THE EFFECT OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON EMPLOYEE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

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THE EFFECT OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON EMPLOYEE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

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ABSTRACT

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Business Administration Masters Program
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The aim of this study is to look at the psychological effects of the perceived leadership style and perceived emotional intelligence on employees. White-collar employees participating in the study were asked to fill out Multifactor Leadership Scale 5X and Wong and Low Emotional Intelligence Scale considering their leader, and to fill out the Ryff Psychological Well-Being questionnaire to evaluate their own psychological well-being. As a result of the validity, reliability and correlation analyzes, it was seen that the perceived transformational leadership style and perceived emotional intelligence were positively correlated with employee psychological well-being. At the same time, it was determined that the perceived transformational leadership style and perceived emotional intelligence had a positive and significant effect on the psychology of the employee. Contrary to the results of transformational leadership, perceived transactional leadership style had a negative effect on employee psychological well-being.

Keywords: Leadership Style, Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Well-being

ÖZET

ALGILANAN LİDERLİK STİLİ VE DUYGUSAL ZEKANIN ÇALIŞANLARIN ÜZERİNDEKİ PSİKOLOJİK ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, algılanan liderlik stilinin ve algılanan duygusal zekanın çalışanlar üzerindeki psikolojik etkisine bakmaktır. Çalışmaya katılan beyaz yaka çalışanların liderlerini düşünerek Çoklu Liderlik Anketi ve Wong ve Law Duygusal Zeka Ölçeğini doldurmaları, aynı zamanda çalışanların psikolojik iyilik hallerini değerlendirmek için Ryff Psikolojik İyi Olma anketini doldurmaları istenmiştir. Yapılan geçerlilik, güvenilirlik ve korelasyon analizleri sonucunda algılanan dönüşümcü liderlik stili ve algılanan emosyonel zekanın, psikolojik iyi oluş ile pozitif korele olduğu görülmüştür. Aynı zamanda algınanan dönüşümcü liderlik stili ve algılanan emosyonel zekanın çalışanların psikolojisi üzerinde pozitif anlamlı etkisinin olduğu saptanmıştır. Dönüşümcü liderliğin sonuçlarının aksine, algılanan işlemsel liderliğin ise negatif etkisinin olduğu görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik Stili, Emosyonel Zeka, Psikolojik İyi Oluş

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1.1 Leadership

Leadership applies to all mankind and is a global concept (Lawrence, 2010). Studies on history and human have shown that human beings have always needed a leader; this may be due to our evolution, biological nature, desire or needs.

Lawrence (2010) sought to explain leadership in evolutional and biological bases, and summed our impulses under four main drives; acquire, defend, bond and comprehend. First two drives are said to be more animalistic instincts that are necessary for survival as species. To acquire, one must do whatever is needed to survive and also helping the survival of his offspring. The second drive, to defend, means to face threats for survival of himself and his offspring. The other two drives, bonding and comprehending come from human nature and they were also supported by Darwin. The drive to bond means bonding and communicating with others and sustaining meaningful long-term relationships. Comprehending, which is more elusive and have a deeper meaning, means being open to learning, creating, innovating and understanding, making a sense of his world and adding a meaning to this world (Lawrence, 2010).

The biggest difference comes from the last two drives that separates us from nonhumans, but on the other hand, acquire and defend are a necessity for the leaders' core feeling, survival. When acquiring is considered only for food, shelter and mating, it may seem insufficient for leadership. However what acquire actually means is going after what interests or pleases the leader or to please the ones that leader cares for. Same goes for the drive to defend, it doesn't only mean staying alive and fighting the threats. On a leadership point of view defending indicates caring for beliefs, defending emotions, pride, hope, physical and mental health, protecting the ones in danger, helping the ones in need. When all the mentioned drives are met and balanced, a person who can lead himself with these drives will be able to lead others, as a result followers will acknowledge the same and an optimal equilibrium will be established in that group of people (Lawrence, 2010).

Even though the drives of leadership are rather instinctive, the first examples of leaders and followers were observed most clearly in the hierographic period of the Egyptians, but it has found our day to be supported by detailed, systematic and scientific studies (Bass & Bass, 2009; Yammarino, 2013). At first, the priority belonged to prominent and distinguished leaders such as king and queens of certain major countries, dictators, revolutionaries, military administrators (Bass & Bass, 2009). None of the spot light was on typical, ordinary, informal leaders or on the leaders that are the part of the lower hierarchical status (Yammarino, 2013). At first it was believed that leaders were born, but such ideas have evolved and leadership has survived to the present day by showing many changes.

1.2 Leaders Born or Made

The first dilemma that has been the subject of controversy for over a century was whether leaders were born with innate leadership qualities (Bass & Bass, 2009; Campbell, 2008; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2009). Data gathered from twin studies have shown that leadership is based on genetic predisposition (De Neve, Mikhaylov, Dawes, Christakis, & Fowler, 2013; A. M. Johnson, Vernon, Harris, & Jang, 2004; A. M. Johnson et al., 1998). In studies conducted on twins, the effect of genetic predisposition on leadership personality traits was calculated as thirty percent (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhang, & McGue, 2006; De Neve et al., 2013). Although studies have not found a specific gene, there are many reasons to believe that these genes exist (De Neve et al., 2013).

The first reason is that some genes have been shown to elicit chemical reactions, which in turn affect brain and change behavior. This showed that people with specific genotypes could take on the leadership role (Nicolaou, Shane, Cherkas, Hunkin, & Spector, 2008). The second reason is that, genes can be a factor in the development of individual attributes that can reveal the infrastructure and predisposition of leadership. For example, extraversion has been found to be highly associated with leadership, and gene studies have proven that it corresponds to a specific gene. The presence of this gene may increase the susceptibility to leadership (Eichhammer et al., 2005; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Riemann, Angleitner, & Strelau, 1997).

The third reason is that people with leadership genes prefer certain environments. Their genes may encourage them to enter favorable environments that may reveal their leadership role (Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Neale & Cardon, 2013). Finally, genes may influence sensitivity to environmental stimuli that mediate the propensity to assume a leadership role, a phenomenon known as gene-environment interaction (Moffitt, Caspi, & Rutter, 2005). Interest in information requires having a specific dopamine gene. Leadership characteristics such as problem solving and task focus combine with information-sensitive gene to form the necessary infrastructure for the completion of cognitive tasks (Zhang, Ilies, & Arvey, 2009).

On the other hand, there are many studies and counter-arguments that claim that leaders are not born but made (Boerma et al., 2017). Several reasons such as statistical flaws in twin studies, evidence of leaders born from family members without leadership history, and leaders coming from learning leadership skills and highlighting their skills by supporting them with their experiences has brought questions to the surface which needs to be evaluated in detail (Boerma et al., 2017).

It would not be right to expect a person with only thirty percent of leadership hardware to be a great leader (Boerma et al., 2017). In genetics, it is only wise to assume that a great leader is born from parents who have leadership genes, but there are many examples of good leaders who have no such family predisposition (Barrier, 2007; Chernow, 2007). It is believed that while genetic predisposition is thirty percent effective in the emergence of leadership traits, the remaining seventy percent is caused by environmental factors (Arvey et al., 2006; Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007; Li, Arvey, Zhang, & Song, 2012). Good and effective leader characteristics like passion, giving hope, inspiration, guiding the vision, curiosity, and risk taking are not born with the leader, but rather get developed by life experiences which are shaped by stimuli gathered from leaders environment (Bennis, 2009).

If it is necessary to come to a conclusion on this matter, it can be said that all leaders are born and all leaders are made (Yammarino, 2013). According to Yammarino (2013), leaders are born with genetic capabilities and their experiences through early life creates their base level. As they come across various situations, they learn, adapt, develop and enhance their leadership competencies in many levels (Hollander, 1978; Yammarino, 2013; Yukl, 2010).

1.3 Trait Theory

As mentioned before, first theories were based on genetics, the belief that leadership was transmitted through father to son. Leadership was the right of the royal blood until World War I, when many battles were lost in Europe and many kingdoms have failed to survive (Bertocci, 2009). With the industrial period rising, many men and women who were not descendants of royal blood have gained positions of power by becoming an industrial giant and this change made genetic leadership an unreliable theory (Bertocci, 2009). As a result of the inadequacy of the genetic theory, the idea of trait theory was put forward. Trait theory proclaims that leaders are born with leadership characteristics and they do not have to come from a royal blood. Trait theory collects many theories that try to define leadership through similar personality, characteristics and traits. Simply trait theory examines good leaders and their capabilities and since there are many leaders, traits and characteristics of the leaders varies exaggeratedly (Bertocci, 2009).

In 1970s research focused on the leader as a person and assumed that the leader would treat everyone in the group the same (Bass & Bass, 2009; Yukl, 2010). During this time, style differences between leaders, his or her attitude towards the followers as a whole, and the distinction of group effectiveness by the leader's style were the main focus because, at that time it was considered that a leader would approach the whole group as one, with a consistent style (Yukl, 2010).

The biggest criticism to this theory came from Stogdill and Shartle (1948), with their much quoted sentence 'A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits'. It has caused a change in many researchers' perspectives on leadership (Zaccaro, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018). A reason for the inadequacy of trait theory is that, trait inventories are found to be not sufficient. Variety of research settings and wide range of samples were so diverse that obtaining consistent results across studies were hard to achieve (Gibb, 1954; Stogdill & Shartle, 1948).

It was later observed that the manifestation of leadership is determined to a large extent, by social factors. In fact, social conditions can cause a person with good leadership potential to end up displaying poor leadership behaviors (Ghiselli & Brown, 1948). On another note, Secord and Backman (1961), compared the differences

between leaders and non-leaders, came to a conclusion that very few consistent differences were observable. Thus, sufficient and effective leadership behavior is molded by the situation the leader is facing (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1973). Fiedler (1964), provided a more sophisticated framework indicating that leaders are likely to be effective when their patterns matched the situation.

1.4 Behavioral Theory

Seeing that trait theory studies are not sufficient in many cases, researchers started to concentrate on behavioral theories (Goff, 2003). After 1970s the focus of research changed course and headed towards how leaders treated followers individually and differently and how the leaders' style changed the performance of the follower (Dansereau Jr, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Trait theory predicted that the leader should have necessary personality characteristics. Behavioral theory says that effective leadership is determined by how the leader acts in certain situations. According to this theory, instead of searching for traits, it is crucial to explore the leader's behavior and how it affects the followers (Bertocci, 2009).

According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), behavioral theory has two main elements, namely the leader's genuine care about people and human relations, and sufficient determination to complete the task. With the first element, the leader interacts with her followers, gains their trust, shows that she is sensitive to their problems and needs, and knows that she should be in harmony with her followers. With the second element, the leader brings out the practical personality, makes observations and inspections, and gives the necessary directives for the job (Bass & Stogdill, 1990).

While Bass and Stogdill have two elements for behavioral theory Yukl (1971) defines four behavioral properties. Clear indication of the goal and expectations and a thorough description of the work constitute directive features. Listening to their followers, trying to understand their concerns, and making adequate suggestions are their supporting characteristics. Evaluating ideas and thoughts and making decisions show the participatory feature of the leader. Setting high goals and keeping followers committed to these goals is shaped by the achievement behavior (Yukl, 1971). In short,

behavioral leaders direct and support followers, participate in action, and focuses on achievement.

As many common points between these two views show, under thought of behavioral theory, once again we can say that leaders are not born, leaders are revealed through study, experience and practice (Goff, 2003).

Table 1

List of Leadership Traits and Behaviors from Different Authors

Traits	Behaviors
teamwork, sharing information, core competency, focus	persuade, inspire, mutual thought feeling and action, mutual values
win-win, proactive, first things first, first understand then be understood	change agent, open to leadership developmentactivities, technology knowledge
trusting intuition, open, communication, common sense, trust, practicing humility	inspiring role model, teaching excellence, promote relationships, enriching all associations
confidence, courage, good judgment, technical experience, persistence	creating and communicating the vision, supporting an organizational culture, exhibiting character, getting results
honest, inspiring, competent, commitment, strenght, vision	

Considering trait theory and behavior theory, according to Bolman and Deal, there is no single universal trait that will enable us to be a leader, nor is there a specific behavior that makes a good leader (Bolman & Deal, 2017). While leadership traits and behaviors are an endless sea, the probability of gathering all the described elements in a single person is very low. If finding a leader with all these elements is a big deal, then active use of all these traits and behaviors requires great artistic skill (Goff, 2003).

1.5 Transactional Leadership (TS)

One of the perspectives that have gained more popularity today after behavioral theories is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is mostly based on the exchange between the leader and the follower but represents mediocrity in many senses (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders interact with their followers in a cost-benefit relationship (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Looking at Maslow's hierarchy of needs, transactional leaders can only bring the lower segments of this pyramid to life (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). Such leaders consider increasing the working capacity of their employees with threats and rewards and doing so they stress the employee for a specific task performance (Bass, 1990; Hargis et al., 2011). In this leadership format, the leader communicates with followers only when the goals or standards are not achieved (Bass, 1990). According to Bass (1990), this kind of leadership is considered to be inoperative and malignant.

Table 2

Transactional Leadership Dimensions

Contingent reward	Rewards for effort and good performance, notices achievements
Management by exception (active)	Finds deviations from rules and standarts, takes necessary measurements
Management by exception (passive)	Takes action only if there is any deviation from the standarts
Laissez-Faire	Does not fulfill its responsibilities, avoids making decisions

(Bass, 1990)

Transactional leaders are result-oriented, and those who want to be under their command prefer to be rewarded with tangible things (Sarros & Santora, 2001). With contingent reward the leader promotes harmony by addressing the needs and desires of individuals. Leaders who manage with contingent reward are expected to guide their followers and thus complete the work (Sarros & Santora, 2001). The negative aspects of contingent reward are that the leader materializes the individuals in the group and forgets that she is in an organizational creature. This often results in a lack of synergy between the leader and her followers. In short, contingent rewarding takes the

materialist approach into account, while avoiding the meaningful and logical. To sum up, contingent rewards can be defined by rewarding performance, giving directions, and having an exchange for everything (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

Transactional leaders give importance to the stages of the work rather than constructive thoughts and ideas (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Transactional leaders praise or reward the employees if they achieve the goal in time or before due time, however they have the power to punish the employees if the quality or quantity of work is below than expected or if the standards are not met (Bass, 1990; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Punishments are adjusted in two ways, active management by exception or passive management by exception. Active management by exception means that the leader evaluates the performance of the employee before the problem occurs and makes the necessary corrections (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). On the other hand, passive management by exception leaders wait until a problem arises (Bass, 1990; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013).

When management by exception is involved, there is little room for imagination or adventure. If the work has been done as it should be and the result has been reached, that is enough for the leader. Followers who are managed in this way are not asked to push the boundaries of their thoughts and ideas. Leaders with management by exception are the control point rather than the inspirer. One negative aspect about exceptional management is that the manager ignores their own weaknesses or does not seek a radical solution to organizational problems. In short, management by exception can be linked to being result oriented, limited communication, lack of confidence (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

Although laissez faire appears under the name of transactional leadership, it is not exactly a leadership concept. A person who shows laissez faire behavior, isolates herself from problems and does not want to get involved in most affairs, she wants to keep the interaction between individuals to a minimum. These leaders display lazy, insensitive behaviors towards their work and organization, which negatively affects the motivation of the employees who has good performance. In summary, laissez faire leadership is associated with laziness, avoidance of responsibilities, a clear conscience and aloofness (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

1.6 Transformational Leadership (TF)

Transformational leadership differs from other theories that it involves its followers in the process and wants to establish a more social environment. Transformational leader aims to keep the morale and motivation of both the follower and herself high (House & Shamir, 1993). The transformational leader can talk to her followers about thoughts, beliefs, perspectives, values, and judgments, and listen to her followers' opinions. In this way she succeeds in reaching the targeted place more easily. The leader interferes with followers' thinking process, enabling them to put their own interests behind and focus on higher-order needs that matter more (Bass & Avolio, 1997). As a result, the transformational leader's behavior fits into Maslow's triangle of needs (Abraham Harold Maslow, 1981). In this theory, leaders and followers try to meet the needs of their group by putting their personal interests aside (House & Aditya, 1997). Transformational leadership consists of four main behaviors, these are; idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

1.6.1. Idealized influence. The first component of transformational leadership is called idealized influence or charisma, and it entails the leader behaving as an admirable person, demonstrating and taking a stand that causes followers to identify with the leader, showing a clear set of mind and values as a role model for the followers. Leaders with idealized influence are more sensitive to the needs and concerns of their followers, while also demonstrating that the risk taken is taken by the entire group (D. I. Jung, 2001). Creating values that can be a source of inspiration, adding value to the work done, and giving a purpose within the group, having confidence on the followers can help achieve great things (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Yukl, 2010).

