

WORKPLACE BULLYING: ITS REFLECTION UPON ORGANIZATIONAL  
JUSTICE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR PERCEPTIONS  
AMONG PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
OF  
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR  
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN  
THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

JANUARY 2011

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **WORKPLACE BULLYING: ITS REFLECTION UPON ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR PERCEPTIONS AMONG PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES**

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January 2011, 159 pages

The present study intends to examine the influence of workplace bullying incidents on the organizational justice perceptions of targets and by-standers with respect to organizational procedures, supervisory treatment and distribution of pay/reward schemes together with the performance of organizational citizenship behavior. For this purpose, six different public institutions in Ankara and Izmir are selected.

A total of 288 white-collar public employees filled out the questionnaire where one-third of the participants label themselves as being exposed to workplace bullying behavior in the last six months. As hypothesized, findings support the view that workplace bullying experience plays a significant negative role in organizational justice and citizenship behavior perceptions after controlling the significant effect of demographic variables. Besides, within this context, the ultimate effect of bullying on employees is bifurcated in terms of whether an individual has either target or by-stander status.

Keywords: Workplace Bullying, Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Public Sector Employees.

## ÖZ

### İŞYERİNDE ZORBALIK: KAMU SEKTÖRÜ ÇALIŞANLARININ ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET VE ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI ALGILAMALARI ÜZERİNDEKİ YANSIMALARI

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Ocak 2011, 159 sayfa

Bu çalışma, işyerinde zorbalık olaylarının; hem buna hedef olan hem de gözlemleyen çalışanların işlemsel adalet, dağıtım ve etkileşim adaleti olarak ortaya çıkan örgütsel adalet algılamaları üzerindeki etkilerini ve bununla beraber söz edilen aktörlerin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı sergilemelerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Bu amaçla, Ankara ve İzmir illerinde altı farklı kamu kuruluşu seçilmiştir.

Toplamda 288 beyaz-yaka kamu çalışanı anketi doldurmuştur ve katılımcıların yaklaşık üçte biri kendisini son altı ay içerisinde işyerinde zorbalık davranışına maruz kaldığını dile getirmiştir. Bulgular hipotezlerde öne sürüldüğü gibi işyerinde zorbalık deneyiminin demografik değişkenlerin önemli etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra kamu çalışanlarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ve örgütsel adalet algılamaları üzerinde anlamlı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla beraber, bu kapsamda, zorbalık durumunun çalışanlar üzerindeki nihai etkileri kişinin hedef ve-ya gözlemci olma sıfatına göre iki kola ayrılmış ve analizler gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İşyerinde Zorbalık, Örgütsel Adalet, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı, Kamu Sektörü Çalışanları.

*To my family, who sacrificed so much to make this possible.*



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Embarking upon a Masters degree has been one of the most challenging, yet rewarding adventures I have experienced throughout life's journey. There are several individuals who have encouraged and supported me throughout this long process, and I would like to express my sincere gratitude to them who helped in making this thesis possible.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Semra F. Aşçıl for her guidance, advice, criticism, encouragement and insight throughout the research. Although the following thesis is an individual work, her understanding and trust in me helped to elevate the study to a scholarly level. Her inspiration and guidance motivated me even in the hardest times of the thesis process. I would also like to express gratitude to Assist. Prof. Dr. Pınar Acar and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Gündüz Hoşgör for their valuable suggestions and comments in revising the study.

I would like to present special thanks to Dr. Özgür Arun for his help in statistical analysis part of this study. I would like to express my greatest appreciation to Assist. Prof. Dr. Füsün Bulutlar for providing the Turkish translations of the relevant scales used in this study.

Tribute also goes to all participating employees in public institutions who sincerely helped me for collecting my research data. I also extend my gratitude to my dear friend, Çağatay Cengiz for opening the gates of London School of Economics and Political Science's library.

Finally, the financial support given by TÜBİTAK is gratefully acknowledged.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

**DJ:** Distributive Justice

**IJ:** Interactional Justice

**KMO:** Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

**OCB:** Organizational Citizenship Behavior

**OCBALT:** Altruism Dimension of OCB

**OCBCIV:** Civic Virtue Dimension of OCB

**OCBCON:** Conscientiousness Dimension of OCB

**OCBCOU:** Courtesy Dimension of OCB

**OCBSPO:** Sportsmanship Dimension of OCB

**OJ:** Organizational Justice

**PJ:** Procedural Justice

**RCT:** Referent Cognitions Theory

**SET:** Social Exchange Theory

**WB:** Workplace Bullying

**WB1:** Communication Attacks Subscale of Workplace Bullying

**WB2:** Social Isolation Subscale of Workplace Bullying

**WB3:** Personal Attacks Subscale of Workplace Bullying

**WB4:** Work-related Subscale of Workplace Bullying

**WB5:** Physical Violence Subscale of Workplace Bullying

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

*I just need a sleeping pill. I haven't been able to sleep for the last 3 months because everybody at work is talking behind my back and spreading rumors about me. My boss is in on it, too. She is always trying to undermine me and makes a big deal out of every little mistake I make.*

*-- Mr.G, age 46, US federal government agency employee, middle-level manager*

This is the situation that Mr. G has ended up with after six months of the event when he reported misuse of government property by his supervisor's boss. The case was investigated and dismissed. Mr. G's supervisor never confronted him about the complaint, but shortly afterwards Mr. G started to notice disturbing changes in the workplace. He quotes;

*What happened afterwards is that, she avoided my phone calls, e-mails and even stopped meeting with me. Instead, he met with my subordinates. My subordinates then started to ignore my instructions and were inattentive when I spoke. (...) I was reprimanded in writing for having made a \$9 mathematical error in an expense reimbursement request (Hillard, 2009).*

Macro economic developments in today's rapidly changing world being especially fostered by the effects of globalization and liberalization of markets have compelled organizations to compete with plenty of rivals in order to survive and achieve their goals successfully. As the competition in the labor market intensified with increasing emphasis on efficiency concerns and performance-related appraisal systems; the workplace atmosphere has transformed into a battlefield where employees are

implicitly being forced to go for 'extra-mile' on the one hand, but still can not avoid the psychological harm incurred in the form of workplace bullying on the other.

Work organizations are considered to be primary social settings where competition, scarce resources, time limitations, differences in goals and personalities and other kind of stresses can lead employees to aggress against their co-workers, subordinates and even superiors (Aquino and Thau, 2009). So to say, destructive behaviors directed by one employee against another are perceived to be a common occurrence in today's workplace (Aquino and Douglas, 2003). Likely, the term "workplace bullying" is a type of abusive behavior coined by Leymann (1990) who investigated the psychology of traumatized workers where he observed that most severe reactions were among workers who had been the target of a collective campaign by coworkers to exclude, punish, or humiliate them.

Specifically, the notion of workplace bullying being defined as a phenomenon in which one or more individuals perceive themselves as a defenseless target of the negative acts of one or more individuals (Namie, 2007), is a recent but a prevalent issue for organizations as it bears extensive negative impacts on employees, organizations, economy and society at large (LeVan and Martin, 2008; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007, Tracy and Alberts, 2007; Namie, 2007; Strandmark and Hallberg, 2007). Increasingly, workplace bullying is being admitted internationally as a devastating problem with severe consequences on both targets and organizations (Einarsen et al., 2003; Rayner and Keashly, 2005 cited in Einarsen et al., 2009). It has been displayed that workplace bullying has become a major occupational stressor, creating decrements in morale, health, job performance at the target-level (Einarsen and Raknes, 1997; Salin, 2001). As for its effects on organization, the research to date has firmly established that bullying is usually connoted with higher absenteeism, higher intent to leave the organization, higher turnover and earlier retirements among the targets (Keashly, 1998; Rayner and Cooper, 1997; cited in Lee and Brotheridge, 2006).

The severe negative upshots of workplace bullying have created outburst of great public interest and scholarly attention in the past three decades with a move towards international collaboration on the part of researchers and practitioners to delve into the phenomenon in more depth (Dawn et al., 2003). Practically, in the contemporary world, workplace bullying has to be the concern because employees who are exposed to bullying can experience high levels of anxiety that adversely affect work performance. Moreover, exposure to even minor forms of mistreatment may lead to escalating pattern of retaliatory responses from the target individual thus triggering serious acts of workplace violence. Finally, employers are assumed to have legal and moral obligation to provide safe working environment (Aquino and Bommer, 2003).

The notion of workplace bullying is emphasized as repeated and persistent negative behavior (i.e. minimum 6 months) which is characterized by power imbalance and created hostile environment in such a way that the target individual cannot retaliate or defend him/herself on an equal basis (Hoel and Cooper, 2000; Vartia, 1996). It refers to “status blind interpersonal hostility that is deliberate and repeated and is driven by the perpetrator’s need to control other individuals, often undermining legitimate business interests in the process” (Namie, 2003; pp.2). Likewise, workplace bullying events cannot be considered as isolated episodes of conflict at work, but rather prolonged negative treatment against one or more individuals who actually are or perceive themselves to be inferior in the situation in question. The incidences may concern non-work-related issues (i.e. insulting and humiliating acts) as well as work-related issues (i.e. withholding documentation) (Einarsen et al., 1994 cited in Baillien et al., 2009).

In other words, workplace bullying behavior is a global phenomenon that casts a shadow on organizations, both public and private. As it encompasses repeated hostile behaviors that are directed at employees in a systematic manner; individuals who are recipients of this aggressive behavior feel humiliated, offended, and distressed (Namie, 2000). In terms of its practical implications, employees exposed to workplace bullying report physical, psychological and social complaints that

preclude effective job performance (Fox and Spector, 2005). Not only the negative influences on organizational effectiveness; but also *employee perceptions of justice* prevailing in the form of procedures, interpersonal treatment and distribution of pay/rewards are inevitably affected as a result of workplace bullying incidences. The significant number of empirical studies hitherto have examined how employees respond to perceived injustices or interpersonal offense in organizations where most of them focused on revenge or other types of aggressive behavior (i.e. Aquino, Tripp and Bies, 2001; Bies and Tripp, 1996; Bradfield and Aquino, 1999; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger and Tesluk, 1999; Tripp and Bies, 1997; cited in Aquino et al., 2006). However, the organizational justice and workplace bullying nexus has not been elaborated in terms of the effect of bullying occurrence upon (in) justice perceptions.

Besides, a “sense of citizenship” that translates into willingness to go beyond contractual obligations may have been influenced in a work environment characterized by workplace bullying behavior. Being termed as *organizational citizenship behavior*; non-job specific behaviors that are neither discretionary nor explicitly recognized by the formal reward system are proved to be in aggregate promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). The effect of workplace bullying episodes on the employee’s intention to go beyond contractual obligations is another potential research avenue in which the specific relationship has not been investigated in detail. Thus understanding workplace bullying and its adverse implications on the organizational environment may provide insight to management team, thereby empowering the organization as a whole to engage “in positive best practices resulting in more favorable workplace environments” (LeVan and Martin, 2008; cited in Marcello, 2010, pp.57).

The focus of this dissertation is to address the issue of workplace bullying in its connotation with organizational justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behavior performance. It argues that the nature and the role of workplace bullying have influenced the justice perceptions and extra-role behavior exhibition among

public sector employees in Turkey. The overall aim of this study is to determine: Do workplace bullying incidents affect the justice perception of victims and by-standers with respect to organizational procedures, supervisory treatment and distribution of pay/reward schemes together with their performance of organizational citizenship behavior? Taken together, this dissertation seeks to contribute to the already existing theoretical literature concerning the impact of bullying behavior on specific organizational outcomes. However, this dissertation differs from other ones in the sense that it sheds the light on a “taboo” issue manifested in public sector. The arguments in this study are based on the results of a quantitative study conducted via survey instrument among 288 employees working in six different public institutions. Yet, within this context, the ultimate effect of bullying on employees is bifurcated in terms of whether an individual has either target or by-stander status. Examining the scope and prevalence of workplace bullying; this dissertation elucidates the extent to which such destructive behavior has been able to generate other organizational outcomes mainly organizational injustice and a new method of tackling as (lack of) organizational citizenship behavior performance.

The second chapter of this study provides the conceptualization of these three topics of interest; i.e. workplace bullying, organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in the relevant literature. First of all, the scope of workplace bullying is revealed with respect to its locus amongst other negative workplace phenomena, its prevalence and different measurement techniques and various models explaining the behavior or process nature of the phenomenon are also provided. This is followed by distinct explanations for other two dependent variables of this study with their specific dimensions.

The Chapter 2 ends with the collation of these variables with workplace bullying practices under the “Theory and Hypotheses” section. First of all, it explores the argumentation on whether organizational injustices can be regarded as a source or a predictor of workplace bullying. The theoretical justifications are provided in the light of norm of reciprocity, social exchange and equity theories so to which



perceived injustices stemming from diverse reasons in the organizational setting may act as a precursor of bullying process. However, the focus of this study diverges from this well-established approach towards a relatively recent perception; it is proposed that bullying process itself may lead to negative consequences in terms of employees' organizational justice perceptions (Salin and Parzefall, 2010).

Secondly, the reflection of workplace bullying exposure on the performance of organizational citizenship behavior is examined in terms of whether the exhibited behavior is self-initiated or socially-initiated. Whereas the former motive is voluntary, the latter one is self-serving and done in order to promote constructive interests and is explained through the notion of "Compulsory Organizational Citizenship Behavior". The lack of consensus in refining the relationship between these two variables and theoretical explanations for both positive and negative association are provided in this section.

The third chapter of the present study provides information about research design, sample characteristics and demographics of sample respondents and measurement instruments of the study.

The fourth and the fifth section of this study encompass research findings, analysis and discussion of these findings; and finally the last chapter ends with conclusion and future implications respectively.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1. Workplace Bullying**

##### **2.1.1. Scope of Workplace Bullying and its Characteristic Features**

The concept of workplace bullying is described as a situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative and enduring actions from one or several persons in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions (Einarsen, 1996).

Thus, workplace bullying constitutes repeated and persistent negative behavior towards a target(s), which involve a victim-perpetrator dimension and create a hostile work environment (Salin, 2001 pp.425). Being psychological in nature, in order to label any act of harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks as bullying; it should be labeled as an escalating process in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position and becomes the target of systematic negative social acts (Skogstad et al, 2007). Hence bullying often signifies escalating hostile workplace relationships rather than discrete and disconnected events; and is associated with repetition, duration and patterning of a variety of behaviors as its most salient features (Einarsen et al., 2003). In this respect, conflicts between two parties of approximately equal strength or isolated episodes of conflict cannot be regarded as bullying (Einarsen, 1996). As it is strongly suggested by Salin (2003, pp.10), "perceived power imbalance is a prerequisite for bullying to occur."

The original definition of workplace bullying construct that highlighted the imbalance of power relationships between the parties involved (Niedl, 1996) has later modified to include not only the persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from superiors but also from co-workers and/or subordinates (Einarsen, 2000). Within a decade or so, it has been acknowledged that being subjected to continuing negative acts from colleagues, superiors or subordinates leads to the victimization of the target hence can be deemed as workplace bullying (Einarsen 2009). However the critical point in this perception is that; a conflict between two parties equal in balance of power can be regarded to be accelerated into workplace bullying *only if* after some time there is eventually an unequal power structure thus pushing the victim into an inferior position (Leymann, 1996). Although the research until 2007 suggests that 75 percent of workplace bullying incidents are triggered by hierarchically superior agents against subordinate targets (Hoel and Cooper, 2001), bullying is not confined to hierarchical hostility (Tepper, 2007).

#### **2.1.1.1. Underlying Elements of Workplace Bullying**

It is noteworthy to view workplace bullying as a distinct phenomenon with characteristic features that enables the concept to be differentiated from one-time aggressive or discriminatory acts (Lutgen-Sandvik 2009). These underlying elements can be cited as follows;

*i. Repetition:* Concurrent with the term frequency; bullying is conceptualized as a repetitive hammering away at targets; therefore researchers explicitly ignore one time incident as workplace bullying (Einarsen and Hoel, 2001; Leymann, 1990; Rayner et al., 2002; Salin, 2001). Although not a clear-cut criterion, workplace bullying represents abuse that is taking place on a nearly daily basis (Leymann and Gustafsson, 1996; Tracy et al., 2006) where some others utilize the frequency of weekly exposure for the operational definition of workplace bullying in order to distinguish it from severe cases of victimization (Einarsen et al, 2003).

**ii. Duration:** Though it is acknowledged that bullying is more than a single act (Zapf and Einarsen, 2001); the criterion for depicting the duration of bullying incidences varies among researchers. For instance; Hoel et al. (2001) together with Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) accepted the criterion of being exposed to specified acts during the last six months; whereas Leymann (1996) followed a strict criterion of weekly exposure for over six months. On the other hand, Vartia (1996) have made no referral to a specific duration but considered a particular person as a target of bullying if s/he has been subjected often to at least one single form of bullying. Even though the long-term nature of bullying is reflected in the adoption of minimum six months of exposure, the targets usually report bullying to last much longer (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009).

**iii. Escalation:** Workplace bullying is to be viewed as a process not an either-or phenomenon. In this respect, the term escalation in the context of workplace bullying connotes to a gradually evolving process that may begin with behavior aggressive in nature which is difficult to restrain and end with incidences where psychological means of violence or even physical abuse may be used (Zapf and Gross, 2001). During an escalating conflict a person may acquire a disadvantaged position and may gradually be the subject of highly aggressive behavior by colleagues and management (Zapf and Einarsen, 2001). Throughout the escalating conflict in the workplace; one of the parties, either a priori or as a result of the conflict, attains a 'power deficit' gradually turning the situation into a case of bullying where the target feels unable to defend against even more frequent and severe acts (Neuman and Baron, 2003).

In the course of escalating conflict; targets may fail to label the situation as bullying in the early stages of aggression. As it is also indicated by Einarsen et al. (1994); in the early stages, perpetrators are most likely to engage in behaviors that are difficult to pinpoint because they are very indirect and discreet. But soon after the conflict escalates (Adams and Crawford, 1992; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2009), even if they lack the

language to identify the experience as bullying, targets are aware of being under attack as more direct aggressive acts appear (Einarsen et al., 2003).

**iv. *Attributed intent:*** The role of intent in the bullying typology is related to whether negative behavior is aimed at the first place or to the likely outcome of the behavior (Einarsen et al., 2003). Björkqvist et al. (1994) strongly supported the view that bullying must be accompanied with the intention to harm on the part of the perpetrator. Tepper (2007) underlined that workplace bullying involves reference to intended outcomes, that is targets and observers believe that perpetrator(s)' actions are purposeful. Although some researchers (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007) avowed that persons on the receiving end are to be convinced that bullying acts are deliberate; others support the tenet that workplace bullying may be a result of both "intentional harm-doing and unintentional reckless disregard while pursuing other goals" (Salin and Parzefall, 2010; pp.763).

**v. *Hostile work environment:*** Bullying constitutes, and is constituted by, hostile work environments (Liefvooghe and MacKenzie-Davey, 2001; Salin, 2003).

**vi. *Power disparity:*** The concept of power in bullying is grasped in relative terms where the situation of the target is mentioned with a perceived power deficit vis-à-vis the perpetrator (Einarsen, 1996). Bullying at work is marked by a difference in power between actors and targets (Einarsen et al., 2003) that either exists at the onset of bullying (e.g., abusive supervision) or develops over time (e.g., peer-to-peer abuse) (Keashly and Nowell, 2003). Accordingly, power imbalance may either reflect formal power relationships (Leymann, 1996 and Vartia, 1996) or may refer to perceptions of powerlessness resulting from the bullying process between individuals of seemingly equal power but as the conflict gradually evolves, one of the parties increasingly befalls defenseless (Hoel and Salin, 2003). Studies revealed that the perpetrator(s) may be superiors, co-workers or even subordinates which indicated that power disparities may evolve from other sources other than organizational hierarchy (Zapf et al., 2003). It is also argued that bullying is

highlighted in situations when there is power imbalance at a workplace and when the manager fails to check what is going on (Nazarko, 2001).

**vii. *Communication patterning:*** Bullying is typically a constellation of verbal and nonverbal acts that constitute a discernable, recurring pattern to targets and witnesses (Keashly, 1998). Targets believe their experiences cannot be understood outside this contextual patterning, which makes bullying difficult to describe straightforwardly (Tracy et al., 2006).

**viii. *Distorted communication networks:*** In the work environments characterized by serious level of bullying incidences, communication networks are generally suppressed. Open day-to-day communication is risky and, in some cases, even forbidden and punished (Rayner et al., 2002).

