T.C.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI

ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT, ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSPARENCY AND LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE WITH EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE BEHAVIORS

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Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Seçil BAL TAŞTAN

İstanbul - 2018

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

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ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı, konaklama sektöründe, şehir otellerinde görev yapan çalışanların performans davranışlarına odaklanmaktır. Çalışanların performans davranışları her zaman bireysel, yönetsel ve örgütsel düzeyler üzerindeki etkileriyle literatürdeki ana konular arasında yer almıştır. Dolayısıyla, organizasyonların yönetimleri de daima çalışanların performans davranışlarını arttırma yollarını aramaktadırlar.

Bu çerçevede, öncelikle çalışan performans davranışlarının öncülleri ve sonuçlarına odaklanarak derinlemesine bir literatür araştırması yapılmıştır. Daha sonra, özellikle servis ve konaklama sektörü çalışmaları incelenmiştir. Ardından, konaklama sektöründe çalışanların performans davranışları ve işyerleri ile ilgili tutumlarına odaklanılarak kuramsal çerçeve geliştirilmiştir.

Bu bağlamda, psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel şeffaflık ve lider-üye etkileşimi ile çalışanların görev içi ve görev ötesi performans davranışları arasındaki ilişki üzerine çalışılmıştır. Ardından, örgütsel şeffaflık ile çalışanların performans davranışları arasındaki ilişkide, algılanan psikolojik güvenliğin aracılık rolü incelenmiştir. Sektörde yaşanan dalgalanmaların tetiklediği iş güvencesizliği algısı da otel sektöründeki en önemli konulardan biri olduğu için modelimize dahil edilmiştir. Son olarak, lider-üye etkileşimi ile çalışan performans davranışları arasında, iş güvencesizliğinin düzenleyici etkisi araştırılmıştır.

Çalışma, İstanbul'da uluslararası lüks bir şehir otelinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Otel, iyi bir marka imajına ve yüksek çalışan memnuniyetine sahip kurumsal bir organizasyondur. Otel, konaklama sektöründe uzun yıllardır devam eden operasyonu ile tanınmaktadır. Otelde, verilerin toplanmasında çoklu kaynak yaklaşımı kullanılmıştır. 221 çalışan, psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel şeffaflık, lider-üye etkileşimi, psikolojik güvenlik ve iş güvencesizliği konularında anketleri tamamlamış, 21 yönetici ise, ilgili çalışanların görev içi ve görev ötesi performansları hakkındaki anketleri yanıtlamıştır. Çoklu kaynak veri toplama yaklaşımını kullanılarak verilerin iki farklı açıdan, ast ve üst olarak toplanması, verilerin daha güvenli olmasını sağlamıştır. Böylece, tek kaynak veri toplama yönteminden kaynaklanabilecek sapmalar azaltılmıştır.

Araştırma anketlerinin toplanmasından sonra seri istatistiksel analizler yapılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel şeffaflık ve lider üye etkileşimi ile çalışanların görev içi ve görev ötesi davranışları arasındaki pozitif ilişkiyi kapsayan ilk altı hipotez anlamlı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, algılanan psikolojik güvenliğin, örgütsel şeffaflık ile çalışanların görev içi performans davranışları arasında tam aracılık rolü üstlendiği de tespit edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte, algılanan psikolojik güvenliğin, çalışanların örgütsel şeffaflık ve görev ötesi performans davranışlarına aracılık etmediği görülmüştür. Son olarak, analiz sonuçları, lider-üye etkileşimi ile çalışan performans davranışları arasında, iş güvencesizliğinin düzenleyici rolünü desteklememiştir. Bu sonuç ise, örnek oteldeki çalışanların düşük iş güvencesizliği algısı seviyeleri ile açıklanabilmektedir. Çalışmada ayrıca, araştırılan değişkenlere ilişkin ortalamalar, demografik değişkenlerden cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, iş ve şirket deneyimine göre, t-testleri ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, bu bulgulara dayanan anlamlı on dokuz farklılık, çalışmanın tartışma bölümünde ayrıntılı olarak açıklanmıştır.

Çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar ile, konaklama sektöründe, çalışan performans davranışlarının öncülleri ile ilgili bulgular elde edilmiş ve psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel şeffaflık, lider-üye etkileşimi ve psikolojik güvenlik boyutlarının önemi vurgulanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Görev içi performans davranışları, görev ötesi performans davranışları, psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel şeffaflık, lider-üye etkileşimi, psikolojik güvenlik, iş güvencesizliği.

ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study is to focus on the employee performance behaviors in the hospitality sector with respect to city hotels. Employee performance behaviors have been always one of the main topics in the literature by its effects on individual, managerial and organizational levels. Consequently, the management of the organizations always searches for ways to increase the performance behaviors of the employees.

Within this framework, first an in-depth literature research was conducted by focusing on the antecedents and consequences of the employee performance behaviors. Then, particularly, the service and the hospitality sector studies were especially investigated. Afterwards, the conceptual framework was developed, upon the performance behaviors and other workplace attributes of the employees in the hospitality sector were focused on.

With that respect, the relation of psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange with in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees was studied. Then the mediation role of perceived psychological safety between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors was examined. Moreover, job insecurity perception was added to our model as this perception is one of the most important topics in the hotel industry triggered by the fluctuations in the sector. Finally, the job insecurity perception of the employees with its moderator role between leader-member exchange and employee performance behaviors was analyzed.

The study was conducted in an international luxury city hotel in Istanbul. The hotel is a well-established, mature organization with a good brand image and high employee satisfaction. It is well known in the hospitality sector, operating for many years. Multiple source approach was used in the data collection, whereof 221 employees completed the surveys subject to the levels of psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity and associated 21 supervisors completed the surveys subject to the in-role and extra-role performance of the employees. By using multiple source data collection approach, we collected the data from two different perspectives as subordinates and supervisors, which enable our data to be more confident. Moreover, the biases related with single resource data collection was reduced by this method.

After the collection of survey questionnaires, serial statistical analysis has been performed. As a result, first six hypotheses, covering positive relations of psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange were found to be significant on both the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees. Furthermore, it was also found out that perceived psychological safety fully mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors of employees. However, it was seen that the perceived psychological safety did not mediate organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors of employees. Finally, the results of the analysis did not support the moderator role of job insecurity perception between leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role dimensions, which was explained by the low perception level of job insecurity in the sample hotel. In the study, also the means of the variables were compared by t-tests for demographic variables as gender, age, education level, work and company experience. Consequently, associated nineteen differences based on these findings were described in detail during the discussion of the study.

These findings of the study provided an evidence to the antecedents of employee performance behaviors in the hospitality sector which highlights the importance of psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader member exchange and psychological safety dimensions.

Key words: In-role performance behaviors, extra-role performance behaviors, psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety, job insecurity.

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LIST OF MAIN DEFINITIONS

The following definitions are made to ease out the understanding of the text, i.e. these definitions are particularly made as a reference to guide the reader. Detailed information can be found in the literature review.

In-Role Employee Performance Behaviors were the behaviors which includes all work to be done by the employees on the requirements of the job (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Extra-Role Employee Performance Behaviors were the behaviors which are not within in-role performance responsibilities and described by Katz (1964, p.132) as "the organizational member will spontaneously generate many acts other than the role requires which reflects the extra role behavior".

Psychological Contract was defined as the mutual beliefs and perceptions between an employer and an employee regarding the agreements of the exchange of terms and conditions (Rousseau, 1989).

Organizational Transparency was defined as "the availability of information about an organization or allowing external actors to monitor the internal workings or performance of that organization" (Grimmelikhuijsen, 2012, p.55).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX) explores the reciprocal exchange of mutual support, influence and interdependence between subordinates and supervisors in which the quality of exchanges is categorized as in-group and out-group in the organizations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Psychological Safety was defined as "to feel able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career" (Kahn, 1990, p.705).

Job Insecurity was defined as "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (Greenlagh and Rosenblatt, 1984, p.438).

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1. INTRODUCTION AND THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The hotel business is growing rapidly, motivated by increased travel frequencies based on the increase of business and leisure needs. This is further supported by the globalization. The business impact of this growth can be seen in each branch of the hospitality sector. The local business transforms towards an international cooperation network ruled by international organizations. This is also reflected by the developments on the international scale: Due to the strong competition among international chains, acquisitions and mergers become a daily routine (Mathews, 2000). As a result, hotels are trying to gain competitive advantage in this though market by several strategies. They make discounted offerings for accommodation and/or food & beverage or promote packages of spa, special days or meetings, which increase at the bottom line the financial turnover, but consequently the profit margins are reduced due to the lower prices. Furthermore, the workload of the employees is increased as well; they must perform well under limited time constrains by sustaining the quality. However, the quality of such services highly depends on the employees, whose motivation is negatively influenced by these economizing strategies. On the top of this there are occupancy fluctuations due to seasonal, economic and environmental factors, which also effect the employee motivation that there is a big challenge for the practices in human resources management.

It has been argued that the performance in successful organizations does depend on the effective application of human resources practices and the quality of work life, which is being offered to the employees (Kanten, 2014). The service quality in the hotels starts with the measurement of the performance of labor intensive jobs, followed by optimization of such operations to decrease the work load in order to increase the performance. This is business process optimization and is not scope of this thesis. Here, the personal dimension is looked at as a focal point. Li (2014) emphasized in the interrelationship of these two fields as well, by stating that motivated service manpower is essential for high operational performance of the hotels. With that respect, human resources perspective is mostly concentrated on performance behaviors of employees, which can be classified as in-role and extra-role performance behaviors for assigned duties and additional duties on volunteer basis respectfully (Katz, 1964; Zhu, 2013; Ziegler and Schlett, 2016).

As it was emphasized in the literature (e.g. Katz 1964), there is always a balance between in-role and extra-role performance. When employees are over demanded, there is not much room for extra-role performance; i.e. tasks done by employees despite not demanded by the job descriptions. However, the competing environment requires rapid changes and downsizing (Parker, 2000) that employers are expected to do more than regular tasks. Despite it is not easy, the employees try to adapt to these new requirements (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007). They try to show a more proactive attitude in all work processes to catch up the competition (Belschak and Hartog, 2010). Consequently, companies willing to differentiate in this competitive environment focus on the advantages of the extra-role performance behaviors (Blancero, Johnson and Lakshman, 1996). Since these proactive behavior patterns are the key tool in gaining advantage (Belschak and Hartog, 2010), it became a requirement itself, which is simply the new dynamic reality (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007).

Fundamentally, the theoretical basis of the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors was first introduced by Katz in his theoretical framework (1964). In-role performance behaviors refer to the basic duties of employees, which are on their job descriptions and should be completed for the responsible work (Williams and Anderson, 1991), whereas extra-role performance behaviors can be defined as behaviors beyond these basic roles (Katz and Kahn, 1966). It is obvious that both the in-role and extra-role performance should be increased. Consequently, the main motivation and the problem statement of this study can be described by the following research questions;

Q1: Do the hotel sector employees show in-role and extra-role performance behaviors?

Q2: What are the factors that are related to the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees?

To find answers for the above questions, first the expectations from the employees were reviewed regarding to in-role and extra-role performance. Afterwards, the individual, managerial and organizational factors were searched in the literature which may have an impact on these behaviors. For that reason, we developed a linkage between psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange and in-role

and extra-role employee performance behaviors which are summarized here briefly and described further later in the literature review section.

The first antecedent is proposed to be the psychological contract, which is defined as "an individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange between that focal person and another party" (Rousseau, 1989, p.123). Within that context there is more than the signed contract. The development of the psychological contract starts with the first contact with the human resources department, and it grows with time within the organization (Dabos and Rousseau, 2013). It can be considered as a mechanism that links human resources systems and employee attitudes and behaviors (Wright and Boswell 2002). Cihangiroğlu and Şahin (2010) point out in the need of the psychological contract to maintain the employee's commitment, which further can reduce the turnover rate in organizations as well. The increased competition causes long business hours, adjustments of the duties and outsourcing that the fulfilment of the psychological contract is not easy (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). When employees have a perception of violation of their psychological contract, it affects their performance (Li, 2014). Consequently, their extra-role performance behavior reduces, which is referred today as the loss of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Zhao et al., 2007). In contrarily, when there is a fulfillment of the psychological contract, i.e. the employee feels that the obligations are met, organizational citizenship behavior develops further, and the employee works in the organization by increased commitment and motivation (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010). Turnley et al. (2003) studied psychological contract and concluded that psychological contract fulfillment has also a positive relation with the in-role performance behavior, individual and organization based organizational citizenship behaviors as well.

The second antecedent is proposed to be the organizational transparency, which generally links with open communication in organizations delivering information about decisions and processes to employees, increasing the visibility and creating a sense of employee engagement (Kaptein, 2008; Farrell, 2016), effecting the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees positively (Kahn, 1990; Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). Transparent communication is a result of transparent agendas and policies, which increases trust level as well (Rawlins, 2008).

The third antecedent is proposed to be the leader-member exchange (LMX) concept that focuses on leader and subordinate relations by the Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975). The quality of exchanges is categorized there as in-group and out-group, in which in-group reflects high degree of exchange as mutual trust and respect, whereas out-group characterized by low trust and respect (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995. LMX was found in the literature to be related to the in-role and (Wayne et al., 2002) extra-role performance (Tierney, Bauer and Potter, 2002). Moreover, LMX theory of leadership is found to be antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Vondey, 2010).

As further, socio-psychological safety dimensions were also considered to be important in the hospitality sector which is psychological safety and job insecurity. The mediating role of psychological safety was examined between organizational transparency and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors. Moreover, the moderating role of job insecurity perception of employees was investigated between leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors.

Kahn described in (1990, p.705) the psychological safety as "feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career". Psychologically safe work environment enables employees to provide open feedback and feel safe (Edmondson, 1999), which in turn generates involvement in creative work and effects the job performance (Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017). Furthermore Edmondson (1996; 1999) also indicated that psychologically safe teams contributed to higher levels of learning and performance. Within this framework, the mediator role of psychological safety perception of employees was analyzed between organizational transparency and the in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors. In the literature, no study was found investigating the organizational transparency and employee performance behavior relationship with a mediating role of psychological safety. When we searched the mediator role of psychological safety in the literature, Yi et al.'s findings (2016) indicated the significant mediating role of psychological safety between leaders' transparent behaviors and creativity. As further, managerial openness increased the psychological safety perception which was resulted by an increase on the employee

suggestions (Detert and Burris, 2007). These findings supported our development of hypothesis that is related with the mediator role of psychological safety.

Finally, as mentioned, job insecurity was examined, which was defined by Greenlagh and Rosenblatt (1984, p.438) as "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation". Due to the fluctuations in the hospitality sector, the job insecurity became an important concept with its negative effects (Hu and Zuo, 2007). It usually results in low levels of productivity and organizational effectiveness (Greenhalgh and Roseblatt, 1984). Cheng et al. (2012) determined the positive effect of employees' relations with their supervisors on employee outcomes under uncertain job security. The same relation was supported by Probst, Jiang and Graso (2016) with respect to the safety outcomes.

A model incorporating 3 antecedents, 1 mediator and 1 moderator for in-role and extra-role performance was synthesized as in Figure 1. It shows the pre-assumed hypothetical relationships among the variables of the study. After proposing the initial framework, a questionnaire was applied with a multiple source approach to 221 employees and associated 21 supervisors of an established international luxury hotel in Istanbul. The data was then analyzed using several statistical analysis methods. Consequently, the structure of the thesis is as following: First in depth literature review for the antecedents including socio-psychological safety dimensions are presented together along with the research questions and the associated hypothesis. Then the statistical methods and the data are described. Finally, the findings are discussed to conclude with limitations and further recommendations.

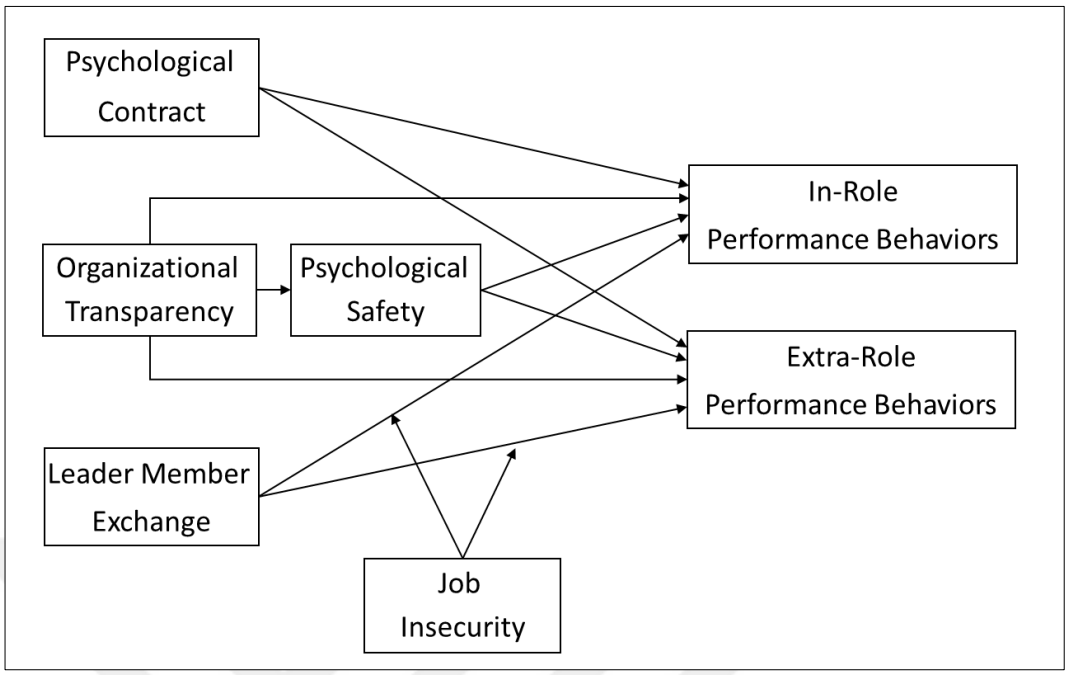

Figure 1. Pre-assumed Conceptual Framework of the Study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. In-Role and Extra-Role Employee Performance Behaviors

The performance evaluation of organizations utilizes usually financial indicators, which are outputs of one organization. Nevertheless, the early phase assessments shall focus on mechanisms and transactions within the organization, where for the measurement of employee's basic assignments and expected behavior can deliver a reflection (Motowidlo, 2003). These behaviors do form the individual performances, and since the organizational success highly depends on high performed employees (Colquitt, Le Pine and Wesson, 2010), organizations shall enable an environment for the continuous development of performance.

Performance reflects the value of the employee behavior and it is pointed out that employees have different levels of physical and emotional role performances (Kahn, 1990). From the theoretical point of view, the roots of showing performance behavior rely on Social Exchange Theory. In the literature, Social Exchange Theory was first identified by Homans (1958) in his paper called "Social Behavior as Exchange". Homans (1958, p.597) emphasized the importance of social exchange as "social behavior as an exchange of goods may clarify the relations among four bodies of theory: Behavioral psychology, economics, propositions about the dynamics of influence, and propositions about the structure of small groups". As further, Social Exchange Theory of Blau (1964) emphasizes that an employee shows a citizenship behavior after having a positive experience and feeling from the organization and motivated to exchange these feelings by reciprocating. Homans focused more on psychological behavior whereas Blau emphasized more on technical and economic analysis of social exchanges (Emerson, 1976). Furthermore, Emerson (1976, p.336) stated that social exchange theory is a "frame of reference within which many theories - some micro and some more macro – can speak to one another, whether in argument or in mutual support". Respectively, social exchange theory is the basic reference in understanding the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees. On the other side, Motowidlo (2003) defined the performance as a property of behavior and it is the expected organizational value of a person that creates a difference in reaching organizational goals and can be measured by expected behavior and task related perspective. For that reason, organizations and

individuals are continuously trying to find out the determinants of employee performance in the work place (Katz and Kahn, 1966) and accordingly the analysis of a performance behavior becomes one of the top priorities in the management of the companies (Zhu, 2013).

Katz (1964, p.132) described three categories of employee behaviors in an organization that effects the operation as; (i) "People must determine whether entering the organization and maintaining the identity of an organization member", (ii) "the organizational member must fulfill the specific requirements for the role in an interdependent way", (iii) "the organizational member will spontaneously generate many acts other than the role requires which reflects the extra role behavior". The first category is obvious; it is simply related to the acceptance of the organization. The second category explains the basis of the employee performance behavior and is known as in-role behavior and can be defined as the tasks mentioned in the job description and necessary to accomplish the duties. Accordingly, all work to be done by the employees on the requirements of the job is defined as in-role performance behavior (Williams and Anderson,1991). Consequently, the third category refers to the extra-role behavior. Over the previous decades, both in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors became important and the antecedents of these behaviors were studied in order to increase the levels of these behaviors (Taştan, 2011).

Upon the model proposed by Katz (1964), it can be inferred that in-role behavior would help to understand extra-role behavior, so that firstly in-role behavior should be defined. In-role performance, also known as task related performance, is defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1997, p.99) as "the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core". In the organizations, the evaluation standards of the in-role performance can be categorized by ratings, evaluations of the quality, quantity and data records of safety, absenteeism etc. (Williams and Anderson, 1991). In-role performance is an indicator of the positive engagement levels of the employees as it is considered that engaged employees are more focused on their work tasks with energy and passion (Kahn, 1990; Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). Moreover, performance quality, productivity (Vandaele and Gemmel, 2006), affective commitment (Becker and Kernan, 2003), psychological empowerment

perception (Taştan, 2011), organizational identification (Ashforth, Harrison and Corley, 2008), engagement (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016), participative work environment perceptions and individual responsibility (Taştan, 2011) effect the employee in-role performance behaviors, where job satisfaction and organizational commitment are some of the important positive consequences (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1988).

Extra-role performance behavior does cover everything else, which is not within in-role responsibilities. Beside in-role duties all extra-role behaviors are keys for the success in the competitive market. Extra-role performance was first defined by Katz's (1964) third behavior category as mentioned above. Some examples of extra-role performance behaviors which can be experienced in the organizations are; maintaining of the cleanliness of work area, helping to a coworker in solving job problems, sharing information, coaching to a new employee and effective using of organizational resources (Bateman and Organ, 1983). Additionally, some employees who helps others, offers suggestions and emphasizes their opinions without being asked to increase the organizational efficiency can be considered as showing extra-role performance behaviors (Becker and Kernan, 2003).

