

THE EFFECT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON WORK
ENGAGEMENT AND THE MEDIATING ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

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BY

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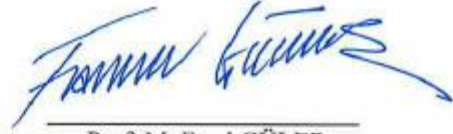
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APPROVAL PAGE

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ABSTRACT

The external environment of organizations has become a state where systematic changes are experienced, seeking better performance and increasing conditions of competitiveness. This external environment requires organizations to acquire new skills for success, develop their communication networks with the internal and external environment, motivate employees both individually and as a group, and develop methods of obtaining and managing organizational information. In this rapidly changing environment, organizations should have a qualified organizational force as well as a strong organizational structure. Organizations that have skilled employees and can manage them effectively can survive in a competitive environment. Businesses that show the right leadership approaches to their employees and keep their psychological safety perceptions high are expected to have highly committed employees. In this study prepared from this point of view, the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement was investigated and the mediating role of psychological safety was evaluated in this relationship. 155 employees working in a multinational company were included in the research. Sociodemographic Information Form, Transformational Leadership Scale, Psychological Safety Scale and Work Engagement Scale were applied to the participants. According to the findings obtained from the research, transformational leadership and psychological safety perception increase work engagement. Transformational leadership has a positive effect on the perception of psychological safety. According to Baron and Kenny (1986) model, the psychological security perception has a partial mediating role in the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Keywords: Transformational leadership, psychological safety, work engagement.

ÖZET

Örgütlerin dış çevresi, daha iyi performans ve artan rekabet koşulları arayan sistematik değişikliklerin yaşandığı bir ortam haline gelmiştir. Bu dış ortam, kuruluşların başarı için yeni beceriler edinmelerini, iç ve dış ortamla iletişim ağlarını geliştirmelerini, çalışanları bireysel ve grup olarak motive etmelerini ve kurumsal bilgi edinme ve yönetme yöntemlerini geliştirmelerini gerektirir. Hızla değişen bu ortamda, örgütler güçlü bir organizasyon yapısının yanı sıra nitelikli bir işgören gücüne sahip olmalıdır. Yetenekli çalışanlara sahip olan ve onları etkin bir şekilde yönetebilen kuruluşlar rekabetçi bir ortamda hayatta kalabilirler. Çalışanlarına doğru liderlik yaklaşımlarını gösteren ve psikolojik güvenlik algılarını yüksek tutan işletmelerin yüksek derecede kararlı çalışanları olması beklenmektedir. Bu açıdan hazırlanan çalışmada, dönüşümcü liderlik ile iş katılımı arasındaki ilişki araştırılmış ve bu ilişkide psikolojik güvenliğin aracı rolü değerlendirilmiştir. Araştırmaya bir elektrik ve otomasyon şirketinde çalışan 155 işgören dahil edilmiştir. Katılımcılara Sosyodemografik Bilgi Formu, Dönüşümcü Liderlik Ölçeği, Psikolojik Güvenlik Ölçeği ve İşe Angaje Olma Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgulara göre dönüşümcü liderlik ve psikolojik güvenlik algısı işe angaje olmayı artırmaktadır. Dönüşümcü liderliğin psikolojik güvenlik algısı üzerinde pozitif etkisi bulunmaktadır. Baron ve Kenny (1986) modeline göre yapılan aracı rol analizlerine göre ise psikolojik güvenlik algısı dönüşümcü liderlik ve işe angaje olma arasındaki ilişkide kısmi aracı role sahiptir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Dönüşümcü liderlik, psikolojik güvenlik, işe angaje olma.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The thoughts of the employees of the organization have been seen as an indispensable source of ideas for the organization in recent years. Today's modern organizations want their employees to be proactive and entrepreneurial, willing to take initiative, willing to take responsibility in their professional development, committed to high quality performance standards, capable of participating in organizational decisions, evaluating possible risks, integrating work and having dedicated character characteristics (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008). In this context, work engagement, which is expressed as an individual's physical, cognitive and emotional self-employment, is one of the main subjects of the researches conducted in recent years (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018).

Work engagement is measured by how much an individual internalizes his/her work, how much he / she gives himself/herself to his/her work and the quality of his/her relationship with his/her colleagues. At this point, it is inevitable that the level of engagement is influenced by both individual and organizational factors (Lisbona, Palaci, Salanova & Frese, 2018). Leadership style is one of the organizational factors that have an impact on engagement (Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011).

The concept of leadership, which has been attracting the attention of managers and researchers for centuries, has become more important due to reasons such as weakening in the recent formal organizational structures, intensification of information-based work, increased project work and increased team spirit, increased competition and customer expectations, and increased crises (Russ-Eft, 1999). After increasing mass production automation after the industrial revolution, businesses have become complex social structures that hold a large number of employees together. Old management practices and models have not been able to solve the problems occurring in these new organizational

structures. In this new organizational structure, leadership has become the key element expected to mobilize employees in order to achieve their goals.

Although there are many leadership approaches in the literature, transformational leadership has been frequently emphasized recently. Yukl (2013) described transformational leadership as a style of leadership in which employees are more informed about the importance and value of the work and are allowed to put aside their interests to achieve the goals of the organization. People who exhibit such leadership qualities develop their employees' skills and self-confidence in order to achieve an effective organizational structure. They support and encourage employees to continue their work and to maintain their enthusiasm when difficulties arise and when they are tired of their activities. When the leader achieves this effect, employees show more than expected in the beginning by trusting and respecting their leaders. As a natural result of this leadership type, employees' work engagement increases (Tims et al., 2011; Ghadi, Fernando & Caputi, 2013; Nzarubara, 2019).

Another important factor affecting employees' work engagement is psychological security (Lyu, 2016). Psychological safety is defined as the sense of trust that employees have that they will not be embarrassed, rejected and punished for speaking up (Edmondson, 1999). This emotion develops over time through communication and affects the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Igen, Hollenbeck, Johnson & Jundt, 2005). Edmondson (1999) defined psychological safety as the common belief that employees can take interpersonal risks. These risks include behaviors such as giving feedback, asking questions, reporting errors, or suggesting a new idea.

Psychological safety is a key factor in ensuring learning, organizational change, and employee participation. It can lead to creativity, learning, higher job satisfaction and better

business results. Psychological safety strengthens work engagement through learning behaviors, information sharing, citizenship behaviors and creativity. In addition, it positively affects organizational results such as performance, learning, participation, knowledge sharing, satisfaction and commitment (Duhigg, 2016).

1.1. Purpose of the Study

In this research, it is aimed to determine the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement and to reveal the mediating role of psychological safety in this effect. However, in the research, differentiation of transformational leadership, psychological safety and work engagement according to groups which are formed according to sociodemographic characteristics (gender, age, education level, marital status, year of experience in the market and year of experience in the company) is another objective of the research.

1.2. Importance of the Study

Employees with high work engagement are the driving force of the new economy we are in. The high work engagement is generally closely related to the fact that managers exhibit the correct leadership styles and the high perception of the employees' psychological safety. Research in the literature often reveals results that transformational leadership increases work engagement. Although, in a limited number of studies, it has been revealed that the perception of psychological safety increases work engagement. However, in the studies conducted, the mediating role of psychological safety in the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement has not been examined. At this point, it is thought that the gap in the literature will be filled with the findings of the research. On the other hand, along with the suggestions to be made within

the framework of the outputs obtained from the research, the policies that should be produced in order to have employees with high work engagement will be introduced and as a result, contribution will be made in the field of human resources.



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Leadership Concept and Leadership Approaches

The concept of leadership has long been a subject of interest among people. When the leader is mentioned, the image of a commander who usually manages the victorious armies, a boss who manages the company from the work office at the top of the shining skyscraper, or a manager who directs the nations comes to mind. At the core of many legends or stories lies the heroism of the brave and intelligent leader. In addition, the majority of our understanding of history is full of military, political, religious or social leaders performing important historical events, although we do not fully understand how they affect the development of events (Yukl, 2013, p.1). Historically, titles such as the king, the president, the commander, the governor, the prince or the chief of the tribe were used to distinguish rulers from other individuals in society. However, the word leadership refers to a more modern and complex concept. Instead of management based on inheritance or forced takeover, leadership was first seen in countries with Anglo-Saxon culture. The development of the word leadership in the present sense is based on the industrial revolution. The enterprises that existed before the industrial revolution were managed on a small scale by their owners and the relations were personal. After the industrial revolution, business scales have grown and as a result of this, increasing management, uncertainty and deteriorating order have led to management and leadership in enterprises (Bass, 1990, p.69-70).

Leadership is the ability to lead a group to defined goals or vision. The power used to achieve this may be the legal force that derives from being in the executive position. However, not every leader is a manager, nor is every manager a leader. Granting a team of

legal powers and rights does not mean that he or she will be the leader. Leadership is also the ability to influence the group and guide its followers as important than this official authority (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p.368).

Storey (2004) pointed out that leadership is one of the most talked about issues in the business and management world recently, and that when you open a newspaper or television or attend a conference, it is possible to encounter numerous definitions of leadership. In a research conducted in September 2003, it was observed that Amazon.com had 11,686 results only in terms of leadership (Bolden, 2004, p.3). There are many ways to finish the sentence starting with leadership. In fact, as Stogdill (1974, p.7) states in his review of the definitions of leadership, the more people trying to define leadership, the more there are leadership definitions (Northouse, 2016, p.2).

In terms of the definition of leadership, some definitions of leadership in foreign and domestic literature in the historical process are as follows (Erturk, 2009):

Table 2. 1

Definitions of Leadership

Leadership is the focus of collective movements (Cooley, 1902)	Leadership is the act of influencing people to voluntarily accomplish collective goals (Terry, 1960).
Leadership is to demonstrate the power of the whole group in their own efforts (Blackmar, 1911).	Leadership is the power to make decisions using authority (Dubin, 1968).
Leadership is the ability to impose a special meaning on the collaboration of the group (Chapin, 1924).	Leadership, mutual behavior and consensus to mobilize the structure and to continue this movement (Stogdill, 1974)
Leadership is to realize the wishes and needs of the audience and to direct their energies to meet these demands and needs (Bernard, 1927).	Leadership is influencing and directing views, actions and trends (Bennis and Nanus, 1985).
Leadership is to demonstrate that it has many of the personality traits admired (Killbourne, 1935).	Leadership is the ability to influence people by displaying active, important and integrated behaviors such as expertise and empathy in order to achieve a specific purpose (Pagonis, 1992).
Leadership is to achieve and maintain moral unity by inspiring all members to achieve their goals (Phillips, 1939).	Leadership is to manage rational and well thought out actions that create the organization such as culture, strategy, basic identities, goals and critical processes, to create the future and to form a team (Sullivan and Harper, 1996).
Leadership is the relationship between individuals (group) gathered around a common goal and an individual (leader) who determines their behavior (Tosun, 1987).	Leadership is the sum of the knowledge and abilities of gathering a group of people around certain goals and mobilizing them to achieve these goals (Eren, 2001).
Leadership is the process by which a person influences and directs the activities of others in order to achieve certain individual or group goals under certain circumstances (Koçel, 1999).	In general, leadership can be defined as the way that one influences and directs the activities of others in order to achieve the objectives (Ertürk, 2009).

Based on all these definitions, leadership is the process of inspiring, activating and directing the human community that has come together under certain conditions for specific purposes by inspiring them to achieve these goals.

2.1.1. Leadership Approaches.

It is normal that there are many theories and approaches to leadership in which researchers from different perspectives and disciplines attempt to define. Many studies on leadership have been made and the existing concepts have been tried to be defined and

explained again from the beginning (Tengilimoğlu, 2005a, p.2). The first serious studies on the subject of leadership were made in the 20th century. It was made at the beginning of 1927 and the issue gained more importance after 1927. During World War II there has been a considerable increase in the number of researches on the subject. However, most of the studies conducted in accordance with the current conjuncture are related to military leadership. The work carried out by Kurt Lewin and his colleagues has created a different perspective for a better understanding of leadership. While the effect of the group on individuals was generally the subject of research in the studies conducted before 1930, the effect of the individual on the group was started to be examined in the studies conducted after this date and generally of American origin (Güney, 2015, p.369).

Although the subject of leadership has always got attention and it is known that it has an effect on the organization and individuals, it is not possible to come across academic studies on leadership until the 20th century. As a result of the examination of the first studies, it was found that the personal characteristics of the people considered as leaders were emphasized. However, only to conduct research in this field and to evaluate leadership from this point of view only has not been effective in revealing consistent and generally valid results (Özkalp & Kirel, 2001, p.351).

2.1.1.1. Characteristics Approach.

The Characteristics Approach, which emerged as the first of the leadership approaches and has a history of nearly a century, is accepted as the starting point of the theories and approaches that emerged later. The Big Man theory, which helped to bring about this theory, investigated the characteristics of the names such as Napoleon and Gandhi, who were considered as the great leaders of their times, and many studies have been done on this subject. As a result, it is united around the idea that one does not gain

leadership afterwards, has some innate characteristics and plays a role in carrying these characteristics that make him different (Hogg & Vaughan, 2006, p.5).

Until the first half of the twentieth century, when choosing and promoting individuals for leadership positions, there was a certain and distinguishable thought of the characteristics that these individuals should possess. Very influenced by the Big Man theory, which focuses particularly on male individuals, the people chosen for this position are born leaders and these qualities will perfect them over time. In a comprehensive review of all these studies in the literature by Stogdill (1974), several more common features were identified. Although the list has grown to date, it has been widely accepted, except for some weak exceptions that such distinctive features can no longer be added (Bolden, 2004, p.9).

2.1.1.2. Behavioral Leadership Approach.

Behavioral approach started in the 1950s with studies aimed at determining exactly what managers were doing during the work when the researchers dealing with the characteristics approach could not achieve the desired result. Behavioral approach studies are divided into 2 main sub-categories. The first category explores how managers spend their time during management work and their activities, responsibilities and managerial functions. A number of studies also investigate how managers deal with demands, challenges, and disagreements. Many research descriptive methods are used in this research style. These are information gathering tools, observations, job description surveys, diaries and anecdotes. The other sub-category is aimed at defining effective leadership behaviors. The research method used for this purpose is field research questionnaires that describe leadership behaviors. In the last 50 years, a lot of research has been done and

effective leadership behavior and has tried to find out what the factors that provide it (Yukl, 2013, p.50).