As a result of the high expectation of the leader from the followers, the self-confidence of the followers and their capacity to do good increases (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Leaders empower others to trust themselves, so followers are always ready to self-sacrifice (House & Shamir, 1993). Such leaders are highly skilled at controlling and stabilizing their emotions. Leaders with idealized influence are actively learning leaders (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). Leaders who are strong in this way

overcome their internal conflicts and feel that they are the masters of their own destinies (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Leaders with high idealized influence have three different aspects which are personal, social, and fighting. Considering her personal aspects, she is sincere, devoted, curious, and free-spirited. When we look at her social aspects, leadership, comradeship, loyalty to family, patriotism, and bravery come to fore. The fighting aspects are considered to be control, endurance, decision making, composure, and audacity (Sarros & Santora, 2001). In short, role modeling, creating value, creating purpose, making sense, promoting self-confidence, free will, emotional control, will to fight for the purpose, and trusting ones followers are fundamentals of idealized influence.

1.6.2 Inspirational motivation. The second one, inspirational motivation, involves actions like generating a vision that is appealing to the followers, inspiring them with optimism about their future ideas and goals, and making current goals meaningful (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). A leader with inspirational motivation seeks to focus on the reasons for organizational existence rather than focusing on the leader's personality (Bass & Avolio, 1997). She strives to bring out the best in her teammates instead of constantly suffocating them with directives. Since the leader does not aim to prevent creativity, she wants to reveal the positive aspects of her teammates and to nurture thoughts that can be beneficial to the organization. A leader with inspirational motivation respects the autonomy of the followers, encourages them to make their own decisions, and creates the appropriate environment. Such leaders set high standards for followers and asks them to think outside the box for organizational development and growth (House & Shamir, 1993). In short, they create a vision, communicate, encourage, work with, and autonomously liberate their employees.

1.6.3 Intellectual stimulation. In the third component, intellectual stimulation, as the name suggests, the leader challenges the odds and paves the way for the creativity of the followers. Leaders in this group manage their emotional balance very well and solve many problems by thinking rationally. They do not undertake this burden alone and try to instill these characteristics in other group members. With intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, it is aimed to increase the organizational skills of the followers, as well as their characters and mentoring ability

(House & Shamir, 1993). Intellectually activating followers and bringing out their creative side is a great skill and by intellectual stimulation, the leader provides an environment, in which followers can see that they can bond with leader, the organization, each other, and the goal. As a result, followers can creatively overcome any odds or obstacles in the way of their task (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). The key words of this third component are rationality, decision making, supporting, mentoring, creativity, accepting challenges and involvement of the individuals (Nawaz & Khan, 2016).

Table 3

Transformational Leadership Components

Idealized influence	Acting as a role model, earning followers' admiration, articulating goals and missions of the group
Inspirational motivation	Creating a meaningful and engaging vision while demonstrating the feasibility of the goal
Intellectual stimulation	Letting and helping followers to have their own creative and modern decisions
Individualized consideration	Approaching followers individually and guiding them according to their strengths and weaknesses

(Nawaz, 2016)

1.6.4 Individualized consideration. Lastly, individualized consideration, is the degree which the leader attends every follower individually, cares for their needs, acts as a coach, and respects every individual by showing appreciation on how much they showed contribution to the team and task. In this way, she enhances follower's need for self-actualization and self-worth, in doing so, it inspires the team mates to achieve more (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). Individual consideration helps to keep morale and motivation high in the workplace. The keywords of this fourth component are, individuality, guidance, and self-actualization (Nawaz & Khan, 2016).

1.7 Differences Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

When transformational and transactional leadership theories are considered, the biggest difference is related with what leaders and followers offer to each other (Burns,

1978; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Transactional leaders exercise a lower level of governance in the Maslow's hierarchy, meanwhile transformational leaders appeal to the upper levels of the triangle (Bass, 1990; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Transformational leader puts followers' needs first, while transactional leader sees proper exchange of resources as necessary, for something she wants or desires (Burns, 1978; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). The transformational leader has been proven to produce positive results at the organizational and individual level, she encourages followers to grow towards self-actualization and self-esteem (Bass, 1990). Although transactional leadership is not sufficient for relationships, it can prove itself useful in some cases.

Transactional leaders do not focus on changing the future; on the contrary they are willing to keep the status quo (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Their main goal is to find deviations from normal and faults of the employees (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). This type of leadership is useful in emergencies, in crisis management, and when the task needs to be done in a certain way (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Kotter (2000) resembles volatile times and competitions in business to wars. At peace periods the army can be managed but at wartime soldiers need to be led and protect what they have. Although this aspect of transactional leadership shows relative usefulness, it has been observed that it falls short in many aspects when compared to the transformational leadership.

When compared to transformational leadership, studies show that the organizational outcomes of transactional leadership is more negative (Choi, Sagas, Park, & Cunningham, 2007). It has been observed that operational leaders have deficiencies in organizational commitment, sense of loyalty, defining the organization and being included (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). Temporary agreements and superficial exchanges take place in organizational units that incorporate fabricated relationships. Materialistic approaches lead to inadequacy in directing and managing the team, and poor organizational performance (Stewart, 2006).

In decision-making phases, it is seen that transactional leaders do not give enough authority and freedom of ideas to their followers (Patiar & Mia, 2009). A typical transactional leader tends to suppress creativity, talents and innovative thoughts, preventing personal and organizational growth (Patiar & Mia, 2009). Subordinates constantly compare each other, if the value they add to the organization

and the value they receive are not the same as their other colleagues, their trust in the organization is shaken and they begin to perceive the situation as unjust (Hon & Lu, 2010; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999).

While transactional leader is seen as a more traditional concept, the transformational leader concept can be described as a more innovative trend (Bryman, 1992; Doherty, 1997). When examining the effectiveness of transactional leaders and the satisfaction of followers in business management, it has been observed that it lags behind other theories (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In the studies conducted, when transactional and transformational leadership theories are compared, it has been seen that it would be much more beneficial to use both in combination (Dai, Dai, Chen, & Wu, 2013). As it can be understood from here, although the transactional leader may have many negative aspects, its benefits when merged with other theories should not be overlooked. Making the right transitions between leadership styles at the right time is seen as a fixer (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

1.8 Leader/Follower Relationship

Leadership theories have changed the orientation towards leader, leadership and followers since the early 80s and have begun to examine more the exchanges between leader and followers. Transactional leadership constitutes the first group of structure in which agreements are made between the leader and the follower (House & Shamir, 1993). Unfortunately, transactional leadership shows inconsistency with the leaders level of action and the nature of her relationships with followers (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). Transformational leadership, on the other hand, distinguishes itself from all other modern theories. Always wanting the best, allowing followers to act in a way that contributes to the organization, and setting goals to achieve social superiority makes transformational leadership more prominent than others (House & Shamir, 1993).

At the core of leadership are the followers, and a leader without followers is unthinkable (Balzac, 2014). There won’t be any leading unless someone follows (H. E. Gardner, 2011). It has been observed that relationships in organizational life are unique and this is achieved not only by the leader but also with the skills of the followers (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Gooty & Yammarino, 2011;

Yammarino & Dansereau, 2009). The expression of the followers' abilities is realized with the emotions that are revealed and transmitted. Emotions are essential in leadership; logic drives people to think, while emotions move people. The real trick of leadership is knowing what emotions to use and how and where (Balzac, 2014). As emotional dynamics develop in leadership, trust, fear, autonomy, relatedness, and competence emerges (Balzac, 2014).

Effective communication develops with the establishment of an environment of trust. Trust is not something that happens only when the leader keeps his word. It happens when the leader can complete the leadership image and be respectful to the culture of the organization. In environments where trust cannot be established people protect themselves. This reduces followers' loyalty, innovative actions, feedback and risk-taking potential. Trust in leadership is a two-way street. The follower must learn to trust the leader, and the leader must learn to trust the follower. By knowing the weak points of her followers, the leader guides her followers according to their strengths. In this way, her followers trust themselves and the leader (Balzac, 2014).

When fear as an emotion is above a certain level, it can tire the followers, while lack of fear cause them to be caught off-guard when faced with a problem. The leader must be able to maintain a good balance in between (Balzac, 2014). The leader's autonomy within the team is very important for the individuality in the team. Each individual's way of working and achieving productive results is different. In order to achieve autonomy, an environment of trust must be established between the leader and the followers. A sense of belonging within the group occurs between the leader and the followers and among followers. The more time the person spends in the group and the closer she feels to the culture of the group, the relatedness will increase in direct proportion (Balzac, 2014). Although it is an option to include people with a high level of competence in the group, it is also necessary to ensure the continuity of this feeling after forming the team. The continuity of competence develops in proportion to the environment of trust, in such environments people do not hesitate to ask for help when there is a problem (Balzac, 2014).

Leader-follower relationship has many levels such as individual, dyad, team, collective and multiple. In individual level the biggest concern of the leader is followers. The leader must inspire followers, ignite their ideas, and help them understand the meaning of the situation. In the dyad level, leader must do anything he

can to enhance the performance of each follower, pay attention to followers' needs and give them the right resources to make progress. When it comes to team level leader has to make sure that every follower knows their responsibility, a peaceful climate must be obtained and every member should trust each other. In the collective level, come the vision, mission, objective, goals and proper directions. On this level the leader should be able to think broadly and make long-term plans. Lastly, the leader must be able to meet the expectations of all the followers at all levels (Yammarino, 2013)

The biggest reason why followers follow a leader is actually because of their own goals. Leadership, when we look at it from a broad perspective, takes place when it blends the goals of the others with its own (Balzac, 2014). Having the same aim comes with common feelings and emotions. However, followers were evaluated from a very narrow perspective and studies based on followers reaching meaningful results are not sufficient (Kellerman, 2008; Riggio, Chaleff, & Lipman-Blumen, 2008).

1.9 Definition of the Leadership Concept

Rost (1991), in one of his studies, found that academics often hesitated to define the concept of leadership. In his review study, he examined 587 articles and found that in more than 60 percent of the studies, the definition of leadership was not made, although the focus of the study was leadership. In Kellerman (2012) current studies, it has been seen that there are approximately fourteen thousand leadership definitions and forty-four leadership theories have been put forward. It is quite possible that so many definitions and theories will create a chaotic environment (Volckmann, 2012).

To reduce this chaos, it might be beneficial to subdivide leadership into parts; leader, leading, and leadership. A leader is a role in the system, a person who is considered suitable for this role in line with her personality, behaviors and desires, but will assume this role for a temporary period (Volckmann, 2012). Leader and follower tags are not static labels, these labels can be swapped between leader and followers under changing conditions within a system (Ladkin, 2010).

Leading is all of the activities performed by a person who has temporarily assumed the role of leader. Since leading is complex, it may not be possible for the

followers to understand all the behaviors exhibited by the leader (Volckmann, 2012). How a behavior is perceived by others is a situation that needs to be questioned.

Avolio (2010), has noticed that in many discussions he had been a part of, leadership (the third part) is viewed as a systematic process, an individual, or a combination of the two. When we look at the situation as a system, the concept of leadership, the characteristics of the followers, the timing of the events, the historical events in which the leadership happened should all be examined. When looking at the situation individually, she realized that the talk was about names, personalities, values, experiences, and intelligence. Many scholars are trying to integrate both but struggling to find the proper approach (D. V. Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2008; Ladkin, 2010). It is needed to form a definition from a theoretical and meta-theoretical point of view. Leadership is a systematic phenomenon (complex system) that encompasses the role of leadership (leader) and reveals its behavior, worldview, beliefs and intentions (leading). But it is a context that goes beyond our notions (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). It is necessary to include culture, other subsystems, processes and today's technologies in this complex system. Thus, the leadership term refers to the combination of bio-psycho-social phenomena in which many variables are interplayed to achieve something, even if it is to maintain the status quo in the face of difficulties (Beck & Cowan, 2014). As a result of these distinctions and similarities made, definitions can be useful when the concepts of leader, leading and leadership develop within a system (Volckmann & Bellamy, 2010).

Leadership appears as a system, it is not a uniform formation under normal conditions, that's why prominent academics in leadership have difficulty in defining leadership precisely (Huber, 2002; Northouse, 2021; Rost, 1991). Variable definitions emerge when viewed from different perspectives, disciplines, concepts and structures. Because there is no single definition, how one defines leadership reveals that person's situation, values and intended message (Raffo & Clark, 2018). As discussed before leadership comes throughout life in a variety of experiences, and that leadership cannot be fully understood without realizing that it is unique in itself (Eriksen, 2007; Nichols, 2016).

No matter how one interprets leadership, it will have a different meaning in different work environments, communities, families or countries (Volckmann, 2012). There are accounts that it is more logical to focus on how one perceives the concept of

leadership, rather than the definition (Ladkin, 2010). Many definitions can be revealed based on perceptions brought by the differences in perspective and culture. For example, leaders according to Lao Tzu teachings, were to be selfless, fair, hardworking, able to detect the right time of action, honest in handling conflicts, and able to empower (Heider, 1985). In medieval times, in Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, leadership focused on heroes, where wisdom and serving others were seen as leadership qualities (Silk, 2004; Zaccaro et al., 2018).

In complex systems, leadership emerges in the interaction between the agents. These interactions enable agents to change their bonds as expected in the future (Hazy, Goldstein, & Lichtenstein, 2007). As can be understood from this explanation, from a scientific point of view, leadership is based on individuals, relationships and complex systems. Like many definitions, this one is true but insufficient (Volckmann, 2012). From an intangible perspective, leadership resides only in the imagination and perception of those interacting, where relationships exists (Bolman & Deal, 2017). Many other definitions can be made when viewed from different angles.

Definitions also differed from author to author. According to Fiedler (1967), leadership is coordinating and directing the work of team members. Stogdill (1974) stated that leaders are the ones who affect others by their actions more than others' actions affect them. According to Gibson et al. (1973), who is a contemporary of Stogdill, leadership is about achieving a goal without using coercive influence to get individuals in action. Rost (1991) said, leadership is an effective interaction between leader and followers aimed at making drastic changes to achieve common goals. A more recent brief definition of leadership by George and Jones (2005) is that leaders influence a group of organizations in order to accomplish the goal. Leadership is a process that happens in a specific situation where a leader and followers share the same goal and join forces voluntarily to accomplish the goal in a multi-level leader-follower interaction (Yammarino, 2013). Kouzes and Posner (2006, 2017) said, leadership is an art that reveals the willingness to strive for common ideas and goals.

Many have made the definition of leadership and yet leadership keeps evolving and changing (due to changes in situations, cultures, new laws, business environment, information flow, organizational dilemmas, psychosocial developments), shifting the locus from control and power to influence, process and relationships and no theory

that has been put forward to date is completely irrelevant (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Nawaz & Khan, 2016; Raffo & Clark, 2018).

Leadership is an art that requires merging with time, it's more tribal than experimental, its' about relationships rather than knowledge, and it's hard to put every detail in one word (DePree, 2011).