### **2.1.2. Workplace Bullying in European Legal Context**

The legislative framework proposed by international organizations, specifically International Labor Organization (ILO) and European Union (EU) has revealed the scope of workplace bullying even though there are only few countries having legislative acts directed uniquely to this widely prevalent workplace problem. The definition of workplace bullying offered by ILO is as follows (cited in Chappell and Di Martino, 1999; pp.5);

Offensive behavior through vindictive, cruel, malicious or humiliating attempts to undermine an individual or group of employees... It involves ganging up on a targeted employee and subjecting that person to psychological harassment. Bullying includes constant negative remarks or criticisms, isolating a person from social contacts and gossiping or spreading false information.

To continue with other regulations that are entered into force by ILO related to workplace bullying, *Collective Agreements on the Prevention and Resolution of Harassment-related Grievances* (2001)<sup>i</sup> can be cited. The Resolutions have included items that characterized the main features of bullying incidences as follows;

- “• measures to exclude or isolate a protected (targeted) person from professional activities,
- persistent negative attacks on personal or professional performance without reason or legitimate authority,
- manipulation of a protected (targeted) person’s personal or professional reputation by rumor, gossip and ridicule,
- abusing a position of power by persistently undermining a protected (targeted) person’s work, or setting objectives with unreasonable and/or impossible deadlines, or unachievable tasks,
- inappropriate monitoring of a protected (targeted) person’s performance,
- unreasonable and/or unfounded refusal of leave and training.”

In a similar vein, the European Parliament has adopted a *Resolution on Harassment at the Workplace 2001/2339*, which signifies the lack of internationally accepted definition of bullying at work but there being many definitions, each stressing different features of the concept. Some common features identified by the European Parliament can be cited as follows;

A lack of humanity at the workplace, a feeling of exclusion from the social community, encountering irreconcilable demands at work and not having the wherewithal to meet these demands.

Lastly, the Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work of the European Commission (2001) has emphasized that workplace violence does

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<sup>i</sup> <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/staffun/docs/harassment.htm>

not only embrace physical but also the presence of psychological violence, stating that;

...Violence manifests itself in many ways, ranging from physical aggression to verbal insults, bullying, mobbing and sexual harassment, discrimination on grounds of religion, race, disability, sex or, in any event, difference and may be inflicted by persons both outside and inside the working environment...

The same document has explicitly underlined what constitutes workplace bullying;

Bullying is a negative form of behavior, between colleagues or between hierarchical superiors and subordinates, whereby the person concerned is repeatedly humiliated and attacked directly or indirectly by one or more persons for the purpose and with the effect of alienating him or her.

### **2.1.3. Workplace Bullying in Turkish Legal Context**

The last decade has witnessed workplace bullying as a recent but widely dispersed problem among Turkish private and/or public sector employees that necessitated a cause for action. However, until 2008 the workplace bullying concept has not been recognized in Turkish legislation. The only 'general' provision that does exist has appeared in Article 24 of Turkish Labor Law. As the name general suggests; the regulation has encompassed the issue of sexual harassment without any direct connotation with workplace bullying behavior. It has stated that if an employee is faced with sexual harassment by the employer or a colleague, s/he will be entitled to claim termination of the job contract with severance pay without giving the prescribed notice. However, if the employee is subjected to any other form of harassment, such as bullying, s/he has no right to terminate the contract with severance pay. This inequitable situation has continued until the preparation of Draft Law on Code of Obligations (2008) in Justice Commission of Grand National



Assembly<sup>ii</sup>; thereby the concept of workplace bullying has been legalized. According to the title on “Protection of Worker’s Personality”, an employee exposed to workplace bullying will be entitled to claim termination of the contract with entitlement to severance pay. The provision on sexual harassment is extended to include the following; “employers are required to take the necessary precautions in preventing the exposure of workers to sexual and psychological harassment.” However Altıparmak (2007) have emphasized that the relevant Article in Code of Obligations should be modified as;

The employer is obliged to protect the employee’s personality and respect him in employment relations, *to protect employee from all kinds of offensive and insulting treatments*, to secure his *psychological and physical* health, to ensure an order in workplace compatible with *human dignity*, and especially to take precautions against *sexual and psychological* abuse of different genders in workplace.

The first law-suit that is concluded in the favor of bullied employee has taken place in the year 2006 (Elibol et al., 2008). The Labor Court has ruled to emotional abuse of litigant, mentioned the term ‘mobbing’ in its verdicts for the first time and has ruled for non-pecuniary damages for the employer due to his/her bullying behavior.<sup>iii</sup> Similarly, the Dean of Faculty of Law at Kocaeli University is convicted for being a perpetrator of workplace bullying with respect to his prevention of another academician’s participation in a conference at abroad.<sup>iv</sup> Final point to mention is the extension of the content of workplace bullying in the decision of Court of Appeals (December, 2009); the supreme court has ruled the acts of one’s heaping books and folders on his/her desk to conceal him/herself from other co-workers as an act of workplace bullying.<sup>v</sup>

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<sup>ii</sup> “Psikolojik taciz Türk hukukuna girdi”- Hürriyet 25.12.2008

<sup>iii</sup> Ankara 8th Labor Court; File No:2006/19, Verdict No:2006/625, Verdict Date: 20/12/2006.

<sup>iv</sup> “Psikolojik tacizde bulunan dekana para cezası”- Hürriyet 29.07.2010

<sup>v</sup> “Yargıtay: Ofiste klasörden perde ‘mobbing’ sayılır”- Radikal 02.12.2009

#### 2.1.4. Types of Bullying

*i. Predatory bullying:* It refers to bullying incidences where the victim has done nothing to provoke that may reasonably justify the behavior of the perpetrator. The victim is accidentally pushed in a situation where a predator exploits the weakness of the victim (Einarsen et al., 2003). The scope of predatory bullying resembles to the concept of petty tyranny proposed by Ashforth (1994, pp.126) being identified as “a leader who lord their power over others through arbitrariness and authoritarian style of conflict management.”

*ii. Dispute-related bullying:* It is the result of highly escalated interpersonal conflicts where the total destruction of the opponent is seen as the ultimate goal (Einarsen, 1999).

*iii. Authoritative-bullying:* It is the abuse of power granted through organizational position and is the most commonly reported (Hoel, Cooper, and Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997).

*iv. Displaced-bullying,* or scapegoating, is aggressing “against someone other than the source of strong provocation because aggressing against the source of such provocation is too dangerous” (Neuman and Baron, 2003; pp.197). In the workplaces where the perceived unfairness becomes the norm accompanied with the difficulty to launch aggression against the supervisors being the source of prevalent injustice; the tendencies towards displaced bullying are viable.

*v. Discriminatory-bullying* is simply abusing someone out of prejudice, usually workers who differ from, or refuse to accept the norms of, the rest of the workgroup (Rayner et al., 2002) or “belong to a certain outsider group” (Einarsen et al., 2003).

Moreover, Leymann (1996) and Randall (1997) have pointed out that workplace bullying behaviors may not be necessarily atypical negative acts but their severity and/ or regularity makes them detrimental. Leymann (1990) has also developed typology of activities to be included within the scope of workplace bullying in terms of the possible effects accrued on the victim(s) as follows;

- i. Effects on victim's adequate communication possibilities (i.e. obstructing communication linkages, being silenced, verbal attacks, verbal threats)
- ii. Effects on victim's social circumstances (i.e. colleagues' refusal to talk with the victim, isolation of the victim to a room distanced from others),
- iii. Effects on victim's personal reputation (i.e. gossips about victim, ridiculing the victim, making fun of a handicap, ethnic heritage),
- iv. Effects on victim's occupational status (i.e. provision of either no work or meaningless assignments with unrealizable time constraints)
- v. Effects on victim's physical health (i.e. dangerous work tasks, threatened or attacked physically, and/or sexually harassed).

#### **2.1.5. Bullying Behavior versus Process: Models of Bullying Outcomes**

In an attempt to differentiate bullying behavior from process, the proponents of latter approach clearly asserted that bullying is a gradually evolving process which may start with aggressive behavior that may be difficult to pin down and end with incidences where psychological means of violence may be used (Skogstad et al., 2007). Two main models were developed by Field (1996) and Glasl (1982) for the consideration of workplace bullying as a *process*. These two models are accompanied with Baillien's (2009) and Leymann's (1996) alternative models of workplace bullying in this section of the present study.

##### **2.1.5.1. The Model of Field (1996)**

Firstly, Field (1996) has conceptualized a two-phased structure of workplace bullying process. He has labeled workplace bullying as ‘persistent, unwelcome, intrusive behavior of one or more individuals whose actions prevent others from fulfilling their duties.’ In his theoretical framework, such aggressive behavior is divided into two phases; Phase I as ‘*subjugation and control*’ and Phase II as ‘*destruction and elimination.*’ In the initial phase the perpetrator is intended to maintain full control upon the target in such a way that, the bully attempts to suppress and deny the right to self-determination and independence of the target employee. The attempts of subjugation result with the second phase which is highlighted by the counter-reaction so that the perpetrator realizes absolute control over the bullied employee will not be possible which causes the perpetrator to eliminate the offending target employee (Namie and Namie, 2003). The second phase is grasped when the target starts to take defensive action or feels resentment fueled by a sense of anger and perceptions of injustice. In this situation, when the perpetrator comprehends that target employee will never submit to his/her will then the bully tends to eliminate the target employee as the only option before finding a new target.

#### **2.1.5.2 The Model of Glasl (1982)**

Secondly, Glasl’s (1982) *conflict escalation model* mainly elaborates three main phases and nine stages through which bullying behavior escalates into conflict. The evolution of bullying into conflict escalation is also supported by Zapf and Gross (2001) in such a way that bullying develops from rationality and control in which targets try to resolve differences through problem solving and rational discussion. In this early stage conflict is content oriented (Baillien et al., 2009); where the parties are interested in cooperation and reasonable resolution of the conflict. This so called first phase proceeds into the subsequent phase (phase 2) when the relationship becomes severe via distrust, lack of respect and overt hostility between target(s) and perpetrator(s) (Glasl, 1982). The second phase is marked with conflict management issues and the relationship between employees including personal aspects happen to

be vital. If the conflict is deferred, the relational component leads to a pattern of negative behavior and alters into destructive behavior in the third phase. (Baillien et al., 2009) Then, the last phase (phase 3) is marked with aggression and destruction such that targets feel the urge to leave the organization. Glasl indicates workplace bullying as conflict escalation that appears to exist at the boundary between phases two and three.

#### **2.1.5.3. The Model of Baillien et al. (2009)**

*The three way model* developed by Baillien et al. (2009) elucidates the step-by-step development of workplace bullying. Being composed of three tracks; first pathway of the model identifies intrapersonal frustrations and how ineffective coping with these strains lead to bullying incidence. While effective coping refers to discussion of the problem from the start before it escalates into conflict; ineffective coping on the other hand may include converting frustration in negative acts towards an employee and violation of the existing norms thus causing potential perpetrators to adopt a negative attitude towards them. Inefficient coping mechanism as a trigger of workplace bullying is also referred by Berkowitz's frustration-aggression theory (1989) which alleges that stressful work environment can lead to aggression towards others through negative affects; experiencing work-related stressor may contribute to becoming a perpetrator of aggression. Furthermore, infringement of existing norms stimulating workplace bullying practices is also maintained by social interactionist approach (Felson, 1992). It argues that stressful events will indirectly affect aggression through its effect on the victim's behavior and these people may annoy others, perform unsatisfactorily and violate social norms. It claims that experiencing stress increases the probability of violating work-related expectations and social norms that may lead to the possibility that members of the organization react negatively towards the person (Lawrence and Leather, 1999). In this respect, Hoel (1999) considers bullying as an intentional response to norm-violating behavior and as an instrument for social control.

To continue with the model, the second track refers to interpersonal conflict that generates workplace bullying, in this case the powerful employee becomes the perpetrator where as the powerless is pushed into the position of the victim. In this regard, bullying varies from a usual conflict experience because the victim is forced into an inferior in other words relatively powerless position (Einarsen et al., 1994). The issue that bullying may stem from unsolved interpersonal conflicts was proposed by Leymann (1996) who described the term ‘workplace bullying’ as hostile and unethical communication which is directed in a systematic way by one or a number of persons mainly toward one individual who is pushed in a helpless and defenseless position.

Finally, in the track three (intragroup level); workplace bullying is regarded as a consequence of aspects within the team which directly stimulate bullying; so besides frustrations, tensions and interpersonal conflicts, workplace bullying can evolve from a third track: direct stimulation (or enabling) of negative behavior (e.g. culture of gossip, mockery and backbiting) (Baillien et al., 2009; pp.9).

#### **2.1.5.4. The Model of Leymann (1996)**

Leymann (1996, pp.168) has defined workplace bullying as “a social interaction through which one individual . . . is attacked by one or more . . . individuals almost on a daily basis and for periods of many months, bringing the person into an almost helpless position with potentially high risk of expulsion.” Leymann emphasizes the importance of distinguishing workplace bullying from normal conflicts and poor social climate in workplace with respect to the former referring to more long-lasting and frequent cases (Agervold, 2007). His workplace bullying conceptualization is composed of four main phases (Figure 1); the initial phase referred as ‘the original critical incident’ is a triggering situation in the form of a conflict over work which is short spanned and transforms into the second phase as soon as the focused person’s colleagues and management reveal stigmatizing actions. Hence the second phase depicted as ‘mobbing and stigmatizing’ by Leymann; conveys consistent and

systematic actions over a long period with the intention of causing injurious effect thus causing damage to the target individual(s). The desire to ‘get at a person’ is to be echoed in five specific classes of workplace bullying behavior;

1. The victim's reputation (rumor mongering, slandering, holding up to ridicule).
2. Communication toward the victim (the victim is not allowed to express him/herself, no one is speaking to him or her, continual loud-voiced criticism and meaningful glances).
3. The social circumstances (the victim is isolated).
4. The nature of or the possibility of performing in his/her work (no work given, humiliating or meaningless work tasks).
5. Violence and threats of violence.

Leymann considers that when the management intervenes, the bullying instance officially becomes a ‘case’ which is implied as the third phase called ‘Personnel Administration’ by him. During this stage, people are usually confronted with violations of justice. Lastly, phase four as named ‘Expulsion’ occurs when the target individual(s) are expelled from working life marked by long-term sick leave, relocation to degrading tasks or no work provided. As it is pointed by Bultena and Whatcott (2008), the workplace bullying process may continue without having ‘Expulsion’ so that the organization may justify the actions taken by perpetrators and prove the organization’s decision as the right decision. Likewise, bullies are inclined to defend themselves by preserving the image of the victim as a difficult employee (Davenport et al., 1999). Leymann considers that the actual bullying takes place in between stages two and four resulting from the unresolved conflict in stage one.



**Figure 1. Stereotypical Course of Mobbing**

### 2.1.6. Prevalence of Workplace Bullying

The studies pertaining to workplace bullying in different countries and contexts have revealed indeterminacies with respect to the prevalence of such incidences due to several factors;

- absence of commonly accepted definition of the construct
- diverse criteria with respect to the frequency and duration of workplace bullying
- lack of consensus on the time frame (any time in work life versus a specific period)
- varying response rates (Salin, 2003).

Two different approaches have been elaborated by different scholars in determining the prevalence rates of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003). The first one referred as the „**subjective**’ approach entails the use of self-reported victimization in relation to a given definition of bullying (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2001). It is believed that bullying originates in ‘the eyes of the beholder’ in such a way that the target’s subjective experience of being hit by workplace bullying should be prioritized (Matthiesen, 2006). In line with this view, the workplace bullying exposure is uncovered with the question of; “Have you been bullied during the last six months?” (Rayner, 1997) In that case, the individual determines whether s/he is exposed to bullying or not on the basis of a specific definition. This approach being revealed as in form of yes/no responses depicts dichotomy in recalling bullying incidences. By contrast, the “**operational**” approach introduces inventories of various forms of bullying and asks the individual(s) to detect if they have been exposed to a set of negative workplace behaviors within a predetermined time period. To be considered a bullying victim, the response to at least one item or to one general item on the frequency of bullying should be at least once a week and the duration of bullying should be at least six months (Einarsen and Raknes, 1994; Coyne et al., 2003).

The issue of whether workplace bullying prevalence based on counting the occurrence of various negative acts over a specific period of time using a behavioral



checklist or participants' self-identification as a target is controversial while portraying contentious results (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2007, pp.842). The discrepancy in the prevalence rates between using lists with predefined acts and self-judgments might conclude that bullying should not be considered as a unified bi-modal construct but rather as a continuum (Rayner, Sheehan and Barker, 1999). To start with the proponents of operational definition; this specific group of scholars posits that bullying prevalence based on the number of negative acts will be higher than bullying prevalence based on self-identification as targets (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2007). In accord with this view point, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) found that rates of bullying in three different samples in Denmark, using self-identification approach, ranged from 2% to 4%. However, the use of operational definition yielded more severe results as the range was from 8% to 25%. Likewise, as a result of the study conducted among 377 sample of Finnish professionals Salin (2001) has reached the result of 8.8% classified as victims by using a definition approach whereas the figure elevated to 24.1% when the operational definition is used to identify the victims. These two figures reinforce the argument that subjective classification of victims may result in a lower estimate of bullying in the workplace than an operational classification approach (Coyne et al., 2003). Similarly, Rayner et al. (1999) revealed that only half of the respondents who reported experiencing persistent negative acts also self-identified as bullied in the study conducted in UK.

It may be inferred that self-identification is trivial than the prevalence of persistent negativity, since employees reporting enduring workplace aggression experience negative effects regardless of whether or not they label themselves as bullied targets (Hoel and Cooper, 2000). Even though those respondents who identify several negative acts among the checklist of bullying items may fail to perceive themselves as bullied in the dichotomous question; it is important to note that of all self-reported victims being bullied on a daily or weekly basis also reported exposure to a wide range of bullying behaviors (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001).

By contrast, the advocates of subjective definition which encompasses self-identification in indicating bullying pervasiveness purport that it leads to a comparatively high amount of bullying which is of 10-25 percent, because individuals have the tendency to say that they have been bullied when only occasional minor negative acts occurred (Einarsen et al., 2003). In many studies, the supporters of this view provide the respondents with a precise bullying definition and only then ask these individuals whether they consider themselves victims of bullying according to the content of the definition (Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996; Hoel and Cooper, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Piirainen et al, 2000). This procedure enabled the respondents with a clear understanding of what they are to respond to, also since it intends to measure the global subjective perception and the individual construct of being victimized this method incorporates individual vulnerability into consideration (Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996). Within this framework, the definition proposed by Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) is quoted before asking the exposure to bullying;

Workplace bullying is depicted as a situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions (Aquino and Thau, 2009).

This definition covers two things; repeated and enduring behaviors that are intended to be hostile and/or perceived as hostile by the recipient (Dawn et al., 2003). Similarly, Agervold (2007) has drawn attention to two parts of the bullying definition that is presented to respondents. The first part comprised of an objective identification of activities within the scope of bullying is mentioned as follows;

Bullying is a social interaction in which the sender uses verbal and/or non-verbal communication regularly, weekly and for a period of at least six months that is characterized by negative and aggressive elements directed towards the personality and self-esteem of the receiver (pp.165).

The subjective part that indicates the person's perception of being bullied is indicated as follows;

A person perceives or feels that he is being bullied when he regularly, weekly and for a period of at least six months, experiences such verbal and non-verbal communication as intentionally negative and as constituting a threat to his self-esteem and personality (pp.165).

Ultimately, according to some authors, combination of both approaches would be more acceptable to define cases of bullying (Vartia, 1996; Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996; Einarsen, 2000). The reason is that the use of subjective versus operational definition does not even necessarily identify the same victims (Salin, 2001). One possible explanation is that, the fact that the victim's perceptions of not being able to defend him or herself on equal basis or the power disparity per se, is not bear in mind in lists of predefined negative acts. Moreover, some employees may refrain to label themselves bullied since the word 'bullied' may have connotations of failure and self-blame (Salin, 2001).

#### **2.1.6.1. The Prevalence of Workplace Bullying in Public Sector**

The research on workplace bullying on the dynamics of private sector has incorporated comparative studies that would also include public sector incidences from 1990s onwards. The findings of several researchers have concluded how workplace bullying is a significant phenomenon among public sector employees. For instance, Salin (2001) has reported more frequent bullying in public sector than in private sector. Likewise, Leymann (1996) and Leymann and Gustafsson (1998) have highlighted the over-representation of bullying behavior in educational and administrative sectors belonging to public sector realm, whereas under-representation in the trade and production sectors. Leymann's findings revealed that the prevalence of such incidences in Swedish public administration was 1 percent higher than the

average of 3.5 percent overall. Also, Piirainen et al. (2000) has found that bullying was most widespread among public sector employees with the highest educational attainments. Recently, report of European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2010) have exposed that higher incidence of all forms of workplace violence is found among public officials than private sector employees. Public officials are more than twice as likely to have experienced threats of and/or actual violence.