The hospitality sector is especially affected by extra-role behaviors. So, employees are expected there to show in addition to the in-role performance behaviors also extra-role behaviors, which go beyond the job descriptions and was defined as contextual performance or extra-role behaviors (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Such proactive behaviors and positive social acts of employees started to become more important in all work processes (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). The wellbeing of the organization in the dynamic working environment is enabled by the extra-role behaviors of the employees (Kanten, 2014). Extra-role behaviors are not defined as part of the job and not to be included in the official salary system (Zhu, 2013). Thus, employees focusing on more economical terms perform mainly in-role behaviors, and if the organizations want to overcome this difficulty they either may include this in the compensation structure, or much better they should focus on career development and mentoring to enhance the extra-role performance behaviors because employees who focus on more socio-emotional terms show more extra-role behaviors (Uen, Chien and Yen, 2009). Consequently, the focus of this study is both the in-role and the extra-role performance behaviors.

Both conceptually and empirically, the antecedents of extra-role performance behaviors were described as; goal clarity (Katz, 1964), motivation (Barbuto and Story, 2011), engagement (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016), manager's ethical and moral values (Yeşiltaş, Kanten and Sormaz, 2013), managerial support perceptions (Taştan, 2011), commitment (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), perception of pay equity (Organ and Konovsky, 1989), perception of organizational justice (Yürür and Mengenci, 2014), organizational identification (Ashforth, Harrison and Corley, 2008), procedural justice (Kim and Mauborgne, 1996), mutual investment relationship by the employer (Tsui, 1997), work engagement (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011), organizational commitment (Yılmazer, 2010), psychological empowerment perception (Taştan, 2011), servant leadership (Panaccio et al., 2015), personality and friendship (Alparslan and Can, 2015).

In the literature, the extra-role performance behavior studies also contributed to the citizenship behavior construct (Bateman and Organ, 1983) and defined as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB enhances the effectiveness of the organization and can be divided into two categories as organization-oriented OCB and individual oriented OCB. Williams and Anderson (1991) added that in-role performance behaviors, individual oriented organizational citizenship behaviors and organization oriented organizational citizenship behaviors are considered as all distinct types of performance. When we searched the first category of OCB, in which the focus is the organization, it refers to common obedience or compliance as maintaining the work orders and asking for a leave in advance. The second category labeled as individual oriented refers to behaviors such as altruism by interpersonal assistance and helping the other team members (Williams and Anderson, 1991; Leung, 2007; Zhu, 2013).

Organ and Ryan (1995) classified OCB under five dimensions: (i) altruism referring to the help to coworkers, (ii) courtesy to solve the organizational problems, (iii) sportsmanship representing the willingness to tolerate inconveniences without complaint, (iv) organizational loyalty related with protecting and defending the organization, and (v) civic virtue that is active participation in organizational affairs. Vey and Campbell (2004) pointed out a differentiation after their study and mentioned that conscientiousness and

courtesy are generally reflecting in-role side of the behaviors while altruism and civic virtue reflects extra-role performance behaviors.

The antecedents of OCB was defined from the studies as; satisfaction and organizational commitment (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1988; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Bolat and Bolat, 2008), organizational justice perception and burnout (Meydan, Şeşen and Basım, 2011), performance quality (Vandaele and Gemmel, 2006), organizational justice (Farh, Earley and Lin, 1997), self and collective efficacy (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000), empowering leader behaviors (Bolat, Bolat and Seymen, 2009), individual or employee characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, role perceptions and leadership behaviors such as supportive, transformational and transactional behaviors, leader-member exchange theory of leadership (Podsakoff et al., 2000), ethical leadership (Lu, 2014).

As further, the consequences of extra-role performance behaviors research focused on the relation of OCB and decisions of performance which also affects the compensation packages and promotions (Padsokoff et al., 2000). Extra role performance influences the performance appraisals of the sales employees (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994) and decisions of their promotion, training and compensation (Park and Sims, 1989; as cited in MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998). As further, more studies could be reached which was concentrated on the relation of OCB on organizational success and effectiveness by enhancing coworker and managerial productivity, organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes, increasing the overall productivity of the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000), increasing communication and customer satisfaction (Kanten, 2014), increasing affective commitment levels of the employees (Gürbüz, 2006).

In addition to extra-role behaviors, other terms were also used to describe the employee citizenship behaviors in the literature as contextual performance, spontaneous behaviors, proactive behaviors and prosocial organizational behaviors. Borman and Motowidlo (1997) divided the job performance in their studies as task and contextual performance. Task performance refers to the activities that are related with technical aspects whereas contextual performance helps in shaping the social and psychological context (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual performance is critical because they

are beyond the expectations and affects the job performance (Srikanth, 2013), and contextual performance is as effective as in-role performance in managerial decisions (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) conducted a study on supervisors of Air Force mechanics, where they found a distinction between task and contextual performance. They indicated that performance judged by supervisors was multidimensional because both tasks and contextual performance contributes independently to overall performance. Their findings showed that Air Force experience correlates higher with task performance, whereas personality variables showed higher correlation with contextual performance. Consequently, when employees put higher levels of energy into their duties, they show higher contextual performance such as persistence of enthusiasm, assistance to other employees, following of the rules and procedures (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Thus, it can be also concluded that high level of employee work engagement level was positively linked to contextual performance (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). Additionally, positive relations between transformational leadership, affective organizational commitment and contextual performance were also indicated by Pradhan and Pradhan (2015).

Employee citizenship behaviors were also categorized as spontaneous behaviors, which comprise the cooperative gestures and behaviors protecting and promoting the external image of the organization (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Another definition of these behaviors was proactive behaviors classified as organizational oriented, co-worker oriented and individual oriented behaviors (Belschak and Hartog, 2010). Organizational oriented proactive behaviors were the activities related with the work environment change. Co-worker oriented proactive behaviors could be considered as helping to other colleagues and social networking behaviors. Finally, individual proactive behaviors were the ones related with personal developments and careers.

Furthermore, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined extra-role behaviors as prosocial organizational behaviors in which employees voluntarily accomplish the organizational goals and promote the welfare of the organization. Organ (1988, p.4) named these behaviors as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and defined it as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.

By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable". It can be concluded that the role of the management is critical in creating and supporting such behaviors in the work place as abusive supervision negatively affects the employee prosocial behaviors towards the organization and individuals (Onyishi, 2012).

As further, depending on the importance of employee performance behaviors and its effects on individual, managerial and organizational levels, the antecedents of these behaviors were investigated. In the next sections, the literature review of psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange are introduced regarding the relations between employee performance behaviors.

2.2. The Concept of Psychological Contract

2.2.1. Definition of Psychological Contract

In today's organizations, especially in the hospitality sector, employee contributions became more important in order to sustain the quality and guest satisfaction. Respectively, creating positive relations between the employees and employers has turned into a management priority which can be gained by maintaining a good psychological contract level of the employees.

Psychological contract represents the mutual beliefs and perceptions between an employer and an employee regarding the agreements of the exchange of terms and conditions (Rousseau, 1989). Psychological contract is a framework to understand the employee and employment relationship (Zhoa, Wayne and Glibkowski, 2007) that comprises the expectations from each other (Agarwal and Bhargava, 2013). It should be underlined that the concept is depending on the beliefs or perceptions by the two parties (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994) and balances work and the personal life (Sam and Anitha, 2014).

The roots of the psychological contract rely in the social contract of Jan Jack Rousseau which represents the agreement of individuals for their mutual preservation adding that

an organized society secures the welfare of its members (Rousseau, 1920). Psychological contract concept was first defined by Levinson, Price and Mundon in 1960s, followed by Solley in 1962 and Schein in 1965 (Robinson and Morrison, 1997). Argyris (1960) first introduced the term "psychological work contract" in his book named "Understanding Organizational Behavior". In his book, he concluded that if the foremen respect the informal culture of an employee and guarantees the job security, then the employee will perform on a high production level and the psychological contract reduces the complexity of the relationship between the foremen and an employee (Argyris, 1960). Afterwards, Levinson et al. (1962; as cited in Coyle-Shapiro, 2010) pointed out that the psychological contract comprises mutual expectations and the role of reciprocity is important in fulfillment of these expectations. Therefore, the motivation of meeting these expectations maintains the relationships between the two parties (Levinson et al., 1962; as cited in Coyle-Shapiro, 2010). Schein (1980) added that the psychological contract is dynamic and reciprocal and should be re-negotiated as the expectations vary over time by the changes of organizational roles or the maturity of the individuals (Rousseau, 1989). As further, Rousseau (1989) indicated that the belief assumptions related with trust and good faith are also shaping the contracts where the promises and the consideration can be considered as subjective.

Psychological contract was used in 1980s in the field of organizational behavior studies (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010). The roots of the psychological contract depend on the theories of reciprocity norm, which is a social norm of feeling obligated to return a favor if someone did something favorable to you (Gouldner, 1960). The term reciprocity is important as regardless of the validity of the reciprocity, psychological contract cannot be regarded as a contract (Conway and Briner, 2005). Most of the relations in the organizations are depending on reciprocity and mutuality in which both found to be related with intention to continue with the employer and career advancement (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004). In addition to reciprocity norm, Adam's (1965) equity theory has a role in psychological contact term as this theory argues that individuals compare their inputs and outputs with a relevant individual. Inputs can be summarized as experience, education and commitment whereas salary, social relations and recognition are the outputs. If an employee has a perception of inequality between the inputs and outputs, a psychological

contract violation may occur. Moreover, the social exchange theory of Blau (1964) is also important in understanding the psychological contract. Social exchange theory emphasizes that individuals form their relations depending on a cost-benefit analysis. Employees compare the alternatives, followed by the comparison of inducements and contributions which leads to a psychological contract environment. Expectancy of an employee from the employer is a critical factor in psychological contracts and Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) contributes this expectation as the preference of an employee is the start of a behavior which contributes to psychological contract. Finally, Tsui et al.'s (1997) employee organization relationship theory that defines the link between the employee and the employer relates to the psychological contract with the expectations and the inducements.

In an organization, psychological contract starts during the recruitment phase as employees have expectations from the company, which they are applying, and the employers are selecting the employees according to the fit of their expectations and the candidates' skills and abilities (Özler and Ünver, 2012). Afterwards, also during the employment, psychological contract shapes the employee behaviors and attitudes (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010). The psychological contract perception of new comers does change in an organization depending on the reality they meet after their entry, where newcomers' perception of promises is influenced by their own contribution perceptions during the socialization phase in addition to the inducement perception, which are received from the employer (De Vos, Buyens and Schalk, 2003). Consequently, there should be a balance in the relation of employee and the employers, which is stabilized by the psychological contract (Özgen and Özgen, 2010).

In general, two types of psychological contract were defined by Rousseau (1995; 2001) as transactional and relational contracts, where transactional refers to the economical basis related with expectations of fairly compensation, working conditions and short-term employment guarantee. Uen, Chien and Yen (2009) indicated that transactional psychological contracts are related with short term exchanges in a less flexible environment (Rousseau, 1995) and in a negative relation with job satisfaction and affective commitment (Raja, John and Ntalianis, 2004). Relational contract is the second type, referring to socio-emotional basis depending on respect, support and shared values

like training and professional development, and it is the most dominant type (Demirkasımoğlu, 2004). Relational oriented psychological contracts are more long term oriented, dynamic and subjective (Rousseau, 1995). They contribute positively with commitment based human resources systems, job satisfaction, organizational and affective commitment (Özgen and Özgen, 2010; Raja, John and Ntalianis, 2004).

Psychological contract term has also changed in the recent years. According to the old relational components of the psychological contract, employees who showed good performance guaranteed a job until retirement by showing a loyalty and the employers were responsible in supporting that employee in their career planning. However, in the new relational components of the psychological contract, neither employees nor employers are expecting long term employment; the employees are responsible for their own career plans (Cavanaugh and Raymond, 1999). The new relational contracts are especially acceptable in the hospitality sector because of the high percentage of new generation employees. Relatively nowadays, the management should recognize the expectations of the employees in a short term and should establish a high psychological contract level to yield motivated employees If an employer creates a good and supportive work environment, in turn the employee demonstrates a good willing. Thus, a psychological contract is formed when an obligation is formed for future benefits in return to a contribution of one party (Rousseau, 1989). A violation of such a contract would refer to a feeling of anger and contributes to a belief that organization has failed to meet the obligations (Robinson and Morison, 1997).

Antecedents of psychological contract are experienced loss of job, career opportunities, personal support and respect to private life, job changes, job context as skill variety, experienced organizational changes, company performance and employee-organization fit (Cavanaugh and Raymond, 1999; De Vos, Buyens and Shalk, 2005), and servant leadership (Panaccio et al., 2015). Furthermore, psychological contract has also relations with organizational commitment (Sturges, 2005; Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010), job satisfaction (Koyuncu and Katlav, 2014), organizational citizenship behavior and extra role performance behavior (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010; Turnley et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2016; Leung, 2007; Mimaroğlu, 2008), participation to developmental activities, experience of involuntary job loss, downsizing, restructuring (Cavanaugh and Raymond,

1999), turnover intention and job satisfaction (Ul-Haq et al., 2011), organizational commitment (Karcıoğlu and Türker, 2010), productivity and insecurity perception (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010), subsequent sales performance (Finch et al., 2015), perceived fairness of performance appraisals (Harrington and Lee, 2015), organizational justice (Cihangiroğlu, Şahin and Uzuntarla, 2015). Moreover, psychological contract violation and psychological contract breach effect counterproductive work behavior (Sharma and Thakur, 2016), job satisfaction and intent to remain with the employer (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Raja, John and Ntalianis, 2004; Yiğit, 2015; Ballou, 2013; Zhao et al., 2007), turnover intention (Raja, John and Ntalianis, 2004; Lu, Shen and Zhao, 2015), organizational citizenship behavior (Lu, Shen and Zhao, 2015; Zhao et al., 2007), trust in relations and employee turnover (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Lu, Shen and Zhao, 2015; Zhao et al., 2007), perceived organizational support (Ballou, 2013), work engagement (Rayton and Yalabik, 2014), organizational identification (Lu, Shen and Zhao, 2015), organizational trust (Liu et al., 2013), organizational commitment and in-role performance (Zhao et al., 2007) and finally also organizational outcomes (Abu-Doleh and Hammou, 2015).

2.2.2. Relationship between Psychological Contract and In-Role / Extra-Role Performance Behaviors

The effects of psychological contract on the dimensions of performance were examined by many researches. As psychological contract shapes the behavior of the employees, it was conducted that under high psychological contract levels, employees are supposed to show attitudes and behaviors resulting in a higher level of OCB (Cihangiroğlu and Şahin, 2010). Furthermore, there are positive relations of psychological contract fulfillment with in-role performance behaviors, organization and individual based organizational citizenship behaviors (Turnley et al., 2003). Engaged employees perform more extra-role performance behaviors, because they either consider all aspects of the work under their own responsibility or they have free resources after completing their own tasks (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). Psychological contracts also effect the organizational justice perceptions of the employees, which in turn creates customer service organizational citizenship behavior presentation of the

employees (Blancero, Johnson and Lakshman, 1996). Findings from the hospitality sector indicate consistency on the positive relations. Lu et al. (2016) found a positive relation of relational contract front-line employees in the tourism sector in Philippines with service oriented in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. Then, Yang and Chih-Hung (2012) indicated psychological contract's significant moderating role between recreational involvements and increased in job performance within the food and beverage industry in Taiwan.

Liu et al. (2013) searched the effects of psychological contract breach in the hospitality sector including 23 hotels. Based on their results trust to the organization is affected by the psychological contract breaches of the employees and additionally psychological contract breach in return lowers the contributions and organizational citizenship behavior of the employees. Moreover, organizational trust partially mediated the psychological breach contract and the organizational citizenship behaviors of the employees (Liu et al., 2013). Ceseroğlu, Tükeltürk and Hamarat (2010) also investigated the relation between psychological contract breach and organizational commitment in the hotels that are in Antalya. According to their results, the organizational commitment levels of the employees increases when they have a perception that employers are fulfilling their obligations. Similarly, after examining a hotel chain in Taiwan, Li concludes in (2014) that there are significant correlations between psychological contract and job performance in addition to organizational citizenship behavior. It is also indicated that when employees have a feeling of lack of obligations fulfillment, they may prefer to show less in-role performance (Sturgers et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2007), which contributes to the breach of the psychological contract. This may not only influence the in-role performance behaviors, but also associate extra-role performance behaviors resulting in low level of engagement in OCB (Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007).

The ethical climate is affecting the psychological contract level in organizations. Low ethical climate level contributes weak relational contract levels, which may result in negative extra-role performance behavior of employees; on the contrary, high ethical contract level does increase the relational contract between the employee and the employer, positively affecting extra-role performance behavior (Leung, 2007). In some of the studies psychological contract's mediator role is also examined. Panaccio et al.

(2015) confirmed that psychological contract fulfillment mediates the relation between servant leadership and innovative behaviors, individual initiative and organizational citizenship behavior's boosterish dimension. Moreover, Uen, Chien and Yen (2009) had a research in Taiwanese high technology firms and found out that relational psychological contract has a mediating role between commitment based human resources systems and in-role performance behaviors of the employees. The positive high relation between psychological contract and organizational commitment was also confirmed by Karcıoğlu and Türker (2010) in their study by the participation of medical workers that was conducted in hospitals of Turkey.

As further, Dikili and Bayraktaroğlu's (2013) study in public sector confirmed the statistically meaningful relation between psychological contract and job satisfaction. Erdem (2016) also concludes that violations of psychological contract effect negatively the organizational justice perception of private bank employees. Moreover, Büyükyılmaz and Çakmak (2014) studied on the effects of psychological contract breach on the academicians that are working on state and foundation universities in Turkey. They implied that relational psychological contract breach increases the turnover intention and both relational and benefits dimension of transactional psychological contract breaches reduces the perceived organizational support. Another study of Özler and Ünver (2012) on the academicians confirmed that transactional and relational psychological contract have significant impact on job satisfaction.

According to all the studies that were mentioned above, it was supposed that although psychological contract is changeable over time, it has a high influence on the perception of the employees related with the work environment on every stage of the employment. Thus, it has relations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, turnover and many other individual and organizational outputs in the organizations. Therefore, the relation between psychological contract and employee performance behaviors are also expected depending on the literature review.

Consequently, the following hypotheses were set according to the discussed literature as below:

H1 : There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and employee performance behaviors.

H1a : There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and in-role performance behaviors.

H1b : There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and extra-role performance behaviors

2.3. The Concept of Organizational Transparency

2.3.1. Definition of Organizational Transparency

Transparency is another concept of this study, which has not been studied before especially in the hospitality sector studies in Turkey. Although, transparency was examined in the areas of finance, psychology and international management, it has also not been studied in the organizational behavior that much (Yi et al., 2016). The term transparency was started to be used in the early 21stcentury in economic context (Rawlins, 2008).

Transparency is defined in (2017) as "lack of hidden agendas and conditions, accompanied by the availability of full information required for collaboration, cooperation, and collective decision making" and "essential condition for a free and open exchange whereby the rules and reasons behind regulatory measures are fair and clear to all participants". Nowadays organizations are following different strategies to increase the transparency levels for more efficient organizational performance to reach a competitive advantage. Employee understanding of transparency and engagement are key dimensions in that strategy execution. Grimmelikhuijsen (2012, p.55) also had a similar definition as "transparency is the availability of information about an organization or allowing external actors to monitor the internal workings or performance of that organization". It is about ensuring the visibility in the organization to modify and correct behaviors (Kaptein, 2008). Internal transparency, which is an outcome of organizational effectiveness, has a crucial role in the organizations, especially during the growth stages of small enterprises to larger business (Street and Meister, 2004).

Rawlins (2006) investigated the dimensions of transparency within the organizations and identified four dimensions as (i) substantial information covering the accuracy, clarity and reliability of the information that is transferred to the employees, (ii) participation by involvement, sharing detailed information and asking for opinions of employees, (iii) accountability of the company for actions, statements and decisions, and (iv) secrecy, referring to the lack of openness. Similarly, Schnackenberg and Tomlinson (2016) also defined clarity, accuracy and disclosure as three dimensions of transparency.

From the organizational perspective, Berggren and Bernshteyn (2007) categorized four levels of transparency in organizations. At the first level, non-transparency is supported to prevent the information flow from internal sources to competitors whereas in the second level, only organizational executives understand the areas of accountability according to the strategy. At the third level, a clear strategy is developed however not clarified enough at the lower levels. Finally, the fourth level of the transparency can be defined as a source of competitive advantage because in that level the strategy of the organization is defined, communicated and transferred to the employees as defined goals.

Transparency in an organization means operation without barriers, in which the performance of the organization can be followed by the employees including the reasons and solutions (Baltzley and Lawrence, 2016). Transparency and trust are positively related (Akkermans, Bogerd and Van Doremalen, 2004). Since it is about the availability of information to all internal and external stakeholders, it leads to trust in the organization (Augustine, 2012). When organizations become more transparent via open and transparent communication, the increased transparency level also affects the employees' trust level (Rawlins, 2008). The trust in the organization is based on the feeling of the employees per perception of the reinforcement provided by the employer (Mishra and Morrissey, 2000). Rotter (1967) remarked trust as a personality which develops early in life and remains stable. Rotter (1967, p.651) indicated that "interpersonal trust is an expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon". Trust is highly important for the well-being of the employees and long-term stability of the organization (Cook and Wall, 1980). Thus, trust is the key dimension in professional relationships (Parsons, 2004) which comprises the confident expectations and willingness to be vulnerable (Mayer,

Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). Rawlins (2008) added that the components of trust including competence, integrity and goodwill are in a positive relation with the transparency dimensions as participation, substantial information and accuracy. Norman, Avolio and Luthans (2010) had similar findings in a study for an information technology company and found out that leaders' transparent communication is positively related with follower's perceived trust and perceived evaluation of the effectiveness of that leader. Leader's transparency comprises of leader's sharing of true thoughts and feelings (Zhu, 2004).

Nowadays, the employees are expecting more information-flow from their organizations, so the importance of transparency has also increased. Transparency and communication are the basics that employees are looking after for employee engagement in organizations, which can be developed by leaders and followed by everyone's commitment. When employees don't have enough information about the decision-making process and the updates about their organization, they may have a perception of lack of transparency which creates a lack of employee trust feeling on their expertise. On the contrary, decision making participation encourages them to support the decisions and having an active role in the implementation. Transparency is also a key dimension in the decision-making stages of a company for sustaining clarity in addition to consistency (Campa, 2014).