1.10 Emotional Intelligence (EI)

1.10.1 Emotion. According to western thought, emotions were seen as disturbances in mental activities and it was believed that emotions should be controlled (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Looking at recent history, Young (1943) attributed emotions to individuals experiencing acute fluctuations in their moods. From Schaffer (1940) approach, emotion is an instinctive, disorderly response that occurs because it cannot be properly controlled. When we look at these definitions, emotions mean the disappearance of cerebral control and the emergence of unconscious thoughts (Young, 1936). Contrary to these negative comments, Leeper (1948) saw emotions as the primary source of motivation. According to him, emotions awaken the person, keep the person going and encourages action.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotions as organized reactions, going through boundaries of many psychological subsystems such as cognitive, motivational, physiological and experiential systems. Emotions generally develop as our response to an internal or external event, and this response may not always be positive. Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that emotions emerge briefly but intensely, while at the same time they enable us to adapt to events and enrich our personal and social experiences. Revealing emotions intensely may not produce beneficial results, using emotions sufficiently and wisely will make the job of intellectually effective leaders much easier.

1.10.2 Emotional intelligence. Intelligence has been a topic of debate for a very long time, the first assumptions about intelligence came from Descartes who said intelligence is the ability to differentiate right from wrong (Dorandi, 2013). Wechsler (1958) states that intelligence is the total or global capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to connect effectively with his or her

environment. All the definitions made so far included general scopes, but later on intelligence was divided into its types and more specific definitions were revealed (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The most used and revealed intelligences were verbal, mechanical and social intelligences (H. E. Gardner, 2011; Sternberg, Conway, Ketron, & Bernstein, 1981; Thorndike, 1920).

Although it is difficult to distinguish these three intelligences (verbal, mechanical, and social) from each other, Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as acting rationally in human relations. According to him, social intelligence is the ability to perceive the inner world of oneself and others and to act logically using this information.

As with leadership definitions and theories, social intelligence has passed through the hands of many authors and researchers. According to Mackintosh (1998), who made a more primitive definition, social intelligence is an adaptive concept that showed the social competence and success of social interactions among animals. Additionally, when we focus on human relations, social intelligence helps to understand one's own and others' fears, beliefs, hopes, and wishes (Mackintosh, 1998). According to Furnham (2012), the concept of social intelligence isn't exactly a sign of intelligence, but rather a social ability or a personal trait. To sum up, many studies have shown that social intelligence is a social or individual variable that processes and accumulates information rather than a cognitive variable (Kostantinos V Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2003; Konstantinos V Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Emotional intelligence, which is relevant to our topic, appears as the subset of the social intelligence and shows similarities with personal intelligence, which is the combination of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (H. E. Gardner, 2011).

Interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, constitute emotional intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence enables us to understand and usefully work with other people's intentions, motivations, and desires. As a result of observing the people around, interpersonal intelligence allows the observer to predict peoples next actions by perceiving their mood (H. E. Gardner, 2011). Intrapersonal intelligence, on the other hand, enables human beings to understand themselves and to use this information in a beneficial way to guide their lives (H. E. Gardner, 2000, 2011; Sternberg, 1997).

Apart from its intrapersonal and interpersonal components, emotional intelligence comes with many facets; adaptability, assertiveness, emotion expression,

emotion management, emotion perception, emotion regulation, low impulsiveness, relationship skills, self-esteem, self-motivation, social competence, stress management, trait empathy, happiness and optimism (Furnham, 2012). Some scholars like to combine all the facets, some others preferred to divide it up into factors like self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy and social skills (Goleman 2007).

After Goleman (2007) popularized social intelligence, he brought intelligence and its derivatives to the business world. Goleman (2007) emotional intelligence consisted of self-awareness (emotional self awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence), self-regulation (self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative and optimism), social awareness (empathy, organizational awareness, and service), relationship management (inspiration, influence, developing others, change catalyts, conflict management, teamwork and collaboration).

Table 4

Emotional Intelligence According to Goleman

FOCUS ON SELF	
SELF AWARENESS	
Emotional Self Awareness	Leaders high in emotional self awareness become aware of their inner self and how these signals affect themselves and others.They have the capacity to see all the details of the events and make the best guidance. Leaders who are emotionally aware of themselves can express their feelings openly.
Accurate Self Assessment	Leaders who are aware of their own emotions are also conscious of their strentghs and weaknesses. They are open to improvement and criticism of their weaknesses.
Self Confidence	Leaders who are aware of their abilities also know how to use their strengths. It will be easier for the leader to take on a challenging task. Their self-confidence helps them shine in the group.
SELF REGULATION	
Self Control	Leaders who can control themselves also regulate their bad feelings and impulses, and direct their energies to doing good things. The biggest determinant of this is that the leader can act calmly and rationally in stressful and challenging situations.
Transparency	Leaders who clearly lives her feelings, thoughts, beliefs, and values provides integrity. Leaders who can do this can accept and confront mistakes and flaws.
Adaptability	They carry out their duties without losing their focus and energy, and they do not hesitate to take on the necessities of organizational life.
Achievement	Success-minded leaders have high standarts and this triggers them to improve their own and others' performance. They choose doable but compelling goals, They make the goals more valuable by making the risk calculations correctly. The biggest indicator of this is that she constantly tries to learn and teach.
Initiative	Understanding that their destiny is in their own hands, leaders are not afraid of initiatives. They go after opportunities and create opportunities if necessary. They do their best for a better future.
Optimism	Optimistic leaders tend to see the good in everyone.

Table 4 (cont.d)

FOCUS ON CONTACT WITH OTHERS	
RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT	
Inspiration	Inspiring leaders create an atmosphere of harmony, mobilizing people around them with a compelling vision or shared mission. They make the work environment more exciting by establishing a common purpose instead of daily tasks.
Influence	Influencer leaders, finds the right appeal for a particular listener, knows how to build key people and a support network for the initiative. They are known for their persuasive and action-packed speeches.
Developing Others	Leaders who think about personal growth sincerely listen to their followers' interests and help them develop. The leader, who knows the strength, weakness and goals of her followers, makes appropriate directions in timely manner.
Change Catalysts	Leaders who are not afraid of change, support it when necessary, challenge the current situation and establish the new order. They argue that change is necessary even it isi opposed. They know how to overcome the obstacles.
Conflict Management	The leader, who wants to resolve the differences of opinion, listens to all parties, tries to understand different points of view, and tries to bring them together on a common point. She brings the differences of opinion to light, adopts the feelings arising from the differences of opinion and directs the energy to a common point.
Teamwork and Collaboration	The leader has to create a solidarity and friendly environment among colleagues, while being respectful, helpful and participatory example. They encourage those around her to be active and willingly engaging in commitment. They spend time building strong and close relationships outside of work obligations.

Table 4 (cont.d)

SOCIAL AWARENESS	
Empathy	Empathic leaders have the ability to perceive and adapt to emotional signals individually or in a group, to feel what is felt rather than spoken. They can listen carefully to what is spoken and understand the thoughts of people from different perspectives and cultures.
Organizational Awareness	Socially aware leaders are also politically intelligent. They can perceive important and key relationships, vital social networks. They are aware of the values and unspoken rules of individuals within the organization.
Service	Leaders with high service perception aim to establish the right relationships with the people they communicate with or the customers they serve. It creates a circle of satisfaction both for the organization and among its customers. She indicates that she is available when needed.

(Goleman, 2021)

1.10.3 Process of EI. Four main topics can be mentioned in order to explain emotional intelligence and its stages at the organizational level; perceiving and appraising emotion, understanding emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, managing emotions in self and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). One of the most necessary basic abilities for social interaction is to perceive and make sense of emotions (Salovey & Pizarro, 2003). Not being able to perceive the emotional states of others can cause deficiency in social functions. Understanding emotions of others helps develop perceptual abilities and interpersonal relations.

Table 5

Process of Emotional Intelligence

Perceiving emotions	Perception of emotions as a result of any stimulus from others, oneself or from outside
Using emotions to facilitate thought	Experiencing and using emotions, transferring emotions and using them in cognitive processes
Understanding emotions	Making sense of emotions, understanding the interrelationships of emotions, and appreciating emotions
Managing emotions	Openness to emotions, supporting personal growth by channeling one's own and others' emotions

(Salovey, 1990)

Understanding our own emotions is just as important as perceiving those of others. Our emotions often guide us about the environment we are in, help us see the threat in the environment or that it is good to proceed. We need to be able to perceive the emotions felt and source of the emotions, and to interpret the emotion correctly. There is a handicap in being human, we must distinguish between these two very well as we are prone to misleading ourselves (Gasper & Clore, 2000; Schwarz & Clore, 1983).

According to investigators, although emotions are innate responses for survival, knowledge, experience, and perception of emotion differ from person to person. In order to understand emotions, it is vital to be able to name them and put them into words (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1990). People who can understand the valence of their emotions and experience them can more easily name their emotions. Those who fail to do so may confuse emotions such as anger, sadness or anxiety with each other (Barrett, 1998; Barrett & Gross, 2001; Feldman, 1995). Distinguishing similar feelings, is essential to understand them (Salovey & Rodin, 1986, 1989; Tangney & Salovey, 1999).

Using emotions and activating thoughts phase reveals reasoning and problem solving abilities. In this phase, it should be considered how emotions affect the person cognitively, and how these same emotions can be directed to be more creative and

make useful decisions. Emotions can prevent cognitive processes in stressful and sad situations, but they can also warn the person about what is priority, and even show us which cognitive skills work better when blended with which emotion (Easterbrook, 1959; Palfai & Salovey, 1993; Schwarz, 1990). Being in a good mood does not require examining or interpreting the situation, but being in a bad mood has the opposite effect. A person in a bad situation examines the information around him in more detail in order to survive and protect himself (Schwarz, 1990). Thanks to the different perspectives that come with each different emotion, the ability to think creatively and solve problems can increase (Goodwin & Jamison, 2007; Mayer & Hanson, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

People may use different methods to control their own emotions in order to solve their problems (Isen, 1987). First of all, swings in emotions can help the person in the formation of future plans and goals. Second, positive emotions can act on the memory mechanism, helping to better integrate cognitive material and make various irrelevant thoughts appear more organized (Isen, 1987). Emotion provides interruptions for complex systems, removing them from a certain level of processing and redirecting them to more urgent needs (Pyszczynski & Greenberg, 1987; Wood, Saltzberg, & Goldsamt, 1990). Finally, emotions and moods can be useful for motivating and enhancing the performance of complex intellectual tasks (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Showers, 1992).

When strong emotional changes occur due to a problem, the person can focus their attention on those problems. This orientation is also shaped by the degree of importance of the problem. When they focus on problems in order of importance, they can better manage their internal and external demands, and spend more efficiently the resources they will use to focus their attention (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Finally, positive moods can be helpful for self-motivation and continuity in challenging tasks (Alpert & Haber, 1960).

Managing emotions is the last branch of emotional intelligence and argues that experiencing emotions of self and others is more productive than suppressing them. Experiencing emotions and channeling them in a useful way is a good way to not ignore the emotions but to turn the situation in your favor (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Regulating emotions shows emotional maturity and works in combination with other branches of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Pizarro, 2003). As one can regulate

one's own emotions, it may be necessary to regulate the emotions of others to achieve social goals, although there are opposing views (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

There seems to be a commonality between emotional appraisal and expression, and that is empathy, an ability to understand and feel the emotions of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The more one establishes close and sincere relationships with the people she communicates with, the higher her empathic ability. This is a crucial contributor to the person's well-being (Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985; Carl R Rogers, 1966; Thoits, 1986). When people have healthy communication with each other, their life satisfaction levels increase, and their levels of stress decrease. The higher the emotional intelligence of your friends, the higher her social resilience, and similarly higher the social support she will receive from her environment (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Thanks to empathy, which is a part of emotional intelligence, the person can understand the reactions of the other person and give correct answers. These type of people are seen as warm and sincere, while those who lack empathy appear rude and careless (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

According to Isen (1984), people prefer to stay in happy and peaceful moods, keep their motivation high, and tend to stay away from unpleasant ones. This process is called mood maintenance or mood repair. Being grateful for what you have, trying to see the glass half full and thinking about the things you love and enjoy could be given as examples (Rapaport, 1942). According to this statement, people are more prone to follow a leader who is more capable of keeping them in a happy environment.

1.10.4 High EI leaders effect in business world. The people we see as effective leaders rise to the level of leadership because they are better equipped in many ways. One of their possessions is general intelligence. Although the general intelligence of the leader is undeniably important, leaders can use their general intelligence efficiently in routine and low-stress events. On the other hand, in difficult and stressful situations, general intelligence is difficult to reach and the leader tries to focus on the problem by having to act with their emotions. When the stressful stimulus is gone, the leader can go back to using her general intelligence (Ashkanasy, Ashton-James, & Jordan, 2003). Therefore the importance of general intelligence cannot be denied, but, emotional intelligence may be considered more essential than general intelligence for effective leadership (House & Aditya, 1997; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Leader's emotional intelligence and effective leadership behaviors are intertwined, and they combine to form five key leadership qualities: 1) developing mutual goals and objectives; 2) give a sense of appreciation and importance of work; 3) allow flexibility in decision making and change; 4) establishing confidence, cooperation, trust, optimism and excitement; 5) maintain a meaningful identity inside the organization and for the organization. These qualities involve emotional aspects, where leaders with high emotional intelligence can achieve (George, 2000).

Leaders with emotional intelligence are able to cope with many difficulties they face. They are aware of their emotions despite all the chaos they encounter; thus they can aim at the right mission, goal and objectives with a realistic and optimistic point of view (Isen, 1984; Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985). Such leaders will persistently stay in this state of well-being. They foster creativity and provide a flexible environment and feed the collective needs of the followers through effective communication (Mayer, Salovey, Gomberg-Kaufman, & Blainey, 1991).

Leaders aims to raise the importance of business life by trying to ensure that the followers perceive the organizational workflow, what needs to be done and the risks and opportunities that may arise. However, while doing this, they may also encourage their followers to keep their trust high, to take advantages of opportunities and make them believe that they can cope with difficulties when they encounter (Grewal, Brackett, & Salovey, 2006).

Leaders who can act with their emotions, can easily determine which of the difficult situations they encounter is more important and needs to be resolved as soon as possible (Frijda, 2017). Leaders with developed emotional intelligence can make decisions by listening to their emotions, and guide them rationally and make use of their previous emotional experiences in terms of which problem or opportunity should be evaluated (Schwarz, 1990). Having a flexible perspective also helps to link events together and see their correlation with previously experienced emotions (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Empathic leaders who can understand the feelings of others can evaluate the emotions of their followers, make the right guidance and enable them to meet on a common goal, thus achieving a common vision. Additionally, being able to understand the feelings of others also shows how the leader should act for change. These leaders can anticipate how their followers will react to changes and certain unusual situations (George, 2000).

In order to understand the enthusiasm and excitement of the followers, it is imperative to understand the emotions of others. In addition to keeping the excitement alive, leaders face many problems and solving these problems intelligently creates a climate of trust. A leader who can unite different ideas on a common ground, aims for both sides to win, and provides organizational integrity and trust (Epstein & Meier, 1989). The strong relationships that develop between the leader and the follower provide great benefits in the long run. Emotional intelligence is essential for this interpersonal relationship to be built on trust, excitement, common goals, unity and for continuity (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Jones & George, 1998).

Organizational unity comes from sharing a common culture, and culture is essentially made up of our emotional bonds with our beliefs, norms and values. Coexistence of people with the same feelings and norms gives the feeling of being in the right place. In this way, people with the same culture and emotion have a greater sense of belonging and this makes the world they live in more meaningful (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

High emotional intelligence opens many doors in the business world. Managers who are aware of their emotional intelligence and can use it, are in constructive position in business relations and display a whole personality (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Emotional intelligence appeals to many spectrums in the business world such as employee commitment, talent development, innovation, service quality, and teamwork (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). According to Cooper (1997) research, emotional intelligence leads to career success, effective leading, stronger personal relations, and a healthy life.