The substantial evidence indicating that workplace bullying is particularly prevalent in public sector is to be rationalized on the basis of several trends. Starting from late 1980s, public service sector has gone under reorganization especially via imitation of the private sector, downsizing, increased demands for efficiency and substitution of consumerist approaches for conventional public sector relationships (Ironside and Seifert, 2003; Hoel and Beale, 2006). These changes incorporating performance appraisal systems, work standardization and intensifications and accountability have resulted in uncertainty, frustration and high level of stress among employees (Strandmark et al., 2007). The workplace in public sector has become a potential arena for conflict of values with the emergence of double hierarchy, in the form of political and professional leadership (Leymann, 1996).

Even though there is lack of conclusiveness, public sector employees remain to be at more risk than those working in the private sector (Zapf et al., 2003). Likewise, Hoel and Cooper (2000) have indicated highest risks of being exposed to bullying within public sector organizations, prisons, telecommunications service and school-teaching. The justification of higher levels of bullying public sector organizations is revealed with the factor of low job mobility due to the relative job security of public sector employment. Also Hoel et al., (2004) have identified personal engagement, as a common feature of public sector jobs, causes people to be more vulnerable to the personal attacks.

Apart from that, the issue of job security has contributed to more frequent workplace bullying experiences. Short-term contractual employment as opposed to employment in public sector hampers conflicts as of lasting several years impossible to prevail because employees would find it relatively easy to terminate their job if bullying appears (Zapf et al., 2003). However, working in public administration grants the employee with life-long job which makes it more difficult for the individual to give up his job even s/he is subjected to systematic and persistent conflicts. In line with job security associated public sector employment, workplace bullying can be misused to expel a certain employee whom otherwise would be impossible to lay off (Zapf and Warth, 1997). The authors have referred to this strategy of expelling several employees as ‘personnel work by other means’; the problematic nature of suspending employment due to strict bureaucratic rules can justify higher bullying prevalence rates in public sector (O'Moore, 2000). As Salin (2001, pp.435) has pointed out “bureaucracy and difficulties in laying off employees may increase the value of using bullying as a micro-political strategy from circumventing rules, eliminating unwanted persons or improving one’s own position.”

#### **2.1.7. Measurement of Workplace Bullying Incidences: Subjective versus Objective Approach**

The concept of workplace bullying lacks neutrality with respect to distinct meanings attributed by different stakeholders who are likely to vary between targets, bullies and observers. The use of the term influences the perceptions of these behaviors within and beyond the workplace (Lewis, 2006). For instance, to name an aggressive behavior as workplace bullying both management team and colleagues may mirror detrimentally upon their own organizational positions; by contrast from the point of view of target individuals labeling an incidence as “bullying seems to be a complex process which may challenge their perceptions of their work organizations” (Lewis and Orford, 2005; cited in Lewis, 2006, pp.120).

An important issue in mentioning the bullying incidences is whether self-nomination of the aggressive behavior is subjective or a mechanism for verification such as peer nominations is essential to point out valid bullying estimates. Niedl (1995) argued that the core of workplace bullying definition is based on the subjective perception of the target individuals that the negative acts directed to him/her are as hostile, humiliating and intimidating in nature. So in the eye of the target individual, the experience of bullying cannot be conceived as an objective phenomenon (Brodsky, 1976). The majority of the workplace bullying research relied on the victim's perceptions without gathering any information to verify the behavior via the views of third parties (Rayner and Hoel, 1997). On the same token, Hoel et al. (1999) emphasized the importance of third-party reports in collecting reliable bullying incidence estimates.

On the other side of the continuum, some researchers have maintained that, the victim's perspective on whether s/he has been mistreated is central to the definition of bullying (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2001; Niedl, 1995) which is usually the case when behaviors are more covert and not easily observable in essence. Similarly, Björkqvist et al., (1994) opposed to the use of peer nominations as a tool for objective measurement of bullying. The authors stressed the importance of the economic dependence of a job in the eye of the observer that would hinder them from being honest in their assessment. In line with this; it is also difficult for the observer to stay neutral in the cases of bullying (Einarsen, 1996). However; the proponents of the simultaneous use of self and peer nominations accentuated the bullying as a subjective process of social reconstruction. They believed that the self-reported victims may self nominate because of the feeling of vulnerability. Due to different personality characteristics of the victims (Zapf, 1999), these individuals may vary in the extent they perceive hostile behavior by others. Stemming from this susceptibility; these bullied victims could be inclined to attribute any assertive behavior as bullying, whereas peers do not judge the behavior as so.

Similarly, Coyne et al., (2003) have elaborated the differences in bullying rates between self and peer-reported groups by using the feedback of three different respondent categories; i.e. self-reported experience, peer reported (two or more peer nominations) and self reported plus peer reported by at least two team members. A critique of self and peer nomination method is that it considers those bullying behaviors that are overt in nature; by adopting peer nomination approach incidences of covert bullying may be underestimated. As behaviors involved in bullying are often of a subtle and discrete nature; they are not necessarily observable to others especially to peers (Einarsen, 1999); therefore peers may be able to attribute more obvious and severe acts as bullying behavior (Coyne et al., 2003).

#### **2.1.8. The Source of Workplace Bullying (Supervisor versus Co-worker Bullying)**

At first glance; the power disparity in target-perpetrator relationship reflects the power structure that stimulates the bullying occurrence (Einarsen et al., 2009). One would expect exposure to bullying behaviors to be less frequent, more indirect and more subtle at the higher end of the organizational hierarchy, compared with the experience of workers (Hoel et al., 2001). Even though, it may be presumed that employees in superior position may be subjected to less bullying than other employees because of their formal power which functions as a safeguard against situation that may push them in defenseless position (Salin, 2001). However Leymann (1992, cited in 1996) has demonstrated that senior level managers are the one reporting highest degree of bullying practices. In the study of Einarsen and Skogstad (1996), 54 percent of victims reported one or more coworkers on their own organizational level as the perpetrator, 25 percent conceived the manager of the workplace to be a bully and 28 percent reported being bullied by their immediate supervisor. Yet, Einarsen and Raknes (1997) found no difference between the experience of negative behaviors for workers, on the other hand, and supervisors/managers, on the other. Hoel et al. (2001) found similar numbers of bullying for workers, supervisors and middle and senior management. The

discrepancies among the results of various studies can be justified on the basis of several grounds.

Firstly, supervisors and co-workers diverge with respect to their involvement in organizational bullying behavior which stems from access to formal versus informal power (Salin, 2001). The maxim that employees can only exercise informal power whereas access to formal power is conceded to supervisors has reflections in selecting the specific bullying behavior against the target(s). As an illustration; attacking private life is a preferred strategy of colleagues and less of supervisors. A reason for this may be that this strategy requires information about the victim's private life which is probably less available for the supervisors. Also, verbal aggression seems to be more often used by supervisors than by colleagues who may have its reason in the power structure of supervisors and subordinates (Zapf et al., 1996). In a nutshell, for workplace bullying among managers; it can be presumed that work-related bullying behaviors such as giving impossible deadlines and withholding information are more widespread than among other employees, whereas non-work related behaviors such as receiving insulting remarks about one's private life and being ignored can be assumed to be less common (Salin, 2001).

Secondly, the diversifying conclusions with regard to the impact of organizational status on workplace bullying derive from the national culture differences. For instance, Scandinavian studies identified that people in superior positions as perpetrators are in approximately equal numbers to co-workers, with only a small number bullied by a subordinate (Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1992). On the contrary, British studies have ascertained people in superior positions as offenders in an overwhelming majority of cases (Cowie et al, 2001; Hoel et al 2001; Rayner, 1997). This differentiation can be explained by referring to Hofstede's (1993) arguments. He points out that low power differentials and feminine values prevail in the Scandinavian countries. Power differences between immediate supervisors and their colleagues are small, hence producing similar numbers of perpetrators for supervisors and colleagues (Zapf et al., 2003). Especially for



countries not characterized by significant power differentials, it is possible that on an individual basis particularly, the bully behavior could comprise part of the initial phase of group formation and die out as the respondent fits in better with the boss and colleagues and the group discovers more functional ways of interacting (Rayner, 1997).

#### **2.1.9. Locus of Workplace Bullying Amongst Negative Workplace Phenomena**

Lutgen-Sandvik et al., (2007) have classified negative workplace phenomena and its associated terminology in a pecking order which are labeled as superordinate, intermediate and subordinate types of negative conduct in organizational settings. Terminology and hierarchy of phenomena are displayed on Table 1. First of all, among the superordinate behaviors that encompass a wide range of injuring workplace actions; workplace aggression and its specific connection with bullying are to be expanded. After that, a subordinate phenomenon of workplace victimization and its connection with workplace bullying are to be elaborated.

**Table 1. Terminology and hierarchy of phenomena (adapted from Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007)**

<b>Superordinate phenomena</b>
Counterproductive workplace behavior (Fox and Spector, 2005; Fox et al., 2001)
Organizational injustice (Cropanzano and Randall, 1993; Harlos and Pinder, 1999)
Organizational misbehavior (Vardi and Weitz, 2004)
Workplace aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1998; Neuman and Baron, 2005; Schat et al., 2006)
Workplace deviance (Bennett and Robinson, 2000)
Antisocial work behaviors (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2000)
Workplace violence (broadly defined) (Kelloway et al., 2006)

**Table 1. continued**

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**Intermediate phenomena**

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*General forms of workplace abuse*

Emotional abuse (Keashly, 1998, 2001; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003b)

Mobbing (Leymann, 1990; Zapf and Einarsen, 2005)

Social undermining (Duffy et al., 2002)

**Workplace bullying** (Adams and Crawford, 1992; Rayner et al., 2002)

Workplace harassment (Richman et al., 2001)

Workplace mistreatment (Meares et al., 2004)

*Specific forms of workplace abuse*

Discrimination (multiple authors) [race, age, religion, ethnicity, disability]

Ethnic harassment (Schneider et al., 2000)

Sexual harassment (Dougherty and Smythe, 2004; Pryor and Fitzgerald, 2003)

Abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000)

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**Subordinate phenomena**

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Incivility (Pearson et al., 2004)

Petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994)

Social ostracism (Williams and Sommer, 1997)

Verbal abuse (Cox, 1991)

Verbal aggressiveness (Infante and Rancer, 1996)

Victimization (Aquino and Bradfield, 2000)

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**2.1.9.1. Workplace Aggression**

The term workplace aggression refers to efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organization in which they are presently employed (Baron and Neuman, 1996, 1998). One of the specific types of workplace aggression being pervasive in the organizational context is referred to insider-initiated aggression where the perpetrator is typically a current employee of the

organization who targets a co-worker or supervisor for perceived wrongdoing (LeBlanc, 2004). Insider-initiated workplace aggression involves any behavior by employees that is intended to harm an individual within their organization or the organization itself (Neuman and Baron, 2005). In line with this context; Robinson and Bennet (1995) argued for target separation as workplace aggression being consisted of an interpersonal (aggression targeted at a person in the organization) and an organizational dimension (aggression targeted at the organization itself). The definition of workplace aggression is not confined to hierarchical displays rather it encompasses the negative behavior coming from superiors, co-workers and subordinates. The aggression studies therefore explore non-physical and hostile behavior perpetrated by individuals other than supervisors (Tepper, 2007). However, Baron et al., (1998) asserted that workplace aggression is perceived to be occurring in a downward direction. Moreover, the definition includes reference to the intention to harm which is the motive that makes an initiated action sequence aggressive, whether or not it achieves its intended effect (Folger and Skarlicki, 1997).

Being a broader concept; workplace aggression involves violence but also all those indirect behaviors that are intended to injure the other party both physically and/or emotionally (Bandura, 1973). In the study of Baron and Neuman (1998) workplace aggression is being categorized along three factors; verbal aggression (expressions of hostility), obstructionism and workplace violence (overt aggression).

The first dimension in Baron et al. (1998)'s workplace aggression framework refers to *verbal aggression*; behaviors which are symbolic in nature such as belittling others' opinions, talking behind the target's back and giving someone the silent treatment. With respect to its prevalence, Geddes and Baron (1997) found that 68.9 percent of the managers surveyed in their study reported being victims of verbal forms of aggression following negative performance evaluations.

*Obstructionism* includes behaviors that impede the target's performance such as failure to transmit critical information, failure to return phone calls. Because of their

passive nature, such behaviors are appealing to would-be aggressors who may harm a victim without being identified (Beugré, 2005).

Finally, *workplace violence* identifies behaviors associated with physical attack, theft or destruction of property, threats of physical violence (Baron et al., 1999). Investigators have demonstrated that verbal forms of aggression and actions designed to impede others from completing their work are more frequent in organizational settings than more violent form of aggression (Baron et al., 1998).

#### **2.1.9.1.1. Workplace Aggression versus Bullying**

Within the typology of aggressive behavior against employees in the organizational context; although workplace aggression and bullying have similar connotations, the former encompasses the features of workplace bullying as being the superordinate phenomenon (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). Workplace bullying involves acts of interpersonal aggression which is any form of behavior directed towards the goal of injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment (Neuman and Baron, 2003). The point of convergence is that while a single act of intentional harm-doing constitutes an act of aggression; it would not constitute bullying according to the definition, "...a conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is an isolated event..." (Einarsen et al., 2003, pp.179). All in all, workplace bullying involves repeated acts of interpersonal aggression directed against specific targets in work settings (Neuman and Baron, 2003).

#### **2.1.9.2. Workplace Victimization**

To continue with Lutgen-Sandvik et al.'s terminology; subordinate phenomena remains at the lowest level of the hierarchy and are forms of intermediate behaviors. In the hierarchy of terminology that encompasses the negative acts against the target individuals, the concept of workplace victimization is situated as a subordinate phenomenon which can also be perceived as a specific type of workplace bullying and is one of the characteristic elements of intermediate behaviors (Lutgen-Sandvik

et al., 2007). That is, workplace bullying subsumes the issue of victimization as well with minor distinctions between the two notions (Aquino and Lamertz, 2004).

Before the extensive contributions of Aquino and his colleagues in the realm of workplace victimization, Viano's (1989) model of perceived victimization was depicted as an individual level of construct stating four different stages in which the target person has to pass all of these in order to be cited as a 'victim'. Firstly, a person experiences harm or suffering caused by another employee or the organization; then some of these people conceive that harm as unjust which leads them to view themselves as victims. In the third stage, the people who see themselves as victims try to achieve social validation via persuading others about victimization incidence. Finally, some of those who claim that they have been victimized receive external validation, only then they become official victims. However Aquino and Byron (2002) viewed the above-mentioned model as too restrictive therefore the definition has been revised as an employee's perception of having been exposed either momentarily or repeatedly to emotionally, psychologically or physically injurious actions emanating from one or more other persons (Aquino et al. 1999). Workplace victimization occurs when an employee's well-being is harmed by an act of aggression perpetrated by one or more members of the organization. An employee's well-being is harmed when the needs such as sense of belonging, a feeling that one is a worthy individual, believing that one has the ability to predict and to cognitively control one's environment and being able to trust others are unmet (Stevens and Fiske, 1995; cited in Aquino and Thau, 2009 ) The definition of construct indicates that victimizing behaviors can be both direct and indirect triggered from either higher, co-worker or lower perpetrator's status (Aquino and Thau, 2009).

The dichotomy between two types of character as submissive versus proactive victims may lead both of these groups to become targets of workplace victimization (Harvey et al., 2006). The former character type being passive, insecure in nature and unwilling to defend itself against attacks is juxtaposed with the proactive type that

entails aggressive, hostile, hence provoking behavior. It has been found that people who have proactive character also report being more frequent targets of others' harmful actions (e.g., Aquino and Bradfield, 2000). The justification for this finding is that highly aggressive people are more likely to behave in ways that lead observers to perceive them as disruptive, hostile, or potential perpetrators of bullying. According to Aquino et al. (1999) these people may become targets of aggressive behavior because they interpret a large portion of their interactions with others as identity threats and respond to those threats with hostility and aggression thereby making them more likely targets of aggression from other organizational members (Tepper, 2006).

#### **2.1.9.2.1. Workplace Victimization versus Bullying**

The core dimension in the bullying concept is exposure to repetitive and enduring negative acts co-workers, superiors or subordinates leading to the victimization of the target (Einarsen, 2000). Hoel et al. (2001) presented the concept 'victimization' for those cases where individuals are singled out, thus representing one end of a continuum of bullying, while 'oppressive work regime' is suggested when everyone is subject to the same experience, and as representing the other end of the continuum. The similarities and the difference between the two constructs reveal that workplace bullying subsumes perceived victimization as the former being an intermediate phenomenon. Initially, both of the constructs are not limited to downward hostility; that is to say they encompass aggressive mistreatment perpetrated laterally and upwardly; though most of the studies have focused on downward victimization that occurs more frequently than the other forms (Tepper, 2007) Another convergence is that both victimization and bullying definitions ascribe reference to intention to harm and therefore intended negative outcomes. In this sense, victimization is defined as the perception that one has been subjected to aggressive interpersonal behaviors that are aimed to inflict harm and injury (Buss, 1961).

The only point of divergence according to Tepper (2007) is that workplace victimization content domain involves expressions of physical hostility together with psychological harm. This is reflected in Aquino's (2000) questionnaire items such as 'threw something at you', 'pushed or punched you' and 'threatened you with physical harm'. In contrast, the content of workplace bullying consist of negative behaviors such as social isolation or silent treatment, rumors, attacking the victim's private life or attitudes, excessive criticism or monitoring of work, withholding information or depriving responsibility, and verbal aggression thus acts of physical violence tend to be rather rare in bullying. (Einarsen, 1996; Keashly, 1998)

### **2.1.9.3. Workplace Bullying versus Mobbing**

The definition of bullying encompasses harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks and disregards one time isolated incidences and the aggressive relationship between two parties of approximately equal strength from its scope (Einarsen et al., 2003). On the other hand; mobbing being referred as a severe form of harassing people in organizations (Zapf et al., 1996), it is associated with process development whereas bullying with behavior (Hoel et al., 2006). Mobbing can be considered as hostile and unethical behavior perpetrated by one or more people towards mainly one person who is unable to defend him or herself (Shorenstein, 2007). Mobbing would be referred as an "exaggerated conflict that could be subtle in execution but resulted in devastating consequences" (Leymann, 1996, pp.172).

The main distinction between bullying and mobbing is primarily related to the choice of focus, with UK scholars draw attention to the bully and perpetrator behavior, while Scandinavian and German researchers emphasize the experience of victims (Zapf and Einarsen, 2005). While the content of bullying emphasizes the imbalance of power in displaying aggressive behavior delivered to the target individual; mobbing is more likely to be the work of colleagues (Zapf and Einarsen, 2005). The term bullying is specifically concerned with aggression from someone in a

managerial position (Zapf, 1999). However Aquino and Thau (2009) asserted that the perpetrator's status in both mobbing and workplace bullying incidences is to be the same as including individuals from higher, lower levels and co-workers.

In terms of the type of behavior involved, Leymann (1996) claimed that bullying being associated with more direct forms of aggression and subtle and more indirect behavior identified with mobbing. By contrast Aquino and Thau (2009) included direct and indirect victimizing behaviors within the scope of both mobbing and bullying. Einarsen et al., (2003) also argued that bullying may better be suitable for predatory kinds of situations while mobbing may be more in line with dispute related cases. Finally, while bullying is most frequently considered the work of an individual, mobbing is to a greater extent considered a group phenomenon wherein the negative acts are directed by a group or by an individual supported by others (Hallberg and Strandmark 2004; Zapf 1999). The concept of 'mobbing' has also been criticized for "not referring to a group ganging up on an individual" whereas bullying has embraced the systematic mistreatment of an employee by one or more perpetrators (Shorenstein, 2007). In other words, the term 'mobbing' is used to describe the bullying incidents with multiple perpetrators whereas the bullying identifies the behavior of a single perpetrator against one or more target individuals (Mayhew et al., 2004).



## 2.2. Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is the initial concept that was analyzed for exploring its relation with workplace bullying in this study. Since the aim of the study is to reveal the potential impact of workplace bullying incidences on employee perceptions of organizational justice; this section reviews relevant literature on organizational justice conceptualization and leaves its connotation with workplace bullying in “Theory and Hypotheses” Section of the study.