Transparency also reduces the speculations and sustains the wellbeing of employees by ensuring information and a possibility to see the big picture. Additionally, when employees are encouraged to show their expertise and be involved in group communication, the uncertainty and stress levels can be reduced. Thus, they feel that their contributions and engagement triggers to the success of the organization. For that rationality, it is very clear that leaders should use different communication methods and focus more on giving feedback, open attitude and casual interactions to increase the transparency in the organizations, which may result in new ideas and proposals (Farrell, 2016). Organizational transparency and psychological contract were also found to be related (Yılmaz, 2012).

Open communication (Grosse, 2002) and communication transparency are known to be the essential components in successful organizations (Norman, Avolio and Luthans,

2010). The reason is, open communication is positively and significantly related to employee motivation (Kay and Christophel, 1995), trust and organizational citizenship behaviors (Korsgaard, Brodt and Whitener, 2002). In a trusting environment, people feel free to share their ideas and accordingly it is easier to work together for the common goals (Mishra and Morrissey, 2000). Moreover, transparency leads to an open culture in the organization which also affects the trust level in a positive way (Williams, 2005; Hood, 2006 as cited in Grimmelikhuijsen and Meijer, 2014). Higher levels of openness and transparency also enable the level of trust in leader-follower relationship (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Norman, Avolio and Luthans (2010) added that followers' perceived trust and leader effectiveness evaluation is impacted by leader's transparency and positivity level.

As further, transparency is also an important dynamic from the organizational theory perspective. The importance of corporate governance, which introduces solutions to the structural problems, has started to be more recognized in the previous years by the increased relations of private and public sector and increased regulatory requirements (Türedi et al., 2015; Fung, 2014). Corporate governance has four basic principles which are fairness, accountability, responsibility and transparency (Türedi et al., 2015). Fairness principle represents behaving equal against everyone related with the company. Accountability is the responsibility of all persons who take decisions related with the activities and processes. Responsibility is the legal requirements that should be followed by the management of the company. Finally, transparency is the current information sharing of the relevant activities of the companies which are related with internal and external environment, company partners and public (Türedi et al., 2015). Transparency is more recognized by the academicians and market regulators as it provides the basis in decision making of stakeholders and shareholders (Fung, 2014). The relation between transparency and governance is easy to understand in public's perception as more information sharing increases the value of the companies (Hermalin and Weisbach, 2007).

Depending on the literature which highlights the positive effects of transparency in the organizations from the employees' perspectives, transparency was in more detailed searched and further information is shared regarding its relations with employee performance behaviors in the next section of the study.

2.3.2. Relationship between Organizational Transparency and In-Role / Extra Role Performance Behaviors

Transparency is important by its effects on the culture of the organizations regarding the increased communication and openness. Organizational transparency enables a more effective and efficient business which also directs a transparent culture in an organization (Bennis and O'Toole, 2009). Bennis and O'Toole (2009) described seven steps for creating a culture of transparency as; (i) tell the truth, (ii) encourage people to speak truth to power, (iii) reward contrarians, (iv) practice having unpleasant conversations, (v) diversify information sources, (vi) admit mistakes, (vii) build organizational support. From the organizational perspective, all these steps enable better communication, increased trust, employee satisfaction and engagement within the companies. Consequently, in best practice organizations, top leaders are totally dedicated to a culture of transparency (Fung, 2014).

In transparent organizations, internal transparency combines the right information with the right responsible employee at the right time (Fung, 2014). Therefore, employees in a transparent work environment have their defined transparent goals, which are set from the first day of the employment and developed through performance assessment within career planning. A purpose-based way of thinking is crucial for the employees as it leads to motivation and engagement (Baltzley and Lawrence, 2016) and the organizational performance is a consolidation of individual performances across the organization. Consequently, organizations are setting transparent goals, in which the employee contributions become clearer for both the managers and the employees, fostering organizational transparency and thus driving organizational performance (Berggren and Bernshteyn, 2007). Transparent organizations provide information to the employees at the right time by purpose, which creates a healthy culture in the organization (Baltzley and Lawrence, 2016) leading to higher levels of perceived trustworthiness (Grimmelikhuijsen and Meijer, 2014; Schnackenberg and Tomlinson, 2016). Transparency is defined as a tool to create trustworthiness in organizations (Goodman, 2002). In transparent organizations, management will engage in proper and lawful behaviors (Fung, 2014) which lead to trust between the employees and employers.

Moreover, managerial trustworthy behavior is positively related with OCB in organizations (Korsgaard, Brodt and Whitener, 2002).

Transparency relates with communication across organizations, which results in engagement as well (Farrell, 2016). Whereas engagement enables employees to perform extra-role performance behaviors, i.e. employees accomplish their goals and perform activities beyond their job descriptions (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). It can be concluded that follower engagement is in a positive relation with follower performance (Vogelgesang, Leroy and Avolio, 2013). Palanski, Kahai and Yammarino (2011) examined the effects of transparency, behavioral integrity and trust on the team performance and indicated that the transparency in the team is in a positive relation with behavioral team integrity, which in turn positively related with trust positively affecting team performance. Vogelgesang, Leroy and Avolio (2013) had a longitudinal study from a military cadet of 451 participants and found that leader transparent communication and employee work engagement is mediated by leader behavioral integrity. As further, the balance of transparency and privacy is very important to increase innovation and productivity within organizations because by that way employees can find an option to share their opinions openly and feel accountable, which in return increases the performance (Bernstein, 2014).

Within this framework, it is obvious that transparency can create a working environment that employees are motivated and engaged in serving according to organization's goals which in return leads to a healthy culture (Baltzley and Lawrence, 2016). Thus, transparency in organizations prevents inefficiencies in the execution of the strategies and is crucial in retaining the high- performance employees (Berggren and Bernshteyn, 2007). With that respect, depending on the previous evidences and conceptualizations, it can be concluded that transparency is in relation with trust, creativity, engagement, productivity, performance and the success of the organizations.

Therefore, it is anticipated that, in a transparent organization, employees may find opportunities to define their ideas and expectations, trusts the coworkers and managers which combines by a safe feeling and gives a raise to a high level of performance and engagement. At this point, it is also expected that all these positive factors may affect the employee performance behaviors in a positive way.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were set:

H2 : There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors.

H2a : There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and in- role performance behaviors.

H2b : There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.

2.4. The Concept and Theory of LMX

2.4.1. The Theoretical Roots and Definition of LMX

Leader member exchange (LMX) is based on the interpersonal relationship between an employee and the supervisor/leader. The focus of LMX is; within work units, different types of relationships develop between leaders and their subordinates/members. These relationships are characterized by physical/mental effort, material resources, information and/or emotional support exchanged between the two parties (Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne, 1997). The quality of these relationships determines the subordinate/member's responsibility level, access to resources, participation in decision making process and performance.

The theoretical roots of the LMX depends on the reciprocity norm of Gouldner (1960) who defined reciprocity "as a mutually contingent exchange of benefits between two or more units" and considered the term reciprocity as universal. According to the reciprocity norm, individuals should help and not injure the ones who helped them resulting by a mutual obligation and accordingly, in the organizations, the leader and the subordinate are in a relation of obligation in return to equal and fair behavior (Gouldner, 1960). The social exchange theory of Homans (1958) and Blau (1964) is also important in understanding LMX which explains exchange as a social behavior resulting by social and economic outcomes (Lambe, Wittmann and Spekman, 2001). Individuals enter to new relations while maintaining the current ones with the expectation that it will be rewarded, including not only by the economic terms as money, but also by social rewards like

recognition, friendship, spiritual values and respect (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964; Lambe, Wittmann and Spekman, 2001). Homans (1961) introduced the social behavior as a relation of exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, more or less rewarding or costly, resulting by social processes of mutual reinforcement (Cook and Rice, 2003) especially focusing on psychological behavior (Emerson, 1976). He focused on explaining the primary social behavior processes that includes power, leadership, conformity, status and justice emphasizing that individuals are in interaction within social groups (Cook and Rice, 2003). According to Homans (1961), value generation from both parties are important and development of norms guides the exchange behavior (Lambe, Wittmann and Spekman, 2001). Afterwards, Blau (1964) first used the "Social Exchange Theory" term and considered the social exchange as social life's central point by emphasizing the "fairness" in relations between individuals and groups for the "proper" exchanges (Cook and Rice, 2003) by underlying the technical and economical examination of the social exchange (Emerson, 1976). Blau (1964) mentioned that exchanges are based on trust and commitment which shows the goodwill, so it will be reciprocated (Lambe, Wittmann and Spekman, 2001). According to Blau (1964) reciprocal exchange is anticipated for the continuity of the relationships.

Emerson (1962) also contributed to the theory by his studies of the effects of power and dependence on the exchange relations mentioning that imbalances of power results by unstable relationships and norms serve as guidelines for the use of powers (Lambe, Wittmann and Spekman, 2001). Social exchange theory interprets the relations between individuals like economic exchange in terms of cost-benefit analysis as individuals enter the relations only if they think that they will receive a reward (Bolat, Bolat and Seymen, 2009). At this point, in social exchange, there are no rules and agreements, so the reward is not guaranteed, but the "belief" of the response is the main decisive factor that shapes the relation (Bolat, Bolat and Seymen, 2009).

As discussed, social exchange theory focuses on the exchange and in an organization the social exchange is existing between employers, employees, managers, suppliers, customers and unions resulting by economic and social outcomes (Bolat, Bolat and Seymen, 2009). Moreover, from the employee perspective, it is believed that positive effects of an organization motivate the employee to reciprocate these positive feelings.

That kind of a reciprocal relation is also effective between an employee and the leader in which social exchange theory is mostly used in explaining the effects of high LMX, as good relations create expectations (Rockstuhl et al., 2012, p. 1097).

The role theory of Katz and Kahn (1978) also highly contributes to LMX indicating that a leader has different roles in the interaction phases. It is expected from a leader to show different behaviors towards the subordinates and have different relations. The theoretical base of LMX theory is the “concept of a developed" or "negotiated" role” so studying the nature and the development of the roles are important in organizations according to Dienesch and Liden (1986, p.618, 621). The relationship building process is a result of role-making which has three stages of development as (i) role-finding, (ii) role-making and (iii) role implementation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991). In role-finding stage, leaders try to understand the limitations of the member by giving duties whereas the member try to identify the resources that can be offered such as job autonomy and career investment. It is a “testing” stage for both parties and effects the next stages. In the role-making stage, both parties invest something, and the characteristics of the relation develops by mutual trust. The exchange of the both parties are essential at this stage for the continuity of the relationship. In the role implementation stage, leader and the member learn to collaborate, and dyadic relationships established as trust, respect and loyalty.

The vertical dyad linkage theory of Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) also contributes to LMX. Vertical dyad linkage theory focuses on the types of leader and subordinate relations. All the leadership theories like trait, behavioral, contingency and goal-path emphasized that leaders have an average perception about their subordinates (Liden and Graen, 1980) and shows the same type of leadership to all. The only theory against this assumption was the vertical dyad linkage theory. According to this theory, a leader is in contact with a group of subordinates which can be classified as in-group and out-group. In-group members have more responsibilities by accessing to the resources and can express their ideas and opinions easier. In decision making process, in-group member’s recommendations are taken into consideration by the leaders. In-group member relations can be recognized as “high quality exchanges” by high levels of trust and respect (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). On the contrary, the relations with out-group members are more formal and the opinions of this group are less considered by the leader. Out-group

members have less access to the resources which results by less responsibilities and obligations. Out-group member relations can be defined as “low-quality exchanges” by low levels of trust and respect (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Empirical research results implied that in-group relations are more essential in reaching desired results for leaders, work groups and the whole organization so it is indicated that leaders should focus on establishing in-group relationship (Winkler, 2010).

According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), LMX is a relationship-based approach to leadership and occur when a mutual and mature relationship develops. The stages of LMX theory development as a social exchange approach to leadership is described by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) in Figure 2.

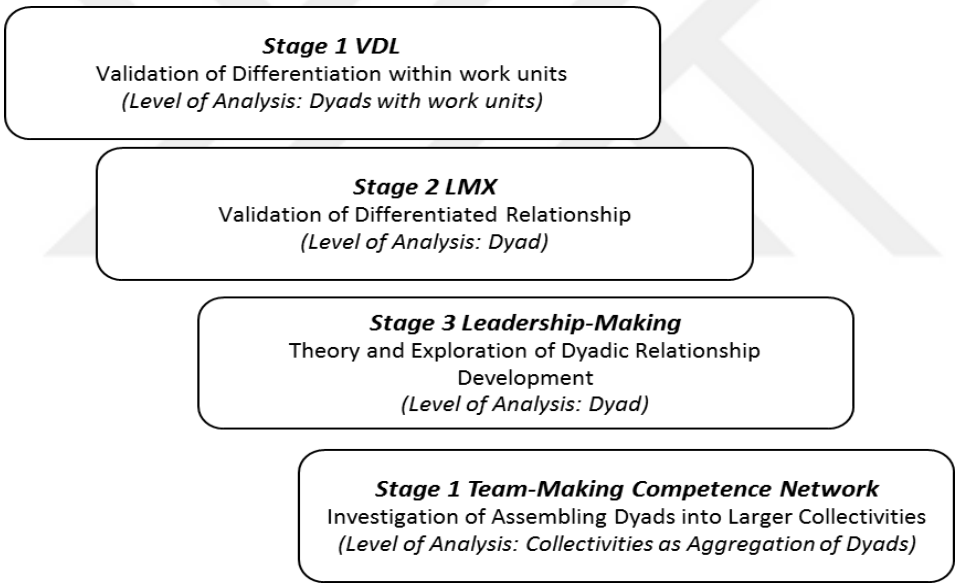

Figure 2. Stages in Development of LMX Theory (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995: 226)

The first stage is related with discovery of differentiated dyads. LMX started with the researches on Vertical Dyad Linkage and work socialization. It was pointed out that the relationships and processes are based on dyadic basis and differentiated relations were developed between the managers and members. The high-quality and low-quality exchanges that enable the in-groups and out-groups resulted on that stage due to the resource constraints on the managers. The managers need trusted employees for the work

to be done so the leader member dyads became the unit for analysis. The second stage is characterized by the (i) further investigation of the characteristics of the LMX relationships such as communication frequency, leader-member value agreement, subordinate loyalty, decision influence, characteristics of followers on high LMX and (ii) researching the relations between LMX and organizational variables such as turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, empowerment and performance appraisal.

The third stage is on generation of more effective leadership process which focuses on effective leadership relationships as Leadership-Making Model. Leadership Making Model, rather than having a high-quality relationship with a few selected employees, managers were asked to develop high-quality relationship opportunities to all the subordinates. It was indicated that the subordinates who accepted the high-quality LMX offer had increased their performance. The fourth stage has a systems level perspective and focuses on the integration of the differentiated dyadic relationships. The group and network levels are analyzed and the aggregation of the low-quality and high-quality relationships within work units are investigated by the combined effects on outcomes. On this stage, mapping the leadership structure on the task structure is the focus because effective leadership relations would enable improved completion of task requirements. Most of the empirical research focuses on the high-quality exchanges and work- related outcomes of the second stage however it can also be discussed that the third and the fourth stages are the most potential ones in outlining the leadership behaviors in organizations (Gestner and Day, 1997).

The importance of LMX theory was also summarized by Winkler (2010) as; (i) it is important because it gives an extensive approach related with the leadership process by describing the in-group and out-group distinctions in a clear way, (ii) highlights the communication process that includes behavior, (iii) results of LMX theory are supported by empirical evidence.

Moreover, LMX develops according to some dimensions. The dimensions of these relationships were indicated as (i) contribution, (ii) loyalty, and (iii) affect (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Later, Liden and Maslyn (1998) added one more dimension as (iv) professional respect. The contribution dimension of LMX is the quality and quantity of

work related activities for the common goals that are above the job description of the employee. Contribution depends on the willingness level of the employee and the resources/opportunities provided by the manager. The second dimension, loyalty, represents the support and the level of protection between the leader and the subordinate and has a critical role on the development of LMX. If the leader feels certain about the loyalty of the subordinate, then supports the subordinate in the long-term developments. Affect dimension is more about interpersonal attraction that derives from mutual affection and creates a friendly and warm atmosphere. It is a mutual liking that is expected in the development of LMX between the leader and the member (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). The final dimension is professional respect, related with the reputation of the leader's historical data, awards and/or professional recognition from in/outside of the organization (Liden and Maslyn, 1998).

LMX development can be recognized as a trust building process (Bauer and Green, 1996). The early interactions between the leader and the employee identify the tone of the relationship. And the personal characteristics such as similar personality and behaviors are important dynamics that creates the trust between employees and leaders and all these dynamics are also related with the quality of the experienced LMX (Bauer and Green, 1996). Personality similarity affects the judgment of a leader about the employee performance which predicts the LMX quality. Leader's delegation of the responsibilities also enhances the quality of LMX (Bauer and Green, 1996). Furthermore, the effort put by both the subordinates and leaders for the development of the relationship plays an important role for a higher quality of LMX. If there is a high quality LMX going on since long time, both sides show more future effort toward relationship development (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001).

The meta-analyses result implied that LMX contributes theoretically and empirically to the organizational leadership literature (Gerstner and Day, 1997) by its antecedents and consequences. Antecedents of leader member exchange are; leader characteristics as being extraverted, agreeableness, leader perception, transformational leadership behaviors of creating a vision and high-performance expectations, follower characteristics as locus of control, conscientiousness, competence and openness (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Alparslan and Oktar, 2015). As further, transactional leadership

behaviors, role clarification behavior and supportive leader behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000), contingent rewards (Wayne et al., 2002), leaders' situation modification usage and use of cognitive change (Little, Gooty and Williams, 2016), authentic leadership (Wang et al., 2012) are all found to be the antecedents of LMX.

The consequences of leader member exchange can be indicated as; follower's role clarity and intention to leave (Gerstner and Day, 1997), empowerment, organizational commitment, role ambiguity, overall organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, normative and affective commitment, performance evaluations (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Alparslan and Oktar, 2015), employee turnover (Bauer and Green, 1996), job performance (Taştan, 2014a), followers' performance (Wang et al., 2012), trust, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (Alparslan and Oktar, 2015), trust in leader (Taştan and Davoudi, 2015), performance ratings (Wayne et al., 2002), role conflict and intention of turnover (Gerstner and Day, 1997). Moreover, LMX has an important effect on organizations because of its significant mediating role on organizational, personal and leadership factors (Alparslan and Oktar, 2015).

According to the researches in Turkey, Turunç and Avcı (2015) confirmed the negative relations between high level of leader member exchange and turnover intention of employees in service industry by the mediating role of job stress. Çekmecelioğlu and Ülker (2014) also implied a study in education sector which investigates the LMX and its impact on employee attitudes. The positive relations between high-quality LMX and affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction were confirmed by their study. Additionally, Tanrıverdi and Kahraman's findings (2016) from the hotels which are in Marmaris and Istanbul, pointed out that work alienation decreased when the affect, contribution and professional respect dimensions of LMX increased. Furthermore, Taştan (2014a) confirmed the positive relations between LMX quality and job performance in the food and beverage sector by highlighting the significant moderating role of perceived role ambiguity on this relation. Consequently, all the LMX studies in the literature revealed the extensive role of LMX in the organizations.

2.4.2. Relationship between LMX and In-Role / Extra Role Performance Behaviors

Leader-member exchange has an important place in today's literature due to its effects on the individual and managerial levels of success in the organizations as mentioned above. Thus, many researchers studied on the relation between LMX and employee performance behaviors because leader behaviors have a positive effect on organizational citizenship behaviors of employees (Podsakoff et al., 2000). An employee who has a supportive leader shows more effort which can be defined as organizational citizenship behavior to help his/her manager through the norm of reciprocity (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In the organizations, LMX quality also enables psychological empowerment of employees resulting by higher engagement levels (Kim and Diefendorff, 2015). Thus, high engagement contributes to willingness to increase the effectiveness on the job and better job performance (Kim and Diefendorff, 2015). Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) also pointed out the positive relation between engaged employees and extra role performance behaviors based on the discussion that, as engaged employees could finalize their duties efficiently, they found time to discover new duties that are above their job descriptions. Additionally, under high perceived organizational support, LMX was found to be related with performance (Erdogan and Enders, 2007). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) also indicated that the performance of the subordinates, who accepted the high quality LMX offer by the leader, increased dramatically after developing a high quality LMX. Consequently, LMX was found to be related with positive performance ratings, affective outcomes, role clarity, satisfaction and organizational commitment (Gerstner and Day, 1997). Moreover, LMX behavior was also found to show a positive relation with altruism and overall citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In a metal plant research, it was indicated that LMX is in relation to in-role performance which emphasizes the critical role of establishing a good relationship between the supervisor and the employee to increase the job performance (Wayne et al., 2002). Lonsdale (2016) also implied that LMX had significant correlations with the organizational citizenship behaviors both on individual and organizational level thus under high LMX quality, higher in role and extra role performance behaviors were expected. According to Dyne, Kamdar and Joireman's results (2008) of Indian oil refinery

company employees, when employees perceive a high quality LMX, they tend to show more helping behavior, spoke up and expressed their ideas more often. As further, under this high LMX situation, speaking up and expressing the ideas viewed as in role performance behavior by the employees. Law et al. (2009) indicated from their studies that LMX was in a positive relation between task performance, contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Also, Loi et al. (2011) examined the relation between LMX and employee altruism and work performance in a state-owned enterprise in China and found a support to their hypothesis as LMX was in a positive relation with employee altruism and work performance.

Trybou et al. (2013) conducted a quantitative, cross-section a survey in Belgian nurse houses to find out the relation between LMX and extra role performance. The extra role performances were rated by the supervisors and a positive trend towards significance was found emphasizing the willingness of extra mile contribution of the nurses under high conditions of LMX. Tierney, Bauer and Potter (2002) indicated that social exchange is a key in extra role and LMX by finding out the LMX quality's direct impact on the extra-role performance behavior. As further in their study the partial mediating role of organizational commitment in that relationship was conducted. Leader member exchange was found to have positive relations with safety citizenship performance behavior and under high LMX, employees consider more safety activities as part of their formal roles (Hofmann, Morgeson and Gerras, 2003). Hsiung and Tsai (2009) examined the subordinate and superior relationships in Taiwan universities and indicated that the relative job breadth of employees, which can be defined as a more broadly job definition by an employee compared with the supervisor, are higher when they have a higher LMX quality with their supervisors. As further, relative job breadth had a positive relation with extra role performance behaviors of the employees. It was also supported that LMX and job content congruence of an employee, which is the degree of definition of an employee related with his/her job congruently with the supervisor, has a positive relation. Moreover, the job content congruence found to be positively in relation to in-role performance behaviors. As further LMX's mediating role between mastery orientation and leader rated in-role job performance, innovative job performance and job satisfaction was also confirmed (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004). Stronger mastery-oriented employees had

higher quality LMX which enables them to be more effective in their duties (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004).

