The Influence of Transformational Leadership in Organizations: The Mediating Role of Meaningful Work

Örgütlerde Transformasyonel Liderlik Etkileri: İşin Anlamlılığının Aracılık Rolü

ABSTRACT

A leader is a person who has the potential to mobilize individuals who want to struggle for common goals and shared aspirations. Leaders have some key roles in achieving organizational goals. Today, change and transformation occur much faster than in the past. Particularly in parallel with technological innovations, this change is an important factor in making parallel innovations when organizations continue their sustainable competitive advantages. For this reason, the roles of leaders, which are the most important driving forces of the organizations, in this change and transformation are more important than the role models. In this context, this study aims to investigate the effects of organizational citizenship behaviors, unethical organizational behaviors, and the effects of integration on work. In addition, the mediating role of job meaning in the process has been examined. It has been found that current work findings and transformational leaders are influential in work integration and organizational citizenship behaviors, and also act as a partial means of making meaningful work in the model.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Meaningful Work, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Un-Ethical Pro-Organizational Behavior, Business Integration

1. Introduction

Organizations are established and structured in order to realize various purposes. In the process of achieving goals, the resources and possibilities that the organization possesses contribute to the whole, but with the potentials and features it possesses, human resources are at the forefront. Human resources can be classified as leaders and followers. The leader is the person who has the potential to mobilize individuals who want to struggle for common goals and shared aspirations (Kousez & Posner, 2012, p. 30; Bickes, et al., 2017, p. 55). Therefore, the leader has a key role in achieving organizational goals. Because of this importance, leadership and effectiveness have become one of the most discussed topics in organizational behavior literature. In contemporary leadership approaches, transformational leadership is one of the most popular paradigms (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 756).

Transformational leadership is a style of leadership that allows employees to give up their individual interests for organizational interests and exhibit behaviors aimed at the well-being of the majority (Effelsberg et al., 2014, p. 81). Applied studies show that the leader of the transformation has a positive influence on a large number of individual and organizational outcomes (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2016, p. 2). Despite all these research findings, Ghadi, Fernando and Caputi (2013, p. 532) stated that more research is needed to ensure that the transformational leaders’ followers’ motivational tools and its process are clearly understood. Similarly, Yukl (1999, p. 287) stated that there is uncertainty about the mediation processes that explain how transitional leaders influence followers, and stressed that efforts should be made to shed light on the mediation process. To meet this need expressed in the literature, this study was designed to examine the mediating effect of transformative leadership and organizational citizenship behavior, unethical organizational behaviors, and job integration in finding meaningful relationships in work. The research model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Research Model.

Meaningfulness emerges when employees see that their perceptions of meaningfulness lead to a purpose and contribute to a great social benefit (Demirtas et al., 2017, p. 185). Meaningfulness in terms of employees is constructed when interacting with work and work environments (Blatt & Ashford, 2006) and it occurs when employees establish a connection between self-perceptions and work. Working conditions are believed to allow these connections to be established (Vough, 2007). At this point, in the process of finding meaningful work, reveals the role of the leader. The key to organizational success is finding meaningful business due to its positive influence on a large number of attitudinal and behavioral work output (Martela, 2010).
Transformational leaders make business more important and meaningful, preventing followers from perceiving their jobs as boring, ordinary and monotonous, and motivating them to achieve goals. Those who contribute to the organizational vision while perceiving it as important are able to exert an extra role (Prahad & Prahad, 2016, p. 2).

As a matter of fact, leadership reveals that employment from the variables of research has positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior and work integration (Carter, Mossholder, Feild, & Armenakis, 2014; Bottomley, Gould - Williams, & León – Cázagares, 2016; Kim, 2014; Kovjancic, Schuh, & Jonas, 2013, Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). But at first glance, it cannot be said clearly how transformational leadership will have an impact on unethical organizational behavior. Transformer leaders, who are role models for followers, contribute to the development of ethical attitudes and high ethical standards (Intro, 2016, p. 38) and the demonstration of behaviors aimed at the good of the majority (Effelsberg et al. 2014, p. 81). When the subject is approached from this angle, it can be said that the transformational leader will have a negative effect on the unethical organization-oriented behavior. However, it seems that one of the most common definitions of leadership in the field of transformational leadership is the emphasis on organizational goals (Van Dierendonck et al. 2014, p. 545). In addition, it is said that, with the expression of ‘majority of goodness’ mentioned above, it remains unclear whether the expectations of external stakeholders are beyond the organizational interests (Effelsberg et al. 2014, p. 81). When the issue is approached from this perspective, it can be said that the transformation leader will have a positive influence on the unethical organization pro-behavior. Research findings in the literature fall in line with this perspective (Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014, Effelsberg & Solga, 2015).