Leaders with high emotional intelligence express their opinions openly, they are assertive in what they do, but they are also sensitive. They are prone to teamwork and have high social skills (Furnham, 2012). Leaders with high emotional intelligence who can control their emotions are more successful in concentrating on their work (Thor, 2012). Such leaders can suppress their emotions to focus on urgent matters and move toward the primary goal. Leaders who can control their emotions can convey their ideas, goals and intentions to the other party in accurate and positive ways, and this leads to a more workable occupational environment (Goleman, 1998). Also it was emphasized that it is important for the leader to express feelings, positive or negative, at the right place and time as well as controlling his own emotions in order to work in

groups and to provide high energy in the group (Barsade, 2000; Barsade & Gibson, 1998).

It has been observed that individuals with high emotional intelligence can be successful despite environmental pressures and act as a savior in stressful work environments (Baron, 1997). According to many analyzes and studies, stress management together with regulation of emotions in the business environment has brought good results (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990). If the control of emotions can be achieved, it is inevitable for trust, loyalty, commitment, and productivity, success at the individual, team and organizational level to increase among the workgroup (L. Gardner & Stough, 2002; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; McGarvey, 1997). Additionally, ensuring the control of emotions will be a good example behavior for the employee and their potential to learn and practice this behavior will increase eventually (McGarvey, 1997). Leaders who can not control their emotions and express them correctly in stressful situations may be seen as ineffective by their followers and may not set a good example (Goleman, 1998).

Emotional intelligence provides the infrastructure for social skills, which are the key points for teamwork (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Being in the same environment with leaders with high emotional intelligence and a good human resources team strengthens individual and team perception and increases organizational commitment (Cherniss, 2001). In teamwork, thanks to emotional intelligence, it is ensured that the weak and strong aspects of the members are known and acted in this direction for the development of the team (Baron, 1997).

Looking at the benefits in overall, emotional intelligence is said to be an important part of the organizational leadership (Zeidner et al., 2004). According to Cooper and Sawaf (1998) data, it has been seen that leaders who care about emotions can save time, expand opportunities and focus their energy on their goals. Work teams of emotionally developed leaders are more diligent, more eager to take action, and more assertive in helping others see their needs (P. R. Johnson & Indvik, 1999). It has been seen that leaders with developed emotional intelligence encourage emotional behaviors in the group, thus creating emotionally sufficient group norms (Koman & Wolff, 2008). It is claimed that leaders with emotional intelligence increase the level of excitement and enthusiasm in their environment, and lead to the formation of quality interpersonal relationships by providing cooperation and trust (George, 2000;

Langhorn, 2004). Another contribution of emotional intelligence to business and social life is to provide empathy, to analyze the moods of others and to exhibit the right behaviors (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994; Rosenthal, Hall, Archer, DiMatteo, & Rogers, 1977). With emotional intelligence of the leader, it is possible for the employee to feel valuable, to feel accepted, and to feel that their words and ideas are being heard. Employees prefer to be in organizations where they are accepted as individuals rather than in an authoritarian workplace (Caruso, Fleming, & Spector, 2014).

1.11 Psychological well-being

Well-being, which is a subject that is also emphasized by the World Health Organization, means not only the absence of disease or infirmity, but also a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being (WHO, 1948). When we look at its more recent definition, positive mental health has been interpreted as being aware of own abilities, coping with stress in life that can be considered as normal, being productive and providing a benefit to the community (WHO, 2001).

Psychological well-being, a part of healthy well-being, means that the person's life is going well, that he or she feels good and functions effectively. Sustainable psychological well-being does not mean that a person will always feel good. Under normal circumstances one needs to know that bad experiences and emotions are part of life. The most important thing is that the person must be able to manage those bad moods and emotions, but long lasting negative emotions will make it difficult and adversely affect the health of the person (Huppert, 2009).

Feeling well doesn't just mean happiness and contentment. It also helps to increase the tendency to show curiosity, assertiveness, self-confidence, compassion and love. On the other hand, being psychologically functional includes being able to develop oneself, controlling one's own life, having a purpose or a meaningful goal, and having positive relationships with others (Huppert, 2009).

Cross-sectional studies have shown that happy people are more functional, more productive, and more socially assertive (Diener & Lucas, 2000; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). It has been observed that those with high subjective well-being are more open to self-improvement than those with low levels of subjective well-being,

and it has been argued that positive mood affects the cognitive infrastructure positively (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

It has been seen in studies that being in a positive mood provides many benefits, increases one's focus of attention, enables one to be more creative in generating ideas, and makes the mindset more flexible (Ashby & Isen, 1999; Bless, Mackie, & Schwarz, 1992; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Gasper & Clore, 2000; Murray, Sujan, Hirt, & Sujan, 1990). In addition, it has been proven in experimental studies that positive well-being is useful in perceiving and interpreting social behaviors and triggering social interaction (Forgas, 2012). Whoever can maintain their well-being also evaluate themselves and others more positively, are more gentle with others, and are more self-confident, optimistic and generous in their interpersonal relationships (Forgas, 2002).

While well-being produces many good results, it has been argued in experimental and observational studies that well-being may also be the result of a cognitive and behavioral process. Having a purpose that one has developed internally, trying to move towards a valued goal, and directing self towards those goals instead of avoiding them can cause a positive well-being (Brunstein, Schultheiss, & Grässman, 1998; Elliot, Sheldon, & Church, 1997; Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon & Kasser, 1998) In this case, while well-being produces positive results, it is also possible to emerge as a result of many underlying good behaviors (Huppert, 2009). In addition to all these proven results, psychological well-being affects the health of the person positively by providing physiological, physical, emotional and hormonal benefits. When behavioral and social factors are also involved, it can be said that positive emotions emerge and these people live a happier life (Huppert, 2009; Watson, 1988).

Table 6

Psychological Well-being Dimensions

Dimension	Definition	Dimension	Definition
Self acceptance	The center of mental health, having the characteristics of self-actualization, reaching sufficient functionality and maturity, accepting self and past life	Environmental mastery	Choosing or creating the appropriate environment according to one's own psychological well-being, developing by taking advantage of environmental opportunities
Positive relations with others	Having warm feelings towards others and connecting with others (intimacy), trusting interpersonal relationships, having a high sense of empathy	Purpose in life	Realizing that life has a purpose for individual continuity, having a goal and being deliberate, being productive and making the necessary changes in that direction
Autonomy	Self-determination, freedom, internal regulation of behavior, resisting simplification, not needing others for self evaluation, avoiding collective fears and beliefs, turning inward	Personal growth	Realizing one's potential, being open to development and growing, realizing oneself, being open to experience and being aware of the fact that personal growth is a continuous situation

(Ryff, 1996)

Since psychological well-being is a very comprehensive state of well-being, it is quite natural that it consists of a combination of many perspectives such as self-actualization concept, conception of maturity, basic life tendencies, fulfillment of life, personality change, and mental health (Allport, 1961; Bühler, 1935; Erikson, 1994; Jahoda, 1958; C. G. Jung, 2014; Abraham H Maslow, 2013; Neugarten, 1973; Carl Ransom Rogers, 1995). Ryff and Singer (1996) may have developed the scale, which includes many imaginable building blocks for psychological well-being (Table 6).

1.11.1 Emotional intelligence and well-being. If we look at the health benefits of emotional intelligence, we see that people with high emotional intelligence have a positive mental health. They are aware of their own and others' feelings. People with strong emotional intelligence can perceive whether their inner experiences are positive or negative, name it and pass it on to others when the time comes. This type of behavior

enables the person to establish the right relationships with himself and those around him, creating interpersonal sensitivity, and this positively affects the health of the person (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Brackett, Warner, & Bosco, 2005; Lopes et al., 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, Beers, & Petty, 2005; Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003). A person with strong emotional intelligence does not seek pleasure, on the contrary, they use their emotions to grow and develop.

People with high emotional intelligence accept and regulate their emotions and integrate them to achieve their goals (Dienstbier, 1989; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). On the other hand, those who cannot regulate their emotions become a prisoner to their emotions, they experience interpersonal complexes, incompatibility with inner and outer world (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Those who cannot understand the feelings of others, appear silly, dozy and excluded from the society (Rosenhan & Seligman, 1989). These people cannot direct their lives properly because they are not able to control their emotions. People who cannot live their lives emotionally correctly may become prone to depression and show suicidal tendencies (Skinner, 1986).

In terms of health in business life, studies have shown that people with high emotional intelligence have better physical, mental and psychosomatic health (Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010). Emotional intelligence benefits the followers as well as the leader. It has been determined that the leader's emotional intelligence is effective in increasing the work performance of the employees, improving their problem-solving skills, reducing stress and promoting mental health (Bachman, Stein, Campbell, & Sitarenios, 2000; Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002; Cooper & Sawaf, 1998; A. Day & Carroll, 2004; Gates, 1995; Goleman, 1996; Higgs, 2003; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002; Tischler, Biberman, & McKeage, 2002). Since leaders with high emotional intelligence are sensitive to their own and other's feelings, they ensure their followers' psychological well-being with their supportive attitudes (Wong & Law, 2002). It has been proven in studies that the stress and psychological pressure experienced by the followers is not caused by the workload but by the behavior of the leader (Alimo‐Metcalfe, 1995; Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Kottraba, 2003). The stress and pressure experienced are generally due to tiring and inadequate relationship bonds that do not reach satisfaction (David, 1998). In addition, it has been proven that job satisfaction and organizational commitment among followers increase when leaders

provide their followers with affirming discourse, respectful behavior and attention (Hollander, 1980). Although it is known that emotional intelligence has positive effects on health, more studies are needed to better understand the underlying mechanism (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011).

1.11.2 Leadership style and well-being. According to self-determination theory which is a basic psychological needs theory, development and growth of the human psyche is correlated with the satisfaction of three universal psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Meeting the need for autonomy happens when the person knows that her decisions and ideas are shaped by herself and are not controlled by others. The need for competence refers to feelings of mastery and efficacy obtained through effective interaction within one's environment. Relatedness, the last need, allows us to feel respected, understood, heard, and securely attached to others (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Gagné & Blanchard, 2007).

From the very beginning, it has been emphasized in the transformational leadership theory how important it is to meet the psychological needs of the followers. To clarify the influence on the follower, Burns (1978) defined the transformational leader as the one who tries to fulfill higher needs and brings out the full potential of the follower. According to Bass (1990), fulfilling the psychological and emotional needs of the followers plays a key role in characteristics of the transformational leadership. In the studies conducted, it can be said that the stress levels of the subordinates of transformational leaders are lower, and therefore they are in a better psychological condition (Bass, 1999; Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, & Spangler, 1995).

According to Bass' transformational leadership theory, most of the components of the leadership can be motivational and affective for employees (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007; Bass, 1990; Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). The association between transformational leadership and employee well-being can be related to developed sense of meaning, increased optimism, due to leaders futuristic vision and strong sense of vision (Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). In addition to this, transformational leaders takes care of their followers individual needs and problems, supporting their psychosocial health (Bass, 1990). When the behaviors of transformational leaders are examined, it

is seen that their thoughts and actions are compatible and harmonic with each other. This situation causes a great burden to be lifted from the employees' shoulders. Overall, transformational leadership facilitates sense of meaningfulness on the way to the goal, which also improves employee psychological health and well-being (Ghadi et al., 2013).

Since the business environment is a human-based organization, it has some demands such as being functional to reach the goal, minimizing physiological and psychological expenses, being open to personal development, learning and growth (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Since transformational leadership fosters growth, development and learning among employees, transformational leadership could be considered as the resource to employee demands. If demands and resources are met, work related state of mind is fulfilled (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

As long as psychological well-being demands are coming from the employees, in leadership research, the followers are becoming an important component of the dynamics of leadership and a focus of growing interest (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). The follower-centered research sees the followers' mindset as the origin for the evaluation of a leader (Felfe & Schyns, 2010; Howell & Shamir, 2005). This point of view is particularly important in employee self-report studies, where leadership is evaluated by employee feedbacks on leadership behaviors. The leader's behavior is meaningless unless followers perceive it correctly (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the leadership concept and styles, and emotional intelligence to see how it is perceived by the followers who shares the same environment as their leader. At the same time, this study wants to show how leader's leadership style and emotional intelligence affects the followers on a psychological basis.

In this study, the leadership style and the leader's emotional intelligence level reveal the positive gains that the leader will bring to followers. It is also aimed to emphasize the importance of followers and to look at the business environment

through their eyes. The importance of the correct perception of the emotions and values by the followers, as well as the characteristics of the leader in business life is questioned.

1.3 Hypotheses

Hypotheses for this study;

H1a: There is a positive correlation between perceived transformational leadership and psychological well-being of the employee.

H1b: There is a negative correlation between perceived transactional leadership and psychological well-being of the employee.

H1c: There is a positive correlation between perceived emotional intelligence of the leader and psychological well-being of the employee.

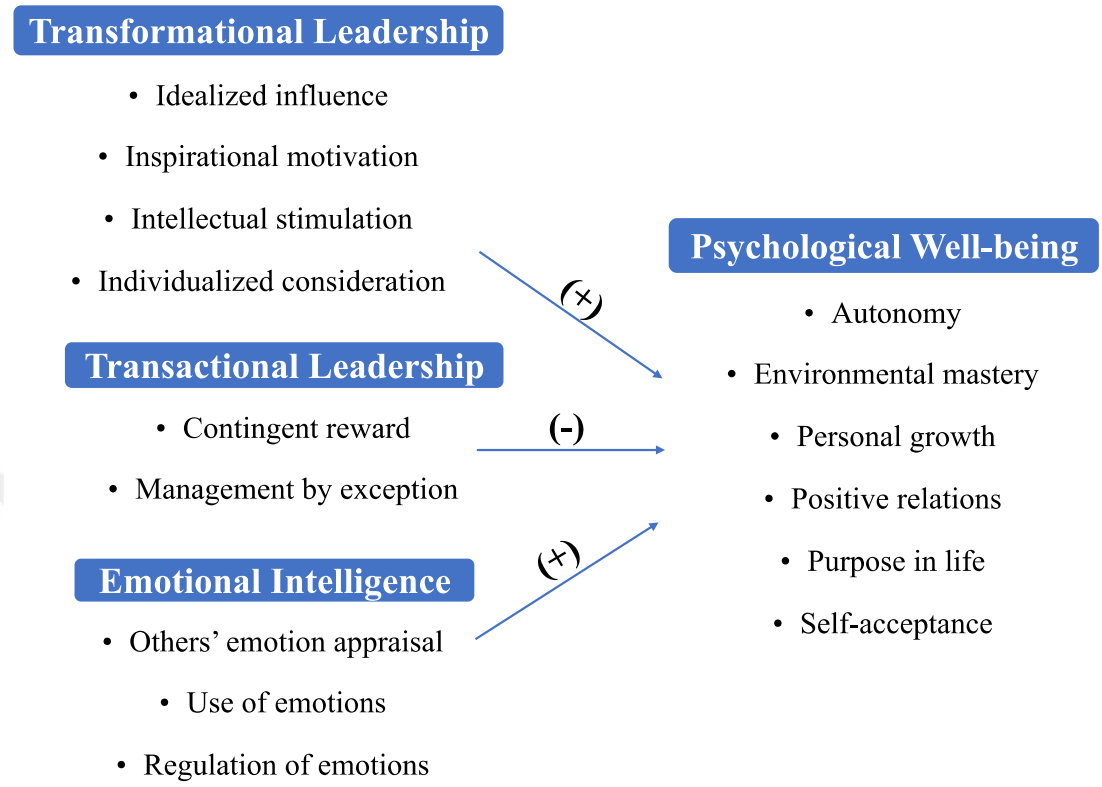
H2a: Transformational leadership has a positive and significant effect on psychological well-being.

H2b: Transactional leadership has a negative and significant effect on psychological well-being.

H2c: Emotional intelligence has a positive and significant effect on psychological well-being.