Based on all the literature review above, it is obvious that LMX also has an important effect on the success of a hotel in which the internal dynamics highly depends on the relations. At this point, it is expected that LMX levels between the subordinates and supervisors, will have an impact on the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were set as:

H3 : There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and employee performance behaviors.

H3a : There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors.

H3b : There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.

2.5. The Concept of Psychological Safety

2.5.1. Definition of Psychological Safety

The success in the hospitality sector mainly depends on the relations within the teams and with the guests. Maintaining sustainability in these relations enables the productivity levels of the employees. When employees feel safe and find an environment that they can show their feelings openly, their performance increases. In this section, psychological safety concept is described which pointed out the importance of these feelings.

Psychological safety was defined by Kahn (1990, p.705) as “to feel able to show and employ one’s self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career’. Psychological safety describes the situations as; “people are comfortable being themselves” and “as a shared belief by members of a team that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking” (Edmondson, 1999, p.354). It is the perception of an individual regarding the consequences of responses after sharing a new idea, asking a question or reporting a mistake and moreover focuses on the perception of group norm of the

members (Edmondson, 1999; 2003). It is an important cognitive statement which is linked to learning process of an individual, contributing to an increase in work outcomes (Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017).

Job demands resources model is important in understanding psychological safety. Job demands resources model is an occupational stress model which focuses on the balance between the job demands and the job resources. Job demands needs physical and psychological effort or skills such as job insecurity, work pressure, emotional demands of a job. Job resources refers to psychological, social or organizational aspects such as career opportunities, autonomy, support of a supervisor, team climate, participation in decision making, self-esteem, self-efficacy and psychological empowerment. According to job demands resources model, psychological safety perception is a resource that is related with an intrinsic motivation.

The model emphasizes that the balance between demands and the resources are important for the motivation and job strain of an employee and can be used as an important tool for the wellbeing and performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke (2004) indicated that job demands were to be considered as important antecedents of exhaustion dimension of burnout that anticipate the in-role performance behavior and job resources were important predictors of extra-role performance. Additionally, positive psychology that defines the positive experiences, positive individual traits and positive institutions defined by Seligman (2000) is an important theory in understanding psychological safety. Positive psychology includes concepts such as hope, optimism, well-being, courage, satisfaction, forgiveness, spirituality, high talent, better citizenship, responsibility, altruism and work ethics that enable the improvement in organizational life (Seligman, 2000). A high positive psychological safety refers to a positive psychological work environment.

Furthermore, social cognitive theory of Bandura (1999) contributes to psychological safety. Bandura (1999, p.21) pointed out that “personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective and biological events, behavioral patterns and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants that influence one another bidirectionally” and being cognitively present enables present motivation and regulates behavior. All these dimensions in the definition affect employees’ psychological safety perception. Gross’s

(2002) emotion regulation theory that defines the emotional processing and regulation is also important to understand the psychological safety. This theory indicates that an individual can monitor and regulate emotional responses and personal safety can be achieved by self-efficacy which can be reached by regulation. Furthermore, Luthans (2002) pointed out the importance of positive organizational behavior by emphasizing the positive relations of self-efficacy, confidence, hope and resiliency with work related performance.

Psychological safety becomes also practically important in the previous years with the increased importance of learning and innovation in organizations (Edmondson and Lei, 2014). Psychological safety describes a climate which supports a productive discussion as team members have less self-protection with their thoughts (Edmondson, 2003). If all the team members are not comfortable enough to speak up and contribute their views, it is crucial to encourage the sharing of risky contributions starting by small talks (Edmondson and Polzer, 2016).

According to Kahn (1990), interpersonal relationships, group and intergroup dynamics, norms of the organization and management style had influences on psychological safety. When an individual has supportive relations with other colleagues, it is easier to express his/her opinions without fear and the perception of psychological safety increases. As further, when supervisors and colleagues show supportive and trustworthy behavior (May et al., 2004) and leaders has a coaching oriented approach combined by a non-defensive attitude, employees have a higher level of safety perception (Edmondson, 1999). This perception is a result of social exchange process (Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017). Formal and informal procedures in organizations that support openness creates a working environment that team members can speak up leads towards a psychological safe climate (Baer and Frese, 2003). Moreover, safety as a psychological condition had significant positive relations with engagement (Kahn, 1990).

The antecedents of psychological safety were defined as; transformational leadership (Carmeli et al., 2013), individualized consideration, inspirational motivation behaviors, managerial openness (Detert and Burris, 2007), rewarding co-worker, supportive supervisor relations and behavioral norms (May et al., 2004), relationship quality (Carmeli, Brueller and Dutton, 2009), supportive but not controlling relation with

manager (Edmondson, 1999), appreciation for team members' participation (Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006), team member emotional perception, emotional management (Harper and White, 2013), organizational justice (Lyu, 2016), leadership inclusiveness and trustworthiness (Aranzamendez, James and Toms, 2015).

The consequences of psychological safe work environment can be classified as; involvement in creative work, job performance, engagement, reduction in errors (Lyu, 2016; Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017), affective commitment, turnover intention (Chen, Liao and Wen, 2014), employee feeling of vitality feeling which results in creative work (Kark and Carmeli, 2009), employees' creative problem-solving capacity (Carmeli et al., 2013), job involvement (Taştan and Türker, 2014). It can also be indicated that in a psychologically safe environment team, members show respect to other's competence, show positive intentions and participate in constructive feedback and confrontation (Edmondson, 1999) resulting by a successful high performing team (Bergmann and Schaeppi, 2016; as cited in Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017). Also, psychological safety had positive relations with initial perceptions of others' trustworthiness (Roussin and Webber, 2012) and psychologically safe teams contributed to higher levels of learning and performance (Edmondson, 1996; 1999).

Within this framework, psychological safety can be indicated as an important concept in understanding the team work, team and organizational learning resulting by performance enabling (Edmondson and Lei, 2014). Moreover, some implications that need to support psychological safety were pointed out by Edmondson and Lei, (2014) as managers (i) must support collaboration more especially under uncertainty, (ii) concentrate on communication to facilitate performance, (iii) value employees who have the willingness to speak up.

2.5.2. Psychological Safety as a Mediator on the Relationship between Organizational Transparency and In-Role / Extra-Role Performance Behaviors

Organizations become more transparent by more information sharing, openness to feedback, asking help from employees and involvement of the employees to the decision-making process. This open communication within the organizations contributes to a close

relation between the employees and the management, resulting by a safe environment feeling (Yi et al., 2016).

In transparent organizations, leaders are the key players with their attitudes and behaviors. Yi et al.'s findings (2016) extended that when leaders showed transparent behaviors, the employee ability to focus on attention and creativity, which refers to idea generation (Rank, Pace and Frese, 2004), increased. Psychological safety played a mediating role in this relation as transparent behaviors increased the psychological safety levels of the employees resulted by an increase in the ability to focus and creativity levels (Yi et al., 2016). Also, inclusive leadership, that comprises openness, accessibility and availability of a leader had positive relations with psychological safety, because listening the employees, discussing new ideas and ways increases the safety perception of the employees (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziu, 2010). Furthermore, as a second step, psychological safety enables the employee involvement in creative work (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziu, 2010).

Detert and Burris (2007) also conducted a study in a restaurant chain and confirmed that managerial openness, which reflects the perception of the employees that the leader listens them and interested in their ideas, was related with the voice behavior of the employees. The voice behavior was defined as employee suggestions to improve organizational functioning, wellbeing and performance. In this relationship, employee perception of psychological safety played a mediating role as employees took the risk of speaking up. As a result, managerial openness increased the psychological safety perception which was resulted by an increase on the employee suggestions (Detert and Burris, 2007). Transformational leaders also creates a psychological safety climate by individualized consideration, inspirational motivation behaviors and intellectually stimulation that enhances the openness of employees in expressing themselves (Kahn, 1990; Detert and Burris, 2007) and from the studies of Carmeli et al., (2013) it was conducted that transformational leaders created a perception of psychological safety which increased the creative problem solving capacity of employees.

Transparent communication in organizations also increases the trust level to the organization and to the leader (Rawlins, 2008; Norman, Avolio and Luthans, 2010). Consequently, the studies of Schaubroeck, Lam and Peng (2011) confirmed the positive

relation between affect-based trust in the leader and the team performance as trust relation encourages the members to show their potential and learn from experiences which increases the team performance. In this relationship, it was implied that psychological safety played a mediating role between affect-based trust in leader and team performance.

Similar findings were found by Roussin (2008). Roussin (2008) implied that using dyadic discovery methods which reflects the group level and individual level interventions and contributions, leaders could learn more and as a result show more leadership behaviors to increase trust. By increased trust, the psychological safety perception and the performance of the team were both positively affected (Roussin, 2008). Meng, Cheng and Guo (2016) also confirmed the mediator role of psychological safety and trust between the authentic leadership and employee creativity by their study that was conducted in China. As authentic leaders express their thoughts and feelings openly and creates an open atmosphere in the work place by seeking different perspectives, that kind of an environment enables the trust and psychological safety within the teams which in turn affected the teams' information sharing and creativity.

On individual level, psychological safety plays a mediating role between supportive organizational practices and organizational commitment and job performance whereas at the team level psychological safety played a mediating role between relationship networks, social support and team learning and performance (Newman, Donohueb and Evab, 2017). Carmeli, Brueller and Dutton (2009) conducted a research on the individual level part time students and indicated that capacities of high-quality relationships had positive relations with psychological safety and because of the high psychological safety level, higher learning behaviors were reached which reflects searching for new information, asking for feedback, sharing knowledge with other colleagues and creating new solutions more effectively. Thus, psychological safety perception was found to be partially mediated the relation between experiences of high quality relationships and learning behaviors.

Edmondson (1999) conducted a study in a manufacturing company by 51 teams and found out that the significant relation between team psychological safety and team performance was mediated by learning behavior. Furthermore, on the organizational level, collective perceptions of psychological safety were positively related to company

performance in terms of goal achievement (Baer and Frese, 2003). Furthermore, the mediating role of psychological safety and team learning between change-oriented leadership and team performance also confirmed by Ortega et al., (2013). On the contrary, Zhoa et al., (2013) examined the relation between abusive supervision and compulsory citizenship behavior that is defined as the dark side of the organizational citizenship behavior. Their study confirmed that the psychological safety fully mediated the relation between abusive supervision and compulsory citizenship behavior.

Depending on all the researches about psychological safety that was mentioned above, it can be expected that transparency in the organizations contributes to a psychologically safe work environment which employees can express their feelings and ideas more openly. Consequently, under that high psychological safety, employees are expected to show higher employee performance behaviors. Thus, according to the discussed mediator role of psychological safety in the literature, the following hypotheses were set as below:

H4 *: Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors.*

H4a *: Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors.*

H4b *: Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.*

2.6. The Concept of Job Insecurity

2.6.1. Definition of Job Insecurity

The fluctuations in the hospitality sector highly effects the productivity levels of the hotels resulting by cost cutting precautions in every aspect. Generally, reducing the labor force is one of the areas that management of the hotels focuses on. Under these circumstances, the job insecurity feeling of the employees, which is defined below, becomes one of the top topics from the human resources perspective.

Greenlagh and Rosenblatt (1984, p.438) defined job insecurity as "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation", which contributes to a perception of a risk in continuity of employee's job (Chipunza and Samuel, 2012). According to job demands resources model, job insecurity is an important demand factor and an extrinsic indicator for the balance between demands and resources. The psychological contract theory also refers to job insecurity as the violation of the relational contract results in job insecurity perception (Cuyper and De Witte, 2006). The perception of the job security in the literature changed over the years. In 1960s and 70s, it was considered as a motivator; however, starting from mid 1980s, it is regarded to be a stressor (Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2006). Job insecurity leads to a threat perception in economic, social and personal aspects of employees' lives (De Witte, 1990), including poorer self-rated health (Burgard, Brand and House, 2009), increase in psychosomatic complaints (De Witte, 1999), psychological distress (De Witte, 1999), mental health (Chirumbolo and Areni, 2010), and emotional exhaustion (Pienaar et al., 2013).

Job insecurity is generally considered with its legal and economical reflections, however the consequences on individuals and organizations have not been considered enough (Çakır, 2007). Moreover, job insecurity became a social phenomenon because of the restructuring of the organizations (De Witte, 2005), particularly driven by the recent downsizing practices in the turbulent political/social landscape of Turkey, leading to the reduction in staffing in the hospitality sector. The uncertainty of conditions in the organizational structure like outsourcings and downsizings leads to an increase in employee's feeling of uncertainty experience which is considered as one of the major characteristics of job insecurity (Wichert, 2001). Additionally, environmental factors like

technological changes and economic crisis also creates an uncertainty perception (Milliken, 1987). Blackmore (2011) investigated the importance of perceived organizational support on the perception of the job insecurity in organizations which are currently and about to go through a change process. The results confirmed the negative relation between perceived organizational support and the job insecurity. It can be concluded that when fairly treated and socially supported, the negative effects of all these conditions on employees may be reduced, however the perception of insecurity among the employees remains in any case (Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2006).

The antecedents of job insecurity perception were described in the literature as age (De Witte, 1990), job status including the contract type (Näswall and DeWitte, 2003), individual's experience of job insecurity (Greenlagh and Rosenblatt, 1984), support derived from others and supervisors at the workplace (Lim, 1996; Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2006), perceived organizational support, and perceived employability, neuroticism, work overload and contract type (Blackmore and Kunts, 2011).

Job insecurity is a chronic job stressor, and it has negative influence on employee well-being (Heaney, Israel and House, 1994; De Witte, 1999; Mauno, Leskinen and Kinnunen, 2001; Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2006; Dığın, 2008). Job insecurity decreases the control experience of individuals, which is defined as perceived control, and affects the organizational outcomes (Elst, De Cuyper and De Witte, 2010). Consequently, all organizations are focusing on the job insecurity, where on the reactions of the employees have also consequences for the organizational effectiveness (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984).

Moreover, on organizational level, the consequences of job insecurity were found to have relations with organizational and health related outcomes (Pienaar et al., 2013), commitment and job satisfaction, intent to quit (Ashford, Lee and Bobko, 1989; Armstrong, 1993; De Witte, 1999; Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2002; De Witte and Naswall, 2003; Probst and Brubaker, 2001; Buitendach and De Witte, 2005; Dığın, 2008; Cuyper, Notelaers and De Witte, 2009), job performance (Armstrong, 1993; Rosenblatt and Ruvio, 1996; Sverke, Hellgren and Näswall, 2006; Blackmore and Kuntz, 2011), perceived organizational support (Rosenblatt and Ruvio, 1996), job involvement and organizational trust (Ashford, Lee and Bobko, 1989), and safety motivation leading to

higher levels of workplace injuries and accidents (Probst and Brubaker, 2001). Furthermore, Severke et al., (2002) divided the consequences of job insecurity into short term and long- term reactions. Job satisfaction and job involvement can be considered as short term individual reactions whereas mental and physical well-being is long term. From the organizational level perspective, organizational commitment and trust are short term consequences which in the long term affecting the intention to turnover and job performance of employees (Severke et al., 2002).

According to Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio's (1999) study, males were found to feel more insecure, when compared with women. Consequently, they have a lower commitment and a higher intention to leave the organization (Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio, 1999). Additionally, job insecurity perception is a job demand with negative relations with vigor, dedication and absorption indicating the relation between job demands and engagement (Taştan, 2014b). Similarly, Burke and Singh (2015) indicated that higher levels of job insecurity resulted in lower levels of vigor, dedication, job and career satisfaction; they pointed out that higher levels of job insecurity had significant relations with higher levels of job stress, burnout, cynicism, less efficacy, intent to quit and less life satisfaction.

Elst et al., (2012), indicated that frustration of the three needs as autonomy, belongingness and competence, had significant mediating roles on the job insecurity and employee wellbeing relation. They emphasized that job insecurity perception frustrated the psychological needs of employees. Based on their results, the importance of introducing other supportive ways were discussed like recognizing the feelings of employees in adverse situations, providing clear communication about the reasons and asking more of their participation. Moreover, Baillien and Hans De Witte (2009) pointed out the mediating role of job insecurity by their study that was conducted in Belgium private organizations. According to their results, job insecurity fully mediates the relationship between organizational change and bullying.

There is not a high amount of research for job insecurity perception with respect to the hospitality business in Turkey. A study in the Muğla tourism region pointed out the importance of job insecurity, implying that seasonal employees perceived higher levels of job insecurity and their affective commitment level to their organization is less (Ünsal-

Akbıyık, Çakmak-Otluoğlu and De Witte, 2012). Another study that was conducted in Alanya by the participation of 1073 employees in tourism industry and positive relation between job insecurity and turnover intention was confirmed (Karacaoğlu, 2015). After having a research in private hospitals in İzmir by the participation of 462 nurses, Boya et al. (2008) concluded that job insecurity significantly affected perceived anxiety and depression levels of nurses.

Poyraz and Kama (2008) studied on the effects of perceived job security by the participation of private communication company and public-sector employees and they found negative relations between perception of job security and intention to leave. Additionally, positive relations were confirmed between perceived job security and job satisfaction in addition to organizational commitment (Poyraz and Kama, 2008). Moreover, by the results of a study that was conducted in call center company located in Erzurum, Çınar, Karcıoğlu and Aslan (2014) confirmed the positive relation between organizational cynicism and job insecurity. Aybas, Elmas and Dündar (2015) had a study in a newly privatized industrial enterprise in Turkey and confirmed the positive relation between job insecurity and burnout where the employability had a significant moderating role. Çetin and Turan (2013) also confirmed the positive relations between job insecurity and burnout levels of teachers who are employed by the public sector.

2.6.2. Job Insecurity as a Moderator on the Relationship between LMX and In-Role / Extra-Role Performance Behaviors

Despite the good relationship between the leader and the employee, the perception of job insecurity still may moderate the loss of performance in in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of employees. E.g. an employee, who experiences a high level of job insecurity, may perform low despite an excellent relation with the leader, because the leader himself may not be able to establish the job safety; economic or social factors may be the major determinants in the job safety environment. Thus, it is an extrinsic situation that job insecurity has been researched herewith in a moderating role to employee in/extra-role performance behaviors.

In general, the perception of job insecurity results in reduced organizational effectiveness, which comprises a reduction in productivity and adaptability and increase in employee turnover (Greenhalgh and Roseblatt, 1984). When investigating the impact of job insecurity on job performance and absenteeism on 425 workers, Chirumbolo and Areni (2005) found out this negative significant relationship between job insecurity and job performance with job satisfaction and organizational commitment as moderators. Sora et al., (2010) conducted a study in Spain which also emphasizes the employability effect on the relation between job insecurity and intention to leave. They pointed out that under the perception of job insecurity; employees with higher employability had higher intention to leave independently of economic needs when compared with the employees with low employability.

Loi et al., (2011) also conducted a study in China by a participation of 184 state owned enterprise employees. The results of their study indicated that LMX had positive relations with altruism and work performance where the relation between LMX and altruism was stronger under the perception of less job security. Additionally, the positive relationship between job insecurity and absenteeism was also found to be significant (Chirumbolo and Areni, 2005). On the contrary, researchers implied that job insecurity perception may increase the performance of the employees, because they simply fear to lose their job under the conditions of financial dependency and insufficient job opportunities (Dığın, 2008; Dığın and Ünsar, 2010). However, in the long term the work stress of the employees inevitably increases, which in turn may enable psychological and physical health problems (Dığın, 2008).

After researching the emotional intelligence and LMX relationships on the relationships between job insecurity and employee reactions, Cheng et al. (2012) concluded the significant moderating role of emotional intelligence between job insecurity and somatic complaints in the Chinese health sector. They indicated further that employees' ability to deal with their emotions and relations with their supervisors are critical factors that affects employee outcomes positively when job security is uncertain. Then Loi, Lam and Chan, (2012) conducted a study in China by a sample of 381 employees and found out that procedural justice is negatively related with job insecurity and ethical leadership was found to have a moderator role in that relationship. Moreover,

Hu and Zuo (2007) collected a data from 314 employees in China and pointed out that LMX had a moderating role between quantitative job insecurity and continuance commitment as their negative relation was stronger for the employees under the conditions of low LMX. Additionally, LMX also moderated the relationship between qualitative insecurity and affective commitment.

Moreover, Probst, Jiang and Graso (2016) collected a data from 212 mining employees in the US for examining the effects of leadership and job insecurity on safety outcomes and supervisor satisfaction. They confirmed the negative relations between job insecurity and safety outcomes in addition to job insecurity and supervisor satisfaction, indicating that high quality LMX attenuates the negative relation between job insecurity and safety outcomes. As a result, the dyadic relationship between the employee and supervisor significantly impacted the effects of job insecurity on safety outcomes and supervisor satisfaction (Probst, Jiang and Graso, 2016). Finally, Kausto et al. (2005) pointed out that the moderating role of job insecurity between procedural justice and employee well-being as employees.

As discussed above, there is enough evidence to support the moderating role of job insecurity in the literature. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that job insecurity perception of the employees might affect the relation between leader member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors. Accordingly, the following hypotheses were set:

H5 : Perceived job insecurity moderates the relationship between leader member exchange and employee performance behaviors.

H5a : Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors.

H5b : Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.

2.7. The Focus of the Study and Hypothesis Generation

2.7.1. The Research Questions

The research questions of the study were defined after an operational observation in the hotel, having conversations with the managers and a detailed literature review. The study is focusing on the investigation of employee performance behaviors as in-role and extra-role and the relations of psychological contract, organizational transparency and LMX with these behaviors. In these relations, also the safety related variables included to our model. With that respect, perceived psychological safety as a mediator between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors was examined. As further, perception of job insecurity, as a moderator variable was examined between the relation of LMX and in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees.

The research questions of the study are mentioned as below;

Q1: Do the hotel sector employees show in-role and extra-role performance behaviors?