Researchers who investigate the behavioral approach found that leadership consists of two general types of behavior: task and relationship behaviors. Task behaviors help group members achieve the goal and contribute to achieving the intended success. Relationship behaviors make the followers feel comfortable in their relationships with themselves, each other and the situation they are in. The aim of the behavioral approach is to determine how the leader can influence these followers by combining these two types of behaviors in achieving the specified goal (Northouse, 2016, p.71). In the 1950s, due to the unsuccessful results of the theory of characteristics in leadership, the behavioral approach based on addressing the behaviors that the leader or effective leader exhibited rather than personal traits came to the fore. In this approach, the behavior of the leader is considered as more important than the leader. In contrast to the characteristics approach, effective leaders have tried to determine which behaviors differ from the ineffective leader in matters such as distribution of tasks, communication with subordinates and motivating subordinates (Macit, 2003, p.91).

2.1.1.2.1. Ohio State University Studies.

The study was first carried out at Ohio State University in the USA in 1945 and is known by this name. Carrol Shartle and her team from the university chose the method of analyzing leadership according to the way they behave when managing groups or individuals, not personality traits, as in trait theory. For this method, another questionnaire of 150 questions was prepared based on a questionnaire consisting of more than 1800 items and prepared to explain different leader behaviors, and it was named as Leader Behavior Determination Scale. Afterwards, this scale was distributed to many people in the field of

education, military and industry and the results were analyzed. As a result, it has emerged that the behavior of leaders shows similarity (Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio & Eagly, 2017).

As a result of these studies, the behaviors of the leader are discussed in two dimensions. The first one is the activation of the structure and the other is the understanding. Activation of the structure is explained as the dimension that the leader concentrates on the work and is looked at from this window. On the other hand, he understanding deals with how the leader communicates with his or her followers and how sensitive he is to his thoughts and views. These two dimensions determined according to Ohio studies can move independently of each other (Ergeneli, 2006, p.219).

2.1.1.2.2. Michigan University Leadership Studies.

A second core study conducted almost simultaneously with Ohio State University studies and contributing to the development of behavioral approach is the University of Michigan Leadership Studies. The aim of these studies is to increase the satisfaction level of the employees for the job, to improve the job performance and consequently to increase the productivity. In doing so, it is the instruments used to reduce staff turnover speed, reduce absenteeism and costs (Koçel, 2010, p.579). With Michigan studies, researchers have tried to uncover leadership behaviors and structure to classify these behaviors. Their work is usually based on practice. However, in the theories he put forward, he has been criticized for simplifying the concepts and also applying generalizations (Zel, 2001, p.105).

2.1.1.2.3. Blake ve Mouton Management Style Matrix.

Influenced by the Ohio and Michigan studies, R.Blake and S.Mouton first revealed the work they called the Leadership Grid in 1964 and later revised. In this model, it is determined that the leaders make efforts in two dimensions; the interest in production on

the X axis and the interest in the individual on the Y axis (Northouse, 2016, p.74). This model is generally used in organizational development and training programs designed accordingly (Koçel, 2010, p. 580). Blake and Mouton developed a scoring system between 1 and 9 for each of the axes in their study at the University of Texas. The leadership grid basically expresses five main leadership styles. These are weak leadership (1.1), city club leadership (1.9), middle road leadership (5.5), authority-compliance leadership (9.1) and team leadership (9.9) (Northouse, 2016, p.75).

2.1.1.2.4. McGregor's Theory of X and Y.

According to the theory put forward by Douglas McGregor in 1957, the most important factor determining the behavior of the leader is his assumptions about human behavior. In other words, the leader's judgments and beliefs about human behavior directly affect the behavior of his followers (Zel, 2001, p.108). A psychologist, McGregor made two opposite assumptions: X and Y. McGregor first collected his thoughts on the human structure of classical management thought in X theory and then criticized this theory and put forward Y theory.

X theory assumptions: The average person doesn't like working and runs away as long as he can. In essence, the majority of people are lazy and avoid responsibility as much as possible. Instead, he prefers other assurance that does not disturb him and gives him peace of mind. For this reason, people who are not in the nature of working should be forced to work, closely followed, controlled and even punished. Since the average person thinks of himself, he is not interested in organizational purposes.

Y theory assumptions: For the person, working is as normal as having fun and resting. This experience makes the person who is not lazy in essence. There is no need to

be forced or punished to achieve organizational goals. The person already works in this direction to achieve this. The person does not refrain from taking responsibility when appropriate conditions are met. The task of the leader here is to create a suitable organizational climate for the employees and to ensure that they develop themselves and work for the development of organizational goals (Koçel, 2010, p.581). The studies conducted by McGregor revealed the importance of the concept of human relations in management and later this research has provided attention to this issue (Eren, 2007, p.27).

2.1.1.2.5. Likert System 1- System 4 Model.

Following the Michigan studies, Renesis Likert conducted a research at the American insurance company and created a leadership model consisting of 4 styles. According to the model put forward by Likert in 1961, these styles are System-1: abusive autocratic, System-2: benevolent autocratic, System-3: Participant, System-4: Democratic leadership styles (Bakan and Bulut, 2004, p.158).

When all the systems that Likert put forward are considered, it is seen that the most accepted approach is System - 4 Democratic Leader. In this understanding, the leader cares and trusts his subordinates and their ideas. Communication is powerful and versatile. Solutions to problems are sought together (Tajedin, Moradi & Alitabrizi, 2017).

2.1.1.3. Contingency Leadership Approach.

The dominant approach to the concept of leadership after the mid-20th century is the contingency approach. Accordingly, leadership has changed from a concrete model to an abstract structure. The contingency approach assumes the existence of leadership that develops with developing situations rather than a valid leadership style in every situation and condition (Naktiyok, 2006, p.23).

While behavioral theories put forward different leadership theories, they did not give much clue as to what might affect the formation of leadership behaviors that could be effective in different situations. As a result, even today, most of the employees on the subject think that not every leadership style will be effective. Instead, the current situation, the audience, the task to be achieved, the organizational structure and other factors such as environmental variables have been found to affect the leadership (Bolden, 2004, p.10).

2.1.1.3.1. Fred Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Model.

This model, the first theory of the contingency approach, was introduced by Fred Fiedler in 1967. Fiedler developed the scale of the least preferred co-worker (LPC) for the leader's effectiveness and how the situation changed (Yukl, 2013, p.166). Fiedler developed the scale of least preferred co-worker (LPC) on how the effectiveness of the leader changed the situation and developed the model according to the results (Yukl, 2013, p.166).

When the results of the scale were examined, two types of leadership styles emerged. These are task-oriented and behavior-oriented leadership. Fiedler asserts that there is no best way to lead, and distinguishes task and behavior-oriented leadership as follows (Bolden, 2004, p. 10):

- **Task Orientation:** This understanding gives more importance to the task structure, the position of being strong or weak, rather than a good leader-follower relationship. His relationship with his subordinates is only to ask them to fulfill their duties. It is the type in which the least preferred person is negatively defined in the scale evaluation.

- **Behavior Orientation:** Contrary to task orientation, the least preferred person in the scale was defined as positive. The leader establishes strong and positive emotional ties with the audience. In other cases, it is a leadership style that gives better results and is more participatory.

According to this model, which comes to mind first in the contingency approach, there are three main situational factors that affect the effectiveness of the leader's behavior (Koçel, 2010, p.585). These are; 1. Relations between the leader and the audience. 2. The nature of the work to be accomplished. 3. The degree of authority of the leader based on the position.

2.1.1.3.2. Path-Purpose Theory.

Path-goal theory was introduced by Evans in 1970, House in 1971, and then redefined by House and Dessler in 1974, and House and Mitchell in 1974. This theory is designed to determine how the leader will affect his subordinates' performance and job satisfaction in achieving his goals. According to House, the leader's motivating function for his subordinates is to determine the goal to be achieved, to show the path to this goal, to eliminate the obstacles that may be encountered in this path and finally to personally support and motivate them (Yukl, 2013, p.164).

The most important factor in effectively achieving the goals set in an organization is the leader. However, the leader who succeeds is motivated towards goals, working in the most efficient way and satisfying subordinates. In other theories and models, the characteristics of the leader or his / her behaviors towards the employee / work are examined. In this theory, the motivation of the subordinates for a successful organizational structure and an effective performance is discussed (Erçetin, 2000, p.45).

2.1.1.3.3. Decision Making Model of Vroom and Yetton.

Developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton of Yale University and later reworked and revised by Vroom and Arthur Jago, this model seeks to find that momentary model of leadership appropriate to an existing situation, just like in the Path-Purpose theory. According to this model, subordinates are encouraged to ensure the participation of employees in the decisions to be taken under certain conditions and the level of participation will be determined as a result. Decision tree is used in this model in which the leader person increases the effectiveness of the subordinates in solving problems. The decision maker uses the available options until he reaches the appropriate result and determines the path to follow (Şimşek, Akgemci & Çelik, 2008, p.266).

Vroom and Yetton stated that there were 5 kinds of decision rules including subordinates. Two autocratic, two counselors and one group-oriented decision-making process is explained as follows (Yukl, 2013, p.140);

- **AI (Autocratic):** The leader makes the decision himself with the information available.

- **AII (Autocratic):** The leader collects information from his subordinates about the solution of the problem, then makes the decision himself. He may not inform his subordinates about the problem. The role of subordinates is to provide the leader with the necessary information, rather than specifying or evaluating solutions.

- **CI (Consultant):** Leader shares the problem with subordinates individually. Rather than being a group, they get their ideas as one. Whether or not the leader is influenced by subordinates' ideas, he or she ultimately makes the decision.

-CII (Consultant): The current problem is transmitted by the leader to his subordinates as a group. Subordinates collectively collect ideas about the solution of the problem. The decision is made by the leader without being affected by the decisions of the subordinates.

- GII (Collaborative): The leader shares the problem with his subordinates as a group. They come together and evaluate alternatives and try to reach a consensus. The role of the leader is more like a president. It does not affect the ideas of subordinates, does not share the thoughts of their choice. The group's consensus is then considered a joint decision.

2.1.1.3.4. Hersey and Blanchard Contingency Leadership Model.

In 1977, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard's Ohio State University studies and Blake and Mounon's research on developing the Management Style Matrix emerged as a situational leadership model (Zel, 2001, p.102).

This study which deals with the maturity level of subordinates and other situational variables is also known as Life Cycle Approach. According to this, the required level of knowledge, ability, self-confidence and desire to work are given as the maturity level of subordinates. These qualities are treated differently by leaders than subordinates at lower levels. In other words, the employee whose maturity level is relatively low will face administrative behaviors related to the performance of the task by the leader, whereas those whose higher maturity level will see more relationship based behaviors. The more fair the leader uses this balance of behavior between subordinates, the more efficient it will be (Eren, 2007, p.453).

2.1.1.4. Modern Leadership Approaches.

In the 1980s, researchers in the field of management became more interested in the emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership. These aspects have shown how the leaders see the requirements of the organization and the task above their own material interests by affecting their subordinates and make sacrifices (Yukl, 2013, p.262). Due to factors such as the decrease in the available limited resources, the increasing number of people and the rapidly growing competition market, organizations have sought different methods in order to sustain their lives and protect their share in the market. In addition to educating, developing and using them in the organization in the most efficient manner, it has been shown that a leader with superior qualities is vital for the organization. Considering this view, modern approaches have been created in an original way (Tabak, Şeşen & Türköz, 2012, p.92).

2.1.1.4.1. Charismatic Leadership.

Today's Charismatic Leadership theories are inspired by Max WEBER's ideas. Charisma is a word of Greek origin, which means divine inspiration, such as performing miracles or anticipating future events. Weber (1947) used charisma to explain the effect of the perception that the leader possesses a number of extraordinary characteristics, rather than adherence to tradition or official authority. During a crisis, the leader brings a solution to the crisis and finds a radical solution that attracts followers who believe in it. The fact that the vision put forward by the leader is accessible also leads to the perception of the leader as extraordinary (Yukl, 2013, p.263).

The concept of charismatic leadership has been the subject of many social sciences, from sociology to management science, from psychology to human resources. Just as in

the concept of leadership, it is not possible to define a charismatic leadership that everyone agrees on, as it is studied by many fields. In the literature, charismatic leadership emerges in terms of visionary, inspirational. Charismatic leaders turn their subordinates' values, needs and desires into collective life rather than individuality. For this reason, the subordinates, heartfully attached to the goal set by the leader. Subordinates have great confidence in their leaders, adopt common values, and increase their motivation for work. In other words, charismatic leadership is the leadership style that inspires and therefore gives confidence to the subordinates, directs them to the purpose, enables them to see and motivate the important things for the subordinates (Oktay and Gül, 2003, p.405).

2.1.1.4.2. Visionary Leadership.

The concept of vision used in leadership studies for the first time in the 1990s has meanings such as foresight, imagination, vision and intuition (Koçel, 2010, p.605). Visionary leadership, which is one of the modern leadership theories, is to create a logical, reliable and attractive vision of the future for some or all of the organization and to explain this to the followers clearly. If a vision selection that is appropriate to the interests and abilities of the followers is made possible, the followers will use all available resources to achieve this. So the visionary leader is the leader who creates the vision that can be fulfilled and can explain this to his followers in a comprehensible way. In order to fulfill the vision, the leader should be able to determine all activities in detail from the use of the necessary resources to the paths to be followed and communicate this to his followers through effective communication ways. In addition, in order to continue to fulfill the vision determined under changing conditions, it should be well acquainted with its organization and activities and set a priority order for this purpose. The visionary leader not only explains his vision, but also exhibits his own attitude and behavior in this direction (Tekin

and Ehtiyar, 2011, p.4008-4010). There are 3 main features of visionary leaders. These are (İşcan, 2002, p.82);

1. Ability to Explain Vision to its Followers: Providing a clear, understandable and common language to the followers through the effective communication channels will have an important function both in the realization of the vision and the cooperation between the leader and the followers.

2. Reflecting the Vision on Behavior: It is not enough for the leader to express this vision only through written or verbal communication channels. Unfulfilled thoughts may fail. Therefore, the leader should be oriented towards the realization of his vision in his attitude and behavior.