It is hoped that this study will present a contribution to the uncertainty that exists at first glance between the transformational leadership and the unethical pro-organizational behavior. In addition, the research findings are based on new research (Ghadi, Fernando & Caputi. 2007), which is needed to understand how motivating mechanisms and processes of followers are being pursued by the transformational leaders. This will enrich the research findings in a limited number of properties on the effects of the transformational leadership (Arnold et al. Caputi, 2013, p. 532) and will be able to highlight uncertainty about the mediation processes (Yukl, 1999, p. 287; Ghadi et al, 2013, p. 533) that explains how transformative leaders influence followers.

2. Conceptual Framework and Research Hypotheses

2.1. Transformational Leadership

It is known that various behavioral theories such as path-goal theory, leader-member interaction theory and normative decision theory prevailed in leadership literature until the end of 1970s, and theories of transformational and charismatic leadership have been at the forefront of theories since the 1980s (Yukl, 1999, p. 285). While traditional leadership theories focused on rational processes, charismatic and transformational leadership theories focused on emotions and values (Rukmani, Ramesh & Jayakrishnan, 2010, p. 365). Transformational leadership theory is viewed as a leadership style that creates a positive change for followers to take care of each other’s interests and act towards the interests of the group as a whole. The transformational leadership concept was introduced by James MacGregor Burns in a descriptive study of political leaders in 1978, given the widespread use in the field of organizational behavior and management after the work of B.M. Bass and J.B. Avalio (Odumuru & Ogbonna, 2013, p. 356).

Transformational leadership (Aldoory & Toth, 2004, p. 159), also called charismatic leadership, is the collective channeling of the participation and commitment of all stakeholder groups in
a radical change in the context of shared effort, values and vision (Hawkins, 2017, p. 17). The key element of this leadership style is the emphasis on the development of followers. The transformational leader is interested in what needs to be done to expand the future talents and obligations of followers while at the same time assessing the potential of all followers in terms of their ability to fulfill their current responsibilities (Dvir et al., 2002, p. 736). In this sense, the transformational leader is focused on changing the norms and values of subordinates and motivating them to reach beyond their expectations (Wang et al. 2017, p. 187). In doing so, it addresses high ideals and moral values, shapes the vision of the future, and tries to build a climate of trust (Tucker & Russell, 2004, p. 103).

The transformational leader comes to the forefront with unique qualities around the mix, expressed as the power to fascinate and mobilize a person (Aldoory & Toth, 2004, p. 159). Transformational leadership can be defined as leadership behaviors that affect employees’ values and aspirations, motivate their high-level needs, and encourage them to give up their own interests for organizational interests (Bai et al, 2012, p. 217). In another source, transformational leadership is defined as a leadership style that allows followers to focus on the organization vision without supervision and as their own vision as well as focusing their energies on achieving collective goals (Moriano et al., 2014, p. 106). The common point of definitions on transformational leadership is an emphasis on focusing on organizational goals. Transformational leaders motivate followers to perform better for organizational goals. Awards and praise are used to encourage a stronger focus on achieving higher results (Van Dierendonck et al, 2014, p. 545).

Transformational leadership, in conjunction with the essence of two-way symmetric communication, provides participatory management, individual empowerment, negotiation, information sharing and stress, and helps to develop relationships among employees with the organization as a result (Jiang, 2012, p. 232). The transformational leader raises the maturity and ideal levels of followers, success orientations, self-realization efforts, and the welfare of the individual, organization and society (Bass, 1999, p. 11).

Bass (1999, p. 11) states that the transformation leader is composed of four key elements, charisma (idealized effect), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized evaluation. These components are briefly described below:

2.1.1. Charisma (idealized effect)

The idealized effect is the degree to which the leader’s followers exhibit exemplary behavior in a way that leads them to identify with it (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). The fact that the leader acts like a strong role model raises deep emotions in the followers, leading them to identify with the leader and adopt it as a model. Thus, followers have an ethical grip and high ethical standards and trust themselves more to do the right things at the right time (Girma, 2016, p. 38).

2.1.2. Inspiring motivation

Leaders behave in such a way as to motivate employees to see their work meaningful and to take ownership of it. They show excitement and optimism and team spirit. In this respect, the leader aims to imagine what the followers will design for them, a tempting future (Bass et al, 2003, p. 208). Through his passion and optimism, the leader encourages followers to go beyond what is good for them (Robertson & Barling, 2017, p. 24).
2.1.3. **Individualized assessment**

This component includes acting as a coach or mentor to elicit the potential of followers (McCleskey, 2014, p. 120). Transformational leaders carry out individualized valuations, taking into account the development needs of each of the employees. The duties and responsibilities of employees are designed with these needs and organizational expectations in mind (Bass, 1990, p. 30). In this process, the leader sees each employee individually, shows individual interest to them and makes recommendations for their development (Bass, 1990, p. 22). The new learning opportunities needed to grow and thrive are created with a supportive climate (Bass et al., 2003, p. 208).