Q2: What are the factors that are related to the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees?

Q3: What is the relation of psychological contract on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of employees?

Q4: What is the relation of organizational transparency on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of employees?

Q5: What is the relation of LMX on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of employees?

Q6: If organizational transparency has relations with in-role and extra-role performance behaviors, how does perceived psychological safety takes role in this relationship?

Q7: If LMX has relations with in-role and extra-role performance behaviors, how does perceived job insecurity takes role in this relationship?

2.7.2. The Generated Hypothesis

The hypothetical propositions of the study are summarized as below which were also mentioned in detailed in the literature review section;

H1 *: There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and employee performance behaviors.*

H1a *: There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and in-role performance behaviors.*

H1b *: There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and extra-role performance behaviors.*

H2 *: There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors.*

H2a *: There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors.*

H2b *: There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.*

H3 *: There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and employee performance behaviors.*

H3a *: There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors.*

H3b *: There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.*

H4 *: Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and employee performance behaviors.*

H4a *: Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors.*

H4b : Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.

H5 : Perceived job insecurity moderates the relationship between leader member exchange and employee performance behaviors.

H5a : Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors.

H5b : Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.

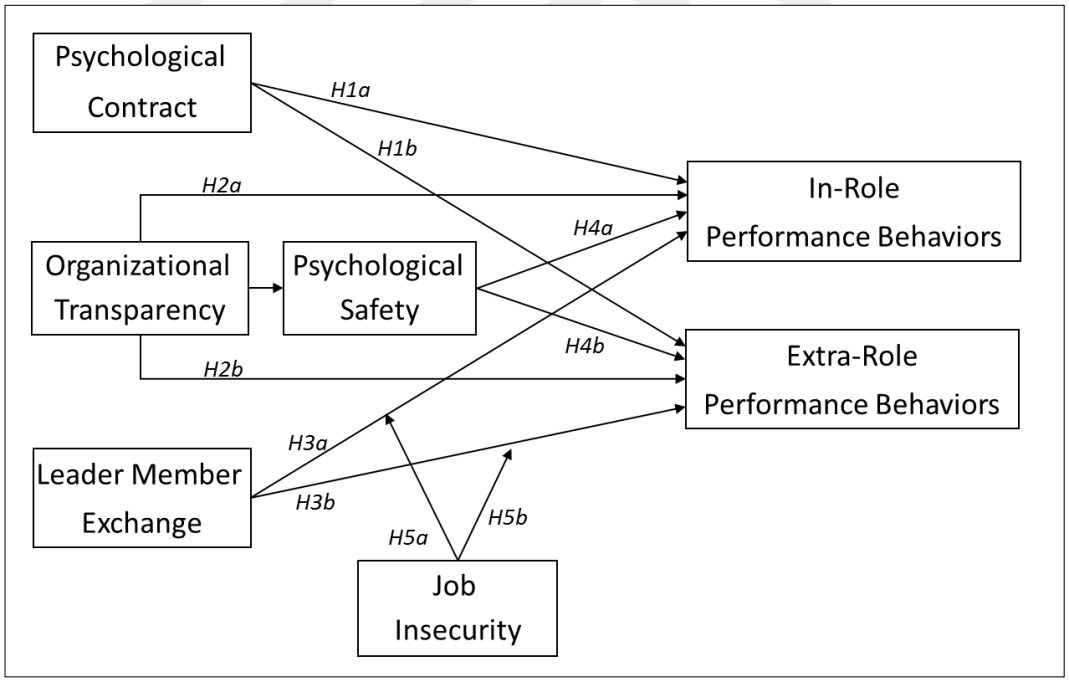

Figure 3. The Hypothetical Relationships Among the Research Variables

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. The Research Approach

In social research studies, the researchers can use two different methods, which can be described as qualitative and quantitative research methods. The qualitative research method is generally used, when observing and understanding a phenomenon with the aim of emerging a theory that will explain what was observed (Newman and Benz, 1998). Open-ended questions, interviews, focus groups, observations and case studies are some ways to collect data in qualitative research method which enables a deeper understanding of the research area and an option to reach the thought and feelings of the participants (Sutton and Austin, 2015). This method is generally depending on researcher's analytic and integrative skills as the researcher studies on the data line by line to categorize the ideas, actions and perceptions (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

The quantitative research method is a structural and formal way, generally applicable when the researcher begins with a hypothesis and searching for the confirmation by measurable and numerical data with the aim of generalization from the sample to the population (Newman and Benz, 1998). The researcher collects numerical data by surveys as online and/or paper surveys, telephone interviews and tests the relationships between the variables. The data of the quantitative research can be analyzed by using two different ways of analysis; as (i) descriptive analysis, which raises to describe, aggregate and present the relations between the concepts or (ii) inferential analysis, which refers to the statistical testing of hypotheses (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

In the study, the research was conducted based on quantitative research method and the numerical data was collected by paper surveys, which were designed by relevant literature. Consequently 7 different scale items were consolidated as described later with respect to the variables. Accordingly, descriptive analysis was applied, and the results were presented in tables.

Usually, two different methods can be applied as longitudinal and cross-sectional field surveys in a study. In longitudinal field surveys, the variables are measured over periods of time and the researcher can observe the changes over periods. In cross sectional field surveys, the variables are measured at the same point in time. In this study, the cross-

sectional field survey was conducted due to the nature of the research questions and hypothesis.

In the study, the multiple source data collection method was used by collecting the data from two different sources as this method reflects a more complex view of the field (Grayson et al., 2002). Multiple source data collection is a source intensive method because of the selection of the respondents (Grayson et al., 2002) so a detailed participant selection process was conducted. The surveys, which include the questionnaires of independent, moderator and mediator variables as psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity were answered by the employees whereas the dependent variables, in-role and extra-role performance behaviors questionnaires were answered by their supervisors. After collecting the data from two different sources, the survey questionnaires were matched to be prepared for the statistical analysis. Furthermore, by using multiple source data collection method, the single source method bias was minimized, which may result from the responses from the same person to all the variables of the model (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and may arise a skewing in the data (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009).

3.2. The Sample and Data Collection

The study was conducted in an international luxury hotel in Istanbul. The hotel is one of the market leaders with superior-quality service, high guest satisfaction and competitive sales and revenue management results. Accordingly, it offers high salary and benefits, training opportunities, good working environment and good career opportunities to its employees. Furthermore, as the hotel is a part of the most known hospitality chains in the world that transfer options to foreign countries are available for the employees as well. Consequently, the sample of the study includes employees associated to such a working environment. As a data collection method, paper-based surveys were used in the study. The paper-based survey method was selected as this method is; (i) organized and reliable, (ii) cost effective, (iii) respondents feel more relaxed when compared with other methods and (iv) easy to collect data in the hotel from the employees.

Initially, in order to test the inter judge reliability of the scales, a pilot study was conducted in October 2016 by the participation of 60 employees and 6 supervisors. The main study was conducted between November 2016 to January 2017 by the participation of 221 employees and 21 supervisors. The total employee number in the hotel was 306 and a participation return rate of 79% was reached. Every department in the hotel participated the surveys as housekeeping, front office, food and beverage service, kitchen, engineering, security, sales and marketing, human resources and finance. The collection period of the data was approximately 70-75 days.

The participants were 31.2% women and 68.8% men as shown in Table 1 with an average mean age of 35.5. The graduation degree of the participants was; 16.7% from primary school, 33.5% from high school, 45.2% from university, 4.1% from master's degree and 0.5% PhD degree as shown in Table 2.

Table 1. Gender Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**
Female	69	31.2	31.2
Male	152	68.8	68.8
Total	221	100	100

Table 2. Education Level Characteristics of the Sample

Education	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**
Primary School	37	16.7	16.7
High School	74	33.5	33.5
University	100	45.2	45.2
Master's Degree	9	4.1	4.1
PhD Degree	1	0.5	0.5
Total	221	100	100

When we analyze the distribution of the work experience years of the participants; 30.7% of the participants had a work experience of 5 years and below, 21.3% between 6 to 10 years, 20.8% had an experience of 11 to 16 years and 27.2% has an experience of 17 years and above as shown in Table 3. 61.5% of the participants had a company experience of 6 years and below, 17.7% between 6.5 to 15 years and 20.8% was more than16 years as shown in Table 4. Additionally, 56.1% of the participants had a position experience of 3 years and below, 20.4% between 3.5 to 8 years and 23.5% had a position experience of 9 years and above as shown in Table 5.

Table 3. Total Work Experience Characteristics of the Sample

Work Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
5 years and below	68	30.7	30.7
6-10 years	47	21.3	21.3
11-16 years	46	20.8	20.8
17 years and above	60	27.2	27.2
Total	221	100	100

Table 4. Total Company Experience Characteristics of the Sample

Company Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
6 years and below	136	61.5	61.5
6,5-15 years	39	17.7	17.7
16 years and above	46	20.8	20.8
Total	221	100	100

Table 5. Total Position Experience Characteristics of the Sample

Position Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
3 years and below	124	56.1	56.1
3,5-8 years	45	20.4	20.4
9 years and above	52	23.5	23.5
Total	221	100	100

3.3. Survey Instruments

In the study, totally seven different scales were used to measure all the variables. In-role and extra-role performance behavior scales were answered by the supervisors of the employees. All the other scales as psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity were answered by the employees. The items were all rated on a 6-point scale ranging from "totally disagree" to "totally agree".

In-role and extra-role employee performance, psychological contract, leader member exchange, organizational transparency and job insecurity scales were translated into Turkish by the researcher. The translations were checked by two academicians for the face validity. Additionally, training manager of the hotel also checked the translations to prevent any misunderstandings from the operational perspective.

The questionnaire consists of two sections as demographic variables section and the scales related with variables of the study. Gender, age, education level, total work experience, company and position experience information was collected to define the characteristics of the sample.

3.3.1. In-Role Performance Behavior Scale

The in-role performance behaviors of the employees were measured by 9 items. 6 of the items (1,2,3,7,8,9) were from Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) "Job Performance Scale" that are related with task performance. Additionally, from Williams and Anderson's (1991) "Job Performance Scale", 3 questions (4,6,7) were selected out of 7 items referring to the job descriptions and consistency dimensions of the in-role performance. The selection of these three questions were conducted by considering the service sector expectations from the employees. In the previous studies, the Cronbach alpha values of Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) task performance scale and Williams and Anderson's (1991) were found to be .90 (Demerouti et al., 2014) and .85 (Becker and Kernan, 2003) respectively. A sample item is from Williams and Anderson's (1991) scale is "Employee fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description".

3.3.2. Extra-Role Performance Behavior Scale

The extra-role performance behaviors of the employees were measured by a total of 19 items which were selected from different resources again by considering the service sector employee's daily operation and expected behaviors depending on the organizational culture. 8 items were selected by Tsui et al. (1997)'s "Citizenship Behavior Scale" (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9) out of 9 questions which had a Cronbach Alpha value of .94 in Tsui et al.'s (1997) study, 1 item is selected from Williams and Anderson's (1991) "Job Performance Scale" related with organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals. 3 items were selected from Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) "Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale" related with altruism (10, 23) and conscientiousness (22). Furthermore, 3 items from Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) "Job Performance Scale" were added for conscientiousness dimension (1,2,5) which had a Cronbach Alpha value of .81 (Soran, Balkan and Serin, 2014) in a previous study and 4 items from Fahr et al.'s (1997) "Contextual Performance Scale" were selected in order to analyze the boosterism, altruism, conscientiousness and protecting company resources dimensions. Fahr et al.'s contextual performance scale had a Cronbach alpha value of .87 in Taştan's (2014c) study. A sample item from Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) scale related with altruism is "Employee helps orient new people even though it is not required". The wording of reverse items from Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) scale, which was "Takes undeserved work breaks" and from Fahr et al.'s (1997) scale "Views sick leave as benefit and makes excuse for taking sick leave" were converted during the translation.

3.3.3. Psychological Contract Scale

Raja and colleagues' (2004) "Psychological Contract Scale" was used to measure the psychological contract level of the employees which has 18 items in total. 9 items of the scale are related with the transactional contract while the other 9 items are assessing the relational contracts dimension of the psychological contract. The Cronbach alpha values of the scale were found to be .79 for relational contract and .72 for transactional contract items in a previous study of Raja, Johns and Ntalianis (2004). "My job means more to me than just a means of paying the bills" is an example item of transactional contract. "To

me working for this organization is like being a member of a family" is an example of relational contract dimension. The wording of first seven questions from the scale which were representing the transactional contract were reversed during the translation of the surveys.

3.3.4. Organizational Transparency Scale

Organizational transparency was measured by 19 items. 15 items were selected from Rawlins's (2006) "Organizational Transparency Scale". Rawlin's organizational transparency scale has 27 items consisting of overall transparency, participation, substantial information and accountability factors. Totally 4 items from overall transparency, 4 items from participation, 5 items from substantial information and 2 items from accountability factors were selected which had the Cronbach alpha values of .91, .92, .93 and .87 respectively in Rawlins's study (2006). From Rawlin's (2006) organizational transparency scale, "The organization wants people like me to know what it is doing and why it is doing it" is an example item related with overall transparency. Additionally, 4 items were added from Yılmaz's thesis (2012), that contributes to organizational transparency. In his study, after his research, Yılmaz (2012) defined the organizational transparency factor by the questions from Bromiley and Cummings's (1996) and Nyhan and Marlowe's (1997) Organizational Trust Inventories and the Cronbach alpha value was .91.

3.3.5. LMX Scale

Liden and Maslyn's (1998) 12 item scale was used to assess the leader-member exchange (LMX) that has four dimensions as loyalty, affect, contribution to the exchange and professional respect. Taştan (2014a) found the Cronbach Alpha values of .91, .90 and .88 for the "loyalty and respect", "affect" and "contribution to exchange" dimensions of Liden and Maslyn's scale respectively in the previous research. "I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my manager's work goals" is an example item for contribution to the exchange whereas "I respect my manager's

knowledge of and competence on the job" is an item which reflects the professional respect.

3.3.6. Psychological Safety Scale

Edmondson's (1999) "Psychological Safety Scale" was used to measure the psychological safety perception of the employees. The Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be .79 in Edmondson's (1999) and .93 in Üçok and Torun's (2016) studies. The scale has 7 items and the Turkish translation was already conducted by Dilek Üçok from Marmara University. The translation was used after getting the permission. Also, this translation was checked by two academicians and the training manager of the hotel. "It is safe to take a risk on this team" is one of the items of psychological safety scale. The wording of the items "It is difficult to ask other members of my organization for help", "If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you" and "People on this team sometimes reject others for being different" were reversed.

3.3.7. Job Insecurity Scale

De Witte's (2013) "Job Insecurity Scale" which has 8 items was used to measure the job insecurity perceptions of the employees. 4 items of the scale measure the cognitive job insecurity perception whereas the other 4 items measure the perception of affective job insecurity. De Witte (2013) confirmed the Cronbach alpha values of .80 for cognitive job insecurity perception and .84 for affective job insecurity perception. "I think that I will be able to continue working here" is one example from the cognitive job insecurity scale. "I worry about the continuation of my career" is another example item for affective job insecurity scale. The wording of the four cognitive job insecurity questions were reversed during the translations.

3.4. Statistical Analysis in the Study

SPSS Version 22 was used to do the statistical analysis of the study. First, descriptive analysis was applied to identify the frequency distributions of the sample regarding gender, education, work, company and position experience of the participants. To find the factorial structure of the scales, factor analyses were conducted by principal component analysis with varimax rotation and items with less than 0.50 loading were removed from the scales as suggested by Karagöz (2016) and Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko (2013). Afterwards, the reliability analysis was conducted to all scales to find the internal consistencies which is related to the degree of interrelatedness between these items (Panayides, 2013). The internal consistency of the scales supposed to be higher than 0.70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Furthermore, the sampling adequacy was tested by Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) coefficient which was expected to be KMO $\geq$0.50 and Bartlett 's test of sphericity was also conducted and expected to be $\leq$ 0.05, which represents the adequacy of relations between the items.

Then, the correlations among all the variables were tested by Pearson's correlation results. Afterwards, to test the moderating and mediating effects, hierarchical regression analysis and multiple regression analysis were used (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Finally, the t-tests were conducted to find out whether the means of groups are statistically different from each other (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

3.5. The Findings of the Pilot Study

After completing the translations of the surveys, a pilot study was completed in order to test the inter judge reliability of all the scales by calculating Cronbach 's α value. Total of 60 employees and 6 supervisors from housekeeping, security and front office employees were selected and answered all the questions in October 2016. As shown on Table 6, all the scales had high internal consistency which was shown by Cronbach α values. In-role and extra-role performance behavior scale's Cronbach α values were 0.956 and 0.909. As further, psychological contract scale, organizational transparency scale, leader-member exchange scale, psychological safety and job insecurity scales had 0.921, 0.965, 0.938, 0.948 and 0.933 Cronbach α values respectively. Moreover, all the scales'

KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity scores were significant. Thus, none of the items were excluded from the scales according to the findings of the pilot study.

Table 6. Pilot Study Findings of the Study

In-Role Performance Behavior Scale	KMO=0.881 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 604.333 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.956
Extra-Role Performance Behavior Scale	KMO=0.813 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 936.774 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.909
Psychological Contract Scale	KMO=0.827 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 741.139 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.921
Organizational Transparency Scale	KMO=0.862 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1196.113 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.965
Leader- Member Exchange Scale	KMO=0,818 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 773.990 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.938
Psychological Safety Scale	KMO=0,855 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 422.589 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.948
Job Insecurity Scale	KMO=0.798 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 362.068 P=0.000	Cronbach α = 0.933

4. MAIN STUDY FINDINGS

4.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis of the Scales

In this section, the factor analysis and the Cronbach Alpha values of the scales were presented on scale basis.

4.1.1. In-Role Performance Behavior Scale

As presented in Table 7, the Cronbach α value of the in-role performance behavior scale was .961 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

Table 7. Factor Analysis Results of In-Role Performance Behavior Scale

Item No.	In-Role Performance Behavior Factors	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: In-Role Performance Behavior	**76.589**		**0.961**
1	Achieves the objectives of the job		0.859	
2	Meets criteria for performance		0.895	
3	Demonstrates expertise in all job-related tasks		0.852	
4	Is competent in all areas of the job, handles tasks with proficiency		0.883	
5	Performs well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected		0.904	
6	Plans and organizes to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadlines		0.845	
7	Fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description.		0.895	
8	Performs tasks that are expected of him or her.		0.857	
9	Consistently performs work tasks in a high-quality manner.		0.884	
	KMO=0.940 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 2057.663 P=0.000			**0.961**

According to these results, the in-role performance behavior scale had one factor as one-dimensional construct which explained 76.5% of the variance. As seen, all the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .940 which was on a significant level and Bartlett ‘s test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

4.1.2. Extra- Role Performance Behavior Scale

As presented in Table 8, the Cronbach α value of the extra-role performance behavior scale was .956 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. According to the factor analysis results, extra-role performance scale had three factors which explained the 75.4% of the total variance. The factors labeled as; extra-role performance behaviors towards organizational improvement, conscientiousness and altruism. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .932 which was on a significant level and Bartlett ‘s test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤ 0.05.

Table 8. Factor Analysis Results of Extra-Role Performance Behavior Scale

Item No.	Extra-Role Performance Behavior Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Organizational Improvement	**30.156**		**0.934**
4	Makes suggestions to improve organization		0.865	
1	Makes suggestions to improve work procedures		0.845	
6	Makes innovative suggestions to improve department		0.824	
8	Suggests revisions in work to achieve organizational or departmental objectives		0.753	
7	Informs management of potentially unproductive policies and practices		0.724	
3	Does not keep doubts about a work issue to him/herself, even when everyone else disagrees		0.707	
2	Expresses opinions honestly when others think differently		0.702	
5	Calls management attention to dysfunctional activities		0.671	
	Factor II: Conscientiousness	**23.875**		**0.927**
15	Gives notice if unable to come to work		0.898	
19	Views sick leave as benefit and makes excuse for taking sick leave (R)		0.852	
16	Willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the company		0.810	
14	Takes undeserved work breaks (R)		0.773	
13	Exhibits punctuality arriving at work on time in the morning and after lunch breaks		0.691	
12	Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching		0.572	
	Factor III: Altruism	**21.419**		**0.940**
11	Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her		0.820	
9	Helps others who have heavy work load.		0.791	
10	Helps orient new people even though it is not required		0.749	
17	Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems		0.703	
18	Tries hard to self-study to increase the quality of work outputs		0.617	
	KMO=0.932 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 4126.154 P=0.000	**75.450**		**0.956**

4.1.3. Psychological Contract Scale

According to the factor analysis results of the psychological contract scale, the questions number 9 and 8 were excluded from the scale due to the low factor loadings which was less than 0.50.

After the exclusion of these two questions, factor analysis applied again, and the results was presented in Table 9. The Cronbach α value of the psychological contract scale was .935 which represents the internal reliability of the scale. According to the factor analysis results, psychological contract scale had three factors which explained the 70.0% of the total variance. Raja and colleagues' (2004) original scale has two factors which transactional and relational psychological contract are, however in our study some of the relational contract questions were observed under a third factor which was labeled as career expectations.

KMO coefficient was .908 which is on a significant level and Bartlett 's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

Table 9. Factor Analysis Results of Psychological Contract Scale

Item No.	Psychological Contract Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Transactional Contract	**30.698**		**0.922**
3	My loyalty to the organization is contract specific (R)		0.827	
2	My commitment to this organization is defined by my contract (R)		0.791	
5	I only carry out what is necessary to get the job done (R)		0.790	
1	I work only the hours set out in my contract and no more (R)		0.741	
4	I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours (R)		0.731	
6	I do not identify with the organization's goals (R)		0.676	
7	I work to achieve the purely short-term goals of my job (R)		0.642	
18	I am motivated to contribute 100% to this company in return for future employment benefits		0.518	
	Factor II: Relational Contract	**24.332**		**0.874**
14	The organization develops/rewards employees who work hard and exert themselves		0.881	
16	I feel this company reciprocates the effort put in by its employees		0.776	
12	I have a reasonable chance of promotion if I work hard		0.764	
11	I feel part of a team in this organization		0.704	
13	To me working for this organization is like being a member of a family		0.648	
	Factor III: Career Expectations	**15.030**		**0.775**
15	I expect to gain promotion in this company with length of service and effort to achieve goals		0.800	
10	I expect to grow in this organization		0.738	
17	My career path in the organization is clearly mapped out		0.623	
	KMO=0.908 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 2612.672 P=0.000	**70.060**		**0.935**

4.1.4. Organizational Transparency Scale

As presented in Table 10, the Cronbach α value of the organizational transparency scale was .970 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. According to the factor analysis results, organizational transparency scale had two factors which explained the 73.4% of the variance and labeled as transparency and accountability. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .955 which was on a significant level and Bartlett ‘s test of sphericity was lower than 0.05 which also represents a significant level.