3. Adapting the Vision to Different Situations and Conditions: The vision put forward by the leader may not mean the same thing to all sub-units or employees in the organization. For this, the leader must have the ability to adapt the vision in a way that each unit or employee can understand. So he should be able to speak to everyone in the language he understands

2.1.1.4.3. Transactional Leadership.

According to Bass, who states that the classification and description studies made in the name of leadership are ineffective in answering the existing problems, the transactional leader is the person who informs his followers clearly about what he expects from them and gives the reward he will receive if they fulfill the requirements (Bass, 1985, p.12). Transactional leadership motivates employees by addressing the interests of the followers and their benefits. In the case of a political leader, transactional leadership is in exchange for voting and winning the election; offering employment, tax reductions,

profitable agreements and legal arrangements in the desired direction. For organizational leaders, transactional leadership means wage increases and other opportunities for subordinates in the effort of work. Other opportunities can be values such as processes of change, justice, equality and responsibility (Yukl, 2013, p.321).

Transactional leaders use their personal talents and interests to enhance the performance of their subordinates. If they succeed at the desired level, their subordinates are rewarded with financial means such as wages and spiritual means such as status and prestige. In doing so, they prefer to move towards the future without changing organizational policies, routine functioning and procedures from the past (Ceylan et al., 2005, p.34).

In the literature, conditional rewarding, management with active exceptions, management with passive exceptions, and finally liberating leadership are identified as the sub-dimensions of transactional leadership.

Conditional Rewarding: Employees have the opinion that if the goals are achieved as a result of their performance, they will receive some rewards. The leader rewards the subordinates financially or socially according to their efforts. Bass states that in this leadership style, the leader and the employee sign a mutual agreement, which creates separate responsibilities for both parties. While the employees have to perform in the desired quality and direction, the leaders have to satisfy the needs and expectations of the employees as a result of these efforts. The leader has to present the necessary tools and equipment to his subordinates in order to reach the determined organizational objective (Yavuz and Tokmak, 2009, p.19).

Management with Active Exceptions: It is the management principle in which the leader avoids interfering with the activities of subordinates when the desired goals are achieved and not allowing them to continue their business with the methods they are used to. It is divided into active and passive. In this leadership, the leader in the management follows the activities of subordinates and calculates in advance the problems that may occur in the procedures in the current operation, and intervenes in the problem in case of problems and helps to solve the problem (Berber, 2000, p.40).

Management with Passive Exceptions: The leader does not take any precautionary measures regarding the problem. It intervenes only when the specified targets are not achieved and deviations occur. There is no intervention by the leader during the functioning of the activities (Berber, 2000, p.40). The leader, who does not intervene for a solution until the problems become chronic, applies the rule of “don’t repair-touch if it’s not broken” very seriously (Karip, 1998, p.449).

Laissez- Faire Leadership: This leadership is a sub-dimension of transactional leadership. In Laissez-Faire leadership, the leader avoids power and the existing responsibility. Instead of using their powers to achieve their goals, they use the efforts of employees. A leader who adopts this style is a leader who frees his subordinates, uses his or her management authority to a minimum and enables the subordinates to realize their aims and opportunities. However, the management authority is not used and left to subordinates can lead to intra-group conflicts in case of disagreement (Tengilimoğlu, 2005 a, p.8).

2.1.2. Transformational Leadership.

Rapidly developing technology, changing environmental factors, increasing levels of knowledge and experience at the same rate as increasing opportunities, differences in economic, cultural, social and many other areas have led to change in the field of leadership as well as in every field. The understanding put forward for all these reasons is “transformational leadership” (Eraslan, 2004, p.2).

In recent years, the idea of the leaders in the field of leadership for organizations in general is to implement a leadership model that inspires employees and enables them to make innovative changes. The transformational leadership approach is based on the idea that the leader puts forward some different practices in addition to routine activities in organizations. It is difficult to foresee certain behavioral patterns in which the leader will behave in which situation. Especially with developing technology and rapidly increasing globalization, organizations need to put forward a new vision in the struggle against the outside world filled with risks and difficulties in order to survive. The transformational leadership, which is concerned with whether the leader succeeds or not, rather than the personal characteristics of the leader or the behaviors of the followers towards the leader, needs the leader who accomplishes all of these (İşcan, 2002, p.94).

Since the early 1980s, transformational leadership has been one of the most popular topics studied in leadership approaches. Transformational leadership is an element of the new leadership paradigm that draws more attention to the charisma and emotional dimension of leadership. According to a study by Lowe and Gardner in 2001, one third of the studies in the field of leadership and published in the *Leadership Quarterly* magazine concerned transformational or charismatic leadership. Likewise, according to another study by Cavazotte et al. (2013), transformational leadership gained acceleration not only in the

field of traditional management and social psychology but also in studies and quotations in nursing, education and industrial engineering (Northouse, 2016, p.161).

In 1973, the transformational leadership, first used by Dawston in his *Rebellion Leadership*, was first described as a concept by James MacGregor Burns in 1978. According to Burns, the leader is the one who positively affects his followers' morale, motivation and performance. In addition to this quality, the transformational leader is the only person who will lead the way in designing the future of the organization and creating different fields within the organization with its innovation and creativity capabilities. The leader has a unique influence on the adoption and implementation of the vision he puts forward for the organization to all elements. Transformational leaders not only affect the environment they are in, but also create a new environment (Eraslan, 2004, p.4).

According to Bass (1990, p.21), transformational leadership or superior leadership performance is a style of leadership that improves the interests of followers, enables the adoption of the goals and mission of the organization by the followers, leaving aside their interests for the good and interests of the organization. Transformational leaders achieve these results in one or more ways. They can influence and inspire their followers with their charisma, meet the emotional needs of each follower, and mobilize their followers intellectually. Yukl described transformational leadership as a style of leadership in which employees are more informed about the importance and value of the work and are allowed to put aside their interests to achieve the goals of the organization. People who exhibit such leadership qualities develop their employees' skills and self-confidence in order to achieve an effective organizational structure. They support and encourage employees to continue their work and to maintain their enthusiasm when difficulties arise and when they are tired

of their activities. When the leader achieves this effect, employees show more than expected in the beginning by trusting and respecting their leaders (Yukl, 2013, p.323).

There is no common definition of transformational leadership. However, transformational leadership has been a frequently studied concept in the last two decades. The reason for this is that transformational leadership is successful in implementing organizations and innovations are implemented by transformational leaders. As a matter of fact, transformational leadership is a leadership style that includes courage, endurance and innovation which is necessary for ensuring the existence and sustainability of organizations in today's competitive environment filled with variables (Tengilimoğlu, 2005a, p.6). Burns (1978) described transformational leadership as a process in which leaders and followers raised each other to higher levels of morality and motivation. The main factor in this transformation process is the ability to meet the needs with a person-centered approach. Burns first stated that focusing on needs made the leader accountable to his followers, and followers were guided by moral needs, such as a higher moral stance on one issue, and being the best in an event. A higher organizational task spirit will increase employee motivation. The second thing that motivates followers is the paradoxical path to inconsistencies and conflict. The transformational leader should help his followers make sense of inconsistencies and conflicts. Conflicts are necessary to increase creativity and reveal new alternatives (Crawford et al., 2003, p.58).

Transformational leaders are the leaders who develop and improve their existing abilities by expanding and increasing the goals of their followers, increasing their self-confidence and ultimately creating values that go beyond the performance expected from them (Sosik et al., 2004, p.245). Transformational leaders lead the reorganization of the values and norms of their organizations and, if necessary, lead both internal and external

transformation (Avolio et al., 1991, p.9). Transformational leaders tend to be more effective in leading change. Because with the change to follow, they take their followers to the point they want to be in the future (Benjamin and Flynn, 2006, p.218). Unlike transactional leadership, transformational leadership is a form of leadership in which the morale and motivation of both the leader and the followers increases as a result of a person's communication with others. Transformational leaders help their followers to maximize their potential by meeting their needs and motivation. Burns refers to Mahatma Gandhi as an example of a classical transformational leader. Gandhi increased the hope of millions of his own people and changed himself in the developing process (Northouse, 2016, p.162).

2.1.2.1. Transformational Leadership Studies.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) have tried to find common strategies of leaders who exhibit transformational leadership characteristics. In a survey of 90 leaders, they sought answers to their strengths and weaknesses, the most important event affecting their leadership approach, the critical turning point in their careers, and found four common characteristics in leaders who exhibited transformational leadership. The first of these sets a convincing, attractive, realistic and clear vision of the future situation of transformational leaders' organizations. In this way, followers are empowered by believing in the vision and working more effectively. The second common feature is that transformational leaders are social architects of their organizations. Transformational leaders play an active role in the formation and establishment of values and norms adopted and respected by the organization. Thirdly, transformational leaders represent trust in the organization. Transformational leaders determine their own positions and stand consistently in these positions. Being predictable and reliable, even in uncertain situations that may occur, gives

the whole organization a healthy identity. Finally, transformational leaders know their strengths and weaknesses and use their self-esteem in creativity, making it easier to achieve goals by using their strengths instead of complaining of weaknesses. Thus, self-confidence and self-esteem of followers develop. Furthermore, since transformational leaders are open to learning, they create opportunities for continuous training activities in the organization (Northouse, 2016, p.173).

In their study, Tichy and Devanna (1986) described leadership as a three-screened theater performance. Accordingly, the first act is that the leader determines the need for revival. The second act is the idea of making a new dream and the last act is institutional change. With the model they put forward, researchers considered transformational leadership from the point of view of change, innovation and management and contributed to transformational and charismatic leadership literature (Erturgut, 2000, p.50).

Kouzes and Posner (1987, 2002) are among the researchers working on transformational leadership. Through their work, they asked more than 1300 middle and senior public / private sector leaders for their best personal experience of leadership, and as a result of their response they formed a leadership model. They listed the 5 things that leaders should do to achieve extraordinary things. These are to identify the model, to create a vision shared by everyone, to challenge the process, to encourage others to take action and to reward success. Researchers have stated that their models are valid for everyone and for an effective leadership, practice is necessary, not special abilities (Northouse, 2016, p.175).

Since the emergence of transformational leadership, the idea that researchers unite around is a leadership model in which the development of the followers is followed by increasing the motivation of the followers, being leader-centered. However, according to

researchers who have been working on the subject in recent years, followers are an undiscovered focal point in such leadership studies. New studies for this purpose (Gardner and Avolio, 1998; Hetland et al., 2008; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Braun et al., 2013) emphasized the importance of followers in an effective transformational leadership process and discussed the subject from a follower-oriented perspective (Aydoğmuş et al., 2018, p.82). According to Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, transformational leadership is to motivate its followers by using personality, interest and charismatic features and to direct them to the purpose in maximum level (Erçetin, 2000, p.60).

2.1.2.2. Characteristics of Transformational Leadership.

With the Multidimensional Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio, various interviews were conducted with senior executives of some large-scale enterprises. As a result of these interviews, it has been determined that highly effective transformational leaders have the following common characteristics (Berber, 2000, p.36):

Courage is one of the characteristics of transformational leadership. Changing order and making innovation in organizations may not be sincerely accepted by everyone and may produce undesirable consequences. The transformational leader, who can take all these risks and make the change, is brave. The leader, who will exhibit transformational leadership in an organization in which innovation and transformation takes place, must have a more original and creative thinking than his followers in the organization to which he is affiliated. To achieve this, the leader must be constantly open to personal development, learning and self-realization. In organizations, the person who performs transformation and change is the transformational leader. For this reason, it is usual for the leader, who sees himself as an element of change and transformation in the organization, to operate in every field from the behaviors exhibited by the followers to the structure of the

organization, the relations between the units and the relations with the external environment.

Such leaders should be able to see the whole picture rather than cross-sections. The transformational leaders, who analyze the whole organization, the functioning and relations of the units within the organization, ensure that the disruptive parts are brought to the whole. They also show close follow-up and attention to their employees and help them to adapt to the environment and the aims of the organization. All this shows that the transformational leader has a high level of conceptual ability. Transformational leaders believe in their followers and create a climate that suits their own values, where they can express themselves in their relationships and assimilate their environment. Creating value, paying attention to existing values and setting vision with all these are other characteristics of transformational leaders. Transformational leaders do not give up with their combative structure and act solution-oriented in uncertain and complex environments, where others are reluctant to make decisions and implement them.

2.1.2.3. Dimensions of Transformational Leadership.

In organizations, transformational leaders provide intellectual stimulation and motivation to inspire their followers and help to create a common energy. They create the awareness of adopting the mission and vision in order to increase the interest of everyone in the group towards common goals. In this way, employees prioritize the goals of the organization by putting aside their personal interests. The transformational leader realizes his followers' current need, tendency or potential desire to use them to motivate them and mobilizes them. Rather than the realization of routine tasks, the leader exhibits specific behaviors such as idealized effect, motivation with suggestion, intellectual encouragement and individualized thought (Karip, 1998, p.446). Bass (1985, p.219) in his first article

stated that transformational leadership consists of 3 sub-dimensions. However, as a result of his work with Bass and Avolio (1994), he divided the transformational leadership into 4 sub-dimensions. These are idealized effect (behavioral and attributed), inspirational motivation, intellectual encouragement and individualized thinking. Then they added charisma to the idealized effect (Macit, 2003, p.93).

2.1.2.3.1. Idealized Effect – Charisma.

Weber defined the concept of charisma as a characteristic that distinguishes the individual from other ordinary people and makes it perceived as having supernatural, superhuman or perhaps at least some special qualities. Although ordinary people cannot reach them, the person is accepted as the leader by these traits which are considered divine, sacred or exemplary (Weber, 2013, p.90). The concept of charisma with a history based on ancient Greek civilizations is used in the sense of divine inspiration ability. With the expression of charisma, the person carrying this feature is loaded with the meanings of the person who can easily convince and gain their trust and who has superior persuasion skills. Bass expressed charisma as a process of respect and trust by creating a sense of vision and mission among followers (Eraslan, 2004, p.16).