### 2.2.1. The Concept of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice being a profoundly discussed topic more than three decades in organizational behavior literature; underlines the individuals’ perceptions of fairness in organizational settings (Greenberg, 1987). As Moorman (1991, pp.845) stated, ‘It is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables.’ The theoretical basis of the concept laying back to late 1940s has emerged with the term *relative deprivation* coined by Stouffer and his colleagues; thus their idea of highlighting deprivation as relative in contrast to absolute or objective quantity has provided the core of subsequent research (Cropanzano and Randall, 1993).

In general, organizational justice research has taken the form of two-way structure; firstly employee responses to the fairness of outcomes which is termed as *distributive justice* and secondly the means or the processes employed in obtaining those outcomes called *procedural justice* have been distinguished (Greenberg, 1993). However advances in organizational justice research have emphasized “quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures” (Bies and Moag, 1986; pp.44) that employees are confronted from decision makers named as *interactional justice* has appeared as an alternative third conceptualization.

### **2.2.2. Distributive Justice (DJ)**

Being the intrinsic dimension of organizational justice conceptualization, much of the initial studies were primarily concerned with distributive justice on the basis of Adams' (1965) social exchange theory framework that evaluated fairness (Colquitt, 2001). The notion of distributive justice is related with how individuals judge the fairness of the outcomes thus how they respond to perceived inequity in the outcome distribution (Neuman and Baron, 2003). The scope of Adams' theory differentiated the judgment of absolute versus relative level of outcomes; he purported that one way to determine whether an outcome is fair or not is to calculate the ratio of one's inputs to one's outcome and then compare the ratio with that of the others' contributions; which would enable the comparison of the two input-outcome ratios. Equity theory of Adams has viewed the 'social interaction as reciprocal exchange governed by a norm of distributive justice' (Oner, 2008). Yet other scholars have criticized the uni-dimensionality of this approach in terms of how the domain of behavior that the theory aims to rationalize is overextended and the theory fails to incorporate the fairness concerns within all of social motivation (Kidd and Utne, 1978).

When the individual compares his or her input/output ratio to the others, s/he feels equity when two ratios are equal and inequity when they are unequal (Adams, 1965). Adams argued that when individuals perceive their ends to be received as unfair in comparison to referent others, they attempt to restore justice. However the motivation for re-establishing equity may differ with respect to the magnitude of inequity experienced. So in a situation of inequity, people may attempt either behaviorally (altering inputs, job performance) or psychologically restore equity. One method of restoring justice is to reduce inputs or act in a counterproductive manner to rebalance the input-output ratio (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Distributive injustice appears when a person does not attain the amount of reward s/he expects in comparison with the reward that another person receives. Distributive

justice involves the receiver's views on how his/her outcome is relative to a referent's outcome, the outcome of another co-worker. So the insight of relative deprivation for individuals as a result of being unfairly benefited in a particular give and take relationship may tend to produce inequity (Colquitt, 2001).

As it is originally formulated in Adams' (1965) equity theory; when employees perceive the work conditions as unjust they do not simply become dissatisfied rather they are inclined do something about them in return. Likewise, as cited by Greenberg (1990, pp.400), "...if the ratios are unequal, the party whose ratio is higher is theorized to be inequitably overpaid (and to feel guilty) whereas the party whose ratio is lower is theorized to be inequitably underpaid (and to feel angry)..." The equity theory of Adams presumes that individuals continuously compare the fairness of their own or other's rewards thus leading to consider distributive justice as of an exchange. People look at what they have done in exchange for what they receive (Lambert, 2003).

#### **2.2.2.1. Referent Cognitions Theory**

As an attempt to challenge the domination of Adams' equity theory in the prevalent distributive justice literature, Folger and Martin (1986) have proposed Referent Cognitions Theory (RCT) with the premise of integrating dynamics of distributive and procedural justice. RCT is elaborated on the basis of problematic equity theory's attempts in justifying reward allocation results because the latter has ignored reactions related to the way that the decisions leading to those results were made (Folger, 1977; 1986b; Folger and Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg, 1987).

Referent cognitions framework has identified two types of reactions against the injustice perceptions; resentment and dissatisfactions reactions (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). The former is posited to result from beliefs about procedures that could be employed to acquire outcomes whereas the latter is more related to the distributive justice side of the spectrum thus emphasizing the relative outcomes

themselves. As the name 'referent' suggests; dissatisfaction emerges when the receivers compare the real situation to a more favorable alternative (Aquino et al., 1999). In line with the theory, according to Folger (1986) the perception of injustice prevails as a result of two judgments. Initially, the distributive justice part of the theory is being reflected when the individual judges if s/he *would* have received the desired outcome under different circumstances. In the second step, the individual also judges if s/he *should* have received the outcome in question; so the distinction between *should* and *would* becomes the underlying feature in procedural and distributive justice linkage (Cropanzano and Randall, 1993).

As it is already stated, the basis for referent cognitions theory has provided a potential schema for the interactive effects between distributive and procedural justice in the organizational settings. The theory has also implications in such a way that, when outcomes are perceived as unfair, that is when distributive justice is low and procedures employed by the management are regarded as unfair; anger and aggressiveness are two possible repercussions on the part of the employees (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). By contrast, when the procedures are viewed as just, the potential for aggressiveness is tended to be minimized although the outcomes may be poor thus reflecting distributive injustice. In such a situation employees who depicted prevalent procedural justice in the organization would not opt for a change in procedures that would entail better outcomes (Gürpınar, 2006).

### **2.2.3. Procedural Justice (PJ)**

The concept of distributive justice being outcome-oriented in essence attempted to reveal how employees react to distribution of organizational rewards; however this perspective has ignored the means through which ends are achieved. Just as individuals are concerned with the fairness of the outcomes that they receive, they are also sensitive to the process used to determine those outcomes (Bies, 1987). With the aim of responding to the question of 'how the outcomes are the determined'; the concept of procedural justice is aspired to emphasize the fairness of the means used

to achieve those ends (Greenberg, 1990). Two criteria have been suggested for the scope of procedural justice; *process control* as the ability to express one's views during the procedure formation and *decision control* as the ability of the employees to influence the actual outcome itself (Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means by which organizations and their representatives make allocation decisions (Tepper et al., 2006). In other words, the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to determine the outcomes is particularized within the scope of procedural justice (Moorman, 1991). These procedures often consist of procedures associated with determining promotions, terminations, performance ratings, bonuses, or anything else of value that the organization provides (Roch and Shanock, 2006).

In referring to the structural determinants of procedural justice, Leventhal's (1976; cited in 1980) theory of procedural justice judgments is to be elaborated. In determining the fairness of decisions underlying the outcome distribution; Leventhal et al. (1980) have identified six criteria that a procedure should fulfill if it is to be perceived as fair. The first criterion is **consistency** which stated that procedures must be applied consistently across people and across time to ensure fairness. When the consistency rule is being applied across persons; it implies that similar procedures are to be executed to all recipients; whereas when it is being applied over time, it dictates that the specific procedure should be kept stable.

Secondly, **bias suppression** must be enhanced which ensures that a third party has no vested interest in a particular settlement that is to say procedures are being developed without prioritizing the self-interests of others. Leventhal (1980) has stated that if the decision maker is guided with his/her personal interest or influenced by prior beliefs which deter the equal consideration of all other view points; then the procedure is deemed to unfair. **Rule of accuracy** as the third criterion underlined the importance of accurate information in the establishment of procedures likewise; **rule of correctability** entailed to have a mechanism to correct the flawed procedures. **Rule of representativeness** intended to guarantee that the opinions of various

stakeholders affected by the decision have been integrated in the decision making process.

Lastly, **rule of ethicality** referred to the prevailing standards of ethics in development of procedures. These six structural determinants of procedural justice seek to determine the fairness of allocation procedures (Eskew, 1993). Having encompassed the issues of employee voice, appropriateness of evaluative criteria, accuracy of the information; the concept of procedural justice implies structural features of the decision making process and tends to be a better predictor of reactions to the organization as a whole (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). Leventhal (1980) has pointed out that different rules would be applied selectively at different situations that is to say; on the basis of individual's perception about procedural fairness, each of these rules would be prioritized differently in distinct situations thus assigned a different weight. Individuals are tended to assign various weights to these rules with and these relative weights of the procedural rules applicable in a certain situation may vary from one situation to another.

#### **2.2.4. Interactional Justice (IJ)**

Employees assess the scope of events with respect to perceived fairness of three dimensions; the outcomes they receive from the organization (distributive justice), formal procedures by which outcomes are allocated (procedural justice) and ultimately the interpersonal treatment they receive at the hands of organizational decision makers which is being labeled as interactional justice (Cropanzano, 2002). Interactional justice is described as the 'third wave' in the organizational justice typology, with the 'first wave' consisting of distributive justice and the 'second wave' consisting of procedural justice (Colquit et al., 2005). Interactional justice emphasizes the quality of interpersonal interaction between individuals when procedures are implemented (Bies and Moag, 1986). Perceived interactional justice exists when the individuals appraise the fair treatment by an authority figure during the enactment of a formal procedure (Hershcovis et al., 2007). An effective

organizational functioning is also characterized by the quality of interpersonal treatment that employees receive during the decision making process from supervisors; therefore supervisors can fulfill the interactional justice obligations by having respectful interpersonal communication (Rahim et al., 2000). Together with the perceptions of justice related to outcomes and procedures, perceptions of fair communication in social exchange relationships are of employee concern (Fournier, 2008).

#### **2.2.4.1. The Division of Interactional Justice into Interpersonal and Informational Justice**

Tyler and Bies (1990) have identified two major streams that perceptions of interactional justice is likely to occur; these are when decision makers treat individuals with dignity and when subordinates are provided with adequate justifications and explanations with regard to decisions taken. These two separate streams led to sub-categorization of interactional justice as *interpersonal justice* based on respect and propriety and *informational justice* based on truthfulness and justification (Greenberg, 1993). Likewise, Colquitt (2001) has argued that interactional justice concept is portrayed to be too broad in which employees' evaluations of their interpersonal and informational treatment may lead to distinct outcomes. The former one reflects the degree to which employees are treated with dignity and respect by authorities involved procedure execution and outcome determination. The latter type labeled as informational justice; entails explanations provided to employees that communicate information about why procedures are designed in a certain way or why outcomes are distributed in a certain manner (Colquitt, 2001). In contrast to the studies that categorized interactional justice into two types; other researchers have combined the interpersonal and informational components under the title of interactional justice (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

#### **2.2.4.2. Distinction between Procedural and Interactional Justice**

The relationship between procedural and interactional forms of justice has been evolved as theoretical limbo in such a way that the researchers could not be able to reach to consensus regarding whether interactional justice should be treated as a separate construct or whether it is just the social aspect side of procedural justice concept.

Initially, early empirical studies emphasized interactional justice as unique from procedural justice (Bies and Moag, 1986) Being seen as separate constructs; PJ was comprehended as perceived fairness in the formal aspects of the process by which a decision is made; whereas IJ was grasped as an appraisal of the interpersonal treatment received during work allocation (Bies, 1987). Put another way, interactional justice refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment that an employee receives from his/her supervisor during the execution of organizational procedures; whereas procedural justice signifies a fair exchange relationship between the employee and organization.

After a decade or so, researchers attempted to put emphasis on the similarity between these two previously called ‘separate constructs’. In line with this approach, Greenberg (1993) highlighted how interactional justice components are inherent in procedural and distributive justice, thus it would be deluding to talk of the independent effects of interpersonal justice. The scholars adhered to this camp upheld both PJ and IJ as parts of the same process by which an allocation decision is made. Within this scope; PJ referred to the formal aspects where as IJ the social aspects of the process hence both of the conceptualizations were perceived to be the aspects of a single construct (Tripp and Bies 1997; cited in Bies, 2001).

Recently, the distinction between procedural and interactional justice concepts have been revisited; the most significant contribution was suggested by Bies who originally proposed the concept of interactional justice in 1986. Although,



interactional justice underlined the extent of interpersonal treatment during the enactment of organizational procedures; Bies (2001, cited in Colquitt and Greenberg, 2005; pp.101) refined the term arguing that “...people are concerned about interpersonal treatment in their *everyday encounters* in organizations... interactional concerns transcend formal decision-making contexts.” In this way, his updated construct domain has included variety of types of interpersonal treatment that surpasses procedures and outcomes in the decision-making contexts such as derogatory judgments, deception, invasion of privacy, and disrespect.

Likewise, the study of Moorman (1991) with respect to the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational justice perceptions has revealed that only interactional justice was significantly related to the performance of OCBs. It is only when employees perceive that they are being fairly treated by their supervisors, they are more likely to participate in citizenship behaviors. Interactional justice is more of a concern with the issues like trust, respect and care whereas; procedural justice prioritizes instrumental concerns (Fournier, 2008). Similarly, Fuller and Hester (2001, cited in Fournier, 2008) have supported the distinction between interactional and procedural justice in that a supervisor may lack discretion to control organizational procedures rather s/he is conceptualized as having discretion in the enactment of procedures.

#### **2.2.4.3. Distinguishing Procedural Justice from Interactional Justice via Social Exchange Theory**

The organizational justice context characterized by obscurity with respect to the indeterminate dividing line between procedural and interactional forms of justice can be clarified through the conceptual precision enabled by social exchange theory (SET) (Masterson et al., 2000). Before excavating the dynamics of aforementioned theory, it is crucial to distinguish *economic* versus *social* types of exchange. The scope of economic exchange entails conformity of respective parties in terms of a

specific exchange of benefits that are articulated in an exact time frame and with terms that are enforceable by third parties (Colquitt and Greenberg, 2005).

By contrast, being more diffuse in essence, social exchange spans obligations which are unspecified and the standards for measuring contributions are often unclear. Social exchange relationships are informally developed between two parties via mutual exchanges that ‘yield a pattern of reciprocal obligation in each party’ (Blau, 1964). Blau maintained that not only social exchange “involves favors that create diffuse future obligations . . . and the nature of the return cannot be bargained” and “only social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust; purely economic exchange as such does not” (pp.48). Unlike economic exchange, the benefits entailed in social exchange relationship do not have “an exact price in terms of a single quantitative medium of exchange.”

The manifestation of social exchange theory in work settings presumes that organizations are forums for transactions where the association between two important exchange partners as employees and institutions are being revealed (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Settoon et al., (1996) mentioned social exchange in organizational contexts at two distinct levels: (a) in terms of large-scale exchanges between employees and the organization and (b) in terms of dyadic relationships between employees and their supervisors. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) employees form social exchange relationships with their immediate supervisors, co-workers and the employing organization as a result of which they are inclined to return the benefits toward the other party on the basis of goodwill and with possible expectation of a return at some future point in time. Blau (1964) has elaborated that the nature of relationship between interacting parties influences the type of social exchange. Because formal procedures are established by the organization; procedural justice should be associated with responses directed toward the employing organization. Alternatively, because some other transactions stem from the supervisor; then interactional justice should be associated with responses directed towards the supervisor (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

In a similar vein; Moorman (1991) inferred that procedural justice ensures the fairness of the organization while interactional justice surmises the fairness of the supervisor-referenced outcomes. Likewise, Masterson et al., (2000) demonstrated that interactional justice predicted notions such as citizenship behaviors directed at supervisor and supervisor rating of performance; whereas procedural justice envisaged citizenship behaviors directed at the organization and organizational commitment. This contemplation is also recapped by Folger and Cropanzano (1998) through the discussion on the concept of accountability. The authors remarked that when individuals are exposed to the behavior of perceived injustice, they tend to label accountable party; once identified, individuals' reactions are targeted at that party. Since organizations develop the procedures while supervisors enact them vis-à-vis employees; it is reasonable to accept that procedural justice affects reactions against the organization whereas interactional justice relates to the supervisor. One of the major arguments made in support of distinguishing three forms of organizational justice is that each of its dimension has a unique relationship with organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (St-Pierre and Holmes, 2010; Colquitt, 2001). By contrast, organizational injustice perceptions may impact "communication in the workplace via spreading rumors about co-workers, failing to provide information to a coworker or giving a coworker the silent treatment, expressions of negative emotions and attitudes toward group members" (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997, pp.439).

#### **2.2.4.4. Distributive Justice from Social Exchange Theory Perspective**

The amplification of two types of organizational justice namely procedural and interactional by social exchange theory has tended to exclude the distributive justice from its scope. The rationale behind this theoretical framework was due to the focus of distributive justice on economic relationships as opposed to social relationships. However Roch and Shanock (2006) have signified broader exchange perspective spanning economic exchange relationships as well. Since economic exchanges are

highlighted with agreed-upon obligations of both parties and these relationships are also in terms of contractual relationships focused on outcomes provided by the organization; distributive justice can be incorporated into an exchange model as encompassing a more economic type of relationship.

All in all, organizational model of justice (OMJ) proposed by Wingrove (2009) upon the contributions of Colquitt (2001) has asserted that four distinct types of organizational justice envisage different types of outcomes. Procedural justice being more influential on institution-related outcomes differs from self-relevant evaluations of distributive justice. Similarly interpersonal justice being based upon evaluations of decision-maker diverges with outcomes of interpersonal justice which are more related to group identity.

### **2.3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Organizational citizenship behavior is the second concept that is analyzed for exploring its relation with workplace bullying in this study. Since the aim of the study is to reveal the potential impact of these extra-role behaviors on workplace bullying incidents; this section reviews relevant literature on organizational citizenship behavior conceptualization and leaves its connotation with workplace bullying in “Theory and Hypotheses” Section of the study.

#### **2.3.1. The Concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Performance of an employee in the work setting can be explicated in terms of two dimensions; (1) job specific behavior as defined in a job description and (2) non-job specific behaviors, or what Organ (1988) labels ‘extra-role’ work behavior (Sezgin, 2009). The beginning of 1980s was highlighted with a strong research interest on the topic of extra-role behaviors in organizational settings. With an attempt to discern several behaviors that have accumulative positive effect on the organizational functioning and job performance; the concept of organizational citizenship behavior had entered into the picture (Organ, 1988). According to Katz and Kahn (1966), effective organizational functioning occurs when employees are committed, dependable, and participate in voluntary behaviors not formally part of their job descriptions. Organ (1988) has asserted that the effective functioning of the organization transcends its subordinates’ in-role behaviors in such a way that it encompasses extra-role or prosocial behaviors. Similarly Katz (1964, cited in 1966) has stated that “an organization which depends solely upon its blueprints for prescribed behavior is a fragile social system” that would collapse which emphasizes the significance of acts beyond the line of duty. Thus, OCB refers to constructive gestures that are neither obligatory by formal job-role definitions nor contractually compensated by the formal organizational reward system (Organ, 1997). OCB is conceptualized as including large set work-related employee contributions, prosocial

in nature, that are perceived to entail organizational effectiveness (Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

Similarly, Schnake (1991) has described OCB as functional, extra-role and prosocial employee behaviors directed at various targets that constitute the organization. His definition has incorporated only those helping behaviors that are not formally stipulated by the organization but performed and for which they are not directly rewarded and punished. Since the exercise of citizenship behaviors is not compelled by the job; even if they occur, they are neither explicitly rewarded by the management nor faced with punitive action (Organ, 1990). As OCB excludes dysfunctional and noncompliant behaviors; Van Dyne et al. (1994) exemplify this behavior as assisting one's colleagues, exceeding company norms, not taking work time to engage with personal issues or volunteering in ad hoc duties.

Furthermore, two significant definitions of organizational citizenship behavior are cited by Organ (1988) and Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) respectively;

*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.*

*Discretionary behavior directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role expectations, and benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit it.*

Both of the definitions underline organizational citizenship behavior as being 'discretionary' in nature; that is to say 'behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the job description' (Organ, 1988). It signifies that the behavior is a result of personal choice in which it not clearly specifiable in the individual's employment contract with the organization, hence goes beyond the formal job descriptions. This voluntary behavior may be related to the intra-organizational dynamics and may also be devoted to be beneficial for alleviating another coworker's workload thus leading to

improvements in organizational effectiveness (Tansky, 1993). Organ and Ryan (1995, pp.775) have defined OCB as “individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements.” In a similar vein, Williams and Anderson (1991) have also argued that organizational citizenship behavior surpasses the already imposed role requirements in its benefits to the organization. Likewise, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) asserted that OCBs exceed delineated role expectations but are important for an organization’s survival.

However, Organ (1997) noted the problem with ‘discretionary’ conceptualization stating that OCB contains elements that many observers would deem part of their jobs. This concern was also supported with the findings of Morrison (1994) who reported that OCB items (17 items of 19 OCB items of Organ) were described by the majority of the respondents as in-role thus reflected ill-defined nature of OCB. The fuzzy insight of the term on the part of employees is also shared by management team as well. So, the conceptualization of what constitutes OCB may vary from one employee to the next; the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior remains to be blurred. Moorman and Blakely (1995) maintained that although OCBs are beneficial from organizational perspective; managers usually have encountered with intricacy in depicting their occurrence or penalizing their absence via formal rewards due to the voluntary nature of the behavior.