Table 7

Model of the Study



The conceptual model of this research is given in Table 7. In the research, white-collar employees were asked to determine their leaders' leadership style, evaluate their leaders' emotional intelligence, and finally share their own psychological well-being levels with us. It is aimed to examine the correlation between the perceived leadership style and perceived emotional intelligence level and the psychological states of the employees. As the main hypothesis, it is desired to examine whether there is a relationship between the perception of the leader by the employee and the psychological state of the employee.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The reason why we wanted to do this study in Turkey has been revealed by the studies that leadership and emotional intelligence have many effects, but the mechanism of these two concepts on followers is not fully understood. The fact that developed countries give importance to these concepts in order to provide their

employees with a psychologically better working environment has aroused the curiosity of looking at Turkey's fate in line with these concepts (Arar, 2020). The possibility of employees in Turkey to be in the lower ranks of Maslow's need of triangle is an important reason for investigating these concepts (Arar, 2019). With this model, it is aimed to reveal the parameters that need to be corrected or developed by looking at the perceptions of the employees in Turkey towards their managers and the dimensions of the psychological support that should be in a workplace.

Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

Studies have shown that emotional intelligence is associated with transformational leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). It is said that it has an effect on the inspirational motivation and individualized influence, especially in terms of observing and managing emotions (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001). It has been seen in later studies that the emotional intelligence of leaders explains the majority of the variance in transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; L. Gardner & Stough, 2002). It has been determined that managers with high scores in emotional intelligence tests are perceived as more transformational leaders. Motivation, empathy, self-awareness, emotional stability, and trust parameters, which are considered essential for transformational leadership, are also indispensable for emotional intelligence (Baron, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Studies have found that emotional intelligence is not associated with age, gender and years of experience, but has a positive correlation with transformational leadership, and on the contrary, it has a negative correlation with transactional leadership (Cook, 2006; Zahed-Babe & Rajabi, 2009).

In a study on academic leaders, 205 faculty members were asked for help, their leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership styles were evaluated. As a result of the evaluation of academic leaders by faculty members, it was determined that academic leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership characteristics were exhibited above the normal level. The results show that transformational leadership is highly predicted by emotional intelligence. According to this study, the components of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, empathy, emotional stability, management of relationships, self-motivation, commitment and altruism, value orientation and integrity) emotionally explain 47 percent of the variance in transformational leadership (Baba, Makhdoomi, & Siddiqi, 2021).

A study was conducted in Greece that sought to link and question how employees perceive their leaders' leadership style and emotional intelligence. In the

study, which was carried out with the participation of 267 employees, the EQ Index was used to measure the perceived emotional intelligence of the leader, and the MLQ questionnaire was used for the perceived leadership style. As a result, transformational leadership as a perceived leadership style was found to be compatible with perceived emotional intelligence. Social skills, empathy, and motivation were said to be correlated with transformational leadership (Polychroniou, 2009).

In a study of bankers working in private commercial banks in Bangladesh, employees were asked to evaluate their managers based on their leadership style and emotional intelligence level. In this study, in which MLQ and EQ Index scales were used, it was revealed that the higher the leader's emotional intelligence level, the more dominant the transformational leadership characteristics (Biswas & Rahman, 2017).

In a study conducted in Palestine, the effect of leaders' emotional intelligence (as a mediator) and leadership style on employee engagement was invested. 338 full-time ICT employees were asked to complete the MLQ questionnaire and Genos Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire to see how they perceived their managers, and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale to evaluate their employee engagement status. According to the results of the study, transformational leader can provide employee engagement thanks to emotional intelligence. This study shows that emotional intelligence can act as a mediator between the leader and the follower (Milhem, Muda, & Ahmed, 2019).

While cognitive tasks can be completed with our intelligence quotient (IQ), emotional intelligence comes to fore in tasks and situations that require social skills (Jordan & Troth, 2004). Relationship approaches in leadership are mostly done with emotions, emphasized that the transformations in the leader-follower relationship enhances through emotional intelligence of the leaders (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Zhou & George, 2003). If we look at leadership styles, transformational leadership has inspirational motivation and idealized influence, which are emotional to the leaders' followers. Studies have shown that emotional intelligence is strongly and closely related to leadership EI, well-being, and transformational leadership (Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003). In the studies conducted, it has been seen that the emotional intelligence of the leader is not sufficient by itself, but more effective results occur when she reveals her emotional side through transformational leadership. Leaders who use transformational leadership as a tool to guide their

emotional side have been shown to have greater influence on followers (Caruso et al., 2014; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

2.2 Transformational Leadership and Employee Psychological Well-being

Decades of research on leadership and well-being provided us plenty of links indicating that transformational leadership style increase follower well-being (Skakon et al., 2010). With the transfer of the positive feelings of the transformational leader to the followers, a transition called emotional contagion occurs and positively affects the well-being of the followers (Bono & Ilies, 2006). Followers of transformational leaders experience more happiness, positivity and excitement in their daily life compared to followers who do not have transformational leader (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007). Since affect is the most central dimension of well-being, positive mood of the leader and positive-affect words of the leader can boost group affect and performance (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005; Van Horn, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2004). When we look at it as a whole, transformational leaders have constructive effects on follower well-being, and has been associated with reduced stress and less burnout (Arnold et al., 2007; Hetland, Sandal, & Johnsen, 2007; Kanste, Kyngäs, & Nikkilä, 2007; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008; Seltzer, Numerof, & Bass, 1989; Skakon et al., 2010; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

The bond between transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being can be found in recent studies conducted in work environment. The psychology of health workers in care centers was examined in terms of the leadership style used by their leaders. The questionnaire used for transformational leadership was a short form developed by Carless, Wearing, and Mann, and the questionnaire for psychological well-being was the Positive Affective well-Being scale (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000). Questionnaires were sent to 1.180 employees, but only 391 (%29) of them were able to give full answers to the questionnaires. As a result of the calculations, it has been seen that transformational leadership is positively related to employee psychology (Arnold et al., 2007).

A 2011 study looked at whether transformational and transactional leadership could meet three basic needs of the employee (relatedness, autonomy, and

competence). In a study, 661 employees were asked to fill out the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (including only active management by exception) and Basic Need Satisfaction at Work (BNSW), and it was determined that transformational leadership and management by exception (active) met these three basic needs, but weaker results were obtained for management by exception (active). Transformational leadership has been found to have a greater effect on employee relatedness and autonomy (Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011). According to a study, relatedness and transformational leadership were correlated because transformational leader act without excluding their followers, include them in the decisions taken and try to be explanatory even during change (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Moran & Brightman, 2001; Northouse, 2021; Yukl, 1999b). In terms of autonomy, transformational leaders want their followers to develop, learn, and seize opportunities to do so (Hetland, Skogstad, Hetland, & Mikkelsen, 2011).

When psychological well-being is considered as three main headings (burnout, affect and mental health), in studies covering these headings it has been observed that transformational leadership has a positive effect on employee psychology (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002). A study on employees in the service industry in Canada, leadership styles of the managers, job stress, and burnout status of employees were examined. According to the information gathered in interviews, it was determined that the perceived burnout levels of the employees were related to the perceived work related stress, and work related stress was caused by the behaviors of their managers (Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006).

In a study on healthcare professionals (n=620) and team leaders (n=236) dealing with mental health illnesses, how employees perceive their leaders was measured with Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and compared with how leaders see themselves. Likewise, both leaders and employees were asked to fill out the Maslach Burnout Inventory according to their own preferences. In the analyzes made, it was seen that leadership styles and burnout results were correlated. Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration were found to be negatively related to burnout (emotional exhaustion). In general, it was found that transformational leadership had an overall positive effect, while transactional

leadership did not have any significant connection with burnout (Corrigan, Diwan, Campion, & Rashid, 2002).

The relationship between the behavior of leaders of employees working in the Danish elderly health care sector and the depression levels of these employees were examined. Transformational leadership was measured with global Transformational Leadership Scale and depressive symptoms were measured by Major Depression Inventory. Questionnaires were filled out by 447 employees, and only 188 gave feedback when asked to fill them again after 18 months. Transformational leadership has been proven to reduce the depressive symptoms of people working in the health care sector cross-sectionally, according to the results of both the baseline and 18 month follow-up questionnaires (Munir, Nielsen, & Carneiro, 2010).

In a study conducted in the sports sector, proved that even in athleticism transformational leadership contributed to the players' well-being. 193 competitive floor ball players were included in the study and as a result they reported high levels of perceived transformational leadership, need satisfaction, and well-being, and all the correlations were significant. Transformational leadership was correlated to need satisfaction and need satisfaction was correlated to well-being. The results also suggested that transformational leadership had a direct effect on well-being When the needs of the athletes were met by transformational leadership, which proves self-determination theory, Burns' and Bass' theories are also supported (Stenling & Tafvelin, 2014). Putting the followers needs in the center comes with positive side effect. With this study, it is observed that the management of athletes with transformational leadership not only increases motivation, performance, and team integrity, but also affects their well-being (Arthur, Woodman, Ong, Hardy, & Ntoumanis, 2011; Callow, Smith, Hardy, Arthur, & Hardy, 2009; Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001; Rowold, 2006). It can be said that transformational leadership is not limited to business life, but also has constructive results when implemented in other sectors. This says a lot about the usefulness of the theory in overall and universally.

To summarize all these results briefly, it can be said that transformational leadership has a positive effect on stress, burnout, and affective well-being (Arnold et al., 2007; Bono et al., 2007; Hetland et al., 2007; Kanste et al., 2007; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Seltzer et al., 1989; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill,

& Stride, 2004). In the studies described above, the results of transactional leadership are not consistent. While some studies did not establish a connection between transactional leadership and the stress level and well-being of the employees, some studies have argued that transactional leadership can lower the burnout level of employees (Kanste et al., 2007; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). No positive or significant results were found between laissez-faire leadership and employee psychological well-being (Skakon et al., 2010). Unlike transformational leadership, laissez- faire leadership style is said to cause distress and the underlying causes are uncertainty, bullying and unresolved conflicts (Hetland et al., 2007).

2.3 Leadership, EI and Employee Psychological Well-being

Leaders with high power of perceiving and interpreting emotions are more successful in empathizing with the problems of their followers (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006). Making sense of oneself alone is not sufficient for organizational formations; one must also be able to make sense of the entities around them. Well-being is also a situation that concerns the whole society rather than an individual phenomenon. Not only because it is beneficial to production or has positive working results, but also because stress and anxiety will have negative consequences for people in that community (Baker & Kim, 2020; Siu, Lu, & Spector, 2007; Wright & Staw, 1999). According to Ryff (1989, 2018), to be psychologically effective, one must be happy, and for that, one must achieve life-related satisfaction.

In a study in 2020, which 927 private sector workers participated, the questionnaire developed by Wong and Law for the measurement of emotional intelligence, the MLQ survey for leadership and General Health Questionnaire for well-being were used (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Banks et al., 1980; Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012; Wong & Law, 2002). This study examined the effect of emotional intelligence on well-being by accepting transformational leadership as a mediator. The result was as expected. Leaders with high emotional intelligence show transformational leader characteristics and as a result, they support the employee psychological well-being by providing self-efficacy. With this study, it has been proven that emotional intelligence is at the core of well-being and this result is compatible with many other studies (Shamshad & Naqi Khan, 2020). Leaders'

exemplary behaviors such as being reliable and conveying the truth cause followers to internalize these behaviors and transformational leadership to be longer lasting (Føllesdal, 2020).

Registered 75 executive directors working in the Quebec health care sector were contacted and asked to send the questionnaires to four employees (*N*=700) working under them to participate in the study. 171 employees participated in the study and evaluated their managers' emotional intelligence with Bar-On's questionnaire and their leadership style with a 20-statement questionnaire based on Bass's studies (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Baron, 1997). In addition, the emotional exhaustion and stress levels of the employees were tried to be measured with a questionnaire created by Maslach and Jackson (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1997). According to this study, the higher the employees perceive their leaders' emotional intelligence, the more they see their leaders as transformational. In this case, employees who are satisfied with their jobs and think that they are in a reliable work environment experience less emotional exhaustion and stress. It is emphasized that the most effective and decisive parameter in this causal chain is emotional intelligence (Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009; Clarke, 2010; Côté, Lopes, Salovey, & Miners, 2010; Harms & Credé, 2010; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2010).

A study which examined the executive directors of 171 healthcare employees by asking the employees how they perceived leadership style, emotional intelligence of their executive, and their behavior towards it revealed that the more employee perceive that their executive director shows a good quality of emotional intelligence, it is most likely that the executive will exhibit more transformational leadership qualities. This outcome has led an increase in job satisfaction, self-determined motivation and that means decrease in emotional exhaustion and stress levels (Rinfret, Laplante, Lagacé, Deschamps, & Privé, 2020). As a result, it can be said that the decrease in stress levels and the increase in work dependence can contribute to psychological well-being. This study also shows us that even in healthcare sector transformational leadership is more constructively associated with employee job satisfaction than transactional style is (Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997; Rinfret et al., 2020). This paper shows us how all of the evaluated variables (transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, commitment, job satisfaction, and stress) are in a causal chain, and that emotional intelligence could be the decisive determinant of the chain

(Antonakis et al., 2009; Clarke, 2010; Gefen, Ragowsky, & Ridings, 2008; Harms & Credé, 2010; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2010; Pillai & Williams, 2004; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008).

A study in the music industry where emotions are intensely experienced, it was investigated how emotional states reflected by the orchestra leaders affected the musicians' psychological well-being. In the study, which included eighteen orchestral groups (212 musicians), the MLQ questionnaire and a questionnaire measuring the elicitation of emotions developed by Mondillon et al. were used (Mondillon et al., 2005). According to the results of the study, it was implied that transformational leadership positively influences followers' affective well-being by displaying positive mood and avoiding negative thoughts (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009).

In the light of all the studies described, the aim of this study is to evaluate the leadership styles and emotional intelligence of the leaders in line with the feedback and perceptions of the followers and to review the psychological well-being of the followers participating in the study.

Chapter 3
Method

3.1 Research Design

This cross-sectional research aims to answer the questions regarding how employee perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence of the leader effect employees' psychological well-being.

3.2 Participants

A total of 365 white-collar employees from different sectors in Turkey participated in this research. Participants must be actively working and have a team leader in order to participate in this study. Participation in the research was provided on a voluntary basis. Participants evaluated their leader's behavior and how their actions affected them.

3.3 Data Collection

3.3.1 Data collection instruments.

3.3.1.1 Perceived leadership. Perceived leadership was measured with the short form of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) developed by Bass and Avolio (Bass & Avolio, 1997). This questionnaire has three subunits that measure the level of the transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership of the leadership from the employees' eyes. However, in this study we neglected the laissez faire leadership subunit since our aim is to compare transactional and transformational leadership only. In addition, laissez faire leadership questions were not considered appropriate and were excluded from the survey questions, since laissez faire leadership style was not fully seen as a leadership concept and replying to the questions regarding laissez faire would be an extra burden for the participants. In original form the questionnaire consists of 45 items evaluating the leaders' behavior, motivation, attitude and intellect. Since the laissez faire leadership questions are extracted, the questionnaire that was used in this research had 36 items. The questionnaire was measured with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (always).