The idealized effect is the dimension that forms the basis of transformational leadership. It is often used in the same sense as the concept of charisma. It is expressed as an idealized effect that the transformational leader abandons his or her interests and creates a vision and mission awareness. If the leader can exhibit this behavior, he first gains the trust and respect of his followers. This increases their beliefs and confidence in the leader. It affects his followers with the qualities and behaviors he has in mind, and this effect makes it idealized by the followers (Güney, 2015, p.414). The idealized effect is defined by leadership behavior that provides a certain vision and mission, resulting in charismatic

leadership studies that have unusual leadership characteristics, often in large-scale crisis environments. Charismatic leaders create excitement in their followers and inspire them. They show determination in achieving organizational goals as a positive model for their followers' roles. They share success and leadership by throwing their own interests in the second plan for their followers to be successful (Celep, 2004, p.75).

The idealized effect dimension is considered in two sub-dimensions as active idealized effect / attributed and passive idealized effect / behavior. The idealized effect as a behavior consists of behaviors such as the leader expressing important values and beliefs for himself, mentioning the importance of having a purpose, attaching importance to the moral results of the decisions taken or having a sense of common mission (Karip, 1998, p.447). The idealized effect attributed to the leader is the whole of behaviors such as gaining the respect and trust of the subordinates, creating the impression of a strong leader in his subordinates who can struggle with all kinds of difficulties, making them proud of working for their leaders and not considering their own interests, considering the group's wishes and needs (Güney; 2015, p.415). The idealized effect constitutes the emotional dimension of transformational leadership. According to this dimension, which expresses the leader that they adopt as a strong role model for the followers and try to imitate, a transformational leader with idealized effect has very high moral and ethical standards. His followers create a great sense of trust and respect for the leader, who is always believed to do the right thing. Such leaders provide vision and mission for subordinates and followers (Northouse, 2016, p.167).

2.1.2.3.2. Inspirational Motivation.

While inspiration was previously perceived as a part of charisma, it has a special place in the transformational leadership model. If followers can internalize the leader's

goals, inspiring motivation is created. Bass (1985) explains inspirational motivation by saying that if employees feel more powerful as a result of the leader's suggestions (not because a strong leader is a model of followers) because they show the desired goals and how to achieve them, then that leader is an inspiring leader (Celep, 2004, p.77).

Transformational leader acts as a role model that motivates followers to contribute spontaneously to the organization (Özkalp and Kirel, 2001, p.374).

Inspirational motivation is the behavior of the leader who conveys high expectations to his followers, believes in achieving these expectations and shares a common vision with them. The leader uses encouraging and motivating symbols and slogans to enable followers to make more efforts to achieve group interests rather than to gain their own interests. The concept of team spirit was developed and used by such leaders. An example of this type of leadership behavior is, a sales representative manager who explains how important they are as salespeople in the company's future growth and motivates them (Northouse, 2016, p.169).

The transformational leader creates a sense of common purpose by using symbols, slogans, emotional elements and acts as a source of morale for followers. The leader encourages his followers to inspire group awareness, a sense of common purpose, and his positive and encouraging speech about the future enables his followers to trust themselves and the future, gain momentum and make a superior effort to realize the vision drawn for them. All these attitudes and behaviors exhibited by the leader are a source of motivation for subordinates (Karip, 1998, p.447).

2.1.2.3.3. Intellectual Encouragement.

The transformational leader urges his followers to look for new and unique solutions by looking at problems from different perspectives. He encourages his followers to practice from the existing thought and behavior patterns to new and creative thinking and thus to mobilize his higher demands. In this respect, the transformational leader is not familiar with the existing status quo (Özkalp and Kirel, 2001, p.373). Empowerment, another important impact of transformational leadership on followers, is in parallel with intellectual encouragement. With empowerment, it is ensured that employees have the freedom of movement in reaching the determined targets and that team spirit and creativity factors come to the forefront. Intellectual incentives applied together with empowerment will contribute to the spread of this creative and innovative environment to the entire organizational climate and thus to ensure job satisfaction in employees (İşcan, 2002, p.99). Intellectual encouragement will increase the creativity of individual followers (Yukl, 2013, p.414).

In the field of intellectual encouragement, the transformational leader supports his followers to try and develop new approaches and innovative methods to deal with organizational issues. It encourages followers to think about solutions on their own and to be careful in solving problems. An example of this kind of leadership behavior is, a factory manager who supports the efforts of employees to develop unique solutions to solve problems of slowdowns in production (Northouse, 2016, p.169).

Intellectual encouragement involves many behaviors, from problem solving to how tasks should be completed, to questioning ideas that have not been questioned in the past, from bringing new perspectives to problem solutions to proposing creative ideas (Dionne et al., 2004, p.182). Transformational leaders not only enable their colleagues and

followers to look at problems related to their work and their work from a new perspective, but also to encourage them to solve organizational problems using their logic. The transformational leader encourages creative thinking and innovation among followers by rethinking the old assumptions (Bass and Avolio). In addition, transformational leaders behave like teachers to shape the thoughts and values of their followers (Macit, 2003: 101).

2.1.2.3.4. Individualized Thinking.

Individualized thinking is a valid leadership factor where the transformational leader listens carefully to the needs of his followers as an individual and creates a supportive working environment. The leader acts as a trainer or mentor while helping his followers realize themselves. They use their powers to enable their followers to develop and overcome personal challenges. An example of this transformational leadership factor is a manager who spends effort and time to treat each employee in a unique and attentive manner. The leader can build strong relationships with some of his followers, while others may give high-grade, more complex directives (Northouse, 2016, p.169).

Individualized thinking is used to describe leader behavior that treats an employee as a personal counselor and is ready to fight when the employee needs it. The leader, who is ready for the challenge, provides the necessary help and resources for the employee to reach his goal. For example, mediation or taking measures to solve problems with other departments in the enterprise may be an example of this struggle. The transformational leader removes all barriers for employee to have maximum performance (Avolio et al., 1991, p.13).

Individualized thinking is based on treating the followers with the awareness that they are individuals on their own rather than just being members of the organization.

Individualized thinking involves listening carefully to the concerns of the followers, developing their strengths and spending time with them by teaching / coaching them (Dionne et al., 2004, p.182). Bass states that individualized thinking is essentially composed of two main dimensions. The first is to consider all followers individually, including neglected ones. The second is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the followers as individuals and to help them develop and progress. Burns states that the followers of transformational leaders increase their development levels and turn them into leaders. Transformational leaders take the ideas of their followers and involve them in the process of forming an organizational vision. Transformational leaders constitute a model for followers (Macit, 2003: 101).

2.1.2.4. Contribution of Transformational Leadership to Management.

Transformational leadership sees leadership as a whole, combining and examining all existing approaches to leadership and combining the missing aspects. He states that responsibility is not only for the leader but also for the subordinates who are led, as the two sides deal with each other's interaction and needs rather than unilateralism from top to subordinate. He emphasizes that in the transformational leadership style, the leader's relationship with his subordinates does not occur through a single channel and through means such as reward and punishment, but also the leader follows the needs and development of his subordinates. It is considered as a leadership style different from other leadership models because of its moral dimension and contribution of subordinates to performance beyond expectations (Güney, 2015, p.418). Bass and Avolio (1995) state that transformational leadership has three different effects: subordinate effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. Accordingly, it is the leader's characteristics to increase the desire of the subordinates to do more than they can, to increase the desire to succeed, to create more

working effect by making more efforts, to provide satisfaction, to know and meet the needs of their subordinates, to give importance to their personal development and to represent them effectively. When all factors are taken into consideration, transformational leaders have an increasing effect on extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (Karip, 1998, p.449).

2.2. The Concept of Psychological Safety

The concept of psychological safety has also been translated into Turkish as psychological comfort or well-being in some sources (Yener, 2015). Psychological safety is defined as the sense of trust that employees have that they will not be embarrassed, rejected and punished for speaking up (Edmondson, 1999). This emotion develops over time through communication and affects the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Igen et al., 2005). Edmondson (1999) defined psychological safety as the common belief that employees can take interpersonal risks. These risks include behaviors such as giving feedback, asking questions, reporting errors, or suggesting a new idea.

Kahn (1990) argued that psychological safety reflects supportive management, role clarity and freedom of self-expression in the organization. Employees who feel psychologically safe in the organization receive support from their managers and can easily express their ideas or suggestions without hesitation.

Maslow (1954) defined the characteristics of psychological safety as a sense of relief from fear, anxiety and chaos, a sense of stability, safety and protection. Similarly, Kahn (1990) defined psychological safety as getting rid of the feeling of fear and stated that employees with this feeling can express themselves without fear of encountering any negative results for their career and status. An organizational environment where

employees feel comfortable and do not hesitate to express their thoughts is psychologically safe.

Tynan (2005) further expanded the concept by researching psychological safety in the context of hierarchical organizations and subordinate relationships. Tynan (2005) suggests that psychological safety can be measured in two different ways. The first of these is the perception of how much an individual feels emotionally safe among others, and how others trust and respect others. The second one is individuals' perceptions about the psychological safety of others. Accordingly, an employee who feels psychologically safe will change his behaviours when he perceives that his manager has a low sense of psychological safety.

Schein and Bennis (1965) argue that the concept of psychological safety is a critical part of the disintegration process required for organizational learning and change. According to these authors, employees will tend to exhibit attitudes and behaviors that will help them cope with the uncertainties that arise during times of change and make them feel psychologically more secure.

Kahn (1990) argued that there are four factors that affect psychological safety. The first is interpersonal relations. Employees can feel a higher level of psychological confidence when they establish interpersonal relationships defined by constructive criticism, acceptance of risk and failure, mutual trust and support. Secondly, psychological safety is influenced by group dynamics of group history, intra-group relationships, and informal roles. Third, it has been suggested that groups that support creativity and risk-taking, tolerance to failure, flexible and consistent leadership are associated with higher levels of psychological safety. Finally, individuals who try to go beyond the limits set by

organizational norms generally feel less secure than those who comply with organizational norms.

Psychological safety reflects the common belief that subordinates and team members expressing their opinions and suggestions by taking risks will not cause individual harm (Detert & Burris, 2007). Edmondson (1999) states that risk-taking behaviors are not exhibited in organizational climates where employees feel psychologically insecure, promotions are prevented or lost their jobs in case of failure. Edmondson (1999) also emphasizes that psychological safety can vary between groups and teams that exist within the same organization.

Psychological safety helps individuals feel comfortable or suggest new ideas to the group when questioning the opinions and suggestions of other group members (Edmondson et al., 2001). Psychological safety usually arises with the perception of interactions between team members (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2005). Individuals quickly assess interpersonal risks or costs associated with addressing specific group members or the whole group before communicating (Edmondson, 1999). The possible costs mentioned are related to getting criticism, embarrassment, harm or rejection from other group members. Individuals who feel confident in communicating are expected to identify existing problems and participate more in generating ideas, while employees who think there is a lack of security are expected to exhibit more defensive behavior, such as blaming others.

When individuals do not anticipate potential threats or personal risks related to communication, they have a high sense of psychological safety and are willing to contribute to group discussions. On the other hand, if the group members find it very risky, threatening or disturbing to communicate within the group, there is a lack of psychological

safety. This fear is about focusing on self-protection rather than communication (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2005). Therefore, psychological safety symbolizes an individual's desire to communicate openly with group members. Employees may be afraid to engage in such risky behaviors because of the risk of being labeled as ignorant, incompetent, or offensive by their colleagues (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2005). In addition, these labels can cause career barriers such as promotion or loss of rewards, as well as socio-emotional outcomes.

Edmondson (2004) argued that psychological safety has three distinctive features: First, psychological safety draws attention to personal expectations such as the individual's monitoring or perception of how others can react to the communicative actions that he or she creates. Second, psychological safety consists of short-term interpersonal outcomes that a person expects to encounter due to performing a particular action. For example, a group member needs to quickly decide whether speaking is a good idea or a potential threat to himself. Finally, psychological safety is conceptualized as a structure that occurs at a team or group level. In other words, when employees are confident that their ideas will not be underestimated or judged, they feel comfortable and safe.

2.2.1. The Concept of Trust and Psychological Safety.

It is worth noting that psychological safety and trust are two different concepts. Psychological safety has an effect at the group level and goes beyond the concept of trust (Edmondson, 2004). While trust is an element that exists among individuals, psychological safety is a feature of the group or team (Edmondson, 1999).

Edmondson (2008) states that there are three main differences between trust and psychological safety: time frame, focused goal and level of analysis. While psychological

safety focuses on short-term results, trust is concerned with outcomes that cover a broad timeline. While the focus of psychological safety is the way others perceive a person, the focus of the concept of trust is the perspective that the person has about the behavior and reliability of others. Finally, while psychological safety generally emerges at team level, the concept of trust is mostly found in bilateral relations (Edmondson, 2008). As a result, psychological safety and trust are not interchangeable concepts. Psychological safety often occurs in interpersonal relations at the team or group level, while trust is in communication between the two people.

2.2.2. Factors Affecting the Concept of Psychological Safety.

Examining the relationships between employee participation and psychological safety, Kahn (1990) has shown that psychological safety is affected by four factors: interpersonal relationships, intra-group and inter-group dynamics, management styles and processes, and organizational norms. In addition, individual differences affect the perception of psychological safety.

2.2.2.1. Organizational Factors.

When interpersonal relationships are supportive and reassuring, psychological safety increases. Such relationships can give people the comfort to try new things and not to fear the results, even if they fail. It is stated by Kahn (1990) that roles that are not accepted by the person or unconscious roles also affect psychological safety. According to Minuchin (1974), after being cast into roles, people safely evaluate how much space they need to add their own self to the performance of their roles at work. Management style and process also affect psychological safety. Like supportive interpersonal relationships, supportive management circles encourage people to try without fear and ensure that they

are not afraid of results even when they make mistakes. In addition, people feel more confident when they have control over their work. When management is reluctant to empower its employees, employees receive the message that management does not trust them and is afraid to take risks. The source of this fear is that their managers are unpredictable and inconsistent (Kahn, 1990). Finally, psychological safety is also linked to the roles defined in organizational norms (Kahn, 1990). In general, people who stick to appropriate ways of working feel safer than those who go outside these protective limits. In this context, safety means not questioning habits and thought patterns. According to Shorris (1981), questioning these patterns causes the person to be treated as contrary. Organizational factors can differentiate the perception of psychological safety in this way.

