was not significant. In the light of these results, Hypothesis-22a and Hypothesis-22c were supported whereas Hypothesis-22b was rejected.

Table 6.24.

Regression Analyses Results of Mediating Role of -In-Service Training in relationship between Talent Management and Organizational Commitment (N= 575)

Variables	Organizational Commitment	
	β	S.E.
Talent Management → In-Service Training → Affective Commitment		
Talent Management	0.114***	0,057
In-Service Training	0.228***	0,144
R ²	0.073***	
Indirect effects	0.034 % 95 CI [0.0124, 0.0536]	
Talent Management → In-Service Training → Continuance Commitment		
Talent Management	0.154***	0.047
In-Service Training	-0.060	0.119
R ²	0.025***	
Indirect effects	-0.009 % 95 CI [-0.0258, 0.0036]	
Talent Management → In-Service Training → Normative Commitment		
Talent Management	0.146***	0.043
In-Service Training	0.188***	0.108
R ²	0.033***	
Indirect effects	0.028 % 95 CI [0.0100, 0.0516]	

Not. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; S.E.: Standard Errors. Standardized beta coefficients are reported at the final steps. CI= Confidence Interval

According to the obtained statistical findings, the support and rejection status of all hypotheses of the research are presented in Table 6.25.

Table 6.25.*Supporting Status of Hypotheses*

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 1: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on their gender.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 2: Employee satisfaction varies based on their gender.	Partially supported.
Hypothesis 3: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on their gender.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 4: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on age groups.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 5: Employee satisfaction varies based on age groups.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 6: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on age groups.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 7: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on the tenure in the institution.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 8: Employee satisfaction varies based on the tenure in the institution.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 9: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on the tenure in the institution.	Supported.
Hypothesis 10: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on the department studied.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 11: Job satisfaction of employees differs based on the department types.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 12: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on the department types.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 13: Attitudes of employees towards talent management differ based on their status.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 14: Job satisfaction of employees differs based on their status.	Partially supported.
Hypothesis 15: Organizational commitment of employees differs based on their status.	Rejected.
Hypothesis 16: Talent management practices have a significant impact on impact on job satisfaction.	Supported
Hypothesis 17: Talent management practices have a significant impact on impact on organizational commitment.	Supported
Hypothesis 18: Talent management practices have a significant impact on impact on in-service training.	Supported
Hypothesis 19: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on job satisfaction.	Supported
Hypothesis 19a: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on intrinsic job satisfaction.	
Hypothesis 19b: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on extrinsic job satisfaction.	
Hypothesis 20: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on organizational commitment.	Hypothesis-20a and Hypothesis-20c were supported, Hypothesis-20b was rejected.
Hypothesis 20a: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on affective commitment.	
Hypothesis 20b: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on continuance commitment.	
Hypothesis 20c: In-service training practices have a significant impact on impact on normative commitment.	
Hypothesis 21: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.	Supported
Hypothesis 21a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intrinsic job satisfaction.	
Hypothesis 22b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship	

between talent management practices and extrinsic job satisfaction.	
Hypothesis 22: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and organizational commitment.	Hypothesis-22a and Hypothesis-22c were supported, and Hypothesis-22b was rejected.
Hypothesis 22a: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.	
Hypothesis 22b: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.	
Hypothesis 22c: In-service training practices mediate the relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.	

CHAPTER 7

7. DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In recent years, with the increasing competition among enterprises, providing in-service training to make the most of the human resource capabilities and to develop their capabilities has become a very important issue for enterprises. However, it can be stated that there is very limited research on how talent management practices supported by in-service training affect employees' job satisfaction and commitment. This study was conducted to:

- 1) Determine the impact of talent management practices supported by in-service training on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment;
- 2) Determine the indirect impact of talent management practices on job satisfaction and organizational commitment through in-service training.

In other words, this research was carried out to find the answer to the question "Is there an in-service training mediating role in the effect of talent management practices on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment?"