Table 10. Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Transparency Scale

Item No.	Organizational Transparency Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Transparency	**39.283**		**0.958**
6	The organization provides information that is useful to people like me for making informed decisions.		0.812	
7	The organization wants to be accountable to people like me for its actions.		0.803	
3	My organization's policies and regulations are clearly communicated to us.		0.802	
8	The organization wants people like me to know what it is doing and why it is doing it.		0.789	
2	In my organization, usually everything is executed in an open way, there is no hidden applications, except for special business-related topics		0.752	
5	The organization wants to understand how its decisions affect people like me.		0.746	
1	In my organization, information is transferred to us in a complete and accurate way.		0.707	
15	Provides information that is complete.		0.679	
10	Provides detailed information to people like me.		0.658	
16	Provides information that is reliable		0.657	
	Factor II: Accountability	**34.184**		**0.942**
11	Asks the opinions of people like me before making decisions.		0.824	
12	Takes the time with people like me to understand who we are and what we need.		0.822	
17	Is open to criticism by people like me.		0.811	
18	Freely admits when it has made mistakes.		0.773	
14	Provides information that can be compared to previous performance.		0.682	
13	Provides information in a timely fashion to people like me.		0.677	
4	In my organization, performance appraisals are executed by an objective approach.		0.636	
9	Involves people like me to help identify the information I need.		0.586	
	KMO=0.955 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 4061.763** **P=0.000**	**73.467**		**0.970**

4.1.5. LMX Scale

As presented in Table 11, the Cronbach α value of the leader-member exchange scale was .932 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale.

According to our study's factor analysis results, leader-member exchange scale had two factors. The first factor was labeled as professional respect, affect and contribution to the exchange which consists of the original scale's three factors. The second factor was labeled as loyalty and concern. These two factors explained the 71.6% of the total variance. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .891 which was on a significant level and Bartlett 's test of sphericity was also significant.

Table 11. Factor Analysis Results of Leader - Member Exchange Scale

Item No.	Leader – Member Exchange Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Professional Respect, Affect, Contribution to the Exchange	**50.275**		**0.948**
12	I am impressed with my manager's knowledge of his/her job.		0.880	
10	I respect my manager's knowledge of and competence on the job.		0.852	
11	I admire my manager's professional skills		0.846	
5	I like my manager very much as a person.		0.824	
7	I provide support and resources for my subordinate that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.		0.767	
6	My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.		0.758	
8	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my manager's work goals.		0.753	
9	I do not mind working my hardest for my manager.		0.730	
4	My manager is a lot of fun to work with.		0.695	
	Factor II: Loyalty and Concern	**21.384**		**0.710**
3	My manager defends (would defend) my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.		0.819	
1	My manager would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.		0.744	
2	My manager would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.		0.705	
	KMO=0.891 **Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 2365.722** **P=0.000**	**71.659**		**0.932**

4.1.6. Psychological Safety Scale

As presented in Table 12, the Cronbach α value of the psychological safety scale was .924 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale.

According to the factor analysis results, psychological safety scale had one factor as uni-dimensional like the original of the scale, Edmondson (1999). This one factor explained the 69.7% of the variance. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .914 which is on a significant level and Bartlett ‘s test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

Table 12. Factor Analysis Results of Psychological Safety Scale

Item No.	Psychological Safety Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Psychological Safety	**69.756**		**0.924**
5	People on this team sometimes reject others for being different. (R)		0.873	
2	It is difficult to ask other members of my organization for help. (R)		0.859	
7	Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized.		0.856	
4	If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you. (R)		0.853	
3	Members of my organization are able to bring up problems and tough issues.		0.828	
6	It is safe to take a risk on this team.		0.801	
1	No one in this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.		0.773	
	KMO=0.914 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1104.667 P=0.000			**0.924**

4.1.7. Job Insecurity Scale

As presented in Table 13, the Cronbach α value of the job insecurity scale was .933 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale.

According to the factor analysis results, job insecurity scale had one factor as uni-dimensional which explained the 68.5% of the variance. In the original scale of De Witte (2013), the scale has two factors as cognitive and affective job insecurity, however in our study the items were collected under one factor. All the items had factor loadings of ≥0.50

so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .913 which is on a significant level and Bartlett ‘s test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05.

Table 13. Factor Analysis Results of Job Insecurity Scale

Item No.	Job Insecurity Factors	%Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
	Factor I: Job Insecurity	**68.576**		**0.933**
2	I am certain/sure of my job environment (R)		0.879	
4	There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed (R)		0.861	
8	I feel uncertain about the future of my job		0.858	
1	I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job (R)		0.843	
6	I worry about the continuation of my career		0.834	
3	I think that I will be able to continue working here (R)		0.828	
5	I fear that I might get fired		0.803	
7	I fear that I might lose my job		0.707	
	KMO=0.913 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test= 1412.275 P=0.000			**0.933**

4.2. Correlation Analysis Findings

In the study, after completing the factor analysis results, the correlation analysis was applied by Pearson Correlation test to find out the level of relations between all the dependent, independent, mediating and moderating variables of the study.

As shown in the factor analysis section of the study, the first factors of all the scales explained more than 30% of the total variance which shows the representative ability so in the further statistical analysis, the scales were conducted as a total construct (Büyüköztürk, 2007, p.125; Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk, 2016, p.227) due to practicality reasons.

The correlation levels between the variables were summarized according to Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk’s (2016, p.52) classifications. The weak, moderate and strong correlation levels are presented according to the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) results in Table 14.

Table 14. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Interpretation

Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)	Correlation
0.00 – 0.29	weak correlation
0.30 – 0.69	moderate correlation
0.70 – above	strong correlation

The mean scores of the questionnaires and the correlation results between the variables of the study were presented in Table 15 and can be summarized as below;

- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.604) between psychological contract and leader-member exchange (p<.001)
- a strong positive correlation (r=0.711) between psychological contract and organizational transparency (p<.001)
- a weak negative correlation (r=0.255) between psychological contract and job insecurity (p<.001)
- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.605) between psychological contract and psychological safety (p<.001)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.169) between psychological contract and in-role performance behaviors (p<.005)
- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.320) between psychological contract and extra-role performance behaviors (p<.001)
- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.649) between leader member exchange and organizational transparency (p<.001)
- a weak negative correlation (r=0.257) between leader member exchange and job insecurity (p<.001)
- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.597) between leader member exchange and psychological safety (p<.001)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.157) between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors (p<.005)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.236) between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors (p<.001)
- a weak negative correlation (r=0.292) between organizational transparency and job insecurity (p<.001)

- a moderate positive correlation (r=0.683) between organizational transparency and psychological safety (p<.001)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.151) between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors (p<.005)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.210) between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors (p<.001)
- a weak negative correlation (r=0.251) between job insecurity and psychological safety (p<.001)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.201) between psychological safety and in-role performance behaviors (p<.001)
- a weak positive correlation (r=0.220) between psychological safety and extra-role performance behaviors (p<.001)
- a strong positive correlation (r=0.775) between in-role performance behaviors and extra-role performance behaviors (p<.001)

Table 15. Correlation Results of the Variables

	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Psychological Contract	5.43	.64364	1	.604**	.711**	-.255**	.605**	.169*	.320**
2	Leader – Member Exchange	5.53	.57539	.604**	1	.649**	-.257**	.597**	.157*	.236**
3	Organizational Transparency	5.27	.77299	.711**	.649**	1	-.292**	.683**	.151*	.210**
4	Job Insecurity	2.33	1.21732	-.255**	-.257**	-.292**	1	-.251**	-.069	-.108
5	Psychological Safety	5.35	.75684	.605**	.597**	.683**	-.251**	1	.201**	.220**
6	In – Role Performance Behaviors	5.13	.74315	.169*	.157*	.151*	-.069	.201**	1	.775**
7	Extra – Role Performance Behaviors	5.28	.64085	.320**	.236**	.210**	-.108	.220**	.775**	1

N=221, ** p< .001; * p< .005, (2-tailed)

When we summarize the findings regarding the hypothesis of the study;

- positive relations were found between psychological contract and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors which supported the Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1b of the study ($r=0.169$; $p<.005$ and $r=0.320$; $p<.001$).
- positive relations were found between organizational transparency and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors which supported the Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b of the study ($r=0.151$; $p<.005$ and $r=0.210$; $p<.001$).
- positive relations were found between leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors which supported the Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b of the study ($r=0.157$; $p<.005$ and $r=0.236$; $p<.001$).

Moreover, the correlations between all variables were investigated in order to find out if there is a multicollinearity problem. Multicollinearity is the correlation between three or more independent variables and occurs when a variable in an analysis can be explained by the other variables (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010, p.197; 214) concluded that "the presence of high correlations as .90 or higher is the first indication of substantial collinearity" and suggested the Variance Inflation Factor Value (VIF) cut off point as 10.0. As parallel to Hair et al. (2010), Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk (2016, p.35) mentioned that, multicollinearity problem exists between the variables when Pearson Correlation Coefficient is bigger than $r>.90$ and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value is equal or above 10.0.

In the study, no multicollinearity problem was observed as Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) results were lower than .90 between the variables with a VIF value of less than 2.8.

Moreover, the collinearity between the dependent variables in-role and extra-role performance behaviors was also found to be on an acceptable level ($r=0.775$; $p<.001$) resulting by a VIF value of 1.123. Additionally, factor analysis was also conducted by introducing all the in-role and extra-role performance behavior questions into the analysis and the in-role and extra-role performance behavior questions loaded under different factors.

4.3. Mediator Analysis Findings

Mediation effect occurs when a third variable intervenes between the dependent and independent variables (Hair et al., 2010) and the casual effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is transmitted by another variable called “mediator” variable (Preacher, Rucker and Hayes, 2007). In the mediator relationship, there should be significant correlations between all the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). If the mediator variable totally explains the relationship between the independent and dependent variable, then it is called “complete mediation” and if the relationship fully cannot be explained away by the mediator, then it called “partial mediation” (Hair et al., 2010).

According to Baron and Kenny (2006), the steps of the mediator analysis was defined as below;

- First, the independent variable must affect the mediator
- Second, the independent variable must affect the dependent variable
- Third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable

The perfect mediation occurs under the conditions of no effect of independent variable on dependent variable when the mediator is controlled, and the partial mediation occurs if the effect of independent variable has lower coefficients (Baron and Kenny, 2006).

4.3.1. Mediator Analysis of Psychological Safety Between Organizational Transparency and In-Role Employee Performance Behaviors

In the study, first, the mediator role of psychological safety was tested between the organizational transparency and in-role employee performance behaviors as hypothesized in H4a.

The three steps multiple regression analyses were applied in order to test the mediator role of psychological safety as presented in Table 16.

- First, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the mediating variable, psychological safety

- Second, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the dependent variable, in-role performance behavior
- Third, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the dependent variable, in-role performance behavior with the addition of the mediator variable, psychological safety.

Table 16. The Mediating Role of Psychological Safety Between Organizational Transparency and In-Role Performance Behaviors

Dependent Variable: In-role Performance Behavior					
Variables	B	β	R^2	Adj. R^2	F
Step 1 Organizational Transparency	.668	.683**	.466**	.463**	191.056
Step 2 Organizational Transparency	.145	.151*	.023*	.018*	5.108
Step 3 Organizational Transparency Psychological Safety	.025 .180*	.026 .183*	.041*	.032*	4.621

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001
Step 1: Dependent variable: Psychological Safety; Independent variable: Organizational Transparency
Step 2: Dependent variable: In-Role Performance Behaviors; Independent variable: Organizational Transparency
Step 3: Dependent variable: In-Role Performance Behaviors; Independent variables: Organizational Transparency and Psychological Safety

According to the results of Table 16, Step 1 and 2 had significant results (r=0.683, p<.001; r=0.151, p<0.05) which were in parallel to Baron and Kenny's (2006) first two steps. Also, the mediating variable, psychological safety and the independent variable, in-role performance behavior had significant relation (r=0.201, p<.001) which was already mentioned in the correlation Table 15.

In Step 3, after the addition of the mediating variable into the analysis, the impact of independent variable on dependent variable has changed as insignificant, and the mediator variable had significant result (r=0.183, p<0.05) which supported the full mediation results. Thus, according to the results, it can be concluded that psychological safety is a full mediator between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors. Accordingly, Hypothesis H4a was fully supported.

4.3.2. Mediator Analysis of Psychological Safety Between Organizational Transparency and Extra-Role Employee Performance Behaviors

To test hypothesis H4b, the mediator role of psychological safety was tested between the organizational transparency and extra-role employee performance behaviors and the results were presented in Table 17.

Again, the three steps multiple regression analyses were applied to test the mediator role of psychological safety.

- First, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the mediating variable, psychological safety
- Second, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the dependent variable, extra-role performance behavior
- Third, a multiple regression analysis conducted between the independent variable, organizational transparency and the dependent variable, extra-role performance behavior with the addition of the mediator variable, psychological safety.

Table 17. The Mediating Role of Psychological Safety Between Organizational Transparency and Extra-Role Performance Behaviors

Dependent Variable: Extra-role Performance Behaviors					
Variables	B	β	R^2	Adj. R^2	F
Step 1 Organizational Transparency	.668**	.683**	.466**	.463**	191.056
Step 2 Organizational Transparency	.174**	.210**	.044**	.040**	10.082
Step 3 Organizational Transparency Psychological Safety	.092 .122	.111 .144	.055	.046	6.362

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001
Step 1: Dependent variable: Psychological Safety; Independent variable: Organizational Transparency
Step 2: Dependent variable: Extra-Role Performance Behaviors; Independent variable: Organizational Transparency
Step 3: Dependent variable: Extra-Role Performance Behaviors; Independent variables: Organizational Transparency and Psychological Safety

According to the results of Table 17, Step 1 and 2 had significant results (r=0.683, p<.001; r=0.210, p<0.01). However, in Step 3, after the addition of the mediating variable into the analysis, the impact of both independent variable and the mediating variable on dependent variable had insignificant results.

Thus, the results reveal that psychological safety did not have a mediator role between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors. Accordingly, Hypothesis H4b was not supported.

4.4. Moderator Analysis Findings

As discussed in the hypothesis development section of the study, perception of job insecurity was considered to play a moderator role between leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors in hypothesis H5a and H5b.

Moderation occurs when the strength of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable is dependent on another variable (Preacher, Rucker and Hayes, 2007). Thus, the moderator variable with an interaction effect with the dependent variable, changes the direction or the strength of the relationship between the variables (Hair et al., 2010; Baron and Kenny, 2006). In order to test the moderating role of job

insecurity perception of the employees, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the interaction effect was analyzed.

4.4.1. Moderator Analysis of Job Insecurity Between LMX and In-Role Performance Behavior

Table 18, presents the results of the analysis of the moderator role of job insecurity between leader-member exchange and in-role performance behaviors. In the first step, the leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect. Secondly, the leader-member exchange and the perception of job insecurity both entered the analysis for defining the expletory power of the model. On the final step, the interaction effect between the variables were analyzed.

The results revealed that the job insecurity did not have a moderator role between the leader-member exchange and in-role performance behavior because the interaction effect was insignificant (p=0.569) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was reduced from .017 to .014. Accordingly, Hypothesis H5a was not supported.

Table 18. The Moderator Role of Job Insecurity Between Leader - Member Exchange & In-Role Performance Behavior

Dependent Variable: In-Role Performance Behaviors				
Independent Variables	B	Significance	Adj. R^2	F
Step 1 Leader Member Exchange	.157	.019	.020	5.566*
Step 2 Leader Member Exchange Job Insecurity	.150 -.031	.032 .657	.017	2.872
Step 3 Leader Member Exchange x Job Insecurity	-.038	.569	.014	2.017

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001

4.4.2. Moderator Analysis of Job Insecurity Between LMX and Extra-Role Performance Behavior

Table 19 presents the results of the analysis of the moderator role of job insecurity between leader-member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.

Table 19. The Moderator Role of Job Insecurity Between Leader - Member Exchange & In-Role Performance Behavior

Dependent Variable: Extra-Role Performance Behaviors				
Independent Variables	B	Significance	Adj. R^2	F
Step 1 Leader Member Exchange	.236	.000	.051	12.888**
Step 2 Leader Member Exchange Job Insecurity	.223 -.051	.001 .452	.049	6.716
Step 3 Leader Member Exchange x Job Insecurity	-.025	.704	.046	4.508

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001

Again, the results revealed that the job insecurity did not have a moderator role between the leader-member exchange and extra-role performance behavior because the interaction effect was insignificant (p=0.704) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was reduced from .049 to .046. Accordingly, hypothesis H5b was also not supported.

4.5. Analysis of the Comparative Tests

In the study, t-test were also applied that finds out whether the means of two different groups were statistically different from each other or not (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The t-tests were conducted regarding to the demographic variables as gender, age, education, work experience and company experience.

4.5.1. Independent Samples T-Tests for Gender

In the study, the first demographic variable which the t-tests were applied was gender. The means of females and males were compared in terms of in-role performance

behavior, extra-role performance behavior, psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity scores. As figured out in Table 20 and Table 21, significant difference of leader-member exchange mean scores were found between females and males ($p=0.018$; $p<0.05$) with a female mean score of 5.39 and a male mean score of 5.59.

Table 20. Gender and Leader-Member Exchange Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LMX	Female	69	5.39	0.58148	0.0700
	Male	152	5.59	0.56375	0.0457

Table 21. Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Leader-Member Exchange

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
LMX	**Equal variances assumed**	1.693	.195	-2.391	219	.018	-.19761	.08264
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.363	127.923	.020	-.19761	.08361

As further, significant differences were also found on the psychological safety mean scores between females and males ($p=0.044$; $p<0.05$) with a female mean score of 5.19 male mean score of 5.42 which is presented in Table 22 and Table 23.

Table 22. Gender and Psychological Safety Summary

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Safety	Female	69	5.19	0.84488	0.1017
	Male	152	5.42	0.70548	0.0572

Table 23. Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Psychological Safety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Safety	Equal variances assumed	1.705	.193	-2.029	219	.044	-.22136	.10909
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.897	112.770	.060	-.22136	.11670

4.5.2. Independent Samples T-Tests for Age

The second variable tested as demographic variable was age. The age was categorized into two as (1) employees aged 32 years old and below and (2) employees aged 33 years old and above.

As figured out in Table 24 and Table 25, significant difference of organizational transparency mean scores were found between the employees aged 32 years old and below and 33 years old and above ($p=0.021$; $p<0.05$) with a mean score of 5.15 and 5.39 respectively.

Table 24. Age and Organizational Transparency Summary

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Organizational Transparency	1	115	5.15	0.78014	0.72275
	2	106	5.39	0.74914	0.07276

Table 25. Independent Sample T-Test of Age and Organizational Transparency

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Organizational Transparency	Equal variances assumed	.203	.653	-2.316	219	.021	-.23874	.10306
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.320	218.627	.021	-.23874	.10289

Again, significant differences were found on the psychological safety mean scores between these two age categories ($p=0.008$; $p<0.05$) with mean scores of 5.22 and 5.49 respectively which are presented in Table 26 and Table 27.

Table 26. Age and Psychological Safety Summary

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Safety	1	115	5.22	0.82026	0.07649
	2	106	5.49	0.65718	0.06383

Table 27. Independent Sample T-Test of Age and Psychological Safety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Safety	Equal variances assumed	6.610	.014	-2.668	219	.008	-.26821	.10052
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.692	214.908	.008	-.26821	.09962

As further, significant differences were also found on the job insecurity mean scores between these two age categories (p=.026; p<0.05) with mean scores of 2.51 and 2.14 respectively which are presented in Table 28 and Table 29.

Table 28. Age and Job Insecurity Summary

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Job Insecurity	1	115	2.51	1.23477	0.11514
	2	106	2.14	1.17461	0.11409

Table 29. Independent Sample T-Test of Age and Job Insecurity

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Job Insecurity	**Equal variances assumed**	.207	.650	2.244	219	.026	.36455	.16242
	Equal variances not assumed			2.249	218.777	.026	.36455	.16209

4.5.3. Independent Samples T-Tests for Education Level

To test whether there is a difference according to the education level, Anova test was applied and the results were insignificant. There were no differences in the variables of the scales with relation to education which was categorized into five different levels in the questionnaires as primary school, high school, university, masters and PhD degrees. This was related to the fact of the population of individual groups. Some educational groups had less than 30 participants and when compared, the size of the educational groups did differ highly. As Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko (2013, p.132) indicated, for the Anova tests, the observation numbers of the compared groups should not be less than 30 and the observation numbers of the groups should be close to each other (Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko, 2013; Karagöz, 2016), which was not the case in this anova analysis.

Consequently, the population was grouped in two categories as (1) employees with primary and high school graduates, (2) employees with a university degree including masters and PhD. The groups then had 111 employees and 110 employees respectively (see Table 30), which was a balanced population. According to the results, as seen in Table 31, significant differences were found on the leader member exchange mean scores between group 1 (primary and high school graduates) and group 2 (university degree including masters and PhD) with a mean score of 5.61 and 5.45 respectively ($p=0.042$; $p<0.05$).

Table 30. Education Level and Leader-Member Exchange Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LMX	1	111	5.61	0.52298	0.0496
	2	110	5.45	0.61616	0.0587

Table 31. Independent Sample T-Test of Education Level and Leader-Member Exchange

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
LMX	**Equal variances assumed**	4.074	.045	2.047	219	0.042	.15733	.0768
	Equal variances not assumed			2.046	212.744	0.042	.15733	.0769

As presented in Table 32 and Table 33, significant differences were also found on the organizational transparency mean scores between group 1 (primary and high school graduates) and group 2 (university degree including masters and PhD) with a mean score of 5.39 and 5.14 respectively ($p=0.015$; $p<0.05$).