2.1.4. **Intellectual stimulation**

Leaders question old assumptions, traditions and beliefs (Bass, 1997, p. 133). At this point, followers are being encouraged to be innovative and creative and to approach old situations with new methods. In this process, the mistakes of the employees are not done with destructive criticism and mockery (Bass et al. 2003, p. 208). Transformational leaders encourage their followers through intellectual stimulation to challenge traditions and solve problems from different perspectives (Dong et al. 2017, p. 442). At this point, the wishes of the followers to change their point of view continuously through development and to acquire new skills are kept alive. In support of this assumption, Engelen et al. (2015, p. 1075) have stated that intellectual stimulation will contribute to employees questioning the status quo, turning to innovative and creative ideas and being open to different experiences.

2.2. **Meaningful Work**

The basic concern of mankind is to dedicate his life to understanding, not to enjoy or to avoid pain (Frankl, 2017, p. 112). The search for meaning constitutes the essence of the individual’s existence (Dyson et al. 1997, p. 1185), it has a business central position (Michaelson et al, 2014, p. 77). Most people want their jobs and their careers to serve them and serve them for a far better reason than earning income and taking their time (Steger et al. 2012, p. 322). As a result of this search, the concept of finding work meaningful in organizational behavior has emerged.

Fairlie (2011) argues that finding meaningful business is not a new concept. The rationale for this, Maslow (1965) and Alderfer (1972) describe the types of work that encourage self-realization, are McGregor (1960) sorts jobs that allow imagination, ingenuity and creativity, and as Locke argues that job satisfaction is a function of doing things that are personally valued (p. 510).

In terms of employees, the sense of meaning emerges when they see that the efforts, they have exhibited in the organization lead to a purpose and contribute to a great social benefit (Demirtas et al. 2017, p. 185). In stating this expression, Steger et al. (2012, p. 323) stated that the positive value of finding work meaningful is eugenic-focused rather than hedonistic.

Steger et al. (2012, pp. 324-325) conceptualized job finding as a phenomenon in three directions, taking into account the basic principles. The first of the directions is positive meaning in work. This meaning consists of subjective evaluations and expresses that the individual sees work as meaningful and important. The second direction is meaning making through work.

In terms of the individual, work is an important source of meaning as a whole. If the work is meaningless, it is unlikely that life will be meaningful. This direction is explained as contributing to individual development and helping one to understand the world. The third direction is greater good motivations for the majority. This direction is based on the idea that a job has such a wide and positive effect on others that it is meaningful. Finding meaningful work from these explanations
can be defined as the degree to which the work the employee is doing is meaningful, worthwhile and useful in terms of the above listed aspects (Geldenhuys et al. 2014, p. 3). Similarly, the concept of Demirtas et al. (2017, p. 185), and the belief that employees’ efforts have a positive proposition.

Michaelson et al. (2014, p. 81) have indicated that a universal scale of what constitutes meaningful business-critical factors cannot be put forward because perceptions of meaning depend on the subjective interpretation of work experiences and interactions of employees (Rosso et al. 2010, p. 94). That is, an experience that is meaningful to someone may not make sense to someone else (Cheney et al. 2008, p. 145). Moreover, job meaningfulness is also influenced by cultural assumptions (Rohtlauf, 2015, p. 29; Dempsey & Sanders, 2010, p. 439) and other environmental factors. Despite this, work has been done on what are the factors that make work meaningful. Rosso et al. (2010) argue that finding work meaning is shaped by four main factors. The first of these basic factors is called “self” and consists of one’s work-related values, motivation, beliefs and future orientations (p. 96). The second is called “individuals and groups in which the individual interacts in the working environment or in the external environment” and is divided into subheadings such as colleagues, leaders, groups and communities, family and future orientations (p. one hundred). The third key factor is that of “business context”, and it comes from business design, organizational mission, financial conditions, non-business environment, national culture and future orientations (p. 103). The latter is called “spiritual-spiritual life” and consists of subheadings of spirituality, divine commands and future directions (p. 106).

Finding work’s meaning is seen as a way to increase the employee’s commitment to work and motivation (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009, p. 492). It is also important that an employee under stressful circumstances can fulfill his or her tasks extremely successfully. It is even said that finding meaningful work will support their motivation, well-being, development and integration levels of work (Fouché et al. 2017, p. 2), even if they are not willing to be positively affected.

Transformational leaders reorganize values that shape the personal values and shared business goals of followers through idealized influence; inspirational motivation allows followers to see group and group goals as a whole superior to individual goals; (Nielsen & Daniels, 2012, p. 384), and individualized assessment, make their potentials considerable, taking into account the development needs of the followers and organizational anticipations, as intellectual stimulation leads followers to question their assets in the organization and to reconcile their work to the rest of the organization. Yasin et al. (2013, p. 538) suggested that all of these would allow the employee to perceive the work as part of a bigger objective, to consider it important, to raise the level of motivation, to control emotions such as prejudice, misunderstanding and rejection, meaningful. This relationship, which is expressed in the theoretical ground between transformational leadership and finding meaningful business, has also been confirmed by numerous research findings (Arnold et al. 2007; Yasin et al. 2013, Ghadi, 2017). In the context of the explanations, the first hypothesis of the research is as follows:

**Hypothesis 1a:** There is a positive effect of the transformation leader’s finding of meaningful work.

### 2.3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The basis of organizational citizenship behavior is based on the work of Kantz (1964). In his related work Kantz (1964, p. 132) described the behaviors required for a healthy functioning organization; a) encouraging qualified persons to participate in drawing and organization, b) reliably fulfilling specific role requirements, and c) exhibiting innovative and voluntary behavior that goes beyond the role requirements. Kantz (1964) considered behaviors in the third group as acti-
ons that were not specified in the role requirements but which facilitated the realization of organizational goals. They also stated that such behaviors have a critical prescription for organizational vitality and efficacy, while those that depend only on the behaviors specified in the role requirements will exhibit a very fragile structure (p. 132). Bateman, who exemplifies related behaviors, helping his colleagues in work-related problems, tolerating temporary harassment, keeping his work area clean and tidy, making constructive explanations about the work unit and the manager, supporting an organizational climate favoring the negativities created by interpersonal conflicts, and protecting organizational resources and Organ (1983, p. 588) refer to such actions as ‘citizenship behavior’.

Bies (1989, p. 294) emphasizes that citizenship behaviors bring a new breath to organizational behavioral models that assume that the individual is motivated only for self-interest. Organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1997, p. 86; Organ et al. 2006, p. 3), which is not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, contributes to the effective functioning of the organization as a whole. It is understood from the literature that organizational citizenship behavior has a multi-dimensional structure (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1997). Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516) ranked the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior in terms of helping behavior, volunteering, organizational loyalty, organizational cohesion, individual initiative, civil virtue, and individual development. Organ (1988, p. 25) has dealt with the dimensions of PLA as altruism, conscience, gentleness, courtesy and civic virtue. In the article, the five widely accepted dimensions are briefly explained because of the widely accepted classification (Schnake and Dumler, 2003, p. 284).

Altruism; (Smith et al. 1983, p. 661) is intended for the members of the organization in the sense that it will provide organizational benefits. Contributing to the adaptation of a newly joined employee and helping a worker with a high workload are some of the behaviors evaluated in this context (Somech and Oplatka, 2015, p. 4).

Conscientiousness; (Astakhova, 2015, p. 372) the members of the organization are obliged to carry out their duties beyond their minimum requirements. Not taking unnecessary breaks, fulfilling responsibilities on time, and behaving in accordance with organizational rules and instructions are behaviors that take place on the level of conscientiousness (Kim, 2014, p. 401).

Sportsmanship; is volunteerism to tolerate the potential adversities and difficulties encountered by the employee (Organ, 1988, p. 11).

Courtesy; it is also important to inform employees about the other employees, who may be affected by the employee decisions and actions (Schnake and Dumler, 2003, p. 285).

Civic virtue; on the other hand, expresses active participation with a sense of responsibility for political life (Graham and Van Dyne, 2006, p. 90).

The basis of the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior is based on the fact that leaders are role models, that is, followers try to resemble leadership (Kent and Chelladurai, 2001, p. 143). In addition, the rhetoric that the leader in transformational leadership can go beyond expectations is clearly referring to organizational citizenship behavior (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001, p. 143). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996, p. 263) noted that the effects of the transformational leader’s leadership would be based on extraordinary role behaviors from formal role behaviors. Transformational leaders will build confidence in their followers through their charisma, inspirational motivation, individualized evaluation and intellectual stimulation components, will increase their levels of intrinsic motivation and will increase their enthusiasm for organizational citizenship behavior (Modassir & Singh, 2008, p.
13). In addition, the transformational leadership have a function that facilitates the development of quality relationships between leaders and followers. The fact that relationship quality is shown as an employee response to this leadership leads to a rise in formal role and extra role performance (Carter, Armenakis, Feild & Mossholder, 2012, p. 943). Transformational leaders motivate followers by communicating the need to prioritize and internalize organizational interests relative to individual interests. When this happens, followers internalize the values of the leader and the organization, accept a better vision, truly transform as a whole with attitudes, beliefs and values, not to achieve harmony or external rewards (Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011, p. 14). This intrinsic motivation can lead subordinates to be willing to contribute to the purpose of the establishment without the need for any rewarding. Therefore, followers tend to exhibit voluntary behavior beyond the role requirements (Abu Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016, p. 384). The relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior is also supported by the findings of practical work (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005; Carter, Armenakis, Feild & Mossholder, 2012; Humphrey, 2012; Tonkin, 2013; Abu Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016). The second hypothesis of the research in this context is as follows:

**Hypothesis 1b:** Transformational leadership has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

### 2.4. Unethical Pro-organizational Behavior

Different behaviors are exhibited differently by employees in business life (Akdogan & Demirtas, 2014). One of these types of behaviors is unethical organizational behavior (UPB). Effelsberg and Solga (2015, p. 582) pointed out that the promotion of organizational success of this behavior derives from the dilemmas that arise when it conflicts with the interests of external stakeholders. Unethical organizational behaviors are defined by Umphress and Bingham (2011, p. 622) as actions undertaken in the name of supporting basic social values, traditions, laws and appropriate standards of behavior in order to support the effective functioning of associations and members of the organization. In another source (Effelsberg et al., 2014, p. 82), they are defined as actions exhibited in the context of organizational deductions and at the same time which have the potential to harm the interests of external stakeholders and society as a whole.