2.2.2.2. Individual Factors and Personality Traits.

Individual differences affect the perception of psychological safety. Edmondson and Mogelof (2006), who examined the factors affecting the perception of psychological safety in innovative teams, stated that emotional inconsistency, extroversion, openness to change and psychological safety are related to each other. First of all, people with a high level of emotional inconsistency tend to feel negative emotions such as anxiety, inferiority and embarrassment for a longer period of time, which causes such people to suspect their co-workers and interpret their work environments as aggressive (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2006). Therefore, it can be said that there is a negative relationship between emotional inconsistency and perceptions of psychological safety. Secondly, as extroverted individuals are more extroverted and ambitious when interacting with others, they tend to speak openly without being affected by the climate of their environment (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2006). Therefore, extroversion can positively affect the perception of psychological safety. Thirdly, individuals who are open to experience have a natural sense of curiosity, and

being open to new ideas can make them feel safe while taking risks and do not hesitate to show their weak points even in the business environment (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2006). Therefore, openness to experience can positively affect the perception of psychological safety. These three personality traits affect the perception of psychological safety more, especially in the early stages of the study group (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2006). Also, people who are constantly worried about what others will think of them feel less psychological safety than others. This prevents them from trying new ways, especially when performing their tasks (May, Gibson and Harter 2004). As can be seen, there are many factors that affect psychological safety.

2.2.3. Consequences of the Psychological Safety.

Researchers, who thought that the feeling of psychological safety felt in the workplace had important results, investigated the effect of psychological safety on learning and innovation (Kahn, 1990). The basis of the concept of psychological safety is based on Maslow's (1998) theory of needs hierarchy. Maslow (1998) stated in this theory that the security needs of people consist of feelings of trust, stability and security that can be felt more psychologically rather than physical, and these feelings make the individual mature. The sense of psychological safety mediates people to reach personal expertise. On the other hand, an employee who does not feel psychologically safe will not have curiosity and willingness to discover (Schein, 1985). For this reason, it is not possible for creative and innovative ideas to emerge in the organization without meeting the psychological safety needs of the employees.

In an organization with a psychological safety climate, employees are more connected to their jobs and as a result they can perform high performance (Weick & Sutcliffe). Baer and Frese (2003) defined the psychological safety climate as the working

environment where employees interact comfortably with others and feel safe. In such an environment, employees can express their concerns and opinions without focusing on safety concerns and fear of rejection.

Psychological safety is a key factor in ensuring learning, organizational change, and employee participation. It can lead to creativity, learning, higher job satisfaction and better business results. Psychological safety strengthens work engagement through learning behaviors, information sharing, citizenship behaviors and creativity. In addition, it positively affects organizational results such as performance, learning, participation, knowledge sharing, satisfaction and commitment (Duhigg, 2016).

May et al. (2004) reports that the perception of psychological safety makes it possible for employees to dedicate themselves to the job they do without fear of negative consequences, and this enables them to connect to the job. On the other hand, individuals in organizations where they do not feel psychologically safe, have unpredictable and threatening work conditions may have the idea of quitting because they are afraid to take risks.

Kahn (1990) argued that psychological safety ensures the institutionalization of innovation. Similarly, Baer and Frese (2003) focused on the psychological safety perceptions of the employees by examining the work environments and reached the finding that psychological safety supports organizational innovation. Brown and Leigh (1996) stated that psychological safety increases employee participation, work ethic and work outcomes.

Siemens et al. (2009) reported that the motivation of employees to share information with their colleagues is related to psychological safety in the right direction.

Employees who feel safe will be more willing to share their knowledge, ideas and suggestions with their friends.

Carmeli and Gittell (2009) stated that there is a strong link between psychological safety and the level of learning from failures. The authors describe learning from failure as “talking about mistakes and concerns”. When individuals think it is safe to communicate, they will prefer to share their thoughts rather than suppress them. For this reason, individuals who experience more psychological sense of safety are expected to communicate more frequently and to exhibit less self-protective behaviors such as hiding details.

2.3. Work Engagement

Firstly, the starting point of work engagement is based on the concept of burnout, which is thought to be conceptually opposite. Unlike individuals with burnout behavior, employees can be more energetic and effective in work-oriented activities. The perception that they have the power to cope with their demands is expressed as perception of engagement (Schaufeli, Taris and Rhenen, 2008, p.176).

Unlike employees with burnout syndrome, committed employees have an energetic sense of their work. According to Maslach and Letiher (1997), engagement is determined by the concepts of energy, attachment and effectiveness as opposed to burnout syndrome. The authors of the study claim that in the case of burnout syndrome, energy becomes exhaustion, attachment becomes skepticism, and effectiveness turns into ineffectiveness. Therefore, engagement is functionalized with the concepts of energy, dedication and concentration. Energy is the investment effort that a person has made in his / her job and is able to show a high level of energy and mental flexibility while working, even if they face

difficulties. Engagement means strong participation in one's work and a sense of meaning, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Concentration is defined as a person's full concentration on his / her work and his / her happiness. In this way, time passes for them quickly and does not break easily from their jobs. As a result, work engagement is defined by a person's work with a high level of energy and a strong identity. Burnout is defined as low energy level and weak identity related to the person's work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010, p.12-13). In other words, work engagement is the attitude of the individual towards integrating himself / herself with his / her work (Chusmir, 1982, p. 596). When we look at the literature, the concept of work engagement has been handled in many ways by different authors. These are; passion for work (Turgut, 2011), temptation to work (Dalay, 2007), engagement to work (Güneşer, 2007), dedication from work (Bal, 2008), integration to work and engagement (Öner, 2008) (In Ardic and Polatci, 2009, p.36).

The basis of work engagement is based on positive psychology and is measured in three dimensions;

- **Energy:** feelings of energy, continuity and flexibility,
 - **Commitment:** High commitment, motivation and inspiration,
 - **Concentration:** Self-employment and strong feelings of work engagement
- (O'Donohue and Nelson, 2012, p.9).

The concept of engagement first emerged as a popular concept in working life, consulting firms and the academic community. This term was first used by the Gallup organization in the 1990s. While the concept of work engagement explains the individual's relationship with the job, the concept of employee engagement explains the relationship of the individual with the organization (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010, p. 10).

Kahn (1990) is the first person to bring the concept of engagement to the literature. Kahn (1990) stated that committed employees are physically, cognitively and emotionally linked to their tasks. Committed employees work harder by showing more effort than the employees who aren't committed (Bakker, 2011, p.265).

Table 2. 2

First Published Theory of Commitment

PERSONAL COMMITMENT MODEL		
Psychological Conditions for Commitment	Multiple Levels of Impacts	Three Dimensions of Commitment
- Significance - Sense of Security - Accessibility	- Personal - Interpersonal - Group - Intergroup - Organizational	- Conceptual - Emotional - Physical

Source: (Antonison, 2010, p. 33).

For the first time in 1990, William Kahn developed a model of personal commitment. According to this model, personal commitment has been suggested to be in three dimensions: conceptual, emotional and physical (Antonison, 2010, p. 35). Kahn (1990) describes the concept of commitment as a psychological condition with interpersonal differences and arising from the condition. However, Kahn (1990) described three psychological precursors for devotion that were influenced by personal differences, unlike work content. First, people should feel that their work serves a meaningful and specific purpose. Secondly, people should feel safe in describing the negative consequences of work. Psychological security is felt when relationships between people are supportive and reliable to each other, and when managers are supportive and open to their employees, or when organizational norms are open (Christian and Slaughter, 2007, p.2). Confidence is one of the most influential variables that shape individuals' attitudes and behaviors (Hsieh and Wang, 2015, p.2330). Third and lastly, Kahn predicts that the

personal resources needed by employers should be easily accessible. According to Kahn (1990), psychological compliance includes the feeling of having physical and emotional energy and psychological security against one's work and status. These three psychological states, meaningfulness, safety and suitability, are required for employees to commit themselves to their job roles (Christian and Slaughter, 2007, p.2). Multiple levels that affect personal commitment include personal, interpersonal, group, intergroup and organizational elements. The theory suggests that the levels of personal commitment differ in different job roles (Antonison, 2010, p. 35).

According to Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001), the concept of work engagement differs from the concepts of organizational commitment, job satisfaction or attachment. Organizational commitment is directed towards the workplace of the individual and focuses more on the organization. Yet, work engagement focuses on the work itself. Job satisfaction is a means by which the job fulfills a need, creates a source of satisfaction, or is a means of rescuing employees from difficulty or dissatisfaction and includes the relationship of the individual with the work itself. Attachment to work is similar to the attachment side of the concept of work engagement, but it does not include the dimensions of energy and effectiveness of engagement (Olivier and Rothmann, 2007, p. 49).

Sonnentag (2003) suggests that levels of work engagement may differ from day to day in the same employee for specific situational and personal reasons. Therefore, it is stated that engagement to daily work emerges as a complement to the engagement to permanent work (Bakker, 2014, p. 229).

May et al. (2004) emphasized the importance of transferring physical, emotional and cognitive resources to the tasks while the individual is engaged in the work. In addition

to the emotional (exhaustion) and cognitive demands that change by work and the person, it is suggested that most work requires some physical effort and coercion (Olivier and Rothmann, 2007, p. 49).

An employee's work engagement may depend on the bond he / she has established with his / her colleagues, the communication with the people he serves, the quality of the work he / she has worked on and the attitudes and behaviors of the colleagues about their work (Sağsan & Firtına, 2015, p. 7). The concept of work engagement has been influenced by many factors such as commitment, individual, psycho-social, organizational and external factors. It is suggested that the burnout levels of the employees will decrease with the correct management of these factors and hence, organizational negativities may decrease (Keleş, 2014, p.98).

With the creation of a sense of trust in the organization, there will be integration between the objectives of the organization and the employee. Therefore, work engagement can emerge as a productivity-oriented concept both in terms of organization and employees (Taştan, 2014, p.93).

As a result of the studies conducted, the characteristics related to work engagement are listed as follows (Karagöz, 2007, p.20):

- The relationship between a person's own image and work,
- Degree of embracing one's work,
- The degree of being affected by the performance level perceived by the value given by the person,
- The degree to which a person identifies himself psychologically with his work.

Committed individuals are attached to the institution. Employee commitment can be defined as physical, cognitive and emotional self-disclosure while doing the performance required by the person or role. When the employee commits himself to the institution, it turns out that he is physically related, cognitively fit and emotionally bound (Simpson, 2008, p.1018). Therefore, it is expected that committed employees will like their jobs, show more behaviors by embracing their jobs and always want to improve themselves (Coşkuner and Şentürk, 2017, p.172). As a result of the literature research on the concept of work engagement, it was found out that the blue-collar workers had a lower level of commitment when compared to managers, trainers and police officers (Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova, 2006, p.713).

2.3.1. The Importance of Work Engagement.

The concept of work engagement has emerged as organizational management and important employee performance (Simpson, 2008, p. 1013). Engagement refers to the person's expression in work and other employee role activities. It is a concept related to employee's well-being and working behavior for various reasons (Rothman and Jordaan, 2006, p. 87).

Work engagement is a function of how an individual sees his organization, his work, his colleagues and his managers. Feedback is needed to improve employees' perspectives towards the organization and its managers. Making development plans that include what an employee's talents and skills are and how to improve them leads to more commitment. In addition, creating comprehensive job training and career planning enables employees to continue to develop new skills and talents. Continuous career development increases the level of commitment of the employee (Gill, 2007, p. 11-12).

The psychological significance of work engagement is that it can be expressed as the feeling of feedback that a person receives from his or her investment in the formation of physical, cognitive or emotional energy. Psychological significance is about how valuable a business goal is to the individual's own ideals or standards. Meaningless work makes one feel indifferent and impartial towards their work. People can become alienated from themselves when they are not connected to their work. An organization is also responsible for providing meaningful work to its employees. Because this situation can lead to personal development and motivation of individuals (Oliver and Rothman, 2007, p.50).

Flexibility facilitates engagement to work in organizations and leads to temporary breaks. Especially the breaks of stressed and tired workers allow renewal and freshening. In addition, facilitating focus on work and high levels of work engagement with work breaks can be seen in a significant way (Smith and Dumas, 2007, p.2).

Realistic job predictions and role assessments are recruitment and selection techniques that can be applied to increase candidate commitment by aligning the candidate's expectations with the organization's expectations (Gill, 2007, p. 18).

Work engagement is associated with the definition of the role of the worker in the organization. Therefore, the definition of the role of the person is related to the occupational harmony, the support provided by the role and the acceptance of the behaviors related to the role. It can be said that devotional behavior can be attributed to occupational adjustment, role adjustment and social support (Hermesen and Rosser, 2008, p.12).

Many human resource consulting firms conduct research to improve their work engagement. Development Dimensions International claims that commitment has three dimensions:

1. **Cognitive:** Believing and supporting the goals and values of the organization,
2. **Emotional:** Organizational belonging, feeling of pride and commitment,
3. **Behavioral:** Willingness to go the extra mile and intention to stay in the organization.

According to the Hewitt consulting firm, committed employees often show three types of behavior:

1. **They talk:** They talk to their colleagues, potential employees and customers about the organization with positive content.
2. **They stay:** Although they have the opportunity to work in a different place, they have a strong desire to become a member of the organization,
3. **They make an effort:** They spend extra time, effort and initiative to achieve success in their business.

According to Towers Perrin, work engagement is an effective condition that reflects the satisfaction of employees and their satisfaction with being a part of the organization. According to Mercer consultancy, work engagement points to a psychological situation in which employees are entitled to the success of the company and perform at a high standard that can exceed the requirements of the work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010, p. 11-12).

There are four reasons why committed employees outperform other non-committed employees. First, committed employees often experience positive emotions that include

gratitude, success and enthusiasm. These positive emotions broaden the content of people's thought-action, indicating that they are constantly working on their personal resources. The second is that these employees are healthier. This means that they can focus all their skills and energy resources on their work. Third, committed employees create their own jobs and personal resources. Finally, they convey their commitment to other people in their immediate surroundings (Bakker, 2011, p. 267).

2.3.2. Main Factors That Affect Work Engagement.

When the variables that can be associated with the concept of work engagement emerges; it is related to work devotion, professional burnout and workaholic events with different variables. These variables are long working hours, job qualifications, job outcomes, quality of social relations and perceived health status (Schaufeli, Taris and Rhenen, 2008, p. 173).