For this purpose, data was gathered by survey technique from 32 production companies operating in Istanbul in the textile, automotive, logistics and pharmaceutical sector in Istanbul and which have institutionalized talent management and in-service training practices to a large extent. The hypotheses of the study were tested using independent sample T test, variance analysis and hierarchical regression analysis based on data collected from a total of 575 employees working in these organizations. Hypotheses for the mediated relationship have been tested with the Bootstrap technique (Gurbüz, 2019; Hayes, 2018), which is claimed to give stronger and valid results rather than the classical method proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In the research, talent management and in-service

training practices are considered as one-dimensional, job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction are considered as two dimensional, and organizational commitment is considered as three dimensional as affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

As a result of the difference analysis conducted to test the research hypotheses, it has been determined that the extrinsic job satisfaction differs significantly according to the gender of the employees. Accordingly, it can be stated that male employees are more satisfied with their jobs than female employees. In terms of tenure in the institution, it was determined that the employees with an average working time of 10-15 years in the organization had higher scores for intrinsic job satisfaction than the score of other employees and this difference was significant. Again, it has been found that the scores of employees with a working period of 10-15 years in the institution regarding their extrinsic job satisfaction are higher than the score of the employees with a working time of 15 and above, and this difference is significant. Finally, it has been observed that the average scores of the employees with the title of senior manager regarding the intrinsic job satisfaction are higher than the score of the employees with the title of expert assistant. In the research, no significant differences were found in terms of other demographic variables.

As a result of the regression analysis conducted to determine the direct relationships between the variables, it was found that talent management practices positively and significantly influence intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Talent management practices have a higher impact on intrinsic job satisfaction. It has been determined that talent management practices affect affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment positively and significantly. Talent management practices have been shown to affect the normative commitment the most. Normative commitment develops as a result of socializing experiences that emphasize that it would be appropriate for the employee to remain loyal to his employer, and expresses a sense of responsibility based on a belief that qualifies staying in the organization as moral and correct (Meyer, Allen, Smith, 1993, 540). Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that talent

management has a stronger impact on normative commitment than on other dimensions of commitment, as a moral responsibility to remain in the organization.

When the results between the independent and mediating variables of the research were examined, it was determined that talent management practices had a positive impact on in-service training. In-service training have been found to positively affect both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. However, it has been observed that in-service training practices only significantly affect affective and normative commitment, not continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is a type of commitment that emerges through the assessment that the employee's desire to continue to remain in the organization, the total of their investments in the organization, they will lose when they leave the organization and that comparable alternatives are limited (Lämsä, Savolainen, 1999, 10). It is an expected result that in-service training do not have a significant impact on such a type of commitment.

In terms of mediation hypotheses, it has been determined that talent management practices affect both intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction indirectly through in-service training. In other words, in-service training has been found to play an mediating role in the relationship between talent management and job satisfaction. (talent management → in-service training → job satisfaction). Similarly, it has been observed that talent management practices indirectly influence affective and normative commitment through in-service training. (talent management → in-service training → organizational commitment (affective and normative)). However, it has been determined that in-service training does not have an intermediary role in the relation between talent management and continuance commitment.

Based on these research findings, some suggestions can be made for organizations and practitioners. According to the results of this research, it has been determined that talent management practices and in-service training positively affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment, both

dependent variables of the research. Based on these findings, it will be beneficial for the companies that aim to increase their job satisfaction and organizational commitment and to design human resources management systems accordingly, in today's competitive working environment where talent wars are experienced.

Effective and efficient implementation of talent management and in-service training will also prevent uncertainties in the event that strategic positions in the enterprise are unexpectedly discharged. On the other hand, implementing talent management practices is necessary but not sufficient for businesses in a competitive environment. After finding the right talents and placing them in the right positions in the business, the most important issue to consider is the retention of talents and the development of these talents through training. The way to retain talent is through employee commitment.

Along with the development of talent management practices and talents, it is also necessary to mention the effect of employees on job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. As it is known, job satisfaction arises as a result of the work done by the employee and what he / she achieves coincides with the personal value judgments. Employees' values and priorities differ just like their talents. Therefore, it is possible for employees with different skills in different positions to obtain different satisfaction from a certain situation.

As long as the employees have the job they want and the knowledge and skills required by this job, they can be more productive in the work environment and their organizational commitment will increase. In this sense, employees who are trained and developed in line with their talents as a result of their talent management practices will improve their perception that their businesses are investing in them and they will not tend to leave their businesses. In businesses that implement talent management, talented employees will be able to perceive organizational support. In terms of business, this will positively affect the performance, competitiveness and intellectual capital of the business.