### **2.3.2. Common Themes in Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

According to Organ (1988), OCBs are behaviors that employees are not explicitly rewarded for exhibiting nor punished for not exhibiting; and are behaviors for which employees do not receive training to perform. These non-traditional behaviors are on-the-job behaviors that are not usually captured by traditional job descriptions (Moorman, 1991). A review of literature in the area of organizational citizenship behavior exposes lack of consensus about the dimensionality of the construct. However among the different forms of citizenship behavior that are being identified

by researchers, there is conceptual overlap between the constructs. Yet, seven common themes can be depicted as follows;

*i. Helping Behavior:* It highlights voluntarily assisting others with work-related problems or preventing the occurrence of such problems (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

*ii. Sportsmanship:* It is defined as willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining (Organ, 1990). However Podsakoff et al. (2000) have extended the definition to include behaviors that maintain positive attitude even when things do not go their way and are willing to sacrifice their personal interest at the expense of the work group success.

*iii. Organizational loyalty:* It entails promoting the organization to outsiders and defending it against external threats and feeling oneself as committed to organizational norms even under adverse conditions (Graham, 1991).

*iv. Organizational compliance:* This dimension captures a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations and procedures which results in an adherence to them, even when no one monitors compliance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). It is labeled as generalized compliance by Smith et al. (1983) and organizational obedience by Graham (1991).

*v. Individual initiative:* It refers to employees' willingness to engage in task-related behavior at a level that transcends minimally required and generally expected level. Such behaviors include voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve organization's performance, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities. Being similar to conscientiousness dimension of Organ (1988); it is difficult to distinguish it from in-role behavior.

*vi. Civic virtue:* This dimension being derived from Graham's discussion of civic citizenship represents a macro-level commitment to the organization which is



reflected as the effort to participate actively in its governance, to look for its best interests even at great personal cost (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

**vii. Self-development:** It includes voluntary behaviors than employees exhibit to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities. It may include learning a new set of skills to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

### **2.3.3. Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

In addition to the literature on OCB that has identified five dimensions of this extra-role behavior, Williams and Anderson (1991) has designated two-dimensional structure of OCB as (1) organizational citizenship behavior–organization (OCBO), behaviors that benefit the organization in general or benefits directed at the organization such as performing duties that are not required but enable organizational image and performance; (2) organizational citizenship behavior–individual (OCBI), behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals thus indirectly contribute to the organization. Whereas the former dimension has implications of conscientiousness dimension, the latter connotes to altruism. Organ (1988, 1990) has defined five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior as follows;

**i. Altruism:** It refers to voluntary behavior that is directly and intentionally targeted at helping a specific person in a work-related problem. It encompasses the tendency to be concerned for the well-being of other colleagues thus contributing more to the performance of another employee (Smith et al., 1983); in this manner altruistic behavior is intended to help either co-workers or supervisors (Neuman and Kickul, 1998). (i.e. instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, assisting someone with heavy workload, willingly training other new employees in work-related issues)

**ii. Conscientiousness:** Conscientiousness is defined as helping behavior aimed at the overall organization. (i.e. staying late to finish a project even though there is no overtime or direct payment) Conscientiousness is positively related to altruism which

refers to one employee working to aid another (Neuman and Kickul, 1998). These are the behaviors that do not entail direct assistance to others but includes personal characteristics such as dependability, perseverance, work dedication and following of policies (Fournier, 2008). Organ and Ryan (1995) labeled this dimension as compliance because the concept of compliance pertains to more impersonal contributions to the organizations in such forms as exemplary attendance, use of work time, respect for company property, and faithful adherence to rules about work procedures and conduct (Sezgin, 2009). Thus, it is a pattern of going beyond minimally required levels of attendance and punctuality.

**iii. Sportsmanship:** It describes the tendency of the employees to endure impositions or inconveniences without complaint (Bolino, 1999). Organ and Ryan (1995) have viewed the dimension as the demonstration of willingness to forbear minor and temporary personal inconveniences and impositions without fuss, appeal, or protest.

**iv. Courtesy:** It encompasses preventing problems via keeping others informed of one's decisions which may affect them and passing along information to those who may find it useful. Courtesy is different from altruism in that the former includes checking with other employees before taking action so to avoid overloading others thus eliminating the need for altruistic behavior (Fournier, 2008). Schnake, Dumler and Cochran (1993) stated that courtesy includes actions designed to keep others informed before taking action or warning others of impending actions that might affect them.

**v. Civic Virtue:** It involves behaviors that describe the active participation of employees in company affairs such as keeping up with organizational issues and attending meetings (Bolino, 1999). These behaviors prioritize putting goals, objectives and interests of the organization ahead of one's self-interest (Fournier, 2008). Organ and Ryan (1995) have defined the dimension as being responsible and displaying constructive involvement in the issues and governance of the organization.

The above-mentioned dimensional framework proposed by Organ (1988) was first measured by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Besides this scale was used in many other studies in organizational behavior literature (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff and Organ, 1993; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996b; Tansky, 1993). Therefore, this five-dimension framework will be used in the present study.

#### **2.3.4. Alternative Models for Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Apart from Organ's (1988) conceptualization of OCB dimensions, several other researchers have proposed alternative categorizations. To start with Graham (1991), he argued that organizational citizenship can be re-conceptualized as a global concept composed of several correlated substantive categories that span all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of employees. The intention for a broader scope led the author to include traditional in-role job performance behaviors, extra-role behaviors and political behaviors into the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions (Van Dyne et al., 1994). He defined the categories as follows;

*i. Organizational Obedience:* It reflects the acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies. Obedience can be in terms of punctuality in task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

*ii. Organizational Loyalty:* It is the identification with and allegiance to an organization's leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. It may be reflected as defending the organization against threats, contributing to its good reputation, and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

**iii. Organizational Participation:** It refers to the interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue validated by an individual's keeping informed and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance. The examples may include attending non-required meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, being willing to deliver bad news or support an unpopular view to combat 'group think' (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Furthermore, Moorman and Blakely (1995) have developed OCB scale that aimed to integrate the Organ (1988) and Van Dyne et al. (1994) models. The first dimension being, **interpersonal helping** focuses on helping co-workers in their jobs when such help was needed, whilst refers to altruism behaviors. Secondly, **individual initiative** resembling to civic virtue; refers to communications to others in the workplace to improve individual and group performance. Thirdly, **personal industry** is the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty thus representing conscientiousness behaviors. Lastly, **loyal boosterism** reflects the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders.

**Table 2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior Dimensions by different scholars**

<i><b>Citizenship Behavior Dimension</b></i>	<i><b>Organ (1988, 1990)</b></i>	<i><b>Moorman and Blakely (1995)</b></i>	<i><b>Graham (1991)</b></i>
Helping behavior	Altruism Courtesy	Interpersonal Helping	
Sportsmanship	Sportsmanship		
Organizational loyalty		Loyal boosterism	Organizational loyalty
Organizational compliance	Generalized compliance		Organizational obedience
Individual initiative	Conscientiousness	Personal Industry Individual initiative	
Civic virtue	Civic virtue		Organizational participation

### **2.3.5. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: In-role versus Extra-role Behavior**

A further theoretical issue that has spawned a debate in the literature is whether or not organizational citizenship behavior can be viewed as separate from in-role behavior (Organ, 1988). In this respect, Morrison (1994) has argued that many of these extra-role behaviors that are depicted as discretionary and not formally rewarded by the organization were perceived by the employees as part of their job requirements. She believes that “the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior is ill-defined and subject to multiple interpretations” (Morrison, 1994, pp.1544). Initially, OCB literature has been based on the scales that assumed clear-cut distinction between extra-role and in-role behaviors (Smith et al., 1983; Bateman and Organ, 1983; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1988.) However, later this assumption was challenged on the basis of individual person's tendency to view particular behaviors as expected part of their jobs, even though they may believe they are discretionary forms of behavior that goes beyond the formal reward system (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In line with this, the suggestion by Morrison (1994) in terms of asking the respondents to classify each behavior into the categories as (a) it is an expected part of my job and (b) it is somewhat above and beyond of what is expected for my job, has become futile. Instead, Organ (1988) has proposed the model to ask the respondents if the behavior is (a) an explicit part of the job description; (b) something they are trained by the organization to do; and (c) formally rewarded when exhibited and punished when it was not exhibited. According to the model of Tepper, Lockhart and Hoobler (2001); employees who perceive OCB as extra-role behavior recognize the non-punishable nature of withholding those behaviors, thus it allows the employees to modify their OCB either upward (in response to favorable treatment) or downward (in response to unfavorable treatment) (Zellars et al., 2002).

### **2.3.6. The Rationale behind Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Bateman and Organ (1983) have proposed the construct of OCB to denote organizationally beneficial behaviors that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. The rationale behind performing those prosocial behaviors in workplaces can be explained via *social exchange theory* and *perceptions of fairness*.

Firstly, in line with premises of the former theory; employees perform OCBs when they believe that their relationship with organization is characterized by social exchange. Compared with economic exchange, social exchanges consist of informal contracts and diffuse agreements in which the participants' contributions are unspecified (Organ, 1990). To the extent that an employee's satisfaction stems from the efforts of organizational officials and such efforts are non-manipulative in nature; that individual is tended to reciprocate those efforts (Gadot-Vigoda, 2006). Since citizenship behaviors are more likely to be under an individual's control, they are more likely to be a salient form of reciprocation (Organ, 1990). In other words, employees react to positive supervisory treatment or organizational conditions by exhibiting extra-role behavior and thus following a norm of positive reciprocity which obligates people to respond positively to favorable treatment from others (Thau et al., 2008). When employees regard social exchange as positive within the scope of individual versus organization relationship; they are tended to participate in behaviors that benefit the organization transcending the boundaries of work/pay contract. In this sense; organizational effectiveness stems from the social exchange relationships and citizenship behaviors of the employees. To the extent that employees consider their employment relationship as of a social exchange, reciprocation would likely to generate behaviors that are outside of any contractual promise (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993).

Secondly, performance of OCBs may be stipulated from one's perceptions of fairness or unfairness (Schnake, 1991; Organ, 1988). Even though the relationship

between the concepts of organizational justice and citizenship behavior is beyond the scope of this study, the causal mechanism beneath it deserves attention thoroughly. Organ (1990) has postulated a general tendency of people withholding OCB if they perceive unfairness in pay/rewards. An individual confronted with perceived injustices in the workplace may not be able to refrain from performing his/her formal role requirements that may result with official sanctions; instead as a response s/he may withhold voluntary behaviors to adjust his/her work input. People who perceive inequity are likely to limit their discretionary contribution to those behaviors that are formally prescribed (Gadot-Vigoda, 2006). Likewise, since OCB is discretionary in essence and transcends employees' formal role requirements, a decrease in OCB would reflect a less radical change to employees' reward-to-input ratio than a possible withholding of in-role task behavior (Organ, 1990).

#### **2.3.7. Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Organizational Effectiveness and Efficiency**

Organizational citizenship behavior exhibited by employees is a crucial determinant of the relative success of any organization. Several studies have emphasized how performance of OCBs that reflects employee contributions not prescribed by formal role obligations is presumed to augment organizational effectiveness and efficiency of an organization (Organ and Konovsky, 1989; MacKenzie et al., 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997). As it is suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2000), OCB may contribute to organizational performance and success via (1) increasing co-worker or managerial productivity, (2) releasing resources so they can be used for more productive purposes, (3) coordinating activities within and across work groups, (4) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, (5) strengthening the organizations' ability to attract and retain the best employees, (6) increasing the stability of the organization's performance, and (7) enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

According to Organ et al. (2006) the positive consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors are focused in two areas as the effects of OCBs on managerial

evaluations of performances with respect to promotions/pay raises and the effects of OCBs on organizational performance and success. All in all without any doubt, it is recognized with empirical evidences that citizenship behavior lead to positive organizational outcomes (Koys, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Walz and Niehoff, 1996). Therefore, many other studies have focused on identifying predictors of OCB in order to determine specific organizational mechanisms that are responsible from either the occurrence or non-occurrence of OCB. As opposed to the dominant literature, the scope of this study intends to consider the impact of a less-deliberate predictor (i.e. workplace bullying) that is negative in nature on performance of OCB-type behavior.

## **2.4. Theory and Hypotheses**

### **2.4.1. The Relationship between Organizational Justice and Workplace Bullying Exposure**

The conceptualization of workplace bullying as both *a source* and *a predictor* of organizational injustice perceptions among employees is to be examined in this section of this study which is to be accompanied with hypotheses with regard to the nature of relationship.

In its broad spectrum, the concept of organizational justice indicates perceptions of fairness in terms of resource and/or outcome distribution (distributive justice), in terms of processes by which outcomes are determined (procedural justice) and finally that of fairness of interpersonal treatment (interactional justice) (Colquitt et al., 2001). As perceptions of injustice are being materialized as a result of being unfairly treated in a particular exchange relationship hence being impelled in relative deprivation; the connection between perceived injustice and aggressive behavior in organizational setting is evident (Neumann and Baron, 2003). Until the recent study of Salin and Parzefall (2010); the literature on organizational justice and bullying has mainly viewed perceived injustice as an antecedent of workplace bullying. For the



purposes of our study; two alternatively proposed explanations with respect to the association between perceptions of unfair treatment and aggressive behavior (i.e. bullying) will be imparted.

#### **2.4.1.1. Organizational Injustice as a Predictor for Workplace Bullying**

Workplace bullying is a dynamic process that develops in numerous exchange relationships having implications for the employment relationship as a whole (Robinson, 2008). The proponents of this approach who recognize perceived injustice as a major precursor of bullying incidences recall Adams' (1965) equity theory which revealed that when a state of injustice exists at a person's disadvantage; the target individual is inclined to restore the equity and sometimes may involve in aggression as a counter behavior. The rationalization of viewing workplace bullying as a by-product of organizational injustices can be provided by the *norm of reciprocity*. Having roots in social exchange theory; it refers to the social expectation that people respond to each other in kind which is the expected result of a 'cycle of mutual reinforcement between parties in exchange relationship' (Gouldner, 1960). While admitting the importance of reciprocity in reasoning several aggressive behaviors, it is asserted that when employees are encountered with dissatisfaction with respect to the organizationally controlled outcomes (e.g. pay and fringe benefits) thus they tend to aggress against the entire organization. Yet, if the source of dissatisfaction is a particular manager (e.g. respect, fair treatment) then these employees are likely to aggress against that particular perpetrator (Neuman and Baron, 2003).

In contrast to the view that employees tend to engage in direct aggression against the source of injustice is challenged with argument on *displacement of aggression*. Being identified as the tendency to aggress against someone other than the source of provocation, it is omnipresent in organizational settings. As an illustration; a supervisor being bullied by a top management member may not be able to retaliate back because the aggressing against the source of unfairness is usually dangerous

and not feasible. In such a circumstance, individuals “made ready to aggress by conditions often select targets who are relatively weak and at lower positions of the formal hierarchy” (Neuman and Baron, 2003, pp.190-191).

Reactions to discernment of injustice do not always lead to aggressive behavior; there may be instances that an employee in response to underpayment equity may put forth a greater effort with the hope increasing his/her rewards/outcomes (Neuman and Baron, 2003) or employees who believe they have been unfairly treated may dissociate themselves from the organization (Greenberg, 1993). Aquino et al., (2006) proposed that when employees believe in the perceived unfairness of organizational policies, they tend to rely less on these procedures in order to make sure that those who impair them get what they deserve. It should be also stated that perpetrators of workplace bullying often declare that they have engaged in such an aggressive behavior in order to give someone tit-for-tat for his/her unfair treatment (Folger and Baron, 1996). The tit-for-tat terminology coined by Andersson and Pearson (1999) provided an example of an employee being exposed to aggression, which then prompt feelings of injustice and then stimulates the desire to reciprocate through coercive actions. Besides, in their field study Neuman and Baron (1996) observed that employees who have been treated unfairly by their supervisors were more likely to engage in some form of workplace aggression especially it was directed against the perpetrator of the perceived injustice (i.e. supervisor, organization).

#### **2.4.1.2. Bullying as a source of organizational injustice perceptions**

The literature on the relationship between organizational justice and workplace bullying up to this date has positioned the perceived injustice as a situational predictor of bullying incidences. Mainly on the basis of the ‘popcorn metaphor’, the parallel between workplace aggression and organizational injustice is revealed. As maintained by the metaphor, organizational factors (i.e. organizational injustice) are seen as the ‘hot oil’ which can precipitate aggression among employees being stated as the ‘kernels’ (Folger and Skarlicki, 1997). However recent study by Salin and

Parzefall (2010) breathed new life to this prolonged theoretical discussion. They argued that bullying process can lead to negative consequences in terms of organizationally relevant employee attitudes hence encompassing organizational justice perceptions as well. It is widely accepted that,

blame is to be ascribed to an authority of injustice when an individual believes that s/he would be have been better off if a different outcome or procedure had occurred, if the authority could have behaved differently by taking other courses of action and that the authority should have behaved differently (Folger and Cropanzano, 2001).

Tepper et al. (2006) depicted that when supervisors perceive organizational injustices; this conceptualization on their part may impact their subordinates' perceived injustice via supervisor abusive behavior. Bullied employees may come to hold highly negative attitudes towards the organization as a whole; this conceptualization enables researchers to view organizational justice as a dependent whereas bullying prevalence as an independent variable.

All in all, no matter the direction of causal linkage between the variables of organizational justice and workplace bullying behavior, that is to say whether workplace bullying has an impact on organizational justice perceptions or the prevalent organizational injustice perceptions lead to the incidences of workplace bullying as a counter-action, the researchers focusing on these concepts have converged on the nature of the negative relationship between these two organizational variables. Hence, in the light of dominant literature cited in this study, the following hypothesis is formulated;

**H1: There is a significant negative relationship between workplace bullying exposure and employee perceptions of organizational justice.**

The relationship between organizational injustice and workplace bullying is to be bifurcated in order to analyze the connection of aggressive behavior with three main types of justice distinctively. To start with the impact of formal procedures, organizational processes that are subjective in essence may generate perceptions of *procedural injustice*. For instance, changing procedures by the institution may influence individuals' perceptions of fairness and may cause the employees to become unsatisfied if the outcomes resulting from procedural changes remain under the expected implications of alternative procedures (Folger et al., 1983). As the employees view organizational procedures as being unfair; their belief in procedures as justice-restoring mechanism disappears (Aquino et al., 2006). These unjust feelings may elicit aggressive reactions directed towards the organization if an employee considers the rules as threatening (Beugré, 2005). Similarly, Aquino et al., (1999) and Tepper et al., (2006) affirmed that procedural injustice may lead employees to retaliate via aggressive behavior against the organization because processes are decided and implemented at the organizational level.

Moreover, this line of reasoning is shared among the scholars who have studied the linkage between supervisor's procedural injustice and abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000). As a related phenomenon, abusive supervision as a form of injustice reciprocal in nature refers to the subordinates' perceptions of the extent of which the supervisors engage in persistent display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behavior and may trigger retaliatory aggressive action from subordinates (Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007). It is found that unjustly treated supervisors may reflect their resentment through abusing the individuals who should not be seen as responsible from the procedural injustices that supervisors have experienced (Tepper et al., 2006). Being envisioned like a 'trickle-down framework, supervisors' perceived injustices affect subordinates' perceived injustices through supervisor abusiveness' (Tepper, 2000). The unfairness spiral perceived by the employees may cause them to engage in either direct or indirect forms of aggression in order to restore justice and sense of autonomy (Skarlicki and Folger, 2004).

To continue with the second pillar of organizational justice framework; *distributive justice* denotes fairness of outcomes in a transaction in which individuals evaluate the outcome that they received to the outcome received by a referent (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). Perceived grievance with respect to outcome distribution may entail resentment and other forms of aggressive behavior (Greenberg, 1990). Correspondingly, other researchers have indicated prevalence of organizational injustices that stem from the allocation of negative outcomes (Martinko and Zellars, 1998). Greenberg and Alge (1998, cited in Martinko and Zellars, 1998) have underlined how perceptions of procedural and distributive injustice are intertwined in relation to predicting workplace aggression. The authors highlighted that aggressive responses to unjust outcomes were more extreme when the employees deem that unfair procedures were used to reach that outcome.