A meaningful work environment required for employee and interpersonal adjustment has emerged as one of the most important factors determining the level of work engagement. Leadership is another factor to determine work engagement. A lot of research on the subject shows that when leaders are inspiring, work engagement naturally occurs. Another factor is the relationship with the team and colleagues. Kahn (1990) suggested that, in addition to reliable interpersonal relationships, a supportive team strengthens commitment. Education and career development opportunities are seen as another factor affecting work engagement. Employees participating in training and development programs are committed to their work. Wages or rewards are another factor that motivates employees and ensures commitment. These awards include both financial and non-financial awards. Previous studies have shown that corporate organization policies, procedures, and recruitment policies directly affect engagement. In addition, the fact that

the workplace is good also affects the level of work engagement (Anitha, 2014, p. 311-313).

Due to the nature of the social communication networks of employees, their commitment or possibility of commitment is affected. Another possible factor that has an impact on commitment is the employee's ability to recover after the previous working day. After the previous working day, it was investigated how the ability to gather themselves affected the commitment of the employee day by day. According to the results of the study, it is assumed that those who think that they can stand up the next day due to work load and time pressure may be committed to their work (Gill, 2007, p. 7).

There are both individual and organizational factors leading to commitment. Work engagement emerges when an employee experiences appropriate workload, control, reward, community awareness, justice and value compliance. Employees' perceptions of organizational factors can have positive or negative consequences. Work engagement around the workload is experienced when the employee's work is difficult enough. Choice perception or control, rewards and recognition are other factors leading to commitment. Perceptions of honesty and justice and finding a meaningful job provide a positive harmony between the employee and the organization. This positive adaptation is perceived as an element that increases work engagement (Gill, 2007, pp. 5-6).

The tendency to trust or the extent of trust is another factor that leads to commitment. People who rely on other individuals are typically able to act pro-social and collaborative even under uncertain conditions and are likely to be committed. Because these individuals feel the comfort of doing an open and correct behavior and will see the return of it in the end (Chughtai and Buckley, 2008, p.59).

The relationship of the individual with his / her supervisor has a direct effect on how safe he / she feels in the working environment. When the supervisor is supportive and does not act controlling in the workplace, employees will experience a sense of safety in the workplace. Such supervisors take care of the needs and emotions of their employees and provide them with positive feedback as well as encouraging them to express their ideas (Oliver and Rothman, 2007, p. 50). Thus, it enables the creation of a comprehensive social network (eg social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, etc.) to strengthen the level of commitment of individuals who trust each other (Chughtai and Buckley, 2008, p. 59).

Another way to ensure work engagement is to create an environment in which people can proactively behave. For example, positive behaviors such as the possibility of free decision making and participation in decisions, equalization of powers and responsibilities, providing organizational change, providing support from senior management, frequent positive feedback and appreciation of employee successes are strategies to ensure work engagement (Ardıç and Polatçı, 2009, p.38-39). On the other hand, workplace's ethical culture includes formal (ethical code, reward and learning) and informal (peer behavior, ethical norms) components that affect the decision-making and commitment of employees to prevent unethical behaviors of employees and correct the mistakes (Mitonga- Monga and Cilliers, 2015, p.242).

Some authors have explored the relationship between personal resources and work engagement. For example, self-esteem, self-efficacy, focus of control and abilities regulate emotions, which are predictions of work engagement. Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009a, 2009b) examined the role of three personal resources (self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism) in their research and daily work in

predicting work engagement. The results show that committed employees are highly self-sufficient and can meet the demands they face in a wide range of contexts. Personal resources are positive self-assessments that relate to flexibility and refer to individuals' perceptions that they can successfully control and influence their environment. It is stated that these positive self-assessments predict goal setting, motivation, performance, job and life satisfaction and other desired outcomes. Individuals who are fit for the goal are intrinsically motivated to achieve their goals and ultimately trigger higher performance and satisfaction. In addition, committed employees tend to believe that they can achieve good results in their lives in general and meet their needs by participating in roles within the organization (Bakker, 2011, p. 266-267).

Business resources are the most important premise of dedication. It has been found that commitment is associated with job resources such as social support from colleagues and managers, performance feedback, coaching, job controls, job diversity and training opportunities (Chughtai and Buckley, 2008, p. 50). More resources available to employees will enable them to be more committed and perform better (Gill, 2007, p. 6).

Job resources express the following characteristics of the physical, social and organizational aspects of the job;

- It can reduce job demands and be related to physiological and psychological costs,
- It can be functional in achieving business objectives,
- It can promote personal growth, learning and development.

Job resources either play an intrinsically motivational role because they nurture the growth, learning and development of employees or they can play an externally motivational role because they are effective in achieving business goals (Bakker and

Demerouti, 2008, p.211). Business resources can be extrinsic motivational, as resource-rich work environments nurture an individual's efforts and abilities, and the willingness of the employee to engage to work. In these environments, it is likely that the task will be completed successfully and the business objective will be achieved. For example, supportive colleagues and performance feedback increase the likelihood of success in achieving one's business goals. By meeting basic needs or achieving business goals, the result is positive and commitment is achieved. It has been seen that there is a positive relationship between work resources and work engagement with many studies conducted in terms of motivational role of job resources. For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) proved a positive relationship between three job sources (performance feedback, social support and counseling coaching) and work engagement in four different samples of Dutch employees (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, p.212).

The fact that business resources have motivational potential indicates that work is a basic need for employees such as autonomy, competence and the need for relations with people (Salanova and Schaufeli, 2008, p. 117). Not surprisingly, work engagement is related to business resources. Because most of the empirical research on the premise of work engagement revolves around the business demands-resource model (JD-R Model). It is argued that work engagement is not only a function of environmental factors such as job resources, but can also be triggered by psychological variables such as trust. The climate of trust in the organization provides wide and varied benefits for individuals, groups and organizations (Chughtai and Buckley, 2008, p.50-51).

The business demands-resources model (JD-R Model) is used to estimate business-related experiences. This model is used to estimate employee's burnout, organizational commitment, liking and engagement to the work. In addition, this model predicts the

results of work-related experiences, including disease-related absenteeism, other assessments of business performance, and objective sales performance (Bakker and Hakanen, 2013, p. 111-112). The main reason why the model is so popular is that it can be flexible. According to this model, all working environments or job characteristics can be modeled using two different categories called job demands and job resources. Therefore, this model is applicable to all working environments. Job demands refer to the physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of work that require constant physical and psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs. Business resources are physical, psychological or organizational aspects of work that are functional to achieve business goals, reduce job demands, are associated with physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning and development (Bakker & Hakanen, 2013, p. 112).

Based on the literature review provided above, the following hypotheses were developed:

H₁: Transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on work engagement.

H₂: Psychological safety mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Model and Hypotheses

Within the scope of the research, perception of transformational leadership is taken as independent variable and psychological safety is taken as mediator variable while the work engagement is considered as dependent variable. To test the hypotheses developed, the following research model is proposed:

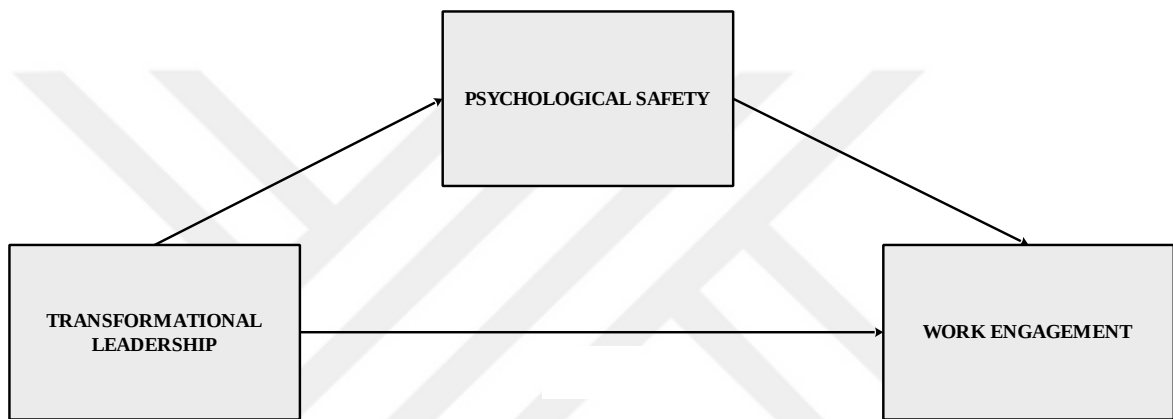


Figure 3. 1

Proposed Research Model of the Study

The following hypothesis were established within the scope of the research model:

H₁: Transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on work engagement.

H₂: Psychological safety mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

3.2. Sample

The sample of the research consisted of white-collar employees of a multinational company. According to information received from the enterprise, the number of employees

are 234, and this number shows the sample of the research. As the study covered a large area and revealed cost and time problems in reaching the whole area, convenience sampling was used in this study. This sampling method consists of the people who believe that among the elements that make up the sample, the researcher will find the answer to the problem (Hayes & Bennett, 1999). In determining the sample size to represent the main population, the following formula was used:

$$n = Nt^2 pq / d^2 (N - 1) + t^2 pq$$

N: Number of individuals in the target group (234 employees)

n: Number of individuals to be sampled

p: Incident frequency (0.9)

q: Lack of incident frequency (0.1)

t: At a certain level of significance, the theoretical value, (Sampling error is 5% and confidence level is 95%.)

d: Indicates the accepted +/- sampling error based on the occurrence of the event (0.05) (Hayes & Bennett, 1999).

Using the formula, the sample size of the study was calculated as 95% confidence interval and $\pm 5\%$ sampling error as $n = 146$ people. Accordingly, the online survey link was sent to all of the employees between 10.11.2019 and 20.11.2019 and 164 completed surveys were received. 9 of these questionnaires were found to contain incomplete or contradictory information and these participants were excluded from the research. As a result, the sample of the study consisted of 155 employees.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The questionnaire used as the data collection method consists of four parts namely Demographics, Transformational Leadership Scale (İşcan, 2002), Psychological Safety Scale (Yener, 2014) and Work Engagement Scale (Özkalp and Meydan, 2015). Information about the parts are presented in sub-headings.

3.3.1 Demographics.

There are six items in the first part of the questionnaire. With these items data about gender, age, education level, marital status, year of experience in the market and year of experience in the company will be collected.

3.3.2. Transformational Leadership Scale.

The scale was developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and adapted to Turkish by İşcan (2002) in a five-dimensional basis. The responses of the 5-point Likert-type scale are scored between 1-strongly disagree and 5-strongly agree. The increase in the total score obtained from the scale shows that the perception of transformational leadership has increased. The reliability value of the scale with 23 items was calculated as 0.90 (İşcan, 2002).

3.3.3. Psychological Safety Scale.

The scale was firstly developed by Edmondson (1999) and adopted to Turkish by Yener (2014). The responses of the 5-point Likert-type scale are scored between 1-strongly disagree and 5-strongly agree. It is a uni-dimensional scale. The increase in the total score obtained from the scale shows that the psychological safety has increased. The reliability value of the scale with 7 items was calculated as 0.76 (Yener, 2014).

3.3.4. Work Engagement Scale.

The scale was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) and adapted to Turkish by Özkalp and Meydan (2015). The responses of the 5-point Likert-type scale are scored between 1-strongly disagree and 5-strongly agree. It is a uni-dimensional scale. The increase in total score on the 9-item scale indicates that employee voice increased. Özkalp ve Meydan (2015) calculated the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the scale as 0.83.

3.4. Data Analysis

SPSS 23.00 was used to analyze the data. In order to determine the personal characteristics of the customers, frequency distributions were examined. Descriptive statistics were used to determine the levels of transformational leadership, psychological safety and work engagement of the participants. In order to determine the other analysis techniques to be used, the distribution of data is examined and the results of normality test are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3. 1

Normality Test Results

	Skewness	Kurtosis
Transformational leadership	-1.05	1.19
Psychological safety	-0.54	0.20
Work engagement	-1.08	1.77

Although there is no lost value in the variables, it is stated that ± 3 is accepted as the skewness and kurtosis threshold value in the sense of normal distribution criterion (Sposito et al. 1983). The skewness and kurtosis values of the research variables in Table 6 were examined and there was no skewness and kurtosis problems requiring normalization intervention. Pearson Correlation Test was used as correlation analysis. In the comparison

of binary groups t-test and ANOVA and Post-Hoc Test LSD test were used for comparison of three groups.

Regression analyzes were conducted to determine the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement and to reveal the role of psychological safety in this effect. The findings were evaluated at 95% confidence interval and 5% significance level.

The mediating variable is part of the cause-effect relationship between the two variables (McKinnon et al., 2007, 594). The mediation relationship is tested with a model shown in the figure below. In this way, X represents the variable, Y represents the dependent variable and M represents the variable. In addition, the path between c independent variable and dependent variable, a path between the independent variable and the mediator variable, and b indicates the effect between the dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986, 116).

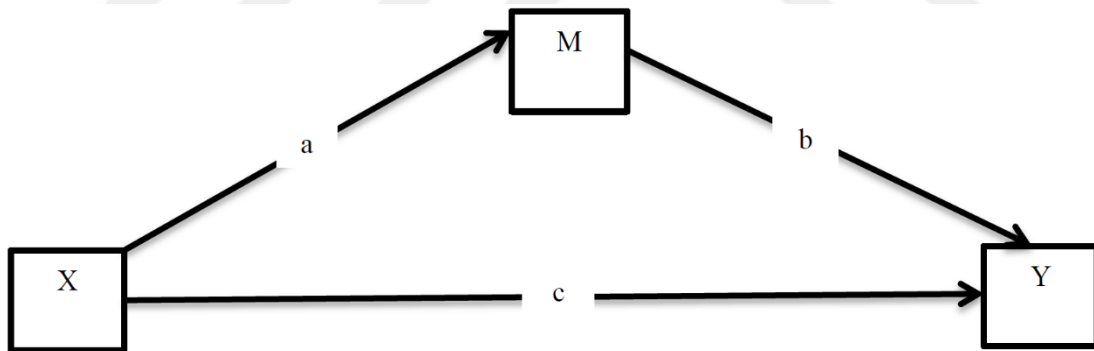


Figure 3. 2

Mediator Model (McKinnon et al., 2007, 594)

Some conditions must be met in order to talk about mediation effect. These conditions, which are called the steps of Baron and Kenny, are listed as follows (Baron and Kenny, 1986, 116; Gürbüz and Bekmezci, 2012, 200).