Umphress et al. (2010, p. 770) state that ethical nonprofit behaviors include two basic descriptive components. These are the illegal behaviors of such behavior or ethical behaviors that are not accepted by the general public. The second is that these behaviors are pro-organizational behaviors that are carried out in order to provide or to assist in positive interests, as well as behaviors not included in formal job descriptions and not demanded by superiors.

Umphress and Bingham (2011) have described three situations at the point of determining behaviors that would not be considered in the context of unethical organizational behavior. The first situation refers to the unethical behavior that employees may exhibit without any particular benefit or loss. This is the case if a customer cannot recall a defective product because an employee has no information. These and similar behaviors are not part of the unethical behaviors of pro-organizational because they are not intended to consciously make net profit. Second, despite the goals of employees to make positive benefits, their results do not overlap with their intentions. For example, an employee may have destroyed a document containing a crime to protect the organization. However, the destruction of this document may not result in any organizational benefit. Such behaviors may even lead to long-term consequences of harm to the organization, as the external auditors are much more suspicious of the behaviors. The third is the unethical behaviors
that employees can exhibit solely in their own interests (pp. 622-623). The conditions necessary for a behavior to be assessed within the scope of unethical organizational behavior by means of statements; the purpose is to protect the interests of the organization, and the behavior resulted to the benefit of the organization and against the external stakeholders.

Social identity theory (Blau, 1964) and social change theory (Tajfel, 1982) are used to explain the reasons why individuals exhibit unethical organizational behaviors. It is argued in the literature that employees with organizational identification and positive reciprocal beliefs can exhibit unethical organizational behaviors (Demirtas & Bickes, 2014; Umphress et al. 2010, p. 769; Mathe rne and Litchfield, 2012, p. 36; Miao et al. 2013, p. 644; Wang et al.). Wang et al. (2018) point out that a positive social change relationship can trigger unethical pro-organizational behavior for two reasons. For the most part, the reason is that employees in the positive social change relationship view unethical organizational behavior as a requirement of a long-term employment relationship. These employees do not feel obliged to adhere to ethical constraints and regulations, and therefore are more likely to exhibit unethical organizational behavior. The second reason is that employees who have a strong sense of commitment and who make extraordinary contributions to positive social change relationships feel they have the privilege of violating ethical codes and ethical standards, especially when it comes to organizational interests (pp. 3-4). This is referred to in the literature as “self-licensing” and is defined as the tendency of an individual to exhibit moral conduct in the past and to be perceived as immoral because of his perception as a virtuous person around him and to exhibit unethical behaviors without fear of being recognized (Effron and Conway, 2015, p. 32; Merritt et al., 2010, p. 344).

Ethical nonprofit behaviors include all non-ethical behaviors that are displayed consciously, aiming at the organization’s interests, and contrary to the interests of external stakeholders. Graham et al. (2015, p. 423) argue that unethical organizational behavior may be as extreme as concealing serious crimes, giving false information to customers, disguising the facts from the public, and having another positive referent on behalf of an incompetent and inadequate employee, they may also be at lower levels.

At first glance, unethical organizational behaviors (Umphress & Bingham, 1984), identified as actions carried out by ignoring social values, laws, and behavior standards for organizational interest, are the leaders of the transformational leader (Effelsberg et al. 2011, p. 622) may be considered to affect the negative. However, Effelsberg et al. (2014, p. 82) stated that the transformation leadership would increase the likelihood of exhibiting unethical organizational behavior by raising the level of organizational identification of followers. These relationships, are expressed in the theoretical framework, and are also supported by various research findings (Effelsberg et al. 2014). The third hypothesis of the research is as follows:

**Hypothesis 1c:** Transformational leadership has a positive effect on unethical organizational behavior.

### 2.5. Work Engagement

Engagement with work has been conceptualized through different perspectives and exposed to different definitions. The initial definitions on the concept are characterized by individual integration and emphasize business roles. Individuals who experience individual integration focus on what they do physically, cognitively and emotionally during work. In the near term, two main perspectives on integration have emerged (Bakker et al. 2008, p. 188; Meynhardt et al. 2018, pp. 7-8). One of the opinions considers integration with work as the opposite of exhaustion. In this
opinion adopted by Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 24), burnout was identified as erosion experienced in the integration process. Due to this burnout, things that were important, meaningful and fascinating at the beginning become tedious, meaningless and unsatisfactory over time. In this process, energy (vitality) leads to exhaustion, dependence desensitization and lack of competence. Thus, integration into work is characterized by energy, commitment and competence. Moving from this, it is said that integration with work can be measured by the opposite of the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