Table 32. Education Level and Organizational Transparency Summary

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Organizational Transparency	1	111	5.39	0.69236	0.0657
	2	110	5.14	0.83070	0.0792

Table 33. Independent Sample T-Test of Education Level and Organizational Transparency

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Organizational Transparency	Equal variances assumed	3.147	.077	2.450	219	0.015	.2519	.1028
	Equal variances not assumed			2.448	211.438	0.015	.2519	.1029

4.5.4. Independent Samples T-Tests for Work Experience and Company Experience

The demographic variables of total work experience and company experience years of the employees were also grouped to have a more homogeneous distribution. Afterwards, t tests applied and the mean scores of significant differences between the groups were analyzed.

As seen in Table 34 and Table 35, total work experience of the employees was categorized as (1) employees with work experience of 10 years and below, (2) employees with work experience of 11 years and above. The groups had 115 and 106 employees respectively with significant mean differences of 5.00 and 5.27 regarding to in-role performance behaviors ($p=0.008$; $p<0.05$).

Table 34. Work Experience and In-Role Performance Behavior Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
In-Role Performance Behavior	1	115	5.00	0.77151	0.7194
	2	106	5.27	0.68872	0.6689

Table 35. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and In-Role Performance Behaviors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
In-Role Performance Behaviors	Equal variances assumed	.136	.071	-2.673	219	0.008	-.26384	.9869
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.686	218.782	0.008	-.26384	.9824

As seen in Table 36 and Table 37, the means of total work experience of the employees was also significantly different regarding to extra-role employee performance scores of the employees. Employees with work experience of 10 years and below (1) had a mean score of 5.19, whereas employees with work experience of 11 years and above had a mean score of 5.39 ($p=0.022$; $p<0.05$).

Table 36. Work Experience and Extra-Role Performance Behavior Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extra-Role Performance Behavior	1	115	5.19	0.69195	0.6452
	2	106	5.39	0.56598	0.5497

Table 37. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and Extra-Role Performance Behaviors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Extra-Role Performance Behaviors	Equal variances assumed	2.251	.135	-2.302	219	0.022	-.19675	.8548
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.321	215.999	0.021	-.19675	.8477

Again, as presented in Table 38 and Table 39, the means of total work experience of the employees was also significantly different regarding to psychological contract scores of the employees. Employees with work experience of 10 years and below (1) had a mean score of 5.35, whereas employees with work experience of 11 years and above had a mean score of 5.52 ($p=0.048$; $p<0.05$).

Table 38. Work Experience and Psychological Contract Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Contract	1	115	5.35	0.50969	0.04753
	2	106	5.52	0.75534	0.07337

Table 39. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and Psychological Contract

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Contract	**Equal variances assumed**	2.192	.140	-1.990	219	0.048	-.17127	.8609
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.959	182.088	0.052	-.17127	.8742

Furthermore, the means of total work experience of the employees was also significantly different regarding to organizational transparency scores as presented in Table 40 and Table 41. Employees with work experience of 10 years and below (1) had a mean score of 5.15, whereas employees with work experience of 11 years and above had a mean score of 5.39 ($p=0.024$; $p<0.05$).

Table 40. Work Experience and Organizational Transparency Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Organizational Transparency	1	115	5.15	0.77548	0.07231
	2	106	5.39	0.75519	0.07335

Table 41. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and Organizational Transparency

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Organizational Transparency	**Equal variances assumed**	0.102	.749	-2.266	219	0.024	-.23370	.10312
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.269	218.330	0.024	-.23370	.10300

When the mean scores of total works experience of the employees was compared regarding to psychological safety, significant difference was again found as presented in in Table 42 and Table 43. Employees with work experience of 10 years and below (1) had a mean score of 5.20, whereas employees with work experience of 11 years and above had a mean score of 5.50 ($p=0.003$; $p<0.05$).

Table 42. Work Experience and Psychological Safety Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Safety	1	115	5.20	0.78799	0.07348
	2	106	5.50	0.69207	0.06722

Table 43. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and Psychological Safety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Safety	Equal variances assumed	3.231	.074	-2.989	219	0.003	-.29929	.10012
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.005	218.502	0.003	-.29929	.09959

Finally, the means of total work experience of the employees was also significantly different regarding to job insecurity scores of the employees as presented in Table 44 and Table 45. Employees with work experience of 10 years and below (1) had a mean score of 2.55, whereas employees with work experience of 11 years and above had a mean score of 2.10 ($p=0.005$; $p<0.05$).

Table 44. Work Experience and Job Insecurity Summary

	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Job Insecurity	1	115	2.55	1.23190	0.11488
	2	106	2.10	1.16165	0.11283

Table 45. Independent Sample T-Test of Work Experience and Job Insecurity

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Job Insecurity	Equal variances assumed	0.229	.633	2.806	219	0.005	.45293	.16141
	Equal variances not assumed			2.813	218.883	0.005	.45293	.16102

To compare the company experience means of the employees, employees were categorized into two as (1) employees with company experience of 6 years and below and (2) employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above with a total number of 136 and 85 respectively.

As presented in Table 46 and Table 47, the mean scores of the employee company experience was significantly different regarding to in-role performance behavior scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.03, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.29 ($p=0.012$; $p<0.05$).

Table 46. Company Experience and In-Role Performance Behavior Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
In-Role Performance Behavior	1	136	5.03	.77935	0.06683
	2	85	5.29	.65481	0.07102

Table 47. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and In-Role Performance Behavior

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
In-Role Performance Behavior	**Equal variances assumed**	2.158	.143	-2.544	219	0.012	-.25817	.10150
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.647	200.696	0.009	-.25817	.09752

As presented in Table 48 and Table 49, the mean scores of the employee company experience was also significantly different regarding to extra-role performance behavior scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.20, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.41 ($p=0.009$; $p<0.05$).

Table 48. Company Experience and Extra-Role Performance Behavior Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extra-Role Performance Behavior	1	136	5.20	.70404	0.06037
	2	85	5.41	.50082	0.0543

Table 49. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and Extra-Role Performance Behavior

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Extra-Role Performance Behavior	**Equal variances assumed**	7.099	.008	-2.428	219	0.016	-.21277	.08764
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.620	215.289	0.009	-.21277	.08121

As presented in Table 50 and Table 51, the mean scores of the employee company experience was significantly different regarding to psychological contract scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.31, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.62 ($p=0.000$; $p<0.05$).

Table 50. Company Experience and Psychological Contract Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Contract	1	136	5.31	.62535	0.05362
	2	85	5.62	.63015	0.06835

Table 51. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and Psychological Contract

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Contract	**Equal variances assumed**	3.063	.081	-3.562	219	0.000	-.30892	.08672
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.556	177.409	0.000	-.30892	.08687

As presented in Table 52 and Table 53, the mean scores of the employee company experience was significantly different regarding to organizational transparency scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.16, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.43 ($p=0.010$; $p<0.05$).

Table 52. Company Experience and Organizational Transparency Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Organizational Transparency	1	136	5.16	.77130	0.06614
	2	85	5.43	.74999	0.08135

Table 53. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and Organizational Transparency

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Contract	Equal variances assumed	0.690	.407	-2.585	219	0.010	-.27279	.10552
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.602	182.215	0.010	-.27279	.10484

As presented in Table 54 and Table 55, the mean scores of the employee company experience was significantly different regarding to leader member exchange scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.46, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.63 ($p=0.033$; $p<0.05$).

Table 54. Company Experience and Leader Member Exchange Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LMX	1	136	5.46	.55567	0.04765
	2	85	5.63	.59412	0.06444

Table 55. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and Leader - Member Exchange

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
LMX	Equal variances assumed	0.868	.353	-2.146	219	0.033	-.16936	.07891
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.113	169.443	0.036	-.16936	.08014

Finally, as presented in Table 56 and Table 57, the mean scores of the employee company experience was also significantly different regarding to psychological safety scores. Employees with company experience of 6 years and below had a mean score of 5.23, whereas employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had a mean score of 5.53 ($p=0.004$; $p<0.05$).

Table 56. Company Experience and Psychological Safety Summary

	Company Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Psychological Safety	1	136	5.23	.74658	0.06402
	2	85	5.53	.74031	0.08030

Table 57. Independent Sample T-Test of Company Experience and Psychological Safety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Psychological Safety	**Equal variances assumed**	0.869	.352	-2.924	219	0.004	-.30084	.10290
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.929	179.579	0.004	-.30084	.10269

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary of the Hypothesis Findings

The field study was completed, and the descriptive statistics were investigated to test the hypothesis successfully. Hence, according to the statistical analysis that were conducted and presented in the previous section of the study, the results of the hypothesis is presented in Table 58. As a result, most of the hypothesis were supported positively, which Beta values are summarized graphically in Figure 4 to be further discussed below.

Table 58: Summary of the Hypothesis of the Study

	Hypothesis of the Study	Findings
H1a	There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and in-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H1b	There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and extra-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H2a	There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H2b	There is a positive relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H3a	There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H3b	There is a positive relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H4a	Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors.	Supported
H4b	Perceived psychological safety mediates the relationship between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behaviors.	Not Supported
H5a	Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and in-role performance behaviors	Not Supported
H5b	Perceived job insecurity has a significant moderating role on the relationship between leader member exchange and extra-role performance behaviors.	Not Supported

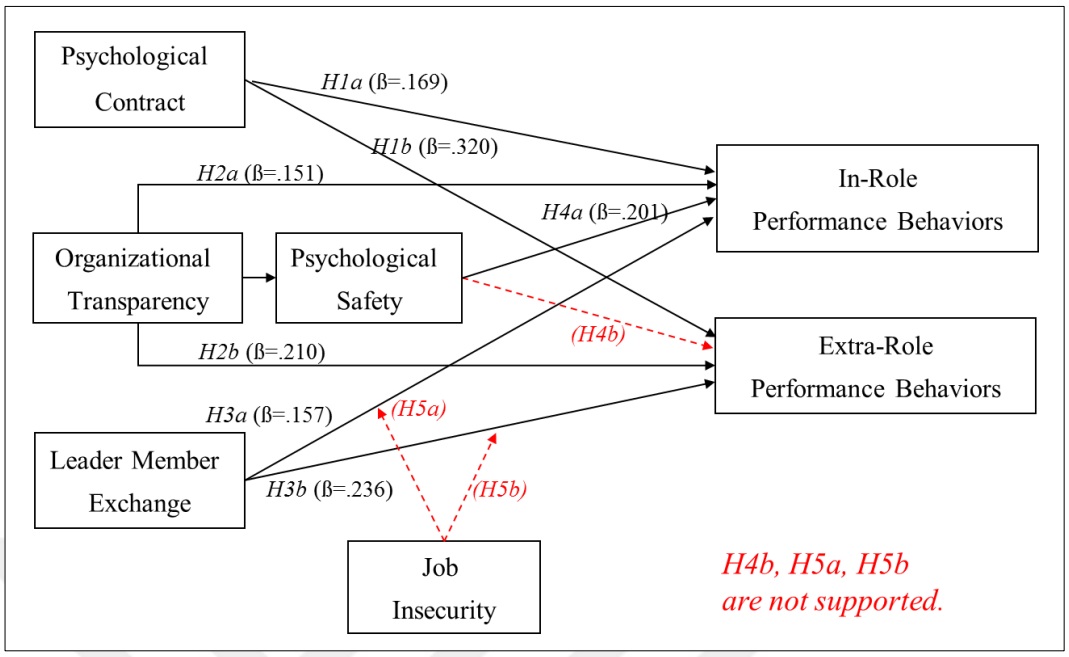

Figure 4. Results of the Hypothesis Tests

5.2. Discussion on the Study

The aim of the study is to investigate the employee performance behaviors of the employees in the hospitality sector to find out the relations between psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange with employee performance behaviors. Furthermore, the mediating role of psychological safety and the moderating role of job insecurity were also studied herewith. Before starting the discussion, it should be emphasized that the study was based on a context modeling survey and should be referred to the characteristics of the sample, which represents the hospitality sector.

Furthermore, it should be underlined that multiple source data collection approach was utilized in the survey. Consequently, two different data sources were used for collecting the data: While in-role and extra-role employee performance behavior scales were filled by supervisors and managers, all the other scales including psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity were filled by the subordinates. This simply minimizes the single source bias and enhances the quality of the data. Consequently, this multiple source data

collection method delivered a major contribution to the literature, especially for the hospitality sector studies in Turkey. Even though single source data collection method may create significant relations between variables, it also may lead to common method variance problems (Grayson et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the multiple source method, the correlations between the variables may be lower, but there is no common variance problem and thus the multiple source method is suggested (Grayson et al., 2002).

The main research question of the study was the existence of the in-role and extra role performance behaviors shown by the employees in the hospitality sector. In-role employee performance scale was set with 9 items with 6 from Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) "Job Performance Scale" and 3 from Williams and Anderson's (1991) "Job Performance Scale". According to the results of the study, all these items were consolidated in only one factor named also as in-role performance behavior. The mean of these 9 items was 5.13, which confirmed that employees show high in-role performance behavior in the hotel. Furthermore, the extra-role performance behaviors were investigated with 19 items dominated with three factors, in which common mean was high with 5.28 as well. This result confirmed the high extra-role performance of the employees. Consequently, the first research question was answered positively, which was in line with the findings of Yeşiltaş (2014) for the hotel employees in Turkey.

In the research of psychological contract levels of the employees, Raja and colleagues' (2004) psychological contract scale was used. The original scale consists of 18 items and 2 factors, in which 9 items were related with transactional contract levels and the other 9 items were related with relational contract levels of the employees. In this study, 2 items were removed from the scale of Raja and colleagues (2004) due to the low Cronbach alpha values. Another difference was that the remaining 16 items had 3 factors instead of the 2 factors of Raja and colleagues (2004), from which the first two were labeled as transactional and relational psychological contract, and the third factor was labeled as career expectations, which did consist of 3 questions as (i) I expect to gain promotion in this company with length of service and effort to achieve goals, (ii) I expect to grow in this organization and (iii) my career path in the organization is clearly mapped out. This is an interesting finding with respect to local cultural perceptions: It can be assumed that the career expectation in the Turkish culture is an important factor in the

psychological contract of the employees, i.e. employees who think can get better promotions within their upcoming career, do perform better in Turkey. This is beyond the scale also an important managerial implication that managers should plan career development respectively. Furthermore, 52% of the participants had a work experience of 10 years and lower so they also may be concentrating on career development more, since they are in the beginning of their career and thus they may have many expectations from their upcoming life.

In the study, organizational transparency scale consisting of 19 items, loaded into two factors which were labeled as transparency and accountability. As mentioned before, 15 items were from Rawlins's (2006) "Organizational Transparency Scale" which has 4 factors as overall transparency, participation, substantial information and accountability factors. 4 items were added from Yılmaz's thesis (2012), which were applied successfully in this study that the combinations were proven to be consistent.

In the original research of Liden and Maslyn (1998) the 12-item scale had 4 factors as professional respect, affect, contribution to the exchange and loyalty. In this study, the scale had only 2 factors. The 1st factor included professional respect, affect and contribution to the exchange. The 2nd factor included items representing loyalty, which was labeled as loyalty and concern. Similarly, Yıldız, Özutku and Cevrioğlu (2008) did use Liden and Maslyn's (1998) in a study in Turkey for lecturers, where they concluded in 3 factors as affect, contribution to the exchange and professional respect. Because of the low internal consistency results, they removed the items related with loyalty in their study. Furthermore, Taştan (2014a) also researched in the food and drink service sector employees in Istanbul and Liden and Maslyn's (1998) scale had 3 dimensions as loyalty and respect, affect and contribution to the exchange. As a result, this study contributes to the applicability of Liden and Maslyn's (1998) scale to the Turkish hospitality sector, when regrouping the scale in new factor distribution. Similarly, the psychological safety scale of Edmondson's (1999) was used in the study successfully with only one factor as in original, as further contribution to the literature.

Another deviation in the factorial disposition was when using De Witte's (2013) job insecurity scale items. Instead of the two factors, cognitive and affective perception of job insecurity, only one factor was determined in the statistical assessment as job

insecurity, which can be explained by the low level of the job insecurity perception in the study with a mean score of 2.3. In other words, it can be concluded that when employees do not fear much of a potential job loss, they do not differentiate between cognitive and affective perceptions.

In the study, t-tests were applied according to the demographic variables of gender, age, education level, work experience and company experience of the employees regarding to the variables of the study. In terms of gender, significance difference was found on the leader member exchange and psychological safety mean scores ($p=.018$; $p<0.05$; $p=.044$; $p<0.05$;) where the male employees had higher leader-member exchange and psychological safety scores when compared with women. Flynn, Haynes and Kilgour (2015) also confirmed higher psychological safety levels of males in their study. The t-tests related with the age of the employees confirmed the significant differences of mean scores of organizational transparency ($p=.021$; $p<0.05$), psychological safety ($p=.008$; $p<0.05$) and job insecurity ($p=.026$; $p<0.05$) levels between the employees aged 32 years old and below compared with aged 33 years old and above. It was confirmed that employees who were 33 years old and above had higher levels of organizational transparency and psychological safety whereas they showed lower levels of job insecurity. Moreover, primary school and high school graduated employees had higher levels of leader member exchange and organizational transparency mean scores when compared with university degree graduated employees including masters and PhD ($p=.042$; $p<0.05$; $p=.015$; $p<0.05$). Ürek (2015) also confirmed the higher scores of primary and high schools graduated employees when compared with university graduated employees regarding to leader member exchange.

Additionally, employees with work experience of 10 years and below and, employees with work experience of 11 years and above were also compared regarding to the mean scores of the related variables. The employees with work experience of 11 years and above had significantly higher mean scores in terms of in-role ($p=0.008$; $p<0.05$) and extra-role ($p=0.022$; $p<0.05$) performance behaviors, psychological contract ($p=0.048$; $p<0.05$), organizational transparency ($p=0.024$; $p<0.05$), psychological safety ($p=0.003$; $p<0.05$) and lower mean scores in job insecurity levels ($p=0.005$; $p<0.05$). Furthermore, employees with company experience of 6 years and below were compared to employees

with company experience of 6.5 years and above regarding to the mean scores of the related variables. The employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had significantly higher mean scores in terms of in-role ($p=0.012$; $p<0.05$) and extra-role ($p=0.009$; $p<0.05$) performance behaviors, psychological contract ($p=0.000$; $p<0.05$), organizational transparency ($p=0.010$; $p<0.05$), leader member exchange ($p=0.033$; $p<0.05$) and psychological safety ($p=0.004$; $p<0.05$) mean scores. The results confirmed that long years of work and company experience increases the in-role and extra-role employee performance, psychological contract, organizational transparency and psychological safety score levels of the employees. Özkütük et al. (2012) also confirmed that the nurses with higher occupational work experience years shows more organizational citizenship behaviors.

The first finding related with the hypothesis of the study was that the relation between psychological contract and the in-role performance behaviors of the employees was significant. The mean score of psychological contract scale was 5.43, which represented the high psychological contract levels of the employees. Additionally, a positive weak relation was found between psychological contract and in-role performance behaviors of the employees ($r=0.169$; $p<.005$) as well, emphasizing that in-role performance behaviors of the employees increases, when they have higher psychological contract levels. Thus, the results supported H1a. Consequently, these findings were in line with the literature review as in Turnley et al. (2003), also confirmed the relation of psychological contract fulfillment and in-role performance behaviors in a study. Additionally, Lu et al.'s (2016) findings in the tourism sector were confirmed, that relational contract of the employees has a positive relation with service oriented in-role performance behaviors.

Another finding of the study was that there is a positive relation between psychological contract and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees, where a moderate positive correlation of ($r=0.320$; $p<.001$) was found. Consequently, the results of the study supported H1b. This also confirms the studies of Li (2014) and Lu et al. (2016) in the tourism sector in Taiwan and Philippines.

Hypothesis H2a and H2b regarding the relation between organizational transparency and in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees were represented in this study with a weak positive correlation for in-role ($r=0.151$; $p<.005$) and for extra-role

(r=0.210; p<.001) performance behaviors. In the study, organizational transparency mean score was found as 5.27, which reflects the high transparent culture of the organization. As a result, it can be stated that transparency in an organization increases the in-role and extra-role performance of the employees. Again, the findings of the study were in-line with Fung (2014), mentioning that a transparent management leads the trust, which according to Korsgaard, Brodt and Whitener (2002) leads to OCB. Palanski, Kahai and Yammarino (2011) also confirmed that the transparency in the teams has a positive relation with team integrity that enables the trust and in turn affecting the team performance positively. Furthermore, by the balance of transparency and privacy, employees share their opinions openly and feel accountable, and the performance increases (Bernstein, 2014).

In the study, Hypothesis H3a and H3b were also supported, as positive relations were found between leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors of the employees (r=0.157; p<.005 and r=0.236; p<.001). The mean score of LMX scale was 5.53, remarking the high quality level of supervisor and subordinate relations. The results emphasized the importance of leader-member exchange in the organizations as it was confirmed that, the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees increases when high level leader-member exchange with supervisors. This was in-line with Wayne et al., (2002) and Lonsdale (2016), Trybou et al. (2013), Loi et al., (2011) and especially in Turkey with Ürek (2015) and Çetin et al. (2012).

Then, the mediating role of psychological safety was confirmed as significant between organizational transparency and in-role performance behaviors. The statistical analysis confirmed that psychological contract had a full mediating role (r=0.183, p<0.05), supporting Hypothesis H4a. In the study, the mean score for psychological safety was 5.35, which represents a high psychological safety perception of the employees. It can be concluded that transparency in the organization enables employees to feel themselves psychologically safe which in turn effects the in-role employee performance in a positive manner. In other words, the psychological safety had more impact on the in-role performance behaviors of employees compared with organizational transparency. Again, this finding was parallel to the literature of Yi et al. (2016), who also confirmed

the mediating role of psychological safety in the relation of leader's transparent behaviors and employees' ability to focus.

However, Hypothesis H4b was not supported in the study, where the mediating role of psychological safety was investigated between organizational transparency and extra-role performance behavior. The results of Hypothesis H4b were different than the literature, which was defined by Deter and Burris (2007). This means that the extra-role performance behavior does not necessarily implies a mediating role of psychological safety despite positive correlation of both, organizational transparency and psychological safety with extra-role behavior.