According to Gökçay (2011), MLQ 5X evaluates leadership in a full range model, differentiating transformational and transactional leadership. In addition many research papers have validated that MLQ 5X can be used in variety of cultures (Kaya & Ölçer, 2019). Cemaloğlu (2009), who argues that filling the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire by the followers gives more accurate results, emphasized that the leadership is as much as the followers perceive it. According to Mind Garden Inc., which sells the use of the MLQ questionnaire and incorporates data related to the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha values of the MLQ 5X questionnaire can vary between 0.60 and 0.92 (Mind Garden, 2004)

3.3.1.2 Perceived emotional intelligence. Wong and Laws Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) was chosen for perceived emotional intelligence evaluation and after literature review this questionnaire has proven to be popular and widely used as a self-report and other ratings (Libbrecht, Lievens, & Schollaert, 2010). WLEIS consists of 16 items under 4 scales which are self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). Emotional appraisal dimension was excluded from this study because emotional appraisal is made by the leader herself and the followers may not be able to fully comprehend it. WLEIS was measured with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

The reason why we chose WLEIS is basically because it focuses solely on determining emotional intelligence, regardless of personality dimensions (Kaya & Ölçer, 2019). Additionally WLEIS was widely used in Turkey and foreign countries proving that the questionnaire has a good quality in validity and reliability (Kaya & Ölçer, 2019). In a study conducted in Turkey using the WLEIS questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha value of the questionnaire was calculated and the reliability coefficient was found to be 0.857 and was accepted as sufficient (Yıldız, Çelikceken, & Gülper, 2022). The high reliability of this scale, the shortness of the survey questions and understandability of the respondents are considered as reasons for preference in the thesis study (Danacı, 2015). In another study conducted in Turkey, which argues that WLEIS questionnaire is suitable for organizational use, has been revised, found to be reliable in Turkish society, and is quite easy to answer, the reliability coefficient was again found to be above 0.8 (Wujiabudula, 2016).

***3.3.1.3 Psychological well being*.** Ryffs Psychological Well Being questionnaire found to be fitting in this research. This 6 point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree), measures the characteristics of the psychological well-being structure and is based on giving information about the individual (Erdem & Kabasakal, 2015). Ryffs Psychological Well Being questionnaire consists of 6 dimensions, which have 14 items and can give an overall psychological well-being score. Overall Ryffs Psychological Well-Being Questionnaire has 84 questions and the dimensions that are assessed in the questionnaire are environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, self-acceptance, autonomy and positive relations (Ryff, 1989). The validity and reliability of the Turkish translation of the questionnaire was made by Akın (Akın, 2008).

When studies using the psychological well-being questionnaire between 2000 and 2020 were investigated, it was seen that the long and short versions of Ryff were widely used and preferred in Turkish studies (F. Gültekin & Bayramoğlu, 2021). According to Akın (2008) work, Ryffs questionnaire had high Cronbach alpha score, internal consistency reliability coefficients and test-retest reliability coefficients. In a study conducted in various provinces of Turkey and in which 623 employees participated, the short version of the Ryff questionnaire was used and the Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.7 (Z. Gültekin & Polatcı, 2022). According to Gürbüz and Şahin (2014), in social science studies, this coefficient value should not be below 0.7. Ryffs questionnaire considered having a tolerable amount of questions but since there will be two more questionnaires in this study, it will be easier for the participants to use the short version of this questionnaire (Sasaki et al., 2020). After literature review, we found out that there are many short forms of Ryffs questionnaire. Saajanaho et al. (2020), indicates that 42 item Ryff Psychological Well Being questionnaire has the right amount of questions, less respondent burden and good internal consistency.

3.3.2 Data collection procedures. Considering the circumstances of the year 2020 and coronavirus measures none of the questionnaires was done face to face. To maintain the health of the participants and not to disturb their environment we asked them to fill the questionnaires online.

In order to gain employee information, a demographic data was gathered. The data consisted of their age, sex, education level, years of work experience, the department they are working currently, the years of service in the current company, their leaders sex, age, leaders education level and the years of service under that leader.

The questionnaires used in this research are gathered together after a detailed literature review. When reviewing the literature, the main criteria for the chosen questionnaires were that they all had consistent Cronbach Alpha values, translated in to Turkish and used widely in the Turkish literature. The questionnaires consisted of perceived leadership style, perceived emotional intelligence of the leader and employee psychological well-being. In total there were 100 items and questionnaires had its own Likert scale.

3.3.3 Data analysis procedures. The data analyzes of this research were carried out in computer environment with the 23.0 version of the 'SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) for Windows' statistical program. $p<0.05$ probability value was considered statistically significant in all analyses. Numerical data were expressed as mean and standard deviation, nominal and ordinal data were expressed as percentage (%). Numerical data were tested with One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov in terms of normal distribution without separating the groups, and with Shapiro Wilk when the groups were examined separately in terms of normal distribution.

Students-t independent and students-t paired tests were used to compare groups in terms of numerical measurement and normally distributed variables, Pearson Chi-Square for categorical variables, Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon tests were used to compare groups in terms of numerical variables that did not show normal distribution. Pearson and Spearman correlation analysis tests were used to determine the relationship between variables.

3.4 Limitations

One of the limitations of this study is that there are three different questionnaires. While evaluating followers perception of their leaders with MLQ and WLEIS, the participants were asked to evaluate their own psychological well-being with a third questionnaire, Ryff Psychological Well-being Questionnaire. In order to avoid confusion, necessary explanations were made at the beginning of the questionnaires, but there may be misunderstandings depending on the attention of the participants. Another situation that may cause misunderstanding is the absence of a verbal explanation. In addition, the fact that the questionnaires were distributed with a snowball effect makes it difficult to control the perception of the people who filled out the questionnaire. Another limitation comes from the large number of survey questions. Although the survey questions have been reduced, the number of those who started the survey and left it halfway is undeniable. While 63.81% of the participants filled out the questionnaires completely, 36.19% of them gave half or inconsistent answers.

Chapter 4
Findings

4.1 Analysis of Scales

4.1.1 Validity analysis. In this part of the study, confirmatory factor analyzes (CFA) were conducted to examine the validity of the scales used in this research. In addition, goodness of fit (GoF) indexes were examined whether they were acceptable. Fit indexes of a model should be at threshold values for a scale to be accepted as valid. It's stated that thresholds for GoF should be $\chi 2/df < 5$; CFI>0.90; TLI>0.90 and RMSEA<0.08 (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2014).

Firstly, CFA for Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) was performed to test the scale's validity. Results of the CFA and GoF values of the MLQ 5X are shown in Table 7.

In Table 8, it is seen that the factor loadings vary between 0,4701-0,9223 and the items of the scale gather under seven factors. Besides, it's clear thar all the GoF indexes are acceptable ($\chi 2/df=3.856$; RMSEA=0.069; CFI=0.938; TLI=0.919).

As a result, it is confirmed that seven-factor structure of the MLQ 5X is compatible with the data collected from the sample.

Table 8

CFA Results of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X)

Factor		Variable	Factor Loading
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence Behavior	Item 6	0,4701
		Item 14	0,7357
		Item 23	0,727
		Item 34	0,8241
	Idealized Influence Attributes	Item 10	0,8521
		Item 18	0,8026
		Item 21	0,7771
		Item 25	0,7235
	Inspirational Motivation	Item 9	0,7007
		Item 13	0,6461
		Item 26	0,8116
		Item 36	0,8589
	Intellectual Stimulation	Item 8	0,7962
		Item 30	0,9223
		Item 32	0,8835
	Individualized Consideration	Item 15	0,8272
		Item 19	0,8392
		Item 29	0,836
		Item 31	0,9029
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	Item 1	0,5195
		Item 11	0,767
		Item 16	0,6593
		Item 35	0,8381
	Management by Exception	Item 4	0,5908
		Item 22	0,4706
		Item 24	0,596
		Item 27	0,8237

GoF indexes: $\chi 2/df=3,856$; CFI=0,938; TLI=0,919; RMSEA=0,069

Subsequently, CFA for Emotional Intelligence Scale was conducted to test the scale's validity. Results of the CFA and GoF values of the Emotional Intelligence Scale are presented in Table 9.

In Table 9, it is seen that the factor loadings vary between 0,4557-0,9148 and the items of the scale gather under three factors. Besides, it's clear thar all the GoF indexes are acceptable ($\chi 2/df=3,916$; RMSEA=0,051; CFI=0,953; TLI=0,939).

As a result, it is confirmed that three-factor structure of the Emotional Intelligence Scale is compatible with the data collected from the sample.

Table 9

CFA Results of Emotional Intelligence (EI) Scale

Factor	**Variable**	**Factor Loading**
Others' Emotion Appraisal	Item 1	0,8641
	Item 2	0,8995
	Item 3	0,8254
	Item 4	0,9129
Use of Emotions	Item 5	0,7359
	Item 6	0,4557
	Item 7	0,8248
	Item 8	0,8971
Regulation of Emotions	Item 9	0,8728
	Item 10	0,8648
	Item 11	0,7901
	Item 12	0,9148

GoF indexes: $\chi 2/df=3,916$; CFI=0,953; TLI=0,939; RMSEA=0,051

Finally, CFA for Psychological Well Being Scale was conducted to test the scale's validity. After CFA, it was determined that the factor loadings of 5 items (item 2, 4, 5, 15, 41) were below 0.4, thus they were excluded from the scale and CFA was repeated with remaining 37 items. These 5 items were not included in the following analyzes conducted within the study. Results of the second CFA and GoF values of the Psychological Well Being Scale are shown in Table 10.

In Table 10, it can be seen that the factor loadings vary between 0,4005-0,6855 and the items of the scale gather under six factors. Besides, it's clear that all the GoF indexes are acceptable ($\chi 2/df=3,703$; RMSEA=0,066; CFI=0,941; TLI=0,907).

As a result, it is confirmed that six-factor structure of the Psychological Well Being Scale was compatible with the data collected from the sample.

Table 10

CFA Results of Psychological Well-being (PWB) Scale

Factor	Variable	Factor Loading
Autonomy	Item 1	0,4818
	Item 7	0,5646
	Item 13	0,4747
	Item 19	0,4915
	Item 25	0,4917
	Item 31	0,457
	Item 37	0,4813
Environmental Mastery	Item 8	0,4774
	Item 14	0,4021
	Item 20	0,4005
	Item 26	0,4673
	Item 32	0,6715
	Item 38	0,5039
Personal Growth	Item 3	0,5385
	Item 9	0,585
	Item 21	0,4608
	Item 27	0,4699
	Item 33	0,4643
	Item 39	0,4014
Positive Relations	Item 10	0,6855
	Item 16	0,5122
	Item 22	0,4298
	Item 28	0,4543
	Item 34	0,514
	Item 40	0,4335
Purpose In Life	Item 11	0,5431
	Item 17	0,553
	Item 23	0,6445
	Item 29	0,4991
	Item 35	0,4304
Self-Acceptance	Item 6	0,544
	Item 12	0,5994
	Item 18	0,4401
	Item 24	0,5643
	Item 30	0,6724
	Item 36	0,6339
	Item 42	0,4561

GoF indexes: $\chi 2/df=3,703$; CFI=0,941; TLI=0,907; RMSEA=0,066

4.1.2 Reliability analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) values obtained from the reliability analysis carried out to examine the reliability of the scales are presented in the Table 11.

Table 11

Reliability Coefficients of Variables

Scale	Factor	Cronbach Alfa	
		Factor	**Total Scale**
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,7792	0,964
	Idealized Influence Attributes	0,8688	
	Inspirational Motivation	0,84	
	Intellectual Stimulation	0,8969	
	Individualized Consideration	0,9146	
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	0,7779	0,7858
	Management-by-Exception	0,7825	
Emotional Intelligence	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,9272	0,9046
	Use of Emotions	0,7666	
	Regulation of Emotions	0,9178	
Psychological Well Being	Autonomy	0,7268	0,8919
	Environmental Mastery	0,7196	
	Personal Growth	0,7822	
	Positive Relations	0,762	
	Purpose In Life	0,7295	
	Self-Acceptance	0,7512	

The results presented in Table 3.4 shows that Cronbach's Alpha (α) values of all scales used in the study are greater than 0.70 which is the threshold for a scale to be accepted as reliable (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2014). Thus, the scales used in the study can be accepted as reliable.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 Demographic Statistics. Demographic statistics of the participants are shown in Table 12. It can be seen in Table 12 that most of the participants are female (*n*=221; %60,55), 31-40 years old (*n*=139; %38,08), graduated from a university (*n*=219; %60,00), and have experience less than 5 years in their current job (*n*=181; %49,59). On the other hand, most of the managers of the participants are male (*n*=252; %69,04), 41-50 years old (*n*=157; %43,01), graduated from a university (*n*=220; %60,27). Besides, most of the participants have been working with their manager for less than 5 years (*n*=240; %65,75). Finally, most of the participants have been working as a salesman (*n*=65; %17,81).

Table 12

Demographic Distribution of the Participants

Variable	Value	N	%
Gender	Female	221	60,55
	Male	144	36,45
Age	Below 30	79	21,64
	31-40	139	38,08
	41-50	95	26,03
	Above 51	52	14,25
Education	High School	50	13,7
	Graduate	219	60
	Postgraduate	96	23,3
Total work experience	10 years or less	131	35,89
	11-20 years	119	32,6
	21 years or more	115	31,51
Experience in current job	5 years or less	181	49,59
	6-10 years	78	21,37
	11-15 years	44	12,05
	16 years or more	62	16,99

Table 12 (cont.d)

Variable	Value	N	%
Manager's gender	Female	113	30,96
	Male	252	69,04
Manager's age	40 or less	95	26,03
	41-50	157	43,01
	51 or more	113	30,96
Manager's education level	High School	38	10,41
	Graduate	220	60,27
	Postgraduate	107	29,32
Time worked with the manager	5 years or less	240	65,75
	6-10 years	70	19,18
	11 years or more	55	15,07
Job department	Salesman	65	17,81
	Accountant	40	10,96
	Executive	40	10,96
	Lecturer	38	10,41
	IT	20	5,48
	Human Resources	18	4,93
	Officer	16	4,38
	Production	16	4,38
	Media	15	4,11
	Technician	14	3,84
	Operations Manager	13	3,56
	Health employee	9	2,47
	Administrative assistant	9	2,47
	Consultant	7	1,92
	Purchasing staff	7	1,92
	Research assistant	5	1,37
	Assistant	5	1,37
	Project management	4	1,1
	Others (Military personal, engineer, operator, marketing, architect, design etc.)	24	6,6

4.2.2 Descriptive statistics of the scales. The mean and standard deviations of the responses of the participants are presented in the Table 13.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of Scales

Scale	Factor	Mean ± sd	
		Factor	Total Scale
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence Behavior	3,42 ± 0,95	3,45 ± 0,97
	Idealized Influence Attributes	3,66 ± 1,03	
	Inspirational Motivation	3,47 ± 1,02	
	Intellectual Stimulation	3,40 ± 1,10	
	Individualized Consideration	3,30 ± 1,18	
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	3,34 ± 1,03	3,19 ± 0,66
	Management-by-Exception	3,04 ± 0,85	
Emotional Intelligence	Others' Emotion Appraisal	3,35 ± 1,01	3,53 ± 0,76
	Use of Emotions	3,79 ± 0,76	
	Regulation of Emotions	3,44 ± 1,05	
Psychological Well Being	Autonomy	4,79 ± 0,81	5,28 ± 0,67
	Environmental Mastery	5,00 ± 0,93	
	Personal Growth	5,54 ± 0,80	
	Positive Relations	5,60 ± 0,93	
	Purpose In Life	5,67 ± 0,87	
	Self-Acceptance	5,24 ± 0,94	

In Table 13, it can be seen that participants of the study perceive their leaders as more transformational ($\bar{x}$=3,45 ± 0,97) than transactional ($\bar{x}$=3,19 ± 0,66). While Idealized Influence Attributes factor has the highest ($\bar{x}$=3,66 ± 1,03), and Individualized Consideration factor has the lowest ($\bar{x}$=3,30 ± 1,18) level in the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire; Contingent Reward factor has a higher level ($\bar{x}$=3,34 ± 1,03) than Management-by-Exception factor ($\bar{x}$=3,04 ± 0,85) in the Transactional Leadership Questionnaire. Besides, the participants perceive their managers as having above-average emotional intelligence ($\bar{x}$=3,53 ± 0,76). Use of Emotions factor has the highest ($\bar{x}$=3,79 ± 0,76), and Others' Emotion Appraisal factor has the lowest ($\bar{x}$=3,35 ± 1,01) level in the Emotional Intelligence Scale. In addition, it is seen that the psychological well-being levels of the participants are also above the average ($\bar{x}$=5,28 ± 0,67). Purpose In Life factor has the highest ($\bar{x}$=5,67 ± 0,87), and Autonomy factor has the lowest ($\bar{x}$=4,79 ± 0,81) level in the Emotional Intelligence Scale. According to these results, it can be stated that the participants' level of perception of their managers as transformational leaders is higher than the levels of perceiving them as transactional leaders. In addition, it can be stated that the participants perceive their leaders as having high emotional intelligence. In addition, it can be said that the psychological well-being levels of the participants are high.