In the course of this process, this opinion has begun to be questioned. In this sense, Schaufeli and Salavona (2011, p. 41) pointed out from a psychological perspective that the assumption of a perfect inverse relationship between burnout and work integration is not possible. That is, burnout does not mean that one person can never integrate with his work. This inquiry has laid the groundwork for a different approach to work integration. This view considers the depletion of work as a positive opposition to exhaustion, but argues that it must be measured differently (Meynhardt et al. 2018 p. 8). In this sense, Bakker et al. (2008, p. 188) regard business integration as negatively related to exhaustion but as an independent and different concept. According to this perspective, work engagement (Schaufeli et al. 2006, p. 702), is characterized by work-related positive behaviors such as commitment and competence (self-giving, internalization). Similarly, Tuckey et al. (2018, p. 2) work integration; (mentality) about positive and satisfactory work that gives rise to positive results in terms of employees and organizations.

Energy (vitality) is characterized by a high level of energy and mental resistance at work, not showing any nervousness in the face of volunteerism and difficulties in helping with someone else’s work. Commitment is characterized by importance, enthusiasm, excitement, inspiration, pride and challenge, and reflects a strong internal commitment to one’s work. Energy and loyalty are positive opposites of depletion and desensitization. Sufficiency (self-giving, internalizing) is characterized by the fact that one is happy and concentrates fully on one’s work. One does not understand how time passes when doing business and has difficulty separating from the work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 29; Salavona & Schaufeli, 2008, p. 118).

Engagement with work is different from concepts such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction and commitment to work in organizational psychology. Organizational commitment refers to loyalty to the organization. While the focal point is organizational loyalty, the focus is on the integration of work itself. Job satisfaction reflects the degree of satisfaction with the work of the employee and the satisfaction with the job. However, it does not involve the relationship of the individual to the work itself. Loyalty to work does not resemble the dimension of loyalty to work integration, nor does it involve other dimensions of work integration and energy and competence. Thus, it can be said that integration with work provides a more complex and holistic perspective on the relationship of the individual with the work (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001, p. 416).

Engagement with work is a motivational concept that expresses the actively transfer of personal resources to tasks related to the business role (Jeanson & Michinov, 2018, p. 2). As it has been confirmed, Jeanson and Michinov (2018, p. 2) stated that they felt an internal responsibility for the passion and diligence of the work of the employees integrated with the work. Unlike those who experience burn out, employees who integrate with the work have an energetic and productive structure in their attitudes and behaviors towards work and see themselves as competent enough to fulfill their business needs (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 73; Schaufeli et al. 2006, p. 702).

Transformational leaders, who are effective role models in terms of their followers due to their virtues, vision and behaviors they demonstrate, will cause followers to realize their potential and
make sacrifices beyond their own interests to make more contribution to organizational performance. Also, as transformational leaders provide important personal resources (such as care, attention, care and respect) to their followers through the individualized evaluation component they have, they will seek possibilities for their followers to take on their jobs and make more efforts in their work. Additionally, transformational leaders will form a supportive organizational climate (Yasin Ghadi, Fernando & Caputi, 2013, pp. 535-536), which will play a role in enhancing followers’ emotional integration through intellectual stimulation. Buil, Martinez and Matute (2018) argue that, based on the theory of social change, followers are likely to exhibit more work integration behaviors in response to such behavior by leaders. Applied study findings confirm this relationship expressed in the theoretical ground (Koppured, Martinsen & Humborstad, 2014, Enwereuzor, Ugvu & Eze, 2016). On the basis of this data, the fourth hypothesis of the research is as follows:

Hypothesis 1d: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on business integration.

2.6. Mediating Effect of Meaningful Work

When employees see that their efforts lead to a purpose and contribute to a great social benefit, they develop a sense of meaning towards their work (Demirtaş et al. 2017, p. 185). Finding meaningful work (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009, p. 492), an effective tool that can be used to increase worker commitment and motivation, helps a stressed worker perform successfully. Even Fouché et al. (2017, p. 2) state that employees who find work meaningful will support their motivation, well-being, development and integration levels of work, even if they are not willing to be positively affected. From this, it can be said that the perception of contributing to a great purpose and social benefit will lead the working individual to integrate more with his work, to exhibit more organizational citizenship behaviors and towards unethical organizational behaviors in order to maintain the meaningful work. In the literature review, we found that finding meaningful work has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Sanoubar et al. 2014; Selamat et al. 2017) as well as integration into work (Geldenhuys et al. 2014; Williamson and Geldenhuys, 2014). On the other hand, there was no study investigating the relationship between job meaningfulness and unethical organizational behavior. In this case, it was assumed that the findings of the study, which did not reveal the relationship between job meaningfulness and variables bearing common stakeholders and unethical organizational behavior, would have some clues as to the relationship between the two variables and the direction of the relationship. In the literature survey with this hypothesis, it was found that there were positive relationships between organizational identification (Kong, 2016), emotional attachment (Matherne and Litchfield, 2012) and psychological empowerment (Lee et al. 2017) and unethical organizational behavior.