Finally, hypothesis H5a and H5b were not supported. The results concluded that the employees' perception of job insecurity did not have a moderator role between the leader-member exchange and in-role performance behaviors as the interaction effect was insignificant ($p=0.569$) so Hypothesis H5a was not supported. As further, the employees' perception of job insecurity did not have a moderator role between the leader-member exchange and extra-role performance behavior because the interaction effect was again insignificant ($p=0.704$). Accordingly, Hypothesis H5b was also not supported. Additionally, the relation between the perception of job insecurity and in-role and extra-role performance behavior were also non-significant. These findings were unexpected and not consistent with the literature studies as Loi et al. (2011), who indicated that LMX had positive relations with altruism and work performance where the job security had a moderating role as relation between LMX and altruism was stronger under the lower levels of job security perception. There is a logical explanation: The job insecurity results should be considered as contextual because of the specific characteristics of the sample hotel. In the study, the job insecurity levels of the employees were expected to be high due to the fluctuations in the tourism sector, which may affect the relation between leader-member exchange and the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors. However, in the sample hotel, the job insecurity perception of the employees was low with a mean score of 2.33. By this low result, the moderating role of job insecurity became non-significant. This unexpected result can be explained by the sample hotel's well-known history in providing fair work environment and protection of employee rights. It can be concluded that previous good experiences of the employees lead them to feel safe in their work and

lowers the job insecurity perception. Thus, with the effect of all these circumstances, the moderating role of job insecurity could not be supported.

All in one, the relations of psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange are higher with extra-role performance behaviors of the employees, when compared with in-role performance behaviors. It can be concluded that the employees have a perception that task related jobs, which directs to in-role performance behaviors, are the ones that should be followed up and completed in any case. However, for an employee in the hotel, showing an extra-role performance behavior was much more related with having a high level of psychological contract with the organization, high transparency level of the organization and the quality of leader-member exchange with their supervisors.

5.3. Conclusion

Researchers in organizational behavior are working on models to maximize organizational performance, which is contributing further to the aggregated success of organizations. Personal contributions of the individuals are key for organizational success, and thus the behavioral patterns are an important focal point of organizational research. Within that context, employee performance behaviors are grouped mainly in in-role and extra-role behaviors, which are studied extensively in recent literature as well. Especially service industry and particularly hospitality sector emerge in this research due to the dominant impacts of these behaviors on individual, managerial and organizational results. From practical point of view, it is also essentially critical for the managers to find out the ways to increase the performance behaviors of their employees. Consequently, the antecedents of the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors were studied here by focusing on dimensions of the psychological contract, organizational transparency and leader-member exchange within the hospitality sector. Furthermore, psychological safety and job insecurity were also investigated with their mediator and moderator roles respectively. Therefore, first an in-depth literature review was made. Then ten hypotheses were set regarding relations, mediating and moderating effects on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors. After that a pilot study confirming seven scales was completed, which resulted in the main questionnaires. This was then statistically tested to evaluate the model, which was set with these hypotheses successfully.

Data was gathered from an established international luxury hotel in Istanbul, Turkey. There are two specific reasons for this sample. First there was no similar study in the hospitality sector, including a comprehensive model. Second, the study did also emerge from the need to improve performance of the hospitality business, which is one of the major driving forces of the economy in large cities. Consequently, the hotel management of the sample did support this research extensively and to our best knowledge the multiple source data collection method data was applied for the first time in the Turkish hospitality sector. This support was an enabler and maybe the reason why it was done for the first time, since this method requires intensive time and effort, but delivers better results.

According to these results of the analysis, significant positive relationships were found between psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member

exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors. The psychological contract positively impacts the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees, which was also in-line with the literature. There was also a significant positive relation between organizational transparency and in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees. Then, positive relations were also found between the leader-member exchange and in-role and extra-role employee performance behaviors of the employees as suggested initially by the literature. These results did confirm the antecedents in the initial model.

Furthermore, the mediating role of psychological safety between organizational transparency and in-role employee performance behaviors was confirmed, which was also supported by the literature. There, the psychological safety was found to have a higher impact on the in-role performance behaviors of employees, when compared with organizational transparency. However, the mediating role of psychological safety between organizational transparency and extra-role employee performance was not confirmed. Similarly, the moderating roles of job insecurity between leader member exchange and in/extra-role performance behaviors were not confirmed. This was inconsistence with the literature. The reason was assumed to be the low job insecurity scores of the employees in this sample. Consequently, for this specific sample in the Turkish luxury hospitality sector, these job insecurity results delivered a different perspective, which is contributing to the literature as well.

When looking on the scales, there are also several findings. First, the factor analysis results of the psychological contract scale are an important contribution for the hospitality sector studies, since instead of the classical two factorial approach of the literature, the items were classified statistically under three factors, one of which consolidated all career related items. The fact that the items related with career expectations of the employees were loaded under this third factor, indicates also the importance of career expectations for the employees. This result could be considered under academic implications for the further studies as well. Second, the organizational transparency is one of the dimensions which was not studied well in the hospitality sector. Therefore, the high scores of organizational transparency scale and the significant relations between in-role and extra-role performance scores emphasized the importance of transparency in the hotels,

underlining an academic and managerial implication of this research. Third, according to the applied t-test results, the significant differences of the mean scores concluded that; (i) male employees had higher mean scores on leader-member exchange and psychological safety dimensions, (ii) employees aged 33 and above had higher mean scores on organizational transparency, psychological contract and lower mean scores on job insecurity, (iii) primary and high school graduated employees showed higher means on leader-member exchange and organizational transparency scores when compared with university degree graduates including masters and PhD degree, (iv) employees with work experience of 11 years and above had higher mean scores on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors, psychological contract, organizational transparency and psychological safety scores while having a lower mean score on job insecurity when compared with employees with work experience of 10 years and below, (v) employees with company experience of 6.5 years and above had higher mean scores on in-role and extra-role performance behaviors, psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange and psychological safety scores when compared with employees with work experience of 6 years and below. Consequently, it was determined that higher work and company experience positively impact employee performance behaviors and the antecedents.

Outcomes of this research also constitute major managerial implications: First, the research demonstrated that career expectations play a critical role on the psychological contract levels of the employees. Consequently, the hotel management should focus on career development for the employees. Especially, internal transfers and promotions, cross training opportunities between departments and abroad employment possibilities should be provided by the management. Then, it is revealed from the study that the valued and respected relationships between the employee and the supervisor/manager have a direct effect on the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors. Thus, one important duty of the upper management could be defined as building close personal relationships with the employees. Besides, this sincere relationship could be developed by clear recognition and rewarding mechanisms for the further sustainability. Furthermore, the research results emphasized the importance of transparency in the organizations. Since transparent work environment increases the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors

of the employees, managers should be open in communication by telling the truth and explaining the reasons of their decisions. Consequently, the feedbacks shall be given in a proper way by also asking the opinions of the employees that the culture of the organization can be developed in a transparent manner. Similarly, the criticism should be provided with a positive feedback that further develops this environment. This supportive culture also could enable the perception of psychological safety that the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors of the employees could be increased. Finally, the extra-role employee performance behaviors should be recognized and integrated into the performance appraisal systems combined by a fair rewarding policy, which further could increase the organizational performance.

5.4. Limitations and Recommendations

The first limitation is related to the sectoral scope of the context. This study was focused on the hospitality sector. This delivers a limited coverage of the sample. It is for sure that studies across various sectors can acquire further different or additional findings regarding to the internal and external conditional factors. However, it does not affect the generality of the findings, since these findings are focused on and particularly descriptive of this narrow sectoral orientation. The motivation of this work is to gain understanding of the employee behaviors within hospitality sector that these results were found to be acceptable with this respect. Additionally, the study was conducted only in a single hotel sample located in Istanbul/Turkey, which is a very mature organization. Therefore, the findings should not be generalized to the whole Turkish hospitality sector, particularly to (i) new established hotels with their different organizational structure due to the building relationships of new hired employees, and to (ii) resort hotels in the southern part of Turkey with a seasonal operation frequency. The outcome however, was deliberately found as appropriate for the specific research question, i.e. hotel business was focused on and in the isolated atmosphere of a mature organization. As a result, influences of organizational growth were prevented, and the outcome of the research does deliver a robust description of the situation. Although, the number of respondents was limited, but statistically descriptive, due to single hotel application. This was inevitable due to practicality reasons, which however could be supported by further researchers.

Then, the sample hotel is part of an international chain. International chains do have standardized management systems and they have a high reputation for being a good and secure working environment with high career development potential. Moreover, the sample hotel is known by its high colleague engagement scores within the region, which makes it a unique environment as well. Considering that such organizations emphasize long-term commitments to sustain this reputation, it is obvious that they develop strong ties to employees. In addition, the hotel does operate for a very long time, and this royalty further contributes to the safe environment. Consequently, the low level of job insecurity might be related to or emphasized by this institutional structure. As a recommendation, this result could be further investigated in national hotels in large cities and in other international hotels to further quantify city hotel related behavioral patterns. At this point it shall be emphasized again that the holiday resort business is totally out of scope. Resort hotels do have a high turnover due to the closing season in the winter and the profile of the employees are different than city hotels. This work is focused on city hotels.

Furthermore, the interaction of the local content could be investigated, since different cultures and different behaviors are to be expected in distinct locations. A comprehensive study looking at different locations could lead to whether or not there is a difference in major cities. This would contribute to the research of local micro cultural interactions with the behavioral patterns. Also, other hospitality related businesses such as restaurants, spas or sport clubs could be looked at, since the core business of them are similar to the business of hotels. Such a wide coverage would also increase the sample size.

Additionally, the time horizon could be incorporated into the future research, where several organizational phases over time within larger samples could indicate the development of these behavioral patterns. Since the study was conducted by the data collected by cross sectional surveys, in which the interactions and changes between the variables were not measured and observed over periods. Thus, future researchers could design a longitudinal research study testing such relations over time.

Quantitative research method was used in the study, where qualitative data research could be incorporated. The combination of these two different methods would result in a mixed method, enabling the researcher to evaluate the quality of the dimensions derived from the literature. This potentially could also lead to specific dimensions for hospitality

sector as well, since mixed methods deliver more accurate and integrated information on a broader perspective (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). This also could be a further research area. Then, the multiple source data collection method was used in this study as the in-role and extra-role performance behaviors scales were answered by supervisors and managers by considering the employee performances. The multiple source of data collection was found to be a very robust and useful method. Consequently, it is highly recommended to researchers, since this also would deliver comparable results for the hospitality sector studies.

The statistical analysis can be extended in the future studies by including the sub-dimensions of the dependent variable. Consequently, organizational improvement, conscientiousness, and altruism dimensions associated to extra-role employee performance can be investigated subject to their relations with independent variables. Similarly, other sub-dimensional relations in independent variables can be investigated as well. This would deliver detailed interrelationships on focal points.

Finally, the scales related with psychological contract, organizational transparency, leader-member exchange, psychological safety and job insecurity were answered by the participants individually as self-reports. This might depend on the psychological condition and perception of external settings; thus, the self-reports could be assessed as not verifiable (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). With that respect, several bias problems can be confronted as well. These biases could be defined as (i) the "consistency motif" bias which refers to a desire to sustain a consistent line series of answers by the respondents, (ii) "one time" answering of the respondents to all variables which can be affected by the mood of the participant on that time frame, (iii) the "social desirability" of the participants in answering the questions in a socially desirable way by an upward tendency to represent themselves in a higher level than they really are (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Accordingly, further studies could be focused on minimizing the artefactual biases by individual interviews, which is however also a big challenge due to practicality reasons as well.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: In Role and Extra-Role Performance Behavior Questionnaires (Görev İçi ve Görev Ötesi Performans Davranışları Anketleri)

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Anabilim Dalı Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı'nda gerçekleştirilmekte olan bir akademik araştırmaya veri tabanı sağlamak üzere hazırlanmış olup, katılımcıların görüşlerini almayı amaçlamaktadır.

- Lütfen anketin üzerine hiçbir şekilde kimliğinizi belirtecek bir yazı yazmayınız.
- Anket sonuçları araştırmacıda saklı kalacaktır.
- Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi atlamadan ve boş bırakmadan değerlendirmenizi yapınız.

Bilimsel araştırma sürecine ve çalışmamıza yaptığınız katkıdan dolayı çok teşekkür ederiz.

Bölüm 1. Tanıtıcı Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2.Yaşınız?

3. Eğitim Düzeyiniz: ( ) İlk/Ortaöğretim ( ) Lise ( ) Üniversite ( ) Lisans Üstü ( ) Doktora

4. Toplam İş Deneyimi Yılınız:

5. Mevcut İşyerinizdeki Toplam Çalışma Yılınız:

6. Şu anda değerlendirecek olacağınız çalışanınız ile ne kadar süredir çalışmaktasınız?
… yıl / … ay

Bölüm 2. Anket Soruları							
Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, şu anda size bağlı olarak alt pozisyonunuzda görev yapmakta olan çalışanınızın performansını düşünerek, çalışanınızı belirtilen ifadeler çerçevesinde değerlendiriniz. İfadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Görev İçi Performans Davranışları Ölçeği (In-Role Performance Behavior Scale)							
1	İşi ile ilgili hedeflerine ulaşır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Performansı kendisinden beklenen kriterleri karşılar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İşi ile ilgili görevlerde uzmanlık sahibidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İşinin tüm alanlarında yetkinlik sahibidir ve görevlerini yeterlilik ile gerçekleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Görevlerini kendisinden beklenen şekilde yaparak işinin tümünde iyi performans sergiler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	İş hedeflerine ulaşmak için plan ve organizasyon yapar, hedeflenen zamanlamaya uyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Görev tanımında belirtilen sorumluluklarını yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Kendisinden beklenen görevleri yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Görevlerini devamlı ve tutarlı olarak yüksek kaliteli bir şekilde yapar.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Görev Ötesi Performans Davranışları Ölçeği (Extra-Role Performance Behavior Scale)							
1	İş prosedürlerini geliştirmek için önerilerde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Çalışma arkadaşları farklı düşünse bile kendi görüşlerini dürüstçe ifade eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Çalışma arkadaşları kendisine katılmasa bile işi ile ilgili kararlarında şüphe duymaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İşyerini geliştirmek için önerilerde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İşi ile ilgili standartlara uygun olmayan uygulamalar tespit ettiğinde yöneticini bilgilendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Departmanını geliştirecek yenilikçi ve yapıcı önerilerde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İşi ile ilgili yeterince üretken olmayan kural ve uygulamalar tespit ettiğinde yöneticisini bilgilendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İşyerinin veya departmanının hedeflerine ulaşmasını sağlamak için işinde yeni düzenlemeler önerir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İş yükü ağır olan kişilere yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Zorunlu olmadığı halde işe yeni başlayanların uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Çalışma arkadaşlarına yardım etmeye her zaman hazırdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Kimse görmese de işyerinin kurallarına ve düzenlemelerine uyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	İşine zamanında gelmek ve molalardan zamanında dönmek konusunda dakiktir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Fazladan ara/mola vermez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	İşyerine gelememe durumu olduğunda önceden haber verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İşyerinin itibarını koruma konusunda isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	İş ile ilgili problemlerin çözümünde çalışma arkadaşlarına yardımcı olmaya isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	İşin kalitesini arttırmak için kendine özgü çaba gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Gerçekten gerekmedikçe çok fazla hastalık raporu almaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 2: Psychological Contract, Leader-Member Exchange, Organizational Transparency, Psychological Safety and Job Insecurity Questionnaires

(Psikolojik Sözleşme, Lider-Üye Etkileşimi, Örgütsel Şeffaflık, Psikolojik Güvenlik ve İş Güvencesizliği Anketleri)

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Anabilim Dalı Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı'nda gerçekleştirilmekte olan bir akademik araştırmaya veri tabanı sağlamak üzere hazırlanmış olup, katılımcıların görüşlerini almayı amaçlamaktadır.

- Lütfen anketin üzerine hiçbir şekilde kimliğinizi belirtecek bir yazı yazmayınız.
- Anket sonuçları araştırmacıda saklı kalacaktır.
- Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi atlamadan ve boş bırakmadan değerlendirmenizi yapınız.

Bilimsel araştırma sürecine ve çalışmamıza yaptığınız katkıdan dolayı çok teşekkür ederiz.

Bölüm 1. Tanıtıcı Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2.Yaşınız?

3. Eğitim Düzeyi: ( ) İlk/Ortaöğretim ( ) Lise ( ) Üniversite ( ) Lisans Üstü ( ) Doktora

4. Toplam İş Deneyimi Yılınız:

5. Mevcut İşyerinizdeki Toplam Çalışma Yılınız:

6. Mevcut Pozisyonunuzdaki Toplam Çalışma Yılınız:

Bölüm 2. Anket Soruları							
Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, çalışmakta olduğunuz işyerinizi düşünerek, ifadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Psikolojik Sözleşme Ölçeği (Psychological Contract Scale)							
1	Sadece sözleşmemde belirtilen saatler çerçevesinde değil, gerektiğinde daha fazla çalışabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İşyerime olan bağlılığım sözleşmemde yazılı olan maddeler ile sınırlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İşyerime olan sadakatim sözleşmem ile sınırlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Önceden kesin olarak belirlenmiş çalışma saatleri dışında ve ekstradan olsa bile çalışabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Sadece kendi iş tanımlarımda belirtilmiş olan görevleri değil, gerektiğinde fazladan görevleri de yerine getiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	İşyerimin hedeflerini tamamıyla özümsemiş bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Sadece kısa dönemli iş hedeflerine ulaşmak için değil, daha uzun dönemli iş hedeflerine yönelik de çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İşim sayesinde faturalarımı ödüyorum ancak benim için işim bundan çok daha fazla anlam taşıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İhtiyaç olduğunda esnek olup farklı saatlerde de çalışmak önemli ve gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Mevcut işyerimde ilerlemeyi/yükselmeyi umuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	İşyerimde kendimi takımın bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	İşyerimde iyi çalıştığım takdirde terfi alma şansına sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	İşyerim için çalışırken kendimi ailenin bir üyesi gibi görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	İşyerim iyi çalışan ve kendilerini gösteren çalışanları geliştirir/ödüllendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

15	Çalışma süreme ve hedeflerime ulaşmak için harcadığım emeğe istinaden işyerimde terfi almayı bekliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İşyerim çalışanların emeklerinin karşılığını verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	İşyerimde kariyer planım açıkça belirlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Gelecekte bana sağlayacağı hak ve menfaatleri (emeklilik, sağlık güvencesi vb.) düşünerek işyerime %100 katkıda bulunmaya hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, mevcut yöneticinizi düşünerek, ifadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Lider-Üye Etkileşimi Ölçeği (Leader-Member Exchange Scale)							
1	İyi niyetle, istemeden bir hata yapmış isem, yöneticim başkalarına karşı beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Başkaları tarafından aleyhimde davranışlar söz konusu olduğunda (bana sözel olarak saldıracak olurlarsa), yöneticim beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Yöneticim işle ilgili konularda, konu hakkında tam bir bilgisi olmasa dahi bir üstüme karşı beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Yöneticimle çalışmak oldukça eğlenceli ve keyif vericidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Bir birey olarak yöneticimi çok severim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Yöneticim, herkesin arkadaş olarak isteyebileceği türden bir insandır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İş tanımımda yer alan görevlerden daha fazlasını yöneticim için üstlenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Yöneticimin iş hedeflerine ulaşmasını sağlamak için normalden daha fazla çaba göstermek isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Yöneticim için yoğun şekilde çalışabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Yöneticimin işe ilişkin bilgisine ve yeteneğine saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Yöneticimin mesleki profesyonel becerisine hayranım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Yöneticimin mesleğine ilişkin bilgisinden etkilenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, çalışmakta olduğunuz işyerinizi düşünerek, ifadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Örgütsel Şeffaflık Ölçeği (Organizational Transparency Scale)							
1	İşyerimde bilgiler tüm çalışanlara tam ve doğru olarak aktarılmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İşyerimde her şey genellikle açık bir şekilde yürütülür, iş gereği dışında gizli saklı uygulamalar yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İşyerimin politikaları ve yönetmelikleri açıkça bize aktarılmıştır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İşyerimde performans değerlendirmesi yapılırken açık ve şeffaf davranılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İşyerim aldığı kararların çalışanlarını nasıl etkileyeceğini anlamak ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	İşyerim kararlar alınırken gerekli olabilecek bilgileri çalışanlarına sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İşyerim çalışanlarına karşı eylem ve hareketlerinin sorumluluğunu almak ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İşyerim neler yaptığının ve yaptıklarının sebeplerinin çalışanları tarafından bilinmesini ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İşyerim ihtiyacımız olan bilgileri belirlerken bizlerin yardımını da sürece dâhil eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	İşyerim çalışanlarına detaylı bilgilendirmeler yapar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	İşyerim karar almadan önce çalışanlarına fikirlerini sorar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	İşyerim kim olduğumuzu ve nelere ihtiyaç duyduğumuzu anlamak için zaman harcar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	İşyerim çalışanlarına gerekli bilgileri zamanında verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	İşyerim çalışanlarına bilgiyi geçmiş performans ile kıyaslanabilir şekilde verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	İşyerim çalışanlarına tam ve doğru bilgiyi verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İşyerimin çalışanlarına verdiği bilgi güvenilirdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	İşyerim çalışanlarının eleştirilerine açıktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	İşyerim bir hata yaptığında kabul eder ve çalışanları ile paylaşır.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, işinizin devamlılığını düşünerek ifadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
İş Güvencesizliği Ölçeği (Job Insecurity Scale)							
1	Mevcut işimin devamının mümkün olacağından emin değilim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Çalışma ortamımın devamlılığından (sürekliliğinden) emin değilim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Bu işyerinde çalışmayı sürdürmemin mümkün olamayabileceğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İşsiz kalma ihtimalim çok da az sayılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İşimden çıkartılacağımdan korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Kariyerimin devamlılığından endişe duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İşimi kaybetmekten korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İşimin geleceği ile ilgili belirsizlik hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyup, ifadeler ile ilgili nasıl hissettiğinizi düşünerek ifadelere katılım derecenizi 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçekte "X" ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Psikolojik Güvenlik Ölçeği (Psychological Safety Scale)							
1	Takımımdaki hiç kimse kasten çabalarımı baltalayacak şekilde hareket etmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İşyerimde diğer çalışanlardan kolaylıkla yardım istenebilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İşyerimde çalışanlar problemleri ve zor konuları dile getirebilirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Takımım içinde yapılan hatalar çalışanlara karşı kullanılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Takımımda kimse farklı olduğu için diğerleri tarafından reddedilmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Takımım risk almak için güvenli bir yerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Beceri ve yeteneklerim, işyerimde başkalarınca değer görmekte ve bu beceri ve yeteneklerimden faydalanılmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6