- The independent variable must have an effect on the mediator variable.

- The independent variable must have an effect on the dependent variable.
- The mediator variable must have an effect on the dependent variable.
- When the mediating variable is included in the regression analysis in the second step; if there is a nonsignificant relationship between independent variable and dependent variable, full mediation effect can be mentioned. If there is a decrease in the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable, partial mediation effect can be mentioned (McKinnon et al., 2007, 594).

Baron and Kenny's (1986) 3-step method is used in academic studies and partial or full mediation decision is made according to the results of the analysis. In addition, it is necessary to determine whether the indirect effect (via path mediator) of the independent variable (path a.b) is significant, as well as the conditions that must be met in order to be able to talk about the mediator effect. To accomplish this, various tests have been developed. One of these is Sobel test (Pardo & Roman, 2013). This test is calculated using the uncorrected regression coefficients (B) of the relevant variables and their standard error values.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

64.5% of the participants are male and 35.5% are female. The youngest participant is 22, the oldest participant is 54 years old. The average age is 35.34 ± 7.65 . 66.5% of the participants are married and 33.5% are single. In addition, 10.3% of the participants are high school graduates, 58.7% are undergraduate and 31% are graduates. The average year of experience in the market is 11.61 ± 7.33 . The least experienced participant in the company has 1 year and the most experienced has 31 years of experience. The average year of experience in the company is 7.32 ± 6.36 . The distribution of the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1

Socio-Demographic Features of Participants

	n	%
Gender		
Male	100	64.5
Female	55	35.5
Age ($\bar{X} \pm sd$)		35.34 ± 7.65
Marital status		
Married	103	66.5
Single	52	33.5
Education		
High school	16	10.3
Undergraduate	91	58.7
Graduate	48	31.0
Year of experience in the sector ($\bar{X} \pm sd$)		11.61 ± 7.33
Year of experience in the company ($\bar{X} \pm sd$)		7.32 ± 6.36

The average of transformational leadership is 77.86 ± 17.11 , the average of psychological safety is 20.97 ± 3.88 and the average of work engagement is 27.17 ± 5.72 .

Table 4.2 shows the summary measures of descriptive statistics.

Table 4. 2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Maks	$\bar{X}$	sd
Transformational leadership	155	21.00	105.00	77.86	17.11
Psychological safety	155	9.00	30.00	20.97	3.88
Work engagement	155	7.00	35.00	27.17	5.72

4.2. Factor Analyses

In the research, exploratory factor analysis was applied to the scales. Results are given in subtitles.

4.2.1. Transformational Leadership Scale Factor Analysis.

In the first analysis Transformational Leadership Scale was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation based on 23 items. Kaiser Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0.939 which was perfectly (higher than 0.80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Total Variation table indicated that the scale composed of three factors as the three factors 'eigenvalues were seen as above 1.000. The three factors had 65.824% cumulative explanation of the total variance. The overall impact of the items and the impact of each item to the internal consistency of the data set were evaluated through Cronbach alpha coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients when item deleted. The internal consistency coefficient for the 23-item questionnaire was found $\alpha = 0.957$ which indicates a high reliability score. It is also identified that excluding item 16 and then item 18 successively from the scale would increase the internal consistency to $\alpha = 0.963$, so item 16 and 18 were removed from the scale. Factor analysis was repeated on remaining 21 items and the scale

was found to be divided into 2 factors ($KMO = 0.945$; $df = 253$; $p = 0.000$). The two-factor structure of the scale explains 65.20% of the variability. Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.957.

The factor analysis results showed that; differently from the original analysis of İşcan (2002) transformational leadership as construct of five factors (Providing vision-inspiration and being an appropriate role model (8 items), Ensuring the acceptance of group goals (5 items), Intellectual encouragement (4 items), Individual attention (3 items), High expectation of success (3 items)), two factors with total 21 items were clarified from the study. The first factor is named as Providing Individual Support (11 items). The second factor is named as High-Performance Expectation (10 items). The results obtained are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3

Transformational Leadership Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis

Item No	Item	Factor Loading	Factor Label
17	Acts by considering my personal needs.	0.853	Providing Individual Support
11	Respect my personal feelings.	0.823	
5	Acts on my feelings.	0.794	
8	A leader to be followed and exemplified for me.	0.787	
2	A role model for the employees with their behavior rather than their telling.	0.721	
19	Tries to inspire employees with their plans for the future.	0.711	
21	Tries to make me raise my expectations regarding my job and career.	0.704	
9	Makes collaboration continuous in internal business team works.	0.700	
23	Tries to ensure team thinking and spirit in employees.	0.694	
6	Encourages me to solve routine problems with a new perspective.	0.629	
3	Enables employees to participate in the establishment of organizational goals.	0.566	High-performance expectations
10	Always expects us to do the best, the better.	0.844	
4	Clearly tells us that he/she expects a lot from us and he/she shows.	0.723	
7	Tries to explain the future status of the business to the employees.	0.669	
20	Direct the employees (group) to work for the same purpose.	0.665	
14	It symbolizes achievement and goals.	0.658	
22	Gives importance to the employees' commitment to the determined goals.	0.648	
13	Always looks for new opportunities for the business.	0.641	
15	Tries to ensure that employees become “team players”.	0.625	
1	Has a clear idea of the future state of the business.	0.580	
12	Asks questions that make me think.	0.549	

4.2.2. Psychological Safety Scale Factor Analysis.

Psychological Safety Scale was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation including 7 items. KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0.74 which was adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett 95 Sphere test's significance was found as 0.000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Total Variation table indicated that the scale composed of one factor as only one factor's eigenvalue was seen as above 1.000. Since the Psychological Safety Scale is found as unidimensional construct with one factor, rotated component matrix was not calculated in the analysis. The overall impact of the items and the impact of each item to the internal consistency of the data set were evaluated through Cronbach alpha coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients when item deleted. The internal consistency coefficient for the 7-item questionnaire was found $\alpha = 0.69$ which indicates a reliability score. It is also identified that excluding item 3 from the scale would increase the internal consistency to $\alpha = 0.71$, so item 3 was removed from the scale and factor analysis was repeated on remaining 6 items. The results obtained are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4

Psychological Safety Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis

Item		Factor Loading
PS-1	If you make a mistake in this institution, this is often used against you.	0.747
PS-5	Employees in this institution are not easily asked for help.	0.683
PS-4	It is safe to take risks in this institution.	0.655
PS-2	The employees of this institution express their problems and problems that are difficult to solve.	0.649
PS-7	When working with people in this institution, my unique skills and talents are valued and leveraged.	0.64
PS-6	Nobody in this institution acts deliberately to block my efforts.	0.422

<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.46
<i>% of variance</i>	41.05%
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	0.71

According to the result of factor analysis, 6 items of the scale were clustered under a single factor ($KMO = 0.75$; $df = 15$; $p = 0.000$). The single-factor structure of the scale explains 41.05% of the variance. Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.71.

The factor load of a variable of 0.3 indicates that the variance explained by the factor is 9%. The variance at this level is noteworthy, and in general, regardless of its sign, 0.60 and higher load value can be defined as high; load value between 0.30-0.59 can be defined as medium as sizes and taken into account in variable extraction (Büyüköztürk, 2002). For this reason, item 6 was also taken into account although it's loading factor seems to be low compared to others.

4.2.3. Work Engagement Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis.

In the first analysis Work Engagement Scale was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation based on 9 items. KaiserMeyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0.86 which was perfectly (higher than 0.80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0.000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Total Variation table indicated that the scale composed of one factor as only one factor's eigenvalue was seen as above 1.000. Since the Psychological Safety Scale is found as unidimensional construct with one factor, rotated component matrix was not calculated in the analysis. The overall impact of the items and the impact of each item to the internal

consistency of the data set were evaluated through Cronbach alpha coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients when item deleted. The internal consistency coefficient for the 9-item questionnaire was found $\alpha = 0.86$ which indicates a high reliability score. It is also identified that excluding item 8 and then item 9 successively from the scale would increase the internal consistency to $\alpha = 0.93$, so item 8 and 9 were removed from the scale and factor analysis was repeated on remaining 7 items. The results obtained are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5

Work Engagement Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis

Item		Factor Loading
WE-4	My work gives me enthusiasm.	0.919
WE-1	I feel very energetic while doing my	0.905
	job.	
WE-2	I feel strong and vigorous while doing my job	0.892
WE-5	My job inspires me.	0.861
WE-3	I want to go to work when I wake up in the morning.	0.818
WE-6	I am proud of my work.	0.81
WE-7	While working intensely, I feel happy.	0.689
Eigenvalue		5
% of variance		71.44%
Cronbach's Alpha		0.93

According to the result of factor analysis, 7 items of the scale were clustered under a single factor (KMO = 0.88; df = 21; p = 0.000). The single-factor structure of the scale explains 71.44% of the variance. Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.93.

4.3. Research Model with Dimensions

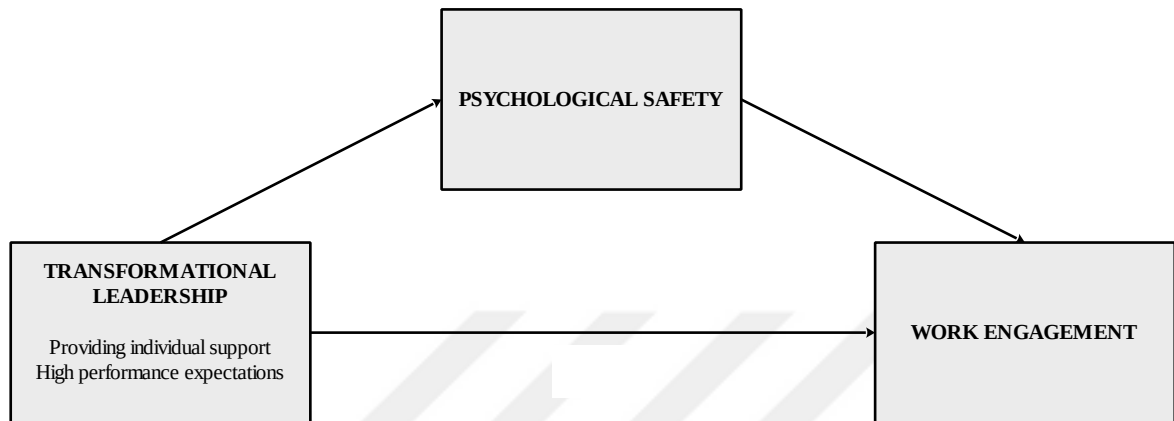


Figure 4. 1

Research Model of the Study with dimensions

4.4. Hypothesis with Dimensions

H₁: Transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on work engagement.

H_{1a}: Individual attention has a significant positive effect on work engagement.

H_{1b}: High-performance expectations has a significant positive effect on work engagement.

H₂: Psychological safety mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

4.5. Hypothesis Testing

4.5.1. Correlations.

Table 4. 6

Correlation Analyzes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	1							
2. Years of experience in the industry	.900**	1						
3. Years of experience in the company	.721**	.742**	1					
4. Providing individual support	.005	.014	.025	1				
5. High-performance expectations	-.042	-.027	.053	.823**	1			
6. Transformational leadership	-.015	-.004	.039	.968**	.939**	1		
7. Psychological safety	-.138	-.170*	.002	.265**	.344**	.312**	1	
8. Work engagement	.246**	.258**	.222**	.282**	.268**	.289**	.332**	1

** $p < 0.01$ ve * $p < 0.05$

There is a positive and weak ($p=0.02$; $r = 0.246$) relationship between age and work engagement. Accordingly as the age increases, work engagement increases.

There is a positive and weak relationship between years of experience in the industry and work engagement ($p=0.01$; $r = 0.258$). On the other hand there is a negative and weak significant relationship between years of experience in the industry and psychological safety ($p=0.035$; $r = -0.170$). Accordingly, as the years of experience in the industry increases, work engagement increases and psychological safety level decreases.

There is a positive and weak significant relationship between years of experience in the company and work engagement level ($p=0.005$; $r = 0.222$). Accordingly, as the years of experience in the company increases, level of work engagement increases.

There is a positive and weak significant relationship between providing individual support and psychological safety ($p=0.001$; $r=0.265$) and work engagement ($p=0.000$; $r=0.282$). Accordingly, as the providing individual support level increases, levels of psychological safety and work engagement increase.

There is a positive and medium level significant relationship between high-performance expectations and psychological safety ($p=0.000$; $r=0.344$). On the other hand there is a positive and weak significant relationship between high-performance expectations and work engagement ($p=0.001$; $r=0.268$). Accordingly, as the high-performance expectations level increases, levels of psychological safety and work engagement increase.

There is a positive and weak significant relationship between providing individual support and psychological safety ($p=0.000$; $r=0.312$) and work engagement ($p=0.000$; $r=0.289$). Accordingly, as the transformational leadership level increases, levels of psychological safety and work engagement increase.

There is a positive and medium level significant relationship between psychological safety and work engagement ($p=0.000$; $r=0.332$). Accordingly, as the level of psychological safety increases, the level of work engagement increases.

4.5.2. Regression Analyses

4.5.2.1. Regression Analysis for the contribution of Transformational leadership on Work Engagement.

In order to test the first hypothesis (**H₁**: Transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on work engagement), multiple regression analysis was used for transformational leadership and work engagement (sum of two factors as providing individual support and High-performance expectations)

As can be seen in Table 4.7, transformational leadership revealed 8% of the work engagement. Accordingly, transformational leadership increases work engagement ($\beta = 0.29$; $p < 0.05$). Accordingly, H1 hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4. 7

Testing H1

Stages	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Work engagement	0.29	0	14.04	0	0.084
Independent variable: Transformational leadership					

4.5.2.2. Regression Analysis for the contribution of Providing Individual**Support on Work Engagement.**

In order to test the first hypothesis (**H_{1a}**: Providing Individual Support has a significant positive effect on work engagement.), multiple regression analysis was used for Providing Individual Support and work engagement (factor 1 as Providing Individual Support)

As can be seen in Table 4.8, transformational leadership revealed 7% of the work engagement. Accordingly, Individual attention increases work engagement ($\beta = 0.28$; $p < 0.05$). Accordingly, H1a hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4. 8

Testing H1a

Stages	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Work engagement	0.28	0	13.19	0	0.079
Independent variable: Providing Individual Support					

4.5.2.3. Regression Analysis for the contribution of High-Performance

Expectation on Work Engagement.