The findings of the research show that the transformative leadership may have an intermediary effect of finding meaningful business between the individual outputs of the research subject. In a straightforward manner, Humphrey et al. (2007, p. 1334) noted that meaning is an important mediator between task, work, social and organizational environmental characteristics and individual outcomes. Kahn (1990, p. 703), on the other hand, has found that the levels of perceived work by employees under positive psychological conditions such as meaningfulness, safety and availability are likely to increase. A large number of applied study findings indicate that finding meaningful work has a mediating effect between various organizational variables and individual outcomes (Arnold et al., 2007; Nielsen et al., 2008; Nielsen & Daniels, 2012, Ghadi et al., 2013). In the light of theoretical information and research findings, the hypotheses about the mediation effect of finding meaningful business relations between the transformer leadership and the individual outputs are developed as follows:
Hypothesis 2a: A transformational leader has an influence on organizational citizenship behavior in relation to finding job meaning.

Hypothesis 2b: Transformational leadership has an effect on finding meaningful job-related relationships between unethical organizational behavior and leadership.

Hypothesis 2c: Transformational leadership has an effect of finding meaningful job relevance between leadership and business integration.

3. Methodology
3.1. Sample
The sample of the study was composed of 432 full-time employees of production enterprises operating in Sinop province. When the sample group was examined in terms of demographics, it was determined that 39% of the participants were female and 61% were male, the average age was 41.3 and the education level was on average at the high school level.

3.2. Scales
A multi-factor leadership scale was used by Bass and Avolio (2001) to measure Transformational Leadership. Four sub-questions were asked for the sub-components of the transformational leadership dimension: charisma, suggestive leadership, mental stimulation, and interest components at the individual level. “Help everybody improve their skills to their full strength.” Transformational leadership is one of the scales. The fit of the scale indicates that the fit values were appropriate for the study ($x^2 = 614.94, df = 160, p = 0.00, RMSEA = .088, NFI = .92, NNFI = .93, CFI = .94, IFI = .94, RFI = .90$).

In order to measure meaningful work, originally Steger et al. (2012) used the meaning and reliability of work done by Hamedoğlu in Turkish. The results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated that a three-dimensional Work and Meaning model (positive meaning, meaning making through work, and greater good motivations) was a good fit ($x^2 = 44.95, df = 30, p = 0.00, RMSEA = .057, NFI = .93, NNFI = .96, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, RFI = .89$). The internal consistency coefficients of three subscales were .68, .64, and .73, respectively. The overall internal consistency coefficient of the scale was .86. The corrected item-total correlations of WAMI ranged from .33 to .73. An example item in the scale is, “I understand what my work has meant to life.”

To measure work engagement, Rich et al (2010) employs an 18-item job commitment scale. The scale concerned is composed of three sub-dimensions, physical, emotional and cognitive commitment, and each dimension is measured by 6 questions. An example is the phrase “making good use of your work to perform well in your work.” Participants responded to job commitments consisting of 18 items using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Alpha trust for the work commitment variable was 0.95 (alpha = 0.89 for physical commitment, alpha = 0.91 for emotional commitment, alpha = 0.90 for cognitive commitment). Model fit values were appropriate as suggested by the literature ($x^2 = 833, 6 df = 138, p = 0.00, RMSEA = .080, NFI = .90, NNFI = .94, CFI = .90, IFI = .96, RFI = .89$).

In order to measure the perception of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, the original scale was developed by Vey and Campbell (2004) and William and Shaw (1999), and from Turkish Substance, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Gentility, and Civil Virtue organizational citizenship scale composed of 19 scale material was used. The phrase “Heavy workload helps colleagues.” can be given as an example of organizational citizenship scales. The model fit values of the scale were found to be appropriate ($x^2 = 416.1 df = 54, p = 0.00, RMSEA = .080, NFI = .90, NNFI = .91, CFI = .89, IFI = .96, RFI = .90$).
The Ethical behavior scale used by Miller et al. (2002) by Yücel and Çiftçi (2012) and Neuman and Reichel (1979)'s Attitudes towards Business Ethics scale were used to measure Unethical pro-Organizational Behaviors. An example item is, “I always keep my interests above business interests.”. The exhortion is one of the elements of the organizational pro-ethical behavior scale. The model fit values of the scale were found to be appropriate ($x^2 = 393.43$, $df = 139$, $p = 0.00$, RMSEA = .080, NFI = .90, NNFI = .92, CFI = .90, IFI = .94, RFI = .90).