The comparison of perceived leadership and emotional intelligence levels of the managers of the participants is shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Comparison of Perceived Leadership (PLS) and Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI)

Perceived Leadership Level of the Manager		**Perceived Emotional Intelligence Level of the Manager**							
		Low		**Average**		**High**		**Total**	
		n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**N**	**%**
TF	Low	46	12,60%	4	1,10%	60	16,44%	110	30,14%
	Ave.	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	7	1,92%	7	1,92%
	High	29	7,95%	3	0,82%	216	59,18%	248	67,95%
TS	Low	14	3,84%	2	0,55%	106	29,04%	122	33,42%
	Ave.	2	0,55%		0,00%	30	8,22%	32	8,77%
	High	59	16,16%	5	1,37%	147	40,27%	211	57,81%
Total		75	20,55%	7	1,92%	283	77,53%	365	100,00%

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership

For the MLQ questionnaire, those with values between 0.00-1.33 are grouped as low, values between 1.34-2.67 as average, and values between 2.68-4.00 as high. For WLEIS scale, values between 1-2.33 were accepted as low, values between 2.34-3.67 as average and 3.68-5.00 as high. While the majority of the participants perceive that their managers have a high level of transformational leadership (*n*=248; 67.95%), 110 participants (30.14%) perceive that their manager has a low level of transformational leadership. Similarly, while the majority of the participants perceive that their managers have a high transactional leadership level (*n*=211; 57.81%), 122 participants (33.42%) perceive that their manager has a low transactional leadership level. The number of participants (*n*=248) who perceived that their manager had a high level of transformational leadership was higher than the number of participants who perceived that their manager had a high level of transactional leadership (*n*=211). On the other hand, the number of participants who perceive that their manager has a low level of transformational leadership level (*n*=110) is less than the number of participants who perceive their manager to have a high transactional leadership level (*n*=122).

When the Table 14 is examined, it seems like emotional intelligence is positively related with transformational leadership, and negatively with transactional leadership. For example, most of the participants who perceive low level of emotional intelligence of their managers also perceive low level of transformational leadership (*n*=46). On the other hand, most of the participants who perceive their managers' emotional intelligence levels as low perceive their transactional leadership levels as high (*n*=59). Among the participants who perceive their managers' emotional intelligence levels as high, the number of those who perceive their managers as transformational leaders (*n*=216) is higher than the number of those who perceive their managers as transactional leaders (*n*=147).

Table 15

Correlation Analysis Result

Variables			Transformational Leadership (TF)						Transactional L.ship (TS)			Emotional Intelligence (EI)				Psychological Well-Being (PWB)						
			TRL	IIB	IIA	IM	IS	IC	TSL	CR	ME	EI	OEA	UE	RE	PWB	A	EM	PG	PR	PL	SA
Transformational Leadership (TF)	TRL	r	1.00																			
		p																				
	IIB	r	0.9018	1.00																		
		p	0.0000																			
	IIA	r	0.9044	0.7406	1.00																	
		p	0.0000	0.0000																		
	IM	r	0.9191	0.8371	0.7624	1.00																
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000																	
	IS	r	0.9273	0.7864	0.8173	0.8035	1.00															
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000																
	IC	r	0.9460	0.7961	0.8311	0.8234	0.8797	1.00														
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000															
Transactional Leadership (TS)	TSL	r	-0.0448	0.0216	-0.0489	-0.0452	-0.0551	-0.0721	1.00													
		p	0.3932	0.6811	0.3516	0.3896	0.2939	0.1690														
	CR	r	0.1572	0.1457	0.1517	0.1768	0.1046	0.1382	0.7646	1.00												
		p	0.0026	0.0053	0.0037	0.0007	0.0457	0.0082	0.0000													
	ME	r	-0.2604	-0.1435	-0.2601	-0.2848	-0.2125	-0.2797	0.6226	-0.0283	1.00											
		p	0.0000	0.0060	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.5898												
Emotional Intelligence (EI)	EI	r	0.4431	0.3858	0.4258	0.4153	0.4133	0.3999	-0.4471	-0.3456	-0.2738	1.00										
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000											
	OEA	r	0.3666	0.3114	0.3424	0.3295	0.3711	0.3373	-0.4024	-0.3219	-0.2333	0.8656	1.00									
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000										
	UE	r	0.3140	0.2865	0.3099	0.2992	0.2696	0.2775	-0.2755	-0.2091	-0.1735	0.6807	0.4052	1.00								
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0009	0.0000	0.0000									
	RE	r	0.3889	0.3366	0.3772	0.3744	0.3515	0.3490	-0.3911	-0.2947	-0.2488	0.8609	0.6373	0.3733	1.00							
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000								
Psychological Well-Being (PWB)	PWB	r	0.4070	0.3485	0.3650	0.3590	0.3768	0.4159	-0.4679	-0.3520	-0.2983	0.5273	0.4659	0.3460	0.4543	1.00						
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000							
	A	r	0.2448	0.2002	0.2084	0.2257	0.2231	0.2618	-0.3383	-0.1908	-0.2931	0.3552	0.3368	0.1868	0.3174	0.6388	1.00					
		p	0.0000	0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0003	0.0000	0.0000						
	EM	r	0.3151	0.2497	0.2809	0.2670	0.3045	0.3402	-0.3921	-0.3240	-0.2146	0.4374	0.3946	0.2566	0.3911	0.8100	0.4069	1.00				
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000					
	PG	r	0.3030	0.2588	0.2574	0.2757	0.2901	0.3088	-0.3263	-0.2467	-0.2065	0.4144	0.3511	0.3058	0.3470	0.7255	0.3088	0.5148	1.00			
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000				
	PR	r	0.2681	0.2478	0.2422	0.2440	0.2316	0.2630	-0.3429	-0.3042	-0.1625	0.3269	0.2915	0.2420	0.2590	0.7243	0.2899	0.5300	0.4786	1.00		
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0018	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000			
	PL	r	0.3125	0.2635	0.3085	0.2507	0.2803	0.3259	-0.3598	-0.2528	-0.2511	0.3578	0.2966	0.2716	0.3002	0.7610	0.3430	0.5476	0.5426	0.4395	1.00	
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000		
	SA	r	0.3931	0.3496	0.3540	0.3518	0.3691	0.3820	-0.3646	-0.2766	-0.2297	0.4844	0.4228	0.3116	0.4270	0.8669	0.4890	0.6530	0.5261	0.5325	0.6650	1.00
		p	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	

TF=Transformational Leadership; IIB=Idealized Influence Behavior; IIA=Idealized Influence Attributes; IM=Inspirational Motivation; IS=Intellectual Stimulation; IC=Individualized Consideration; TS=Transactional Leadership; CR=Contingent Reward; ME=Management-by-Exception; EI=Emotional Intelligence; OEA=Others' Emotion Appraisal; UE=Use of Emotions; RE=Regulation of Emotions; PWB=Psychological Well Being; A=Autonomy; EM=Environmental Mastery; PG=Personal Growth; PR=Positive Relations; PL=Purpose In Life; SA=Self Acceptance

4.3 Correlation Analysis

In this part, relationships of the research variables are examined and Pearson correlation coefficients are presented in Table 15. After analysis, psychological well-being and transformational leadership are found to be positively correlated (r=0.4070; p<0.01). Besides, there is a stronger but negative relationship between psychological well-being and transactional leadership (r=-0.4679; p<0.01). In addition, psychological well-being has the strongest relationship with emotional intelligence (r=0.5273; p<0.01). Thus, hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c are proved.

4.4 Regression Analysis

This research aims to answer the questions regarding how employee perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence of the leader effect employees' psychological well-being. The findings of a set of regression analyzes conducted within this context are mentioned below.

First of all, a regression analysis was conducted with the total scores of the scales to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence of the leader on employees' psychological well-being. The results are presented in Table 16. Analysis results indicate that the model is significant and explains %40,18 of the variance in psychological well-being of the participants (F=82,48; p<0.01). When the coefficients are examined, it can be seen that while transformational leadership has a significant and positive affect on psychological well-being (β=0,193; p<0,01), the direction of this significant effect is negative in transactional leadership (β=-0,347; p<0,01). Besides, it is also seen that emotional intelligence has a significant and positive affect on psychological well-being (β=0,217; p<0,01). According to these results, it can be stated that an increase in the level of the perceived transformational leadership style and emotional intelligence of the managers will cause an increase in employees' psychological well-being levels, while an increase in perceived transactional leadership level will cause a decrease in psychological well-being level. In line with these results, our H2a, H2b and H2c are proven.

Table 16

The Effect of Perceived Leadership Style and Perceived EI on PWB

Independent Variables	**Dependent Variable: Psychological Well-Being**					
	β	**t**	**P**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
Transformational Leadership	0,193	6,11	0			
Transactional Leadership	-0,347	-7,45	0	82,48	0,4018	0
Emotional Intelligence	0,217	4,84	0			

Subsequently, regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of perceived emotional intelligence and leadership style dimensions on psychological well-being. The results of the regression analysis are shown in Table 17. Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %40,53 of the variance in psychological well-being (F=25,81; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that while individualized consideration factor has significant and positive effect (β=0,169; p<0,01) on psychological well-being, the other factors of transformational leadership have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on psychological well-being. Besides, it can be seen that both contingent reward (β=-0,205; p<0,01) and management-by-exception (β=-0,122; p<0,01) factors of transactional leadership have negative and significant effect on psychological well-being. In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that while others' emotion appraisal factor has significant and positive effect (β=0,083; p<0,05) on psychological well-being, the other factors of emotional intelligence (use of emotions, regulation of emotions) have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on psychological well-being.

In this study, although a general evaluation was made on the psychological well-being of the employees, regression analyzes were also conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on each dimension of psychological well-being, respectively.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 18.

Table 17

The Effect of Perceived Leadership Style and Perceived EI Dimensions on PWB

Independent Variables		**Dependent Variable: Psychological Well-Being**					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,06	1,04	0,299	25,81	0,4053	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	0,007	0,14	0,899			
	Inspirational Motivation	-0,008	-0,15	0,88			
	Intellectual Stimulation	-0,032	-0,57	0,57			
	Individualized Consideration	0,169	2,98	0,003			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,205	-6,77	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,122	-3,52	0			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,083	2,25	0,025			
	Use of Emotions	0,062	1,53	0,128			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,064	1,79	0,074			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Table 18

The Effect of Perceived Leadership Style and Perceived EI Dimensions on Autonomy

Independent Variables		Dependent Variable: Autonomy Dimension of Psychological Well-Being					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,035	0,43	0,667	9,01	0,1804	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	-0,059	-0,8	0,425			
	Inspirational Motivation	-0,009	-0,12	0,908			
	Intellectual Stimulation	-0,044	-0,54	0,587			
	Individualized Consideration	0,163	2,01	0,045			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,112	-2,59	0,01			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,195	-3,92	0			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,118	2,23	0,027			
	Use of Emotions	-0,007	-0,12	0,903			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,07	1,37	0,171			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Analysis results indicate that the model is significant and explains %18,04 of the variance in autonomy dimension of psychological well-being (F=9,01; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that while individualized consideration factor has significant and positive effect (β=0,163; p<0,05) on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being, the other factors of transformational leadership have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being. Besides, it can be seen that both contingent reward (β=-0,112; p<0,01) and management-by-exception (β=-0,195; p<0,01) factors of transactional leadership have significant and negative effect on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being. In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that while others' emotion appraisal factor has

significant and positive effect (β=0,118; p<0,05) on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being, the other factors of emotional intelligence (use of emotions, regulation of emotions) have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on autonomy dimension of psychological well-being.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 19. Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %28,03 of the variance in environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being (F=15,18; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that while individualized consideration factor has significant and positive effect (β=0,275; p<0,01) on environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being, the other factors of transformational leadership have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being. Besides, when the dimensions of transactional leadership are examined, it can be seen that contingent reward factor has significant and negative effect on environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being (β=-0,112; p<0,01), but not management-by-exception factor (p>0,05). In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that none of the factors of emotional intelligence have significant effect (p>0,05) on environmental mastery dimension of psychological well-being.

Table 19

The Effect of PLS and PEI Dimensions on Environmental Mastery

Independent Variables		Dependent Variable: Environmental Mastery Dimension of Psychological Well-Being					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	-0,021	-0,24	0,809	15,18	28,03	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	-0,02	-0,26	0,789			
	Inspirational Motivation	-0,029	-0,33	0,74			
	Intellectual Stimulation	-0,016	-0,19	0,851			
	Individualized Consideration	0,275	3,16	0,002			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,255	-5,49	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,095	-1,79	0,074			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,103	1,81	0,071			
	Use of Emotions	0,028	0,46	0,644			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,104	1,92	0,056			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

The Effect of PLS and PEI Dimensions on Personal Growth

Independent Variables		Dependent Variable: Personal Growth Dimension of Psychological Well-Being					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,022	0,29	0,775	10,87	0,2134	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	-0,06	-0,85	0,398			
	Inspirational Motivation	0,015	0,19	0,85			
	Intellectual Stimulation	0,023	0,3	0,765			
	Individualized Consideration	0,144	1,85	0,065			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,152	-3,65	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,086	-1,8	0,073			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,067	1,31	0,192			
	Use of Emotions	0,127	2,29	0,023			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,071	1,45	0,148			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %21,34 of the variance in personal growth dimension of psychological well-being (F=10,87; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that none of the factors of transformational leadership has significant effect on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being (p>0,05). Besides, when the dimensions of transactional leadership are examined, it can be seen that contingent reward factor has significant and negative effect on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being (β=-0,152; p<0,01), but not management-by-exception factor (p>0,05). In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that while use of emotions factor of emotional intelligence has positive and significant

effect on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being (β=0,127; p<0,05), the other factors of emotional intelligence (others' emotion appraisal, regulation of emotions) have not significant effect (p>0,05) on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on positive relations dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 21.

Table 21

The Effect of PLS and PEI Dimensions on Positive Relations

Independent Variables		**Dependent Variable: Positive Relations Dimension of Psychological Well-Being**					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,12	1,29	0,198	9,75	0,1937	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	0,069	0,83	0,405			
	Inspirational Motivation	0,058	0,63	0,531			
	Intellectual Stimulation	-0,113	-1,22	0,223			
	Individualized Consideration	0,124	1,36	0,176			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,294	-6	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,087	-1,55	0,123			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,066	1,11	0,269			
	Use of Emotions	0,065	0,99	0,321			
	Regulation of Emotions	-0,024	-0,42	0,676			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %19,37 of the variance in positive relations dimension of psychological well-being (F=9,75; p<0.01).

When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that none of the factors of transformational leadership has significant effect on positive relations dimension of psychological well-being (p>0,05).

Besides, when the dimensions of transactional leadership are examined, it can be seen that contingent reward factor has negative and significant effect on positive relations dimension of psychological well-being (β=-0,294; p<0,01), but not management-by-exception factor (p>0,05).

In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that the factors of emotional intelligence have not significant effect (p>0,05) on positive relations dimension of psychological well-being.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 22.