Since bullying incidences are predictably of concern in the interpersonal relationship between the target(s) and his/her co-workers and/or supervisor(s); the connotation between *interactional justice* and workplace bullying is ever-present (Salin and Parzefall, 2010). Interactional justice is the extent to which employees are treated with politeness, dignity and respect during the enactment of organizational procedures which may signal a form of maltreatment between the exchanging parties thus leading to workplace aggression incidences (LeBlanc and Barling, 2004). In this respect, interactional justice was found to be the strongest predictor of aggression (Hershcovis and Barling 2006). Likewise, the study carried out by Inness and Barling (2002) depicted that employee perceptions of interpersonally unjust treatment from supervisors were associated with employee-initiated aggression. Chory and Hubbel (2008) have portrayed interactional justice as a stronger predictor of anti-social workplace behavior than other dimensions of organizational justice because aggressive behavior is to be directed against another person, per se. The results of their study supported the view that subordinates react to violations of justice by with a violation of their own in order to reinstate the relational balance.

In addition to the researchers' identification of negative relationship between organizational justice and workplace bullying constructs; the literature has accentuated interactional justice as a better predictor of workplace bullying. Hence, in line with the relevant literature cited in this study, the following hypothesis is formulated;

**H2: Compared to other dimensions of organizational justice, interactional justice is better able to account for the variance in the concept of workplace bullying exposure.**

#### **2.4.2. The Relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Workplace Bullying Exposure**

The association between exhibiting discretionary behaviors towards co-workers/superiors in organizations and the tendency of organizational members to engage in bullying incidences has received attention by the late 1980s; however the related phenomenon labeled as abusive supervision and workplace victimization were the main components in those analyses. The possible interaction between OCBs and workplace bullying led Folger (1986) to categorize *proactive* versus *reactive* organizational citizenship behavior with respect to the motivation behind it. Accordingly, OCB can be viewed as a proactive quest to behave in a certain manner, such as the observers of bullying incidences may perform OCBs to protect themselves from being potential victims.

Early studies in this framework have primarily concentrated on negative side of the spectrum, thus proposing the hypothesis of negative relationship between performance organizational citizenship behavior and perceived workplace victimization (Aquino and Bommer, 2000, 2003; Thau et al., 2008; Zellars et al., 2002). However, the studies of Gadot-Vigoda (2006) and Tepper et al. (2004) have provided alternative causal linkages between these two constructs hence emphasizing positive relationship. In this regard, Gadot-Vigoda (2006) has viewed the phenomenon of OCB as a continuum with two ends. The first end represents *self-*

*initiated* (voluntary) activities directed at other employee(s) or supervisor(s). The second end includes *socially initiated* (non-voluntary) activities that try to promote constructive interests by compelling others to invest time and effort beyond their duties. For the purposes of our study, these two alternative causal linkages (negative/positive) and justifications associated with those structures will be elaborated respectively.

#### **2.4.2.1. The negative relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Workplace Bullying**

The hypothesis proposed by Aquino and Bommer (2003) that, the performance of organizational citizenship is negatively related to victimization is justified on the basis of norm of reciprocity principle. As opposed to replicating favorable treatment; when one person does something to injure the other party in a work setting, a norm of *negative* reciprocity can be invoked thus leading the injured party to retaliate against the harm-doer (Andersson and Pearson, 1999). Employees who feel loss of control as a result of bullying experience may strive to sustain a sense of autonomy through reacting against perceived causes of frustration to restore the situation to what was expected (Zellars et al., 2002). This enables the bullied subordinate to achieve low-intensity type of revenge (Bies, Tripp and Kramer, 1997). However, the employee's capacity to retaliate against a possible mistreatment depends on the relative status differences between perpetrator and target (Aquino, Tripp and Bies, 2001); so in order to adopt negative reciprocity via withholding OCB, there has to be the presence of status-based resources that would enable protection against counter-retaliation (Thau et al., 2008).

Good citizenship behaviors are regarded to elicit feelings of reciprocal obligation among those on whom benefits are conferred; because giving harm to others who treats them favorably violates the norm of reciprocity; employees are indirectly face with constraints against bullying good citizens (Cialdini, 2000). The causal linkage reflecting that victimized/bullied employees are less likely to exhibit OCBs on the

basis of negative norm of reciprocity mechanism can be rephrased. That is to say, employees who fail to perform these citizenship behaviors are more likely to become frequent targets of aggressive mistreatment (Aquino and Bommer, 2000). Likewise, Aquino and Bommer (2003) have asserted that in the absence of social obligations to reciprocate positive treatment, employees may be encouraged to bully others who are regarded as vulnerable and deserving target of mistreatment.

Apart from the contributions of Aquino and his colleagues; Zellars et al. (2002) have focused on the tendency of bullied subordinates to reciprocate their supervisor's hostility in some manner. The crucial dynamic in this employee-supervisor relationship is that abusive tit-for-tat spiral in the form of reciprocating the identical actions of the supervisor by subordinates may not be feasible. So it is not likely for a subordinate to restore his/her sense of personal control by engaging in bullying behavior directed at the supervisor. In such a situation, that bullied employee can either choose to be a part of the bullying cycle through imposing on his/her own subordinates or more possibly may opt for not enacting extra-role behavior that is under his/her personal control (Wright and Brehm, 1982). To the extent that OCBs involve actions over which employees have some discretion, subordinates of abusive supervisors would perform fewer OCBs than their non-abused counterparts. Since the central component in OCB definition is that the omission of OCBs is not punishable, withholding OCBs is regarded as a safe means by which these subordinates can respond to abusive supervision (Zellars et al., 2002).

#### **2.4.2.2. The positive relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Workplace Bullying**

The second line of thought pioneered by Namie and Namie (2000) has renounced the already acknowledged negative correlation between OCB and workplace bullying by arguing how aggressive organizational behavior is more likely to evoke self-serving OCBs. Conventional approach to conceptualize the performance of OCBs within a social exchange framework denoting that individuals exhibit extra-ordinary



behaviors in response to positive treatment by the organization (Zellars and Tepper, 2003) has shifted to consider OCB as functional and self-serving (Tolentino, 2009).

From 2000 onwards, studies have begun to consider the presence of other motives (i.e. less voluntary or less self-initiated) that may enable OCB performance; abusive and exploitative behavior from supervisors or pressure from management or co-workers to become involved in such activities in which the employee would otherwise not involve him/herself is among those (Tepper, 2000). From the survey results of Namie and Namie (2000), it is depicted that many targets of abusive supervisors perform OCBs in order to alleviate the likelihood that they will be further victimized and/or to increase the likelihood that their supervisor's hostility will be directed at someone else. These results have suggested that the performance of extra-role behavior can be used as a protective shield against further severe bullying episodes.

Even though, good citizenship behavior represents willingness of the individuals to invest effort that goes beyond their formal job requirements; exhibiting such behaviors in the context of workplace bullying alters the nature of OCB into less-voluntary behavior (Gadot-Vigoda, 2006). Although, conventional assumption behind the OCB relies on employees' goodwill; the existence of compulsory antecedents to citizenship behaviors in the workplace should also be incorporated into the whole picture. So recently, the core essence of OCB has been modified which concludes that extra-role behavior is not always a matter of free individual choice rather there may be instances when such a behavior is imposed on him/her by abusive management (Gadot-Vigoda, 2006). Within this framework, the author has expanded the range of activities that would be included in workplace bullying such as behaviors that include taking advantage of the employee in times where s/he is in no position to refuse the supervisor's request or for the accomplishment of tasks beyond the employee's formal job definition. Similarly, Zellars et al. (2002) have claimed that abused subordinates may feel that regardless of their supervisor's

behavior they are normatively obligated to perform OCBs because of their consideration of such behaviors as in-role requirements of the job.

Furthermore, Tepper et al. (2004) have revealed connection between perceptions of co-workers' OCB performance and fellow employees' attitudes such as OCBs categorized as well-intentioned are associated with favorable attitudes whereas self-serving OCBs are associated with unfavorable attitudes. Their study has concluded that non-abused subordinates perceive their co-workers' OCBs to be well-intentioned whereas abused counterparts perceive the similar display to be self-serving.

In the light of the discussion on the alleged positive relationship between workplace bullying and performance of OCBs; Gadot-Vigoda (2006) proposed the concept of **“compulsory OCB”** (CCB) that represents a more destructive side of the concept than the conventional operationalization. This newly-developed concept suggests a unique dimension of effort invested in the job as a result of exploitative supervision or intense social and managerial pressure. The essence of good citizenship may be perceived as inadequate in cases of compulsory actions, given that OCB has generally been identified with purely voluntary activity (Tepper et al., 2004).

The conventional definition of OCB refers to informal behavior beyond the official role descriptions that employees are supposed to have great deal of say (Morrison, 1994). The underlying feature of individuals' free choice to become engaged in informal work activities has implied that these helping behaviors are a matter of goodwill. Scholars have recognized that these extra-role behaviors are indeed a matter of goodwill even if they are extended in compliance with social and managerial pressures (Organ, 1997). It may be possible for the management team to exert pressure on the employee(s) to engage in helping behaviors, even when the employee did not have any intention in the first place; most employees would feel to urge of bowing to such pressures, even if unwillingly. However such an imposition leads to a loss of voluntary meaning of OCB hence causes the modification into CCB. Vigoda-Gadot (2006) has argued that, while performance of OCB is not

granted with formal rewards; it may still stipulate positive informal outcomes such as social recognition and respect from others; failing to comply with CCB may also stipulate informal consequences but this time that are negative in nature.

In the light of relevant literature cited in this study, although there is no clear consensus on this issue and following hypothesis is formulated;

**H3: The performance of organizational citizenship behavior is negatively related to workplace bullying exposure.**

#### **2.4.3. The status of by-standers and Organizational Citizenship Behavior/ Organizational Justice**

Workplace bullying is a dynamic process that not only interferes with the target employees but also extends to have negative effects on other people in the workgroup, namely the observers. A variety of secondary effects can be noticed beyond the direct participants of workplace bullying as the bully and the victim but also bystanders who are not a part of the original bullying act (Heames and Harvey, 2006). In Barling's (1996) discussion on primary and secondary targets of workplace violence; he connotes 'secondary' victims as those people who themselves were not violated but whose perceptions, fears and expectations are amended as a result of being exposed to violence. On the same token, the second order externalities typology recognizes the impact of unintended and/or unanticipated consequences of parties indirectly involved in the bullying act (e.g. observers of the bullying act, others in the organization) (Mundt, 1993; cited in Heames and Harvey, 2006). These secondary targets or bystanders of workplace bullying may choose to behave in three distinct ways; can be a partner to the bullying behavior via supporting the action; can pass over to the behavior and lastly can try to stop the misbehavior (Tinaz, 2006).

Lutgen-Sandvik et al., (2007) has postulated the hypothesis that witnesses of bullying report overall workplace negativity at rates lower than targets but higher than non-

exposed employees. In support for the hypothesis; the study has concluded that non-bullies report elevated negativity and stress and, in contrast, decreased work satisfaction, when compared to non-exposed workers.

Additionally, workplace bullying also negatively affects work quality outcomes for non-bullied witnesses (Vartia, 2001; Jennifer et al., 2003). Observers of bullying episodes are considered as secondary targets after the effects of bullying transform into “destabilizing forces at work, excessive workloads, role ambiguity and work relationship conflict” (Jennifer et al., 2003, pp.491). Colleagues who see their co-workers abused more often have perceptions of injustice with respect to their organizations and leave their jobs as a result of their contact with bullying than do non-exposed workers (Rayner et al., 2002). The rationale behind this argument lies with the significance of ‘worker’s collective’ as the basis of workers’ solidarity at a micro level (Sjøtveit, 1992). Being referred as the informal organization of workers based on mutual expectations and strong norms for social conduct; internalization of such deliberation serves as a buffer against the ‘petty tyrant’ (Ashforth, 1994). On the same token, Sjøtveit (1992) relates bullying of subordinates by managers primarily to ‘collectively weak’ organizations; thereby emphasizing the importance of solidarity with the bullied worker and a collectivist approach might emerge from the response of individuals against the bullying incidences. In many cases, by-standers may feel compelled to take sides in such a way that they feel empathy for the victim of the bullying act and those who identify with and furthermore believe the victim brings it on him/herself (Aquino and Lamertz, 2004; Zapf, 1999).

On the contrary to the argument of collectivity and solidarity with the bullied victim; the contention of ‘spiral of silence’ is developed by Noelle-Neumann (1974; cited in Harvey et al., 2007) which refers to the “shared beliefs, prevailing views and prescribed behavior of groups from which none can deviate without running the risk of being ostracized.” The observers may tend to withhold their judgment on a bullying event because of the fear to be isolated from the group. The observer may

withhold his/her personal opinion in order to support the wider held group/organizational position on an issue (Harvey et al., 2006). This notion being referred as pluralistic ignorance; can occur when an observer of bullying has a different opinion from the organization adopted position but still adheres to the organization adopted norms such as ignoring bullying behavior.

All in all, compared to non-observer/non-bullied employees, those by-stander/non-bullied employees bear secondary effects as a result of witnessing workplace bullying incidences targeted against their colleagues reflected in their performance of organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational justice perceptions. In line with the arguments of spiral of silence and workers' solidarity; even if the nature of the by-standers' perceptions and attitudes may vary, the following hypotheses are formulated;

**H4: Organizational justice perceptions of observers are lower than non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

**H5: Organizational citizenship performance of observers is lower than non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHOD**

The primary objective of this study is to provide detailed insight with regard to the nature of associations among the concepts of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior and workplace bullying according to the perceptions of public sector employees. This chapter of the present study encompasses sample characteristics, measures used, procedures followed and analyses conducted.

#### **3.1. Research Design**

This research design of this study is centered both on explanatory (hypothesis-testing) and conclusive research. The explanatory nature stems from the fact that the study intends to provide significant insight in regard to the impact of workplace bullying exposure on perceptions of organizational justice and performance of organizational citizenship behavior. Besides, it is a conclusive study because it aims to provide information that is valuable in reaching conclusions. Deductive approach based on survey method is employed for data collection purposes. The nature of the study is cross-sectional. The unit of analysis is white-collared public sector employees holding both managerial and non-managerial job positions.

#### **3.2. Sample**

For the measurement of the employees' perceptions about the concept of workplace bullying and its potential impact on organizational justice and performance of organizational citizenship behavior, a carefully designed questionnaire of totally 77 questions was utilized where each conceptual item were accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type interval rating scale of 1 being "Strongly agree", 2 being "Agree", 3 being "Neutral", 4 being "Disagree", and 5 being "Strongly Disagree". The sample

of this study is obtained from public sector employees who are currently employed in a total of six distinct public service institutions encompassing both central and local administration structure of Turkey. Two hundred eighty eight participants filled out the questionnaires for this study and the data were collected during April and May 2010. The participants are consisted of white-collar members of the sample organizations who are working in managerial and non-managerial positions. The respondents selected for the study were employed for administrative services on permanent basis, thus the temporarily employed are excluded.

The questionnaires were personally distributed to the respondents with an envelope attached during the office hours. 3-5 days were given to the respondents to fill-out the questionnaires. Since the issue of workplace bullying may outburst stress among respondent, confidentiality was assured via collecting completed questionnaires in closed envelopes. Among central administrative institutions; Council of Ethics for Public Service, General Directorate of Legislation Development under Prime Ministry of Republic of Turkey, Loan Follow-up and Collection and Loan Evaluation Departments of Development Bank of Turkey, and finally Financial Crimes Investigation Board were selected. The local government side of the sample has included participants from Izmir Special Provincial Administration and Izmir Aliğa Municipality. The list of the public institutions and the associated size of the sample is given below in Table 3.

**Table 3. Sample Size and Distribution**

<b>Name of the institution</b>	<b>Number of Employed</b>	<b>Number of Distributed</b>	<b>Number of Collected</b>	<b>Return Rate</b>
Council of Ethics for Public Service	25	25	23	92%
General Direc. Of Legislation Development	50	40	25	62.5%
Development Bank of Turkey (only the referred departments)	206	85	48	56.5%
Financial Crimes Investigation Board	161	65	49	75.4%
İzmir Special Provincial Administration (Konak and Çınarlı Branches)	282 (155 + 127)	108	81	75%
Municipality	453	102	62	60.8%
<b>TOTAL</b>		425	288	67.8%

### 3.3. Data Collection

The data collection for the purposes of this study is done by the researcher making personal visits to the before-mentioned institutions during work time. The access to the institutions and official permission for conducting survey among their employees is achieved by the help of a specific employee who is known in-advance by the author. These intermediary persons in each of the institutions have introduced the researcher to employees in several departments and explained the purpose of the study. The author has further emphasized that the results gained from the questionnaires will only be used for research purposes and not be shared by other external actors. Bearing in mind that the distribution of the blank questionnaire forms and collection of the responses may be influenced if the process is carried out by a current employee of the organization; the author has given and collected the questionnaires one by one in respective institutions after 3-5 working days.

Besides, in order to ensure respondents' comfort about their responses to the questionnaire; they are told to place their names anywhere on the survey sheet. It was also explained that their individual results would not be reported to third parties.



Before conducting the analysis data are examined for data entry and missing values. Minor errors in data entry are corrected and missing values in variables are coded as -1. From the raw data including 293 public sector employees; 5 of them are directed directly and excluded from analysis. The respondents of these 5 questionnaires have either left questions of one scale totally blank or have failed to fill out demographic variable questions. In the analysis of demographic variables section, the information about the participant's gender, age, marital status, education level, job position, union membership and tenure in the organization is provided. Statistical analyses are performed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences 15.0. (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

### 3.4. Analysis of Demographic Variables

#### 3.4.1. Gender

The first demographic variable 'gender' is asked in nominal scale. 52.6 percent of the respondents are female. The remaining 47.4 percent of (N=136) respondents are male. It can be concluded that approximately equal distribution has tried to be achieved with regard to male and female composition. The results are illustrated on Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Participants.

**Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Participants (Public Officials)**

Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Gender (N=288)</b>		
Male	136	47.4
Female	151	52.6
Missing (=1)		
<b>Age (N=288)</b>		
20-30	83	29.0
31-40	90	32.0
41-50	87	31.0
51 and above	25	8.0
		78

**Table 4. continued**

Missing (=3)		
	<b>Mean=37.79</b>	<b>SD=9.02</b>
<b>Marital Status (N=288)</b>		
Married	179	62.8
Single	85	29.8
Divorced	17	6.0
Widow	4	1.4
Missing (=3)		
<b>Education Level (N=288)</b>		
High school	29	10.1
2-year university degree	52	18.1
Bachelors	165	57.5
Masters	34	11.8
PhD	7	2.4
Missing (=1)		
<b>Job Position (N=288)</b>		
Managerial	65	22.7
Non-managerial	221	77.3
Missing (=2)		
<b>Union Membership (N=288)</b>		
Yes, a member	73	25.6
No, not a member	212	74.4
Missing (=3)		

### 3.4.2. Age

Among the 288 respondents in the sample, 285 of them filled the question related with age. However, the question of age is asked as open-ended question to the participants. Only in the analysis stage, the results are further categorized into four groups as 1= 20-30 (N=83), 2= 31-40 (N=90), 3=41-50 (N=87), 4= 51 and above

(N=25) (Cowie et al, 2003). Frequency analysis revealed that most of the employees' ages are clustered in the region of 31-40 years with mean of 37.79.

#### **3.4.3. Marital Status**

Another demographic variable namely 'marital status' of the participants are asked in nominal scale involving four main categories as; married, single, divorced and widow. The category of 'single' is further emphasized with information of denoting 'never been married before' in parenthesis in order to ensure that divorced participants would not label themselves as single. The results signify that the majority (62.8 percent, N=179) of the participants are married.

#### **3.4.4. Education Level**

The demographic variable of education level is asked in five categorized interval scale. The biggest respondent group of the study is the university graduates with the ratio of 85.7 percent (N=165). This result is expected because the study's target sample is white-collared employees and middle managers of the organizations. 2-year university degree graduates compose the second biggest part of the sample with 52 respondents. The respondents with the degree of masters and PhD constitute 14.2 percent in total (N=41).

#### **3.4.5. Job Position**

The demographic variable of job position is being asked in ordinal scale with two categories. The first category is managerial position and the second being non-managerial position. The Turkish translations of these two categories have highlighted the scope of managerial and non-managerial positions. In this manner, the option of non-managerial is provided with extra information of 'lack of any subordinate' in parenthesis. Being consisted of 221 participants out of a sample size of 288; the majority of the participants occupy non-managerial position whereas the remaining 22.7 percent belongs to managerial cadre. These results are very normal because; in selecting the target population of the study, attention was given to

embrace relatively higher percentage of public-sector employees who are in non-managerial positions. Since it is found out by several researchers that hierarchical status alleviates the incidence of being exposed to workplace bullying; it was more important to distribute the questionnaires to lower-ranking employees in institutions.