Emphasizing the importance of talent management practices and talent retention, employees' job satisfaction and commitment to the organization were mentioned. Job satisfaction arises as a result of the coincidence of the work done and what they have achieved with the personal value judgments. Employees' values and priorities differ just like their talents. Therefore, it is possible for employees with different skills in different positions to obtain different satisfaction from a certain situation. Employees who have the perception that their talents are recognized by their businesses will have a positive job satisfaction. The contribution of employees with high job satisfaction to the success of the business will be inevitable. Employees can be more productive in the working environment as long as they have the job they want and the knowledge and skills required by this job.

The importance of job satisfaction becomes clearer when considering the commitment to the organization, which is one of the results of job dissatisfaction. The concept of commitment to the organization, which is handled in three dimensions as affective, continuance, and normative, shows the relationship between the employee and the business and has important effects on reducing the turnover rate. Employees who are trained and developed in line with their talents as a result of their talent management practices will improve their perception that their businesses are investing in them and will not tend to leave their businesses. In businesses that implement talent management, talented employees will be able to perceive organizational support. In terms of business, this will increase the performance, competitiveness and intellectual capital of the business.

This research also has some limitations. First, the findings of this study are limited to 575 employees working in 32 different businesses operating in Istanbul. Therefore, caution should be exercised in generalizing research findings to other sectors. In subsequent research, more generalizing results can be obtained by examining different sectors and business lines.

Another constraint of research is related to the method of research. In this study, independent, mediator and dependent variable data were collected from the same source (employees) by cross-sectional and self-report method. It is claimed that measurement errors, such as social desirability

effect and common method bias, can occur when data is collected from the same source and cross-sectional research design (Gürbüz and Şahin 2018). In subsequent research, the collection of data belonging to research variables from different sources with the longitudinal research pattern will enable more valid findings to be obtained.

The third constraint concerns the in-service training scale used in the research. In this research, the scale adapted to Turkish by Barışkan (2014) was used to measure attitudes towards in-service training. However, since the scale in question was not a Likert format additive scale type like other scales used in the study, the reliability of the scale could not be calculated. In the future researches, it is thought that it would be appropriate to prefer more satisfactory scales with psychometric properties in order to measure attitudes towards in-service training.

Finally, the effects of talent management and in-service training on job satisfaction and organizational commitment are discussed in this study. In future research, the relationship of talent management with the variables considered important in the field of organizational behavior and human resources can be addressed through this research. Questions similar to those given below may be subject to subsequent research: How do talent management practices affect employees ' performance and organizational citizenship behavior? What is the relationship between in-service training and talent management practices and other human resources functions (such as promotion, reward, motivation)?

As a result, in today's competitive environment, enterprises should adopt talent management and in-service training as a philosophy, apply talent management processes systematically at all levels and support in-service training to develop skills. In this way, job satisfaction levels of employees who are satisfied with their demands will increase and therefore their organizational commitment will increase.

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ANNEXES

THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A STUDY IN MANUFACTURING SECTORS

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire has been prepared to provide data for the doctoral thesis study at the Near East University Social Sciences Department. The aim of this study is to examine the effects of talent management practices on employees' job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Your answers to the questions will be kept confidential and will only be evaluated by the researcher in accordance with scientific ethics.

We would like to thank you in advance for your valuable time and contributions, and wish you success in your work.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:

1. Your gender:

☐ Woman ☐ Man

2. Your Age:

☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 41-45 ☐ 46-50 ☐ 50 and above

3. Your Marital Status

☐ Single ☐ Married

4. Your education:

☐ Primary Education ☐ High School ☐ Associate Degree ☐ Undergraduate ☐ Graduate

5. Your tenure in the institution

☐ 1-5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ 10-15 ☐ 15- above

6. Department where you work in the institution

☐ Production ☐ Accounting ☐ Finance ☐ Marketing ☐ R&D ☐ Human Resources
☐ Hardware / Electronics ☐ Technical Support ☐ Other

7. Your title in the institution

☐ Expert ☐ Manager ☐ Senior manager ☐ Officer ☐ Charge hand ☐ Assistant vice

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

1. How many times did you get in-service training in this institution?

☐ Never ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 and above

2. Which of the following is the content of the in-service trainings you receive is closer to?

☐ Self-improvement
☐ Professional development

3. Do you think that the education you receive is beneficial for your career and skills development?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4. In which areas would you like to receive in-service training?