Table 22

The Effect of PLS and PEI Dimensions on Purpose in Life

Independent Variables		Dependent Variable: Purpose In Life Dimension of Psychological Well-Being					
		β	**t**	**p**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,097	1,13	0,259	11,48	0,2236	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	0,112	1,46	0,145			
	Inspirational Motivation	-0,114	-1,32	0,189			
	Intellectual Stimulation	-0,074	-0,87	0,387			
	Individualized Consideration	0,197	2,33	0,02			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,217	-4,82	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,164	-3,17	0,002			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,023	0,41	0,679			
	Use of Emotions	0,095	1,57	0,117			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,032	0,61	0,543			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %22,36 of the variance in purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being (F=11,48; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it can be seen that while individualized consideration factor has positive and significant effect (β=0,197; p<0,05) on purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being, the other factors of transformational leadership have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being. Besides, when the dimensions of transactional leadership are examined, it is seen that both contingent reward (β=-0,217; p<0,01) and management-by-exception (β=-0,164; p<0,01) factors have negative and significant effects on purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being. In addition, when

the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it is seen that none of the factors of emotional intelligence have significant effect (p>0,05) on purpose in life dimension of psychological well-being.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on self-acceptance dimension of psychological well-being are presented in Table 23.

Table 23

The Effect of PLS and PEI Dimensions on Self Acceptance

Independent Variables		**Dependent Variable: Self Acceptance Dimension of Psychological Well-Being**					
		β	**t**	**P**	**F**	**Adj.R^2**	**P**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior	0,108	1,23	0,22	17,12	0,3069	0
	Idealized Influence Attributes	0,026	0,33	0,739			
	Inspirational Motivation	0,006	0,07	0,944			
	Intellectual Stimulation	0,015	0,18	0,856			
	Individualized Consideration	0,124	1,43	0,152			
TS	Contingent Reward	-0,217	-4,67	0			
	Management-by-Exception	-0,105	-1,98	0,049			
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	0,105	1,84	0,066			
	Use of Emotions	0,076	1,24	0,217			
	Regulation of Emotions	0,115	2,11	0,035			

TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence

Results indicate that the model is significant and explains %30,69 of the variance in self-acceptance factor of psychological well-being (F=17,12; p<0.01). When the dimensions of transformational leadership are examined, it is seen that the other factors of transformational leadership have not any significant effect (p>0,05) on self-

acceptance factor of psychological well-being. Besides, it can be seen that both management-by-exception (β=-0,105; p<0,05) and contingent reward (β=-0,217; p<0,01) factors of transactional leadership have significant and negative effects on self-acceptance factor of psychological well-being. In addition, when the dimensions of emotional intelligence are examined, it can be seen that while regulation of emotions factor has significant and positive effect (β=0,115; p<0,05) on self-acceptance factor of psychological well-being, the other factors of emotional intelligence have not significant effects (p>0,05) on self-acceptance dimension of psychological well-being.

Our hypothesis have been proven when concepts are evaluated, but the detailed findings obtained as a results of the study are as follows. The individualized consideration dimension of the transformational leadership has positive and significant effect on autonomy, environmental mastery and purpose in life dimensions of psychological well-being. The dimensions of the transactional leadership, we can see the significant and negative effect of the contingent reward, which covers all of the psychological well-being dimensions. But the same result could not be obtained for management by exception. We can say that management by exception has a significant and negative effect only on autonomy, purpose in life and self-acceptance dimensions of psychological well-being. Lastly, it is seen that emotional intelligence dimension others' emotional appraisal has a significant and positive effect on autonomy. At the same time, we see that leaders ability to use emotions has significant and positive effect on personal growth dimension of psychological well-being. Finally, leader's ability to regulate own emotions has a significant and positive effect on the follower's self-acceptance dimension.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

This research aimed to answer the questions regarding how employees' perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence of the leader effect employees' psychological well-being.

Firstly, a regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of emotional intelligence and perceived leadership style of the leader on employees' psychological well-being. The results showed that, on psychological well-being, transformational leadership has positive, transactional leadership has negative and emotional intelligence has positive significant affects.

Subsequently, another regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of perceived emotional intelligence and leadership style dimensions on psychological well-being. The results showed that;

- Transformational leadership positively effects psychological well-being,
- Both management-by-exception and contingent reward factors of transactional leadership have negative and significant effects on psychological well-being,
- Emotional intelligence positively effects follower psychological well-being.

Thus, the hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2c have been proven.

Finally, a set of regression analyzes were conducted one by one to examine the effects of perceived leadership style and emotional intelligence factors on each dimension of psychological well-being. A summary chart of the results is shown in Table 24.

Table 24

The Effects of PLS and PEI Dimensions on PWB Dimensions

Independent Variables		Dependent Variables					
		A	**EM**	**PG**	**PR**	**PiL**	**SA**
TF	Idealized Influence Behavior						
	Idealized Influence Attributes						
	Inspirational Motivation						
	Intellectual Stimulation						
	Individualized Consideration	+	+			+	
TS	Contingent Reward	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Management-by-Exception	-				-	-
EI	Others' Emotion Appraisal	+					
	Use of Emotions			+			
	Regulation of Emotions						+

+: Positive and significant effect; -: Negative and significant effect, TF: Transformational leadership, TS: Transactional leadership, EI: Emotional Intelligence, A: Autonomy, EM: Environmental Mastery, PG: Personal Growth, PR: Positive Relations, PiL: Purpose in Life, SA: Self-acceptance

As can be seen in Table 24, it was found that;

- Only individualized consideration factor of transformational leadership has significant and positive effect on purpose in life, environmental mastery and autonomy factors of psychological well-being,

- While contingent reward factor of transactional leadership has negative and significant effects on all dimensions of psychological well-being; management-by-exception factor has negative and significant effects only on self-acceptance, purpose in life and autonomy factors,

- Among the relationships between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being factors, only the effects of regulation of emotions on self-acceptance, use of emotions on personal growth and others' emotion appraisal on autonomy are positive and significant.

As an overall consideration based on the results of all these analyzes, it can be stated that while perceived transformational leadership and emotional intelligence positively affects psychological well-being of the employees, perceived transactional leadership negatively effects.

When the studies focusing on the relationship between psychological well-being and leadership styles in the literature are reviewed, it can be seen that there are studies that mostly reach results in parallel with our study results, but there are also studies that have different results, especially for the dimensions of transactional leadership. As a result of the study conducted by Cemaloğlu and Çoban (2019) with the participation of 127 teachers, it was determined that all dimensions of transformational leadership are significantly and positively related to psychological well-being. Besides, it was determined that psychological well-being and the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership were positively related, while the management with exceptions dimension was negatively related. In the study conducted by Kahraman (2021) with 521 teachers, it was determined that there is a significant and positive relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of school principals and teachers' subjective well-being. It was determined that the transformational leadership characteristics of school principals were a significant predictor of teachers' subjective well-being. Similarly, in the study conducted by Jain, Duggal, and Ansari (2019), it is concluded that psychological well-being is positively affected by transformational leadership. In another research performed by Iseri (2019) it is determined that psychological well-being is positively affected by transformational leadership and negatively by transactional leadership.

It can also be seen in the literature that perceived emotional intelligence positively affects psychological well-being. It is stated that emotional intelligence is a resource that has positive effects on the leaders themselves and their employees in organizations (Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts, & Luthans, 2001). According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002), the leader is the emotional guide of the group. It is the

leader's duty to give positive direction to collective emotions and to destroy the atmosphere created by toxic emotions. Leaders appeal to emotions. The leader contributes to the well-being of followers by influencing their mood (Brocket, Braun, Verlag, & Süleymangil, 2000). After followers perceive and imitate the leader's positive behaviors, a collective well-being is exhibited (Owens & Hekman, 2016). According to this idea, those individuals who perceive that their leaders have high level of emotional intelligence could have high level of psychological well-being (Heck & Oudsten, 2008). It can be seen in the literature that most of the studies focusing on psychological well-being and emotional intelligence relationship reached similar results with our study findings. The study results of Augusto-Landa, Pulido-Martos, and Lopez-Zafra (2011) showed positive relationship between perceived emotional intelligence and psychological well-being components. Similarly, in the study conducted by Montes-Berges and Augusto-Landa (2014) perceived emotional intelligence was found one of the main predictors of psychological well-being.

If we need to look at the connection between emotional intelligence and individualized consideration, leaders with these characteristics evaluate their followers one-on-one, but they communicate in both directions (Bass, 1985). Leaders with strong emotional intelligence are empathetic and have no difficulty in understanding the feelings and thoughts of others (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Thus, they are more adept at perceiving individual differences (Gates, 1995). The leader's empathic approach, recognizing and giving importance to emotions, allows the leader to pay attention to her followers individually (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Empathy is essential for individualized consideration and is necessary for followers' needs, self-respect and self-actualization (Bass, 1985). 166 people working in different organizations in England were asked to evaluate their leader and their emotional intelligence. As a result of the research, it was seen that there was a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership, and this includes individualized consideration (Rahman, Ferdausy, & Uddin, 2012). When we consider the importance of emotional intelligence in leaders in terms of individualized consideration, we can say that emotional intelligence is a critical factor for raising leaders who care about individual differences (Gates, 1995; Goleman, 1996, 1998).

Bass' comment that may feed this study is that the essence of transformational leadership is human and individualized consideration is the feature that takes care of

people's most basic needs (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In other studies, emotional intelligence was found to be correlated with individualized consideration, but in addition emotional intelligence also correlated with idealized influence and inspirational motivation (Barling et al., 2000; Palmer et al., 2001).

In a study that argues that there is not enough data on emotional intelligence and autonomy, the effect of emotional intelligence, leader-member exchange (LMX) and autonomy on effective leadership was investigated. Although there are many definitions and parameters on effective leadership, it is argued that autonomy is closely related to transformational leadership in terms of increasing job performance. According to Yammarino (1994), an effective leader instills the necessary inspiration and self-confidence in her followers, allowing them to become their own leaders. In the study, which 266 employees participated, it was observed that there was a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership, emotional intelligence and autonomy and that this relationship had a direct effect. At the same time, it has been determined that LMX is directly related to autonomy. Transformational and LMX have been shown to be linked by the mediating effect of emotional intelligence (Du Plessis, Waglay, & Becker, 2020). Other studies based on leader-member exchange have shown that autonomy is also strong in relationships where LMX is high. As a result, it was determined that psychological empowerment was positively affected (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Kim, Liu, & Diefendorff, 2015). Based on these researches, we can see that emotional intelligence and transformational leadership reaches followers with many direct, indirect ways and mediators (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015).

Transformational leaders support self-growth by setting an example, considering the followers individually, and helping their followers by taking the right opportunities (Hernon & Rossiter, 2006; Ryback, 2012). Although there are many definitions implying this in the literature, it is clear that more detailed research is needed to show whether transformational leadership and emotional intelligence are related to employee personal growth or development. Researching emotional intelligence and transformational leadership by reducing it to its parameters may clarify this issue.

According to the results of this study, it has been seen that having a purpose in life and individualized consideration of transformational leadership are related. To support the findings of this study, a study conducted in India in 2015 on 420

participants working in the information sector, the leadership styles of their managers and their own psychological empowerment levels were evaluated. According to the results of the study, transformational leaders provide psychological empowerment of their employees and create an environment of trust. The transformational leader helps their employees to assign a purpose and meaning in life, while using psychological empowerment as a tool. Through psychological empowerment, positive results have been seen in better work outcome, perception of one's role and meaning, competence and self-determination (Mittal, 2016). In general, as a result of transformational leadership, giving purpose to life has been supported, but more categorical studies may be required to look at its relevance to individualized consideration.

According to Johar et al. (2018) self-acceptance is highly correlated with leader's emotional intelligence. When we compare our work with Johar et al. (2018), who can relate to all phases of emotional intelligence and the self-acceptance of employees, we have obtained the same results only in the management of emotions. In the management phase it is very important for the leader to control emotions and name emotions exactly. A leader who can perceive own emotions can direct the emotions of others, motivate them and guide them in line with their goals. The leader's ability to control emotions creates a suitable environment for the correct communication of followers and acts as a catalyst for positive emotions, which keeps the self-acceptance level of the employees high (Johar et al., 2018). In the absence of self-acceptance, the employee loses self-confidence, gets in the way of personal development, and fails to take advantage of many opportunities (Tsai, Tsai, & Wang, 2011). Although the leader's leadership style directs the employee, employees with high self-acceptance may also prefer to work with a transformational leader. This shows that there is a bidirectional preference (Felfe & Schyns, 2006). More detailed research can be done by considering the potential of the employees to choose a manager.

5.2 Conclusion

In work environment, how the leadership style and the emotional intelligence of the leader are perceived by the followers and how this perception affects the psychological well-being of the followers was examined. According to the results of

the study, it was seen that the transformational leadership and the level of leader's emotional intelligence have positive effect on the psychology of the follower. When concepts were investigated by reducing them into their dimensions, the results differed, but the result did not change when viewed as a whole.

In our study, it is argued that transformational leadership positively affects employee psychological well-being, but some opposing views stated that the level of the transformational leadership is important. According to opposing views, transformational leadership theory does not provide information on where things will go wrong. High levels of emotional involvement of the follower in the work environment may cause stress and burn out over time (Yukl, 1999a). Leaders who link strongly with their subunits can improve motivation, but over doing it may cause excessive competition and may result in a decline in organizational effectiveness. The detrimental effects of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence on followers must be examined more thoroughly (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013).

Within the scope of the study, a number of suggestions have been developed also for researchers. A study can be carried out with a different sample. An analysis can be performed in which different variables that may have an effect on psychological well-being of the employees are added to the research model. Unlike this cross-sectional study, which is performed with data collected in a single time period, a longitudinal study can be conducted.

Considering our research, some of the weaknesses of transformational leadership may jeopardize our work. To give an example of its weaknesses, it is said that not enough variations have been found sufficient to create a bond between transformational leadership and positive work outcomes (Yukl, 1999a). The lack of data on effectiveness on dyadic level is shadowed by how leaders are influencing their followers individually, which indicates that transformational leadership theories would benefit from a group or organizational point of view (Yukl, 1999a). The overlapping components of the transformational leadership theory make it harder to point which component affects what, and this raise doubts about their validity (Yukl, 1999a).

It is foreseen that the results of this study do not contain biased answers, since the followers' evaluation will not be shared with their leader. However, there is always the possibility of biased answers as followers are asked to evaluate their on

psychological well-being. In self-report assessments, it should be taken into account that followers may have marked the answers that would give good results because of the desire to look socially and psychologically competent. In order to prevent biased answers, it may be appropriate to evaluate the psychological well-being of the followers by those who knows the followers closely. However, using a large number of questionnaires in this study is deterrent enough, and evaluating followers by others will make it difficult to conclude the study. It would be more accurate to try this suggestion in long-term studies.

The idea that the leader-follower relationship is one-sided may also be widely accepted for transformational leadership. The success of the individual, group, or organization is said to depend on the leader and that transformational leadership influence is unidirectional. Transformational leader finds the path and encourages others to take it, influences followers to make self-sacrifice and go beyond their effort. This shows that, energy and influence flows from leader to the followers. When the goal is achieved or the odds are challenged it is always assumed that the leader is influencing the followers to perform better and as a result to feel better psychologically. The overlooked issue is that this interaction can be bidirectional, while it is possible for leaders to overcome obstacles by influencing followers, it has not been sufficiently investigated whether followers encourage leaders to become better by criticizing their visions (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). It is often neglected to look at the influence of followers on leaders. The top-down effect of the chain of command or organizational chart may be one of the reasons. A bidirectional investigation of leader-follower interaction may clarify the issue.

Another problem is that there is a lot of empirical studies, but the relationship of leadership with other employee variables and dimensions have not been fully investigated. According to this study, the concepts were tried to be looked at not superficially, but by dividing them into dimension. In future studies, detailed studies that will divide the concepts into dimension will enable a closer examination of the relationship between the leader and the follower.

Based on the studies in the literature and our study results, some suggestions can be offered to increase the psychological well-being of employees. Leaders in organizations can be encouraged to exhibit more transformational leadership

behaviors compared to transactional leadership behaviors. Training programs can be organized to increase the emotional intelligence levels of leaders.

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