#### **3.4.6. Union Membership**

The demographic variable of union membership is being asked in ordinal scale with two categories; either being a member or not being a member of any union. The results have revealed that 74.4 percent of participants are not unionized (N=212).

#### **3.4.7. Tenure in the Organization**

Among the 288 respondents in the sample, 285 of them filled the question related with organizational tenure with mean of 12.16 and standard deviation of 9.49 years. Frequency analysis revealed that most of the employees' experience in years is clustered in the region of 5-11 years with a mean of 12.16 years. The organizational experience of the participant employees is also good enough for depicting organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors in their institutions (5.3 percent of respondents have tenure of less than 1 year).

Apart of the demographic distribution of all sample population (N=288); separate descriptive statistics are provided for both bullied observer and non-bullied observer participants of the study in the following Tables 5 and 6. It can be concluded that among 86 bullied employees; 78% of them reported to have observed workplace bullying episodes. Besides, being exposed to bullying incidences increases bullying awareness in such a way that bullied employees tend to observe other employees whom are also bullied in the same work setting.

**Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Bullied-Observer Participants**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Gender (N=67)</b>		
Male	37	55.2
Female	30	44.8

**Table 5. continued**

<b>Age (N=67)</b>		
20-30	16	23.9
31-40	21	31.3
41-50	26	38.8
51 and above	4	6
	<b>Mean=38.90</b>	<b>SD=8.13</b>
<b>Marital Status (N=67)</b>		
Married	43	56.2
Single	16	24.6
Divorced	6	9.2
Widow	0	0
Missing (=2)		
<b>Education Level (N=67)</b>		
High school	3	4.5
2-year university degree	11	16.4
Bachelors	40	59.7
Masters	12	17.9
PhD	1	1.5
<b>Job Position (N=67)</b>		
Managerial	20	29.9
Non-managerial	47	70.1
<b>Union Membership (N=67)</b>		
Yes, a member	16	24.2
No, not a member	50	75.8
Missing (=1)		

**Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Non-Bullied-Observer Participants**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Gender (N=53)</b>		
Male	20	43.4
Female	33	56.6
<b>Age (N=53)</b>		
20-30	13	24.5
31-40	17	32.0
41-50	19	35.9
51 and above	4	7.6
	<b>Mean=38.25</b>	<b>SD=8.99</b>
<b>Marital Status (N=53)</b>		
Married	28	52.8
Single	21	39.6
Divorced	3	5.7
Widow	1	1.9
<b>Education Level (N=53)</b>		
High school	3	5.7
2-year university degree	9	17.0
Bachelors	30	56.6
Masters	10	18.9
PhD	1	1.9
<b>Job Position (N=53)</b>		
Managerial	12	22.6
Non-managerial	41	77.4
<b>Union Membership (N=53)</b>		
Yes, a member	10	19.2
No, not a member	42	80.8
Missing (=1)		

### 3.5. Exposure to Workplace Bullying Profile of the Sample

Apart from the demographic variables that are examined in the previous section of this study; the profile of participants with regard to their bullying exposure was attempted to be detected. Since the participants of the study were selected on the basis of convenience sampling that is, the sample does not contain only bullied public-sector employees; it is significant to note the frequency of victims/bullied in the sample of 288 employees. The Section B of the original questionnaire has included three main questions reflecting the prevalence of workplace bullying with respect to subjective conceptualization. After providing a brief definition of the concept, the respondents were asked whether they have been bullied during the last six months. As it is displayed in Table 7 approximately one third of the sample has labeled itself as being exposed to bullying.

**Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Workplace Bullying Exposure**

<b>Have you been bullied during the last six months? (N=288)</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes, I have been bullied	86	29.9
No, I have not	202	70.1

The question of recalling the presence of any bullying exposure is to be continued with the elaboration of the source of workplace bullying (Table 8). Likewise, 81.4 percent of the participants have concluded that they have been subjected to vertical bullying stemming from an employee who is in superior position. By contrast, subordinate bullying has constituted the smallest part of the sample thus reflecting only 3.5 percent overall. These findings are approximately consistent with several UK surveys that suggested downward bullying directed by someone in supervisory position at a subordinate in three out of four cases (Hoel and Beale, 2006).

**Table 8. Source of Workplace Bullying Incident**

<b>Source of Workplace Bullying (N=86)</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Superior	70	81.4
Co-worker	13	15.1
Subordinate	3	3.5

Furthermore, perceptions of by-standers / observers / witnesses of workplace bullying exposure have received attention in literature. Since, the secondary effects on the by-standers who are not a part of original bullying act are in the scope of this study, they are worth to be mentioned in terms of their profiles. 41.3 percent of the whole sample being composed of 288 participants has reported to be by-standers of any workplace bullying behavior in the mentioned time period (Table 9).

**Table 9. Have you witnessed any workplace bullying behavior during the last six months?**

<b>Witnessing workplace bullying (N=288)</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes, I have witnessed	119	41.3
No, I have not	169	58.7

Lastly, self-reported aspects of workplace bullying according to the items in NAQ are examined with respect to their frequencies among 86 employees who reported to have experienced workplace bullying. Most respondents reported one or more types of workplace bullying behavior. If only the summation of ‘daily’ and ‘weekly’ exposure is considered as cut-off point in determining severe exposure to workplace bullying then, the most frequent types of such behavior are being ordered to do work below employee’s level of competence and having your opinions and views ignored (29.1%). Besides, withholding information that affects the employee performance (24.4%), being ignored and excluded (26.8%) and spreading of gossips and rumors are the most frequently reported forms of remaining categories of mobbing behavior. The items of being shouted or being the target of spontaneous anger (4.7%) is as



being least frequent in nature because of the overt nature of such behaviors that might disclose the identity of perpetrator(s). (Appendix B)

### **3.6. Measurement Instruments**

The constructs of interest for this study are measured via utilization of questionnaires comprising of five different sections. The questionnaire (Appendix A) commences with an informed consent including the description and purpose of the research which the respondents are expected to read. In the first main part, the scale included measures of the performance of organizational citizenship behavior. Employees' exposure to workplace bullying incidences and their possible by-stander status were interrogated in the second part. The subsequent third part of the questionnaire is designed to measure the frequency of workplace bullying exposure. In the last part, perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice and employees' exposure to workplace bullying incidences wanted to be answered by the participants. Additionally, demographic questions are included in the final section of the questionnaire.

Four measurement instruments were used in this study to measure the relevant concepts. These instruments are discussed in the following section.

#### **3.6.1. Measurement of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

The initial concept which has been assessed for the scope of this study, namely organizational citizenship behavior has not been defined uniformly with same dimensions in the literature. The lack of certainty with regard to the measurement of OCB among researchers and the use of different number of dimensions to measure the same construct are prevalent. The scale that has been adopted for this study is that of Organ (1988, 1990) who the founding father of this conceptualization is. Organ has viewed organizational citizenship behaviors as of a discretionary nature that is not part of employees' formal requirements. He has defined five types of

citizenship behavior which are altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue. The original statements (composed of 19 items) were taken from the study of Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989) which were established by using Organ's five dimensions. The five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are itemized in the questions as follows;

*Altruism (OCBALT)* was measured by 4 items: #1, #2, #3 and #4

*Conscientiousness (OCBCON)* was measured by 4 items: #5, #6, #7 and #8.

*Courtesy (OCBCOU)* was measured by 3 items: #9, #10 and #11.

*Civic Virtue (OCBCIV)* was measured by 5 items: #12, #13, #14, #15 and #16.

*Sportsmanship (OCBSPO)* was measured by 3 items: #17, #18 and #19.

Since the questions and scales used in the questionnaire have been previously translated by other researchers (Ertürk et al., 2004; Şahin, 2006) the author has done only minor changes in wording and the questionnaire became ready to be distributed. The items of this measurement instrument are accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type interval rating scale ranging from "completely agree" to "completely disagree". Three questions (i.e. 13, 17, and 19) were reversed in the original questionnaire, therefore being preserved in its reversed nature in Turkish version as well. The reliability tests of OCB instruments were conducted by Şahin (2006), Ertürk et al., (2004) and Sezgin (2009) ( $\alpha > 0.60$ ).

### **3.6.2. Measurement of Workplace Bullying**

The core construct of this study namely exposure to workplace bullying has been assessed by using two different approaches which are developed and supported by different researchers. As it is already mentioned in 'Prevalence of Workplace Bullying' section; subjective versus operational approach in detecting workplace bullying exposure has been debated. The final contribution to this ongoing discussion has come from several authors (Vartia, 1996; Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996; Einarsen, 2000; Salin 2001) in terms of using combination of both approaches to end up with

more valid occurrence rates. For the purposes of this study; simultaneous use of multiple instruments (i.e.subjective and operational approach) is employed.

In line with this perspective, two different sections (B and C) are designed. Firstly in the section B, the question of ‘Have you been bullied during the last six months?’ is asked. However, the introduction to this question is made by providing a short definition of the concept as it is also suggested by Rayner (1997) and Salin (2001). If the answer is ‘yes’; then the respondents were asked to answer additional question which inquires the source of this bullying behavior in the form of ‘a superior/ a colleague/ a subordinate’. Finally this section is concluded by asking participants to recall if they have observed someone in the workplace being exposed to bullying behavior by any source.

The section C that aims to measure the frequency of workplace bullying has been adopted from the revised version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen and Raknes, 1997; Hoel et al., 2004; Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2001). The scale being composed of 29 items were subdivided under five categories according to Einarsen’s (1999) typology as (1) work-related bullying which may include changing your work tasks or making them difficult to perform; (2) social isolation; (3) personal attacks or attacks on your private life by ridicule, insulting remarks, gossip or the like; (4) verbal threats and communication attacks where you are criticized, yelled at or humiliated in public; and (5) physical violence or threats of such violence.

Among 29 questions, two of them (i.e. offensive remarks or behavior with reference to race or ethnicity, unwanted sexual attention) which are related with sexual harassment and remarks with reference to race or ethnicity are eliminated because sexual harassment is not included in the scope of this study and the issue of race is not applicable to Turkish context (e.g. Bulutlar and Öz, 2008).

The original version of the bullying questionnaire is translated and applied by several Turkish researchers (Bulutlar and Öz, 2008; Keser, 2006; Şahin, 2006). For the

purpose of this study, the Turkish version of the expressions are taken from Bulutlar and Öz (2008) where they have translated the questions and a jury of five persons was asked to match the translated questions with the originals. All the 27 specific forms of negative behavior are presented and the participants are asked to what extent that behavior represented their bullying experiences. The frequency of items in this measurement instrument are accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type interval scale including categories of 'Almost daily', 'Weekly', 'Sometimes', 'Rarely', 'Never'. The reliability tests of workplace bullying instruments were conducted by Bulutlar and Öz (2008) and Keser (2006) ( $\alpha > 0.80$ ).

### **3.6.3. Measurement of Procedural and Interactional Justice**

Another concept which has been measured for its association with workplace bullying construct is organizational justice. This broader concept is further subcategorized into procedural, interactional and distributive justice dimensions. As it is mentioned in previous sections; procedural and interactional justice are treated separately for the purposes of this study. Since the issue of workplace bullying seems to be more related to interactional justice that emphasizes the existence of fair treatment by an authority figure during the enactment of a formal procedure; the separate effects of procedural and interactional justice are to be examined.

First of all, procedural justice subscale has emphasized influence over the outcomes of procedures, freedom from bias, the presence of employee voice and ethical standards (Colquitt, 2001). The perceptions of procedural justice are assessed with a 6-item scale (questions 1-6) developed by Moorman (1991) and Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The items of this scale encompass the extent of fair procedures about the decisions made and about the respondent's job in general by the manager (Sezgin, 2009). The subsequent 9 questions (7-15) have focused on interactional justice side. The translation of this scale is done by several researchers (Torun, 2004; Ertürk et al., 2004; Sezgin, 2009); where the author has used the translation of Ertürk et al., (2004) with minor changes in wording. Items are accompanied by a 5- point

Likert-type interval rating scale ranging from ‘completely agree’ to ‘completely disagree’. Lower scores indicated increased perceptions of justice and equitable treatment, higher scores represented unjust and unfair treatment. The reliability tests of procedural and interactional justice instruments have yielded Cronbach’s Alpha over 0.90.

#### **3.6.4. Measurement of Distributive Justice**

Distributive justice construct as being the part of organizational justice concept has been assessed for its associations with workplace bullying. In consistency with other justice dimensions, the scale of Moorman (1991) is used to measure the degree to which rewards received by employees are regarded to be related to performance inputs. Being composed of 5 items, the scale intends to detect whether or not each respondent believe that s/he is fairly rewarded on the basis of their effort, education, success and experience (Sezgin, 2009). Niehoff and Moorman (1993) have included the fairness of work outcomes, pay level, work schedule, work load and job responsibilities within the scope of distributive justice. The distributive justice scale was translated into Turkish by Günaydın (2001) and Ertürk et al. (2004); having Cronbach’s Alpha reliability of 0.94 and 0.95 respectively. The items of distributive justice instrument are accompanied by a 5-point Likert-type interval rating scale ranging from “completely agree” to “completely disagree”.

#### **3.7. Reliability Analyses**

Reliability analysis is made separately for three main constructs (OCB, Workplace Bullying and OJ) and their associated subscales; the Cronbach’s Alpha reliability approaches to 1.0 as the internal consistency of the dimension increases. Likewise, George and Mallery (2003) have identified the meaning of these values as; 1.0 – 0.9 Excellent, 0.9 – 0.8 Good, 0.8 – 0.7 Acceptable, 0.7 – 0.6 Questionable, 0.6 – 0.5 Poor and 0.5 > Unacceptable. In line with this categorization, the variables which have Cronbach’s Alpha values greater than 0.5 are included in the analysis of this study. Tables 17- display the reliabilities of variables, statements, their means and

standard deviations. Reversed items are labeled with (R); so their associated means and standard deviations are not the actual values rather the values that are calculated from the reversed versions.

### **3.7.1. Reliability Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale**

The reliability analysis applied to all variables (19 items) in this scale has revealed Cronbach's Alpha of 0.792 and it is significant.

#### **3.7.1.1. Altruism Subscale**

After applying reliability analysis to the Altruism dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 4-item Altruism dimension is 0.621 and it is significant. The mean and standard deviation of the subscale are 1.841 and 0.569 respectively. Because Cronbach's Alpha value of Altruism dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 10. Item Statistics of Altruism**

<b>Item statement</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
A1. Willingly helps others who have work related problems	1.545	0.687
A2. Helps others who have been absent	1.787	0.871
A3. Helps orient new people even though it is not required	1.897	0.852
A4. Helps others who have heavy workload	2.135	0.891

#### **3.7.1.2. Conscientiousness Subscale**

After applying reliability analysis to the Conscientiousness dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 4-item Conscientiousness dimension is 0.697 and it is significant. The mean and standard deviation of the subscale are 1.977 and 0.681 respectively. Because Cronbach's

Alpha value of Conscientiousness dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 11. Item Statistics of Conscientiousness**

Item statement	Mean	SD
A5. Always focuses on the positive side rather than what is wrong	2.259	1.019
A6. Obeys company rules and regulations even no one is watching	1.708	0.769
A7. Attendance at work is above the norm	1.965	1.014
A8. Does not keep rest hours and lunch breaks long	1.976	0.955

#### **3.7.1.3. Courtesy Subscale**

The Reliability analysis for Courtesy dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior has resulted with Cronbach's Alpha of 0.60 and it is significant. The mean of the subscale is 1.752 and standard deviation is 0.528. Since, Cronbach's Alpha value of Conscientiousness dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 12. Item Statistics of Courtesy**

Item statement	Mean	SD
A9. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	2.188	0.810
A10. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs	1.663	0.626
A11. Does not abuse the rights of others	1.406	0.677

#### **3.7.1.4. Civic Virtue Subscale**

Civic virtue refers to the behavior on the part of an individual that indicates his/her responsibility in participation and concern about the life of the company (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1990). After applying reliability analysis to the Civic Virtue dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 5-item Civic Virtue dimension is 0.557 and it is significant. The mean and standard deviation of the subscale are 2.144 and 0.577 respectively. The relatively

lower Alpha associated with this dimension stems from Item 13; which is reverse coded. Likely, Cronbach's Alpha if that item is deleted would be 0.624. However since the aim of the study is not test whether the scale works or not rather to compare and contrast the application of the similar OCB scale across different populations; the item is not omitted.

**Table 13. Item Statistics of Civic Virtue**

<b>Item statement</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
A12. Attends meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important	1.796	0.733
A13. Tells his/her intention to leave the job to colleagues very often (R)	2.284	1.267
A14. Keeps abreast of changes in the organization	2.430	0.855
A15. Does not take extra breaks	2.547	1.155
A16. Attends functions that are not required but help the company image	1.645	0.642

### **3.7.1.5. Sportsmanship Subscale**

Sportsmanship refers to the willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining- to “avoid petty grievances, railing against real slights and making federal cases out of small potatoes” (Organ, 1988). After applying reliability analysis to the Sportsmanship dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, the most problematic results have appeared. It is seen Cronbach's Alpha of 3-item Sportsmanship dimension is 0.286 and it is not significant. Besides, the Cronbach's Alpha does not reach to acceptable level even if several items are decided to be deleted. If the item “informs his/her supervisor before taking an important step about work” is deleted; the Cronbach's Alpha becomes 0.416 which is still not acceptable. This problem may result from the wording of Items 17 and 19; participants may not tend to call themselves as a person ‘making a mountain from a molehill’ or complaining from trivial matters.

In this study, only the variables having Cronbach's Alpha values greater than 0.5, in other words, variables which do not fall in unacceptable region are included in the



analysis. The last variable ‘Sportsmanship’ has Cronbach’s Alpha value lower than 0.5 ( $\alpha=0.286$ ) and therefore it is removed from further analysis.

**Table 14. Item Statistics of Sportsmanship**

Item statement	Mean	SD
A17. Tends to make mountains of out molehills(R)	2.545	1.314
A18. Informs his/her supervisor before taking an important step about work	1.704	0.757
A19. Consumes a lot of time for complaining trivial matters (R)	2.376	1.127

### 3.7.2. Reliability Analysis of Workplace Bullying Scale

The reliability analysis applied to all variables (27 items) in this scale have revealed Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.940 and it is significant. The mean and standard deviation of the workplace bullying scale are 4.834 and 0.579 respectively. However, the high reliability value may indicate several problems so that similarity between the questions may cause such a high value for Cronbach’s Alpha. The questions in the scale are in fact interrelated. For instance; a supervisor’s attempt to find fault with employee’s work (C16) resulting from excessive monitoring (C22) may accompany with repeated reminders of his/her errors or mistakes (C15) and persistent criticism of work and effort (C17).

**Table 15. Item Statistics of Workplace Bullying**

Item statement	Mean	SD
C1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance	3.337	1.204
C2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with work	3.779	1.182
C3. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	3.070	1.455
C4. Having key areas of responsibility removed	3.477	1.326
C5. Having key areas of responsibility replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	3.698	1.329
C6. Spreading of gossips about you	3.372	1.275
C7. Spreading rumors about you	3.732	1.332

**Table 15. continued**

C8. Having your opinions and views ignored	3.256	1.312
C9. Being ignored, excluded or being ‘sent to Coventry’	3.372	1.275
C10. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or personal life	4.291	1.126
C11. Systematically being required to carry out tasks which clearly fall outside your job description	4.383	1.008
C12. Being shouted at or targeted with spontaneous anger	4.361	.932
C13. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	4.593	.886
C14. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	4.500	.904
C15. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	4.244	.981
C16. Attempts to find fault with your work	4.337	.953
C17. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	4.035	1.132
C18. Persistent criticism of your work and effort	4.128	1.004
C19. Practical jokes carried out by people you don’t get on with	4.302	1.052
C20. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	3.883	1.172
C21. Having allegations made against you	4.081	1.220
C22. Excessive monitoring of your work	3.733	1.287
C23. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	3.954	1.264
C24. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	3.884	1.192
C25. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	3.721	1.195
C26. Threats of violence or personal abuse	4.593	1.078
C27. Being moved or transferred against your will	4.105	1.138

### 3.7.3. Reliability Analysis of Organizational Justice Scale

The reliability analysis applied to all variables (20 items) in this scale has revealed Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.955 and it is significant.