In order to test the first hypothesis (**H_{1b}**: High-performance expectations has a significant positive effect on work engagement.), multiple regression analysis was used for High-performance expectations and work engagement (factor 2 as High-performance expectations)

As can be seen in Table 4.9, transformational leadership revealed 7% of the work engagement. Accordingly, Providing Individual Support increases work engagement ($\beta = 0.27$; $p < 0.05$). Accordingly, H1b hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4. 9
Testing H1b

Stages	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Work engagement					
Independent variable: High-performance expectations	0.27	0	12.58	0	0.076

4.5.2.4. Regression Analysis for the mediating role of Psychological safety on the Relationship between Transformational leadership and Work Engagement

H₂: Psychological safety mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Multiple regression analysis was used to test the research hypothesis. In the first stage, As can be seen in table 13, transformational leadership explained 9% of psychological safety. Transformational leadership increases psychological safety ($\beta = 0.30$; $p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 10

Testing H2

Stage 1	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Psychological safety	0.3	0	15.09	0	0.09
Independent variable: Transformational leadership					
Stage 2	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Psychological safety	0.26	0	11.57	0	0.07
Independent variable: Providing Individual Support					
Stage 3	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Psychological safety	0.32	0	17.44	0	0.1
Independent variable: High-performance expectations					

In the second stage, As can be seen in table 4.11 psychological safety explained 11% of work engagement. Accordingly, psychological safety increases work engagement ($\beta = 0.32$; $p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 11

Testing H2

Stages	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Work engagement	0.33	0	18.98	0	0.11
Independent variable: Psychological safety					

In the last stage, as can be seen in table 4.12, the mediating role of psychological safety has been evaluated in the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement. When transformational leadership and psychological safety are evaluated together or when psychological safety included as a variable, it is seen that the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement decreases from 0.29 units to 0.20 units. ($p < 0.05$). This finding shows that psychological safety has a partial mediator role in the effect of transformational leadership on work engagement. Accordingly, H2 hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4. 12

Testing H2

Stages	β	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
Dependent variable: Work engagement behaviour					
Independent variables:					
Transformational leadership	0.21	0.008	13.43	0	0.15
Psychological safety	0.27	0.001			

4.6. Differentiation of Variables According to Gender, Marital Status and Education Level

Table 4. 13

Differentiation of Variables According to Gender

	n	$\bar{X}$	sd	t	p
Transformational leadership					
Male	100	80.27	15.96	2.40	0.017
Female	55	73.47	18.39		
Psychological safety					
Male	100	20.86	3.97	-0.47	0.643
Female	55	21.16	3.75		
Work engagement					
Male	100	27.35	6.12	0.53	0.594
Female	55	26.84	4.96		

Transformational leadership differs according to the gender ($p < 0.05$). The average of male participants is significantly higher than the average of female participants.

Table 4. 14

Differentiation of Variables According to Marital Status

	n	$\bar{X}$	sd	t	p
Transformational leadership					
Married	103	78.51	16.46	0.67	0.503
Single	52	76.56	18.44		
Psychological safety					
Married	103	20.69	3.83	-1.26	0.210
Single	52	21.52	3.97		
Work engagement					
Married	103	27.80	5.42	1.94	0.054
Single	52	25.92	6.14		

Variables do not differ according to marital status ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4. 15

Differentiation of Variables According to Education

	n	$\bar{X}$	sd	F	p	LSD Test
Transformational leadership						
High school ¹	16	79.69	23.69	1.38	0.254	
Undergraduate ²	91	79.33	15.66			
Graduate ³	48	74.46	17.14			
Psychological safety						
High school ¹	16	21.38	4.59	0.28	0.722	
Undergraduate ²	91	21.07	4.00			
Graduate ³	48	20.65	3.44			
Work engagement						
High school ¹	16	30.50	5.48	3.92	0.022	1>2
Undergraduate ²	91	26.35	5.89			
Graduate ³	48	27.60	5.10			

Work engagement differs according to education ($p < 0.05$). The average of high school graduate participants is significantly higher than the average of undergraduate participants.

5. CONCLUSION

The external environment of organizations has become a state where systematic changes are experienced, seeking better performance and increasing conditions of competitiveness. This external environment requires organizations to acquire new skills for success, develop their communication networks with the internal and external environment, motivate employees both individually and as a group, and develop methods of obtaining and managing organizational information. In this rapidly changing environment, organizations should have a qualified organizational force as well as a strong organizational structure. Organizations that have skilled employees and can manage them effectively can survive in a competitive environment. Businesses that show the right leadership approaches to their employees and keep their psychological safety perceptions high are expected to have highly committed employees. In this study prepared from this point of view, the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement was investigated and the mediating role of psychological safety was evaluated in this relationship.

According to the findings obtained from the study, transformational leadership increases the perception of psychological safety. The main objectives of transformational leaders are to display positive, emotional, and exciting words and actions to focus on common organizational goals and values by sacrificing personal interests of employees. Features such as their strong vision, personality structures, which are accepted as role models, and their ability to persuade enable them to inspire their employees more easily and direct them towards common organizational goals. Those who work under the leadership of such a leader are not afraid to suffer negative results regarding their image, status and career; it will endeavor to reveal its own selves. With transformational

leadership, employees can share their ideas without fear of punishment, are respected and feel psychologically safe. In the research conducted by Carmeli et al. (2014), it was concluded that transformational leadership increased psychological safety in parallel with this finding.

According to another finding of the research, psychological safety perception increases the work engagement. Similarly, Lyu (2016) concludes that psychological security perception increases engagement. When employees do not anticipate potential threats or personal risks related to communication, they have a high sense of psychological safety and are willing to contribute to group discussions. On the other hand, if the group members find it very risky, threatening or disturbing to communicate within the group, there is a lack of psychological safety. This fear is about focusing on self-protection rather than communication. For this reason, employees will devote themselves to their work without fear of negative consequences in environments where they do not face the risk of being labeled as ignorant, incompetent or disturbing by their colleagues, and have high psychological safety perception, and this will ensure the attachment to the job. On the other hand, individuals who work in organizations where individuals do not feel psychologically safe and have unpredictable and threatening work conditions may have the idea of turnover because they are afraid to take risks.

According to another finding of the research, transformational leadership increases work engagement. Behaviors such as creating a vision, putting employees into action in line with this vision, emphasizing organizational values rather than individual values, enabling employees to participate in organizational processes and identify with the objectives of the organization are the main features of transformational leadership. One of the ways transformational leaders can ensure that employees follow them is by exhibiting

the ideal impact behavior attributed. Achieving the praise of the manager or leader, establishing relationships with a good communication and interaction with both the leader and his colleagues, a good and peaceful work environment, a sufficient salary, a management style that values the employees and organizational policies as external elements of satisfaction. comes to the fore. Such leaders, who gain the respect, belief and trust of the employees, make them proud of working with them and which are seen as a charismatic role model in the eyes of the employees, create an ideal effect in the employees, increase the engagement of the employees to the work. Similar results were obtained in other studies in the literature (Tims et al., 2011; Ghadi et al., 2013; Nzarubara, 2019).

According to the regression analysis conducted to evaluate the mediating role effect, psychological safety perception was found to have a partial mediating role in the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. This result shows that transformational leaders, who display behaviors such as emphasizing organizational values rather than individual values, enabling employees to participate in organizational processes and identify with the objectives of the organization, affect employees' perception of psychological security; It shows that the employees' work engagement has increased, trying to reveal their selves without fear of suffering negative results regarding their image, status and career.

According to the results of the analysis conducted within the framework of demographic characteristics, a negative relationship was determined between age and psychological security perception, and a positive relationship between work engagement and age. There is a negative relationship between the number of years of experience in the industry and psychological safety, and a positive relationship between work engagement.

However, there is a positive relationship between the number of years of experience in the company and the work engagement. As a natural result of many years of service at the institution and increasing age, employees will develop certain habits and emotional loyalties. Especially those who work at ages with high perceptions of risking a career change will develop commitment to work even if their perception of psychological safety is low.

According to another finding of the research, transformational leadership perception is higher in male employees. It is believed that this result is due to the fact that the managers in the relevant enterprise are composed of men. However, another finding of the study reveals that high school graduate employees' work engagement is significantly higher than undergraduate graduates. In parallel with the increase in the level of education, it can be said that the higher opportunity of employees to develop different career plans reveals this finding.

5.1. Limitations of the Study

Within the framework of time and budget restrictions, employees of a multinational company in a single city were selected as the sample of the study. In this case, the sample size was limited to 155 employees. However, another important limitation of the study is that the results obtained are limited to the measurement criteria of the data collection tools used. The results obtained might differ if the region, industry or sector was different.

5.2. Managerial Implications

Findings obtained as a result of the research emphasized the factors that are important for both managers and employees in organizations. The leaders' abandoning the traditional autocratic and bureaucratic management style will lead to positive attitudes and

behaviors in the employees. In addition to reward mechanisms, leaders who take part in decisions, take into account their individual interests, coach them through the process of doing business, and interact effectively by using internal communication networks will increase the level of commitment to employees. Management actions such as focusing on the individual interests of employees, meeting their needs, respecting their rights, giving authority and responsibility in the necessary fields, and providing feedback on business processes and performance are among the components that will positively affect the work engagement. Therefore, a transformational leadership style should replace the traditional autocratic leadership style.

In today's society, leaders should make arrangements to enable employees to participate in the decisions to be taken in the workplace, to enable them to express their energies in the workplace, and to increase their psychological safety perceptions, as they enable them to enjoy their work and increase their efficiency. Managers, who do not take the opinions of the employees in their business processes, do not deal with their problems and have low level of business knowledge, cause feelings of dissatisfaction in the staff.

These findings indicate an important point for organizations. Today, intensive efforts are being made in all institutions to increase organizational success, efficiency and effectiveness. However, as a result of these intense activities, if organizational practices and leadership styles are not used effectively, this may negatively affect the psychological safety perception of the employees and may lead to decreases in the long-term engagement. In this case, establishing an organizational environment in which employees have high psychological safety perception and where transformational leadership used effectively in all activities may be one of the effective ways of increasing the work engagement.

5.3. Suggestions for Future Research

First of all, the sample used in the research creates a limitation. It prevents public-private sector comparisons from individuals working in a private company. In the future, conducting similar studies on public sector firms will help to generalize the research findings. It is also a limitation that these private sector employees are selected from only one occupational group. In different occupational groups, the relationships between variables can occur differently. In addition, the fact that the study was conducted with cross-sectional data should be considered as a limitation. In future research, repeating a similar model in different occupational groups and using data based on long-term observations may provide a better understanding of the relationships between variables.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY FORM

DEMOGRAPHICS

1	Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın
2	Yaşınız:
3	Medeni durumunuz: ☐ Evli ☐ Bekar
4	Öğrenim durumunuz: ☐ İlköğretim ☐ Lise ☐ Ön Lisans ☐ Lisans ☐ Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora
5	Sektördeki deneyim yılınız:
6	Bu işletmedeki deneyim yılınız:

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE

1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2: Katılmıyorum, 3: Kararsızım, 4: Katılıyorum, 5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum					
1. İşletmenin gelecekteki durumuna ilişkin net bir fikre sahiptir	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çalışanlara sözlerinden çok davranışlarıyla örnek olur.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Örgüt amaçlarının oluşturulmasına çalışanların katılımını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bizden çok şey beklediğini, bize açıkça söyler ve belli eder.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Benim duygularımı dikkate alarak davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Beni, rutin sorunları, yeni bakış açısı ile çözmeye teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5
7. İşletmenin gelecekteki durumunu çalışanlara anlatmaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Benim için izlenecek, örnek alınacak bir liderdir.	1	2	3	4	5
9. İşletme içi takım çalışmalarında işbirliğini sürekli hale getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Bizden her zaman en iyisini, daha iyisini yapmamızı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Benim kişisel duygulanma saygı gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Beni düşünmeye sevk eden sorular sorar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İşletme için daima yeni fırsatlar arar.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Başarılarla ve amaçlara ulaşmayı sembolleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Çalışanların, “takım oyuncusu” olmalarını sağlamaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Faaliyetlerimizi değerlendirirken ikinci en iyiyi başarı olarak görmez.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Benim kişisel ihtiyaçlarımı göz önüne alarak davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İşleri gerçekleştirme biçimimi sürekli gözden geçirmem için beni uyarır.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Çalışanlara, geleceğe ilişkin planlarıyla ilham vermeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Çalışanları (gurubu) aynı amaca dönük olarak çalışmaya sevk eder.	1	2	3	4	5

21. İşime ve kariyerime ilişkin beklentilerimi yükseltmemi sağlamaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Çalışanların belirlenen amaçlara bağlılık duymalarına önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Çalışanlarda takım düşüncesinin ve ruhunun oluşmasını sağlamaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5

PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY SCALE

1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2: Katılmıyorum, 3: Kararsızım, 4: Katılıyorum, 5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum					
1. Bu kurumda bir hata yaparsanız, bu genellikle aleyhinizde kullanılır.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bu kurumun çalışanları karşılaştıkları problemleri ve çözülmesi zor sorunları açıkça dile getirirler	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu kurumda çalışan insanlar, bazen farklı olmak adına diğer çalışanların fikirlerine karşı çıkarlar.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu kurumda risk almak güvenlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu kurumda çalışanlardan kolay kolay yardım istenmez.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu kurumdaki hiç kimse benim çabalarımı kasıtlı olarak engelleyecek şekilde davranmaz	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu kurumdaki insanlar ile çalışırken, benzersiz beceri ve yeteneklerim kıymet görür ve bunlardan faydalanılır	1	2	3	4	5

WORK ENGAGEMENT SCALE

1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2: Katılmıyorum, 3: Kararsızım, 4: Katılıyorum, 5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum					
1. İşimi yaparken kendimi çok enerjik hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimi yaparken kendimi güçlü ve dinç hissedirim	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sabah uyandığımda işe gitme isteği duyuyorum	1	2	3	4	5
4. İşim bana coşku veriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İşim bana ilham veriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yaptığım işten gurur duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Yoğun bir şekilde çalışırken kendimi mutlu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İşe gömülmüş durumdayım.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Çalışırken kendimden geçiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5