- Self-improvement

- ☐ Effective communication awareness
- ☐ Effective meeting management
- ☐ Problem solving and decision making
- ☐ Process management
- ☐ Time management

- Professional development

- ☐ Compliance and Adaptation (Orientation Training)
- ☐ Development Training
- ☐ Change of Duty and Completion Training
- ☐ Upgrade Training
- ☐ Special Field Training
- ☐ Rotation Training
- ☐ Coaching (Master-Apprentice) Training
- ☐ Training via Internship
- ☐ Ceding Authority Training
- ☐ Direct Instruction Method
- ☐ Seminar
- ☐ Sensitivity Training (T-Group Training)
- ☐ Role Playing
- ☐ Case study
- ☐ Courses

5. Does the training you receive increase your job satisfaction?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

6. Does the training you receive affect your commitment to the organization?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

TALENT MANAGEMENT APPLICATIONS PERCEPTION SCALE

1. Is there a talent management application in your business?

☐ Yes ☐ No

2. Does the human resources department work directly with employees or managers in talent management practices in your business?

☐ Yes ☐ No

3. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statements below? (Put one sign for each expression.)

4. Does your business adequately prepare its junior or mid-level employees to advance into senior leadership positions?

☐ Yes ☐ No

5. Are your suggestions about your career considered in your business?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Below are statements about talent management practices. Please mark how satisfied you are with the following statements about your business.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1. Aligns employees with the vision and mission of the business.					
2. Creates a large pool of successors for employees of all levels.					
3. Creates a culture that will make employees want to stay in business.					
4. Creates a culture that will make employees want to join the business.					
5. Creates a culture that values the efforts of employees.					
6. Creates a culture where employees strongly believe in their work.					
7. Creates an environment where employees are excited to come to work every day.					
8. Creates an environment where employees' ideas are listened to and valued					
9. It has policies that support career development and promotion opportunities.					
10. Determines the differences in the competence levels of current employees and job applicants.					
11. Determines the vacant positions to be created as the business grows and develops.					
12. Empowers employees to make decisions that affect their work.					

13. Places the right person in the right position					
14. Provides appropriate training to its employees to enable them to do their jobs better.					
15. Adjusts salaries to their employees when they master the important skills required by the job.					
16. Rewards its employees with the highest performance.					

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Below are statements about various aspects of your business. Please mark how satisfied you are with the following statements about your business.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Affective Commitment Scale Items					
1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
3.I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					
4. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.					
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization.					
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
Continuance Commitment Scale Items					
1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.					
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I want to leave my organization now.					
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the organization.					
5. I gave so much from myself to the organization I work for, I can't think of leaving here.					
6. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be scarcity of the alternatives.					
Normative Commitment Scale Items					
1. I do not feel obliged to continue working in this organization.					
2. Although it is advantageous for me, I think it is not right to leave my organization.					
3. I feel guilty if I leave my organization.					
4My organization is an institution that I will show loyalty.					
5. Since I feel obligated to people here, I can not leave my organization.					
6. I owe a lot to the organization I work for .					

ALLEN MEYER ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

On my present job, this is how I feel about.....	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1. Being able to keep busy all the time					
2. The chance to work alone on the job					
3. The chance to do different things from time to time					
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community					
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers					
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions					
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience					
8. The way my job provides for steady employment					
9. The chance to do things for other people					
10. The chance to tell people what to do					
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities					
12. The way company policies are put into practice					
13. My pay and the amount of work I do					
14. The chances for advancement on this job					
15. The freedom to use my own judgment					
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job					
17. The working conditions					
18 The way my co-workers get along with each other					
19. The praise I get for doing a good job					
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job					

PLAGIARISM REPORT

THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: A STUDY IN MANUFACTURING SECTORS Adnan ALPARSLAN

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ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL



SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

27.08.2018

Dear Adnan ALPARSLAN,

YDÜ/SB/2018/204 project numbered project proposal entitled “The Influence of Talent Management on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment: A Study in Manufacturing Sectors” which you submitted to the Scientific Research Ethics Committee has been evaluated by our board and found to be ethically appropriate. With this form, you can start your research by not going outside the information you specify on your application form.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Direnç Kanol

Reporter of SREC