4. Results

In analyses made to determine correlation values between variables, the following Table-1 results were obtained.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Sd.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Engagement</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful Work</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unethical Pro-organizational Behaviors</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, the results of the regression analysis conducted to test the hypotheses established under the working model are also presented in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Coeff.</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M (MeanWork)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X (TransLead)</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M (MeanWork)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M x X</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.495</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Const.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.858</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the results of the above table are examined, it was found that there is a positive ($\beta = .66$ $p<.01$) relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, positive ($\beta = .71$ $p<.01$), relationship between transformational leadership and meaningful work and a positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement ($\beta = .76$ $p<.01$).

Additionally, according to the results of the bootstrap method (Hayes, 2013), i. Meaningful work partially mediates the relationship between Transformational leadership and work engagement ($\gamma_{Mediator} = 0.36; SE = 0.0378; 95\% CI = 0.3341; 0.4828$); ii. Meaningful work partially mediates the relationship between Transformational leadership and OCB ($\gamma_{Mediator} = 0.03; SE = 0.038; 95\% CI = 0.552; 0.703$); iii. Meaningful work partially mediates the relationship between Transformational leadership and unethical pro-organizational behaviors ($\gamma_{Mediator} = 0.067; SE = 0.081; 95\% CI = 0.1043; 0.2153$).
5. Discussion

There is a significant change in management practices in the global dimension. The latest view of management (i.e. traditional and short-term profit-oriented insights), has transformed into ethical perspectives in which ethical perspectives are much more important. In this process, human resources have increased levels of precaution in management practices as well as in every area. In particular, technological developments and innovative initiatives made in this connection have increased the importance of having qualified people. There is a need for acquiring an organization that has a working environment that is pleasing to them.

In the present day, when the importance and effect of the leader’s internal practices become more important, there are many macro-level effects in macro level as well as many macro level effects and also intra-organization behaviors in micro frames in order to create and direct the behaviors that individuals will select and implement in the relations between individuals, and its impact on whether or not the work is meaningful indicates the growing importance of its leaders and practices.

It is observed that there is an increasing number of employees trying to find work more meaningful and more pro-organizational behaviors in this direction (Demirtas et al., 2017; Michaelson, 2011; Michaelson et al., 2014; Rosso et al., 2010). This is because employees’ perceptions of work are positively influential on many attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Martela, 2010; Schlegel et al., 2009). The literature studies emphasize that meaningfulness or meaningful work has not been studied sufficiently until now (e.g. Cascio, 2013; Demirtas et al., 2017). That’s why, in view of these expert recommendations we examined a model in which meaningful work has a mediator role on the influence of transformational leadership behaviors. Additionally, the findings of the study reveal that making the job more meaningful is also an important input to show commitment to work and more citizenship behavior. Secondly, we think that the findings indicate that meaningful work has a potential input for some other behavioral outcomes (e.g. increased job satisfaction and extra performance, OCB, etc.). In this context, it is possible to state that the primary and secondary effects of the transformational leader’s behavior are that employees will find their work more meaningful.

In today’s working environment, especially ethics, value, social justice, equality and human-centered approaches are now being considered as an important topic. Thus, most researchers and practitioners who write about leadership have begun to get more into the issue of ethics. The complexity of the social environment and the dilemmas in human relations puts new and difficult tasks on those who are in managerial positions. This role requires leaders to incorporate ethical perspectives into their practice as an input when addressing the management of the difficult human element. However, sometimes the organization can exhibit a variety of behaviors that benefit the organization, even if it is not in the interests of employees, other social elements, or business stakeholders. In this way, it is estimated that the employees will have a feeling of organizational belonging, engagement with work, increased commitment and loyalty because they find their work more meaningful, and also leadership will be the role model. In this context, the current study examines the effect of transformational leaders, who are important actors in organizational change and transformation, on unethical organizational behavior.

5.1. Superior and Weaknesses and Future Research Proposals

The current study has many advantages. First of all, the generic representation capability of the work is an important advantage for many full-time employees working in the manufacturing
 sector by making high-level sampling. Additionally, the collection of study data for two months every month is an important advantage in reducing the common method errors in terms of longitudinal data collection as mentioned in the literature. However, there are some weaknesses of the study. First, the study sample comprised of Turkish employees. For this reason, to generalize the existing results, similar research in other cultures including individualist cultures can be expressed as an important element in the generalization of the present results. Additionally, it is evaluated that it would be useful to test the present study findings in terms of different sectors within the scope of employee perception differences. Moreover, it is considered that additional studies should be done in order to identify the potential influence of transformational leadership via the role of meaningful work.

When assessed from an organizational standpoint, the human element and its management appear as a matter of concern, which should be addressed first in today’s competitive environment. In this context, it is considered that there is a significant influence on the transformation of leadership behaviors, organizational meaningfulness, commitment to work, organizational citizenship behaviors and pro-organizational behaviors. This is an important issue in the management of human resources because it is the major source of input. As stated above, the finding of this study revealed parallel findings with previous studies in which it has been established that the transformation leaders have a significant positive influence on important organizational behavior elements such as job commitment, organizational citizenship, and pro-organizational behaviors and that these processes are also significantly influenced by the employees.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.
Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.
Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

References/Kaynakça


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