### 3.7.3.1. Procedural Justice Subscale

After applying reliability analysis to the Procedural Justice dimension of Organizational Justice, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 6-item Procedural Justice dimension is 0.884 and it is significant. The mean and the standard deviation of the subscale is 3.077 and 0.941 respectively. Since, Cronbach's Alpha value of this dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 16. Item Statistics of PJ**

<b>Item statement</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
D1. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.	2.951	1.184
D2. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	3.279	1.152
D3. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.	3.136	1.158
D4. My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	3.059	1.168
D5. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	3.045	1.213
D6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.	3.007	1.810

### 3.7.3.2. Interactional Justice Subscale

After applying reliability analysis to the Interactional Justice dimension of Organizational Justice, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 9-item Interactional Justice dimension is 0.947 and it is significant. The mean and the standard deviation of the subscale are 2.786 and 0.923 respectively. Since, Cronbach's Alpha value of this dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 17. Item Statistics of IJ**

<b>Item statement</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
D7. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity.	2.455	0.987
D8. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	2.507	0.995
D9. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	2.729	1.131
D10. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	2.707	1.096
D11. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee.	2.674	1.116
D12. Concerning decisions made about my job, general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	3.010	1.173
D13. The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	3.042	1.129
D14. When making decisions about my job general manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	2.934	1.162
D15. My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	2.941	1.126

### 3.7.3.3. Distributive Justice Subscale

After applying reliability analysis to the Distributive Justice dimension of Organizational Justice, it is seen that Cronbach's Alpha of 5-item Distributive Justice dimension is 0.879 and it is significant. The mean and standard deviation of the subscale are 3.009 and 0.988 respectively. Since, Cronbach's Alpha value of this dimension is greater than 0.50, there is also no need to omit any item to increase the value of it.

**Table 18. Item Statistics of DJ**

<b>Item statement</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
D16. My work schedule is fair.	2.688	1.181
D17. I think my level of pay is fair.	3.299	1.372

**Table 18. continued**

D18. I consider my work load to be quite fair.	2.919	1.231
D19. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	3.242	1.309
D20. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	2.972	1.279

### 3.8. Correlation Analysis

Intercorrelations of variables assessed in the study are provided in Table 19; which present Pearson bivariate correlations for the twenty-two variables. Correlation coefficients range between -.433 and .942. Pearson correlation test results display that there is a negative significant relationship between employees' perceptions of justice and prevalence of workplace bullying exposure. ( $r = -0.373$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) When the degree of these relations are considered; it is observed that work-related dimension has the strongest negative relationship with the result of  $r = -0.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . Communication attacks dimension has the second greater correlation with the result of  $r = -0.40$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . However the last subscale of workplace bullying labeled as 'threats of physical violence' has not displayed a significant relationship ( $p = 0.78 > 0.05$ )

Moreover, correlation test results indicated that there is a negative and significant relationship between organizational citizenship behavior construct and workplace bullying scale as a whole ( $r = -0.154$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The strongest negative relationship between performance of organizational citizenship behavior and workplace bullying exposure is depicted in the fourth dimension as having  $r = -0.262$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . However; personal attacks, social isolation and threats of physical violence subscales of workplace bullying have negative non-significant relationship with OCB performance ( $r = -0.103$ ,  $p = 0.080 > 0.05$ ;  $r = -0.051$ ,  $p = 0.385 > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.008$ ,  $p = 0.891 > 0.05$  respectively).

The demographic variables of age, marital status, education level, job position and tenure of the respondent employees are not correlated with workplace bullying

exposure ( $p>0.1$ ). Only the variables of gender and union membership has significant relationship with workplace bullying exposure ( $r=0.222$ ,  $p<0.001$ ;  $r=0.146$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

**Table 19. Intercorrelations of variables assessed in the study**

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. OCB															
Pearson Correlation		1 ( $\alpha=0.792$ )													
Sig (2-tailed)															
2. OCBALT															
Pearson Correlation	.628**		1 ( $\alpha=0.621$ )												
Sig (2-tailed)	.000														
3. OCBCON															
Pearson Correlation	.749**	.307**		1 ( $\alpha=0.697$ )											
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000													
4. OCBCOU															
Pearson Correlation	.718**	.379**	.458**		1 ( $\alpha=0.60$ )										
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000												
5. OCBCIV															
Pearson Correlation	.797**	.346**	.546**	.463**		1 ( $\alpha=0.543$ )									
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000											
6. WB															
Pearson Correlation	-.170**	-.140*	-.093	-.087	-.105		1 ( $\alpha=0.924$ )								
Sig (2-tailed)	.004	.017	.115	.142	.076										
7. WB1															
Pearson Correlation	-.154**	-.116*	-.088	-.093	-.100	.920**		1 ( $\alpha=0.828$ )							
Sig (2-tailed)	.009	.048	.136	.114	.091	.000									
8. WB2															
Pearson Correlation	-.103	-.110	-.046	-.057	-.048	.787**	.724**		1 ( $\alpha=0.656$ )						
Sig (2-tailed)	.080	.062	.434	.337	.416	.000	.000								
9. WB3															
Pearson Correlation	-.051	-.102	.028	-.024	.004	.883**	.726**	.736**		1 ( $\alpha=0.842$ )					
Sig (2-tailed)	.385	.083	.633	.682	.941	.000	.000	.000							
10. WB4															
Pearson Correlation	-.262**	-.169**	-.208**	-.114	-.194**	.898**	.771**	.574**	.682**		1 ( $\alpha=0.829$ )				
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.004	.000	.054	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000						
11. WB5															
Pearson Correlation	-.008	-.021	.081	.014	.039	.643**	.486**	.512**	.627**	.518**		1 ( $\alpha=0.726$ )			
Sig (2-tailed)	.891	.721	.168	.811	.508	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				

Table 19. continued

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
12. OJ	Pearson Correlation	.285**	.250**	.271**	.177**	.218**	-.373**	-.395**	-.241**	-.213**	-.439**	-.017	1 ( $\alpha=0.955$ )		
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.777			
13. OJPJ	Pearson Correlation	.248**	.198**	.274**	.134*	.174**	-.298**	-.353**	-.161**	-.139*	-.361**	.010	.870**	1 ( $\alpha=0.884$ )	
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.023	.003	.000	.000	.006	.018	.000	.865	.000		
14. OJJJ	Pearson Correlation	.301**	.258**	.269**	.204**	.226**	-.376**	-.398**	-.244**	-.223**	-.433**	-.041	.942**	.749**	1 ( $\alpha=0.947$ )
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.491	.000	.000	
15. OJDJ	Pearson Correlation	.216**	.206**	.197**	.139*	.191**	-.313**	-.305**	-.233**	-.193**	-.371**	-.002	.871**	.616**	.747** <sup>i</sup>
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.018	.001	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.978	.000	.000	.000
16. Gender	Pearson Correlation	-.146*	-.117**	-.132*	-.057	-.081	.222**	.193**	.123*	.168**	.252**	.144*	-.005	-.011	-.031
	Sig (2-tailed)	.013	.047	.025	.336	.169	.000	.001	.037	.004	.000	.014	.933	.855	.602
17. Age	Pearson Correlation	-.064	-.009	-.156**	-.039	-.051	-.078	-.069	-.057	-.096	-.026	-.140*	-.019	-.008	-.024
	Sig (2-tailed)	.280	.883	.008	.514	.387	.189	.245	.341	.105	.661	.018	.749	.899	.686
18. M. Status	Pearson Correlation	.079	.005	.061	.066	.068	.066	.043	.059	.048	.078	.059	.029	.001	.056
	Sig (2-tailed)	.185	.928	.302	.265	.255	.268	.472	.320	.420	.191	.321	.624	.986	.350
19. Edu. Level	Pearson Correlation	.081	.113	.160**	-.030	.026	-.053	-.083	-.015	.027	-.105	.039	.116*	.188**	.363
	Sig (2-tailed)	.169	.055	.007	.608	.656	.368	.159	.801	.645	.075	.515	.049	.001	.290
20. Position	Pearson Correlation	-.012	-.011	-.061	.019	.015	.001	-.036	.009	.014	.027	.002	-.084	-.060	-.065
	Sig (2-tailed)	.836	.848	.300	.750	.803	.992	.543	.877	.811	.645	.968	.156	.316	.272
21. Union M.	Pearson Correlation	.142*	.140*	.109	.101	.092	.146*	.115	.099	.194**	.066	.270**	-.033	-.025	-.039
	Sig (2-tailed)	.017	.018	.066	.088	.121	.014	.052	.095	.001	.267	.000	.577	.672	.551
22. Tenure	Pearson Correlation	-.020	.028	.116	-.026	-.005	-.077	-.054	-.060	-.086	-.033	-.188**	.043	.036	.030

<sup>i</sup> ( $\alpha=0.879$ )



	Sig (2-tailed)	.731	.633	.051	.668	.936	.192	.360	.314	.148	.574	.0001	.470	.550	.617	.361
<b>Variables</b>		<b>16</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>22</b>								
16. Gender	Pearson Correlation	1														
	Sig (2-tailed)															
17. Age	Pearson Correlation	-.019	1													
	Sig (2-tailed)	.754														
18. M. Status	Pearson Correlation	.193**	-.132*	1												
	Sig (2-tailed)	.001	.026													
19. Edu. Level	Pearson Correlation	-.059	-.037	-.033	1											
	Sig (2-tailed)	.317	.533	.578												
20. Position	Pearson Correlation	.118*	-.208**	-.050	.009	1										
	Sig (2-tailed)	.045	.000	.401	.883											
21. Union M.	Pearson Correlation	.019	-.245**	.017	.228**	.010	1									
	Sig (2-tailed)	.753	.000	.776	.000	.866										
22. Tenure	Pearson Correlation	.045	.859**	-.120*	-.147*	-.204**	-.261**	1								
	Sig (2-tailed)	.447	.000	.043	.013	.001	.000									

\*p<0.05 \*\*p<0.01

## CHAPTER 4

### ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Factor Analyses

##### 4.1.1. Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Data

Organizational citizenship behavior data is factor analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax rotation. As seen in Table 20; the result of KMO test is 0.817 which is greater than 0.50 and the result of Bartlett test is 0.00 which is less than 5%. The results are significant. As a result, 54.2% of the total variance is explained. From Factor Analysis (Table 20) it is seen that items related with OCB are not loaded under the respective five dimensions of this construct. Because of that reason; this study has considered the Cronbach's Alpha values instead of Factor Analysis.

**Table 20. KMO and Bartlett's Test of OCB**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.817
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	Df
	Sig.
	1228.038
	171
	.000

Items	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>	<i>Factor 4</i>	<i>Factor 5</i>
A1. Willingly helps others who have work related problems	0.51	0.44	-0.24	0.16	-0.25
A2. Helps others who have been absent	0.32	0.49	-0.22	0.21	-0.52
A3. Helps orient new people even though it is not required	0.46	0.15	-0.46	0.09	0.15
A4. Helps others who have heavy workloads	0.46	0.11	-0.49	0.29	0.23
A5. Always focuses on the positive side rather than what is wrong	0.47	-0.13	-0.18	0.36	0.26

**Table 20. continued**

A6. Obeys company rules and regulations even no one is watching	0.57	-0.16	0.17	0.16	-0.31
A7. Attendance at work is above the norm	<b>0.65</b>	-0.47	0.22	0.15	-0.30
A8. Does not keep rest hours and lunch breaks long	<b>0.66</b>	-0.39	0.19	0.09	-0.08
A9. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	<b>0.67</b>	0.11	-0.10	0.07	0.24
A10. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs	0.51	0.14	0.03	-0.37	0.08
A11. Does not abuse the rights of others	0.48	0.31	0.14	-0.24	0.17
A12. Attends meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important	0.57	0.09	0.26	-0.23	0.04
A13. Tells his/her intention to leave the job to colleagues very often (R)	0.27	0.08	0.38	0.40	0.52
A14. Keeps abreast of changes in the organization	0.46	-0.06	-0.16	-0.53	0.25
A15. Does not take extra breaks	<b>0.68</b>	-0.40	0.12	0.06	-0.06
A16. Attends functions that are not required but help the company image	0.58	0.14	-0.06	-0.34	0.12
A17. Tends to make mountains of out molehills (R)	0.01	0.44	0.45	0.14	0.16
A18. Informs his/her supervisor before taking an important step about work	0.50	-0.05	0.02	-0.16	0.01
A19. Consumes a lot of time for complaining trivial matters(R)	0.17	0.51	0.54	0.09	0.01

#### 4.1.2. Factor Analysis of Workplace Bullying Data

Workplace bullying data is factor analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax rotation. After applying the Factor Analysis; satisfactory results have been obtained. The result of KMO Test is 0.921 which is greater than 0.50 and result of Bartlett Test is 0.00 which is less than 5%. These results are significant and 63.7% of the total variance is being explained. From Factor Analysis (Table 21) it is seen that items related with Workplace Bullying are not loaded under the respective five dimensions of this construct rather majority of the items are being loaded under one

dimension. Because of that reason; this study has considered the Cronbach's Alpha values instead of Factor Analysis.

**Table 21. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Workplace Bullying**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.921
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4318.734
	Df	351
	Sig.	.000

Items	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>	<i>Factor 4</i>	<i>Factor 5</i>
C1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance	<b>0.62</b>	0.38	-0.10	-0.08	-0.05
C2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with work	<b>0.68</b>	0.10	-0.16	0.11	-0.11
C15. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	<b>0.71</b>	-0.31	0.03	0.11	-0.29
C12. Being shouted at or targeted with spontaneous anger	<b>0.64</b>	-0.39	-0.15	0.18	-0.22
C18. Persistent criticism of your work and effort	<b>0.79</b>	-0.22	-0.01	0.01	-0.24
C8. Having your opinions and views ignored	<b>0.68</b>	0.42	-0.10	0.05	-0.15
C9. Being ignored, excluded or being 'sent to Coventry'	<b>0.72</b>	0.38	-0.15	0.09	-0.17
C17. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	<b>0.75</b>	-0.15	-0.09	-0.20	0.13
C6. Spreading of gossips about you	<b>0.62</b>	0.14	-0.05	-0.48	0.26
C7. Spreading rumors about you	<b>0.71</b>	0.11	-0.14	-0.47	0.21
C16. Attempts to find fault with your work	<b>0.68</b>	-0.16	-0.10	-0.02	-0.15
C10. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or personal life	<b>0.74</b>	-0.30	-0.19	-0.16	0.01
C24. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	<b>0.59</b>	0.09	0.29	-0.17	0.20
C19. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with	0.57	-0.34	0.20	0.10	0.15
C21. Having allegations made against you	<b>0.69</b>	-0.16	0.03	-0.19	-0.01
C3. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	0.59	0.50	-0.18	0.21	-0.07

**Table 21. continued**

C4. Having key areas of responsibility removed	<b>0.68</b>	0.46	-0.16	0.14	0.10
C5. Having key areas of responsibility replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	0.63	0.51	-0.19	0.15	0.10
C11. Systematically being required to carry out tasks which clearly fall outside your job description	<b>0.71</b>	-0.32	-0.27	-0.12	-0.01
C14. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	<b>0.70</b>	-0.24	-0.06	0.20	0.08
C20. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	0.52	-0.03	0.56	-0.06	-0.17
C22. Excessive monitoring of your work	<b>0.52</b>	-0.02	0.39	-0.17	-0.14
C23. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	0.51	0.17	0.57	0.10	-0.13
C25. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	0.45	0.08	0.53	0.10	-0.06
C27. Being moved or transferred against your will	0.47	0.15	0.43	0.26	0.25
C26. Threats of violence or personal abuse	0.51	-0.25	0.09	0.40	0.55
C13. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	<b>0.72</b>	-0.37	-0.23	0.21	0.08

#### 4.1.3. Factor Analysis of Organizational Justice Data

Organizational justice data is factor analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax rotation. After applying Factor Analysis to organizational justice data; satisfactory results have been obtained. As shown in the table, KMO of Organizational Justice scale is 0.948 which is greater than 0.50 and the result of Bartlett Test is 0.00 which is less than 5%. These results are significant and 69.1% of the total variance is being explained. From Factor Analysis (Table 22) it is seen that items related OJ are not loaded under the respective three dimensions of this construct. Because of that reason; this study has considered the Cronbach's Alpha values instead of Factor Analysis.

**Table 22. KMO and Bartlett's Test of OJ**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.946
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square Df	4454.550 190
	Sig.	.000

Items	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>
D1. Job decisions are made by the general manager In an unbiased manner.	0.49	-0.13	0.30
D2. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	<b>0.76</b>	-0.35	0.30
D3. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.	<b>0.75</b>	-0.36	0.33
D4. My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	<b>0.75</b>	-0.26	0.36
D5. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	<b>0.74</b>	-0.18	0.25
D6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.	<b>0.70</b>	-0.22	0.19
D7. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity.	<b>0.82</b>	-0.07	-0.21
D8. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	<b>0.81</b>	-0.06	-0.27
D9. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	<b>0.79</b>	0.07	-0.36
D10. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	<b>0.80</b>	0.03	-0.35
D11. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee.	<b>0.80</b>	-0.01	-0.22

**Table 22. continued**

D12. Concerning decisions made about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	<b>0.83</b>	-0.09	-0.17
D13. The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	<b>0.81</b>	-0.19	-0.20
D14. When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	<b>0.83</b>	-0.13	-0.19
D15. My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	<b>0.78</b>	-0.07	-0.16
D16. My work schedule is fair.	<b>0.70</b>	0.36	0.13
D17. I think my level of pay is fair.	0.52	0.49	0.17
D18. I consider my work load to be quite fair.	0.66	0.58	0.10
D19. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	<b>0.71</b>	0.36	0.16
D20. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	0.71	0.51	0.21

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#### 4.2. Multiple Regression Analyses

The impact of workplace bullying upon the employees' perceptions of organizational justice and performance of organizational citizenship behavior while controlling for the effect of demographic variables on these two dependent variables are examined. For this purpose, two separate regression analysis are performed. In the first regression analysis, effect of workplace bullying exposure and demographic variables on organizational justice perceptions is investigated. Similarly, in the second regression analysis, the impact of the same independent variables on performance of organizational citizenship behavior is measured. So in both of the analyses, workplace bullying exposure is taken as a source of either justice perceptions or performance of extra-role behavior.

The coding of demographic variables that are used in the regression analyses is done as follows; firstly the variable of gender, job position and union membership are at nominal level having two response categories therefore, are being dummy coded

(e.g. male=1=0, female=2=1; managerial=1=1, non-managerial=2=0; union member=1=0, non-union member=2=1).

Furthermore the variable of marital status and education level are being coded in a similar manner since they have two or more response categories. In such a case, the responses having most and least frequency cannot be treated as reference categories. For instance, for marital status ‘divorced’ and ‘widow’ are being combined as one response category (coded as DivWid) being in least frequent among survey respondents. By contrast, majority of the respondents are labeled as married. So these two referred categories cannot be treated as reference thus we have chosen ‘single’ as a reference category in the regression analysis. To continue with education level demographic variable encompassing five categories; high school, two-year degree, bachelors are treated as dummy regressors. Finally, age and tenure of the respondents are used as continuous variables.

The perceptions of by-standers in terms of organizational justice and performance of organizational citizenship behavior are incorporated in the regression analyses with the responses to the question of (B2) “Have you observed any workplace bullying behavior during the last six months?”

#### **4.2.1. Pre Regression Analyses**

Prior to regression analysis; a crucial point to be decided is whether to incorporate ‘subjective’ (RB1) or ‘operational definition’ (WB) or ‘both’ therefore, scale of workplace bullying exposure in regression equation. In the prevalence of conflicting views in literature; before the real regression analysis three separate regression analyses are performed to detect the appropriate approach explains the variance relatively higher than the other conceptualizations (i.e. workplace bullying asked in 1- yes/no format, 2- frequency of exposure, 3- the combination of 1 and 2). When workplace bullying is attempted to be revealed by subjective approach, the responses labeled with ‘yes’ are included in the analyses; however when frequency of exposure



is taken into account, the approach that is followed (Vartia, 1996) is taking the responses ('Almost daily'=1, 'Weekly'=2, 'Sometimes'=3, 'Rarely'=4) as employees who are being subjected to bullying. In the following Table 23, R square statistics represent the amount of variation in organizational justice that is explained by all the predictor variables in the regression model.

**Table 23. Results of Pre-Regression Analyses Estimating the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Workplace Bullying Exposure**

<b>Model 1 (Subjective Definition- RB1)</b>						
<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>R</i></b>	<b><i>R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Adjusted R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Std Error of the Estimate</i></b>	<b><i>β</i></b>	<b><i>Sig.</i></b>
<b>Model</b>	<b>.450</b>	<b>.202</b>	<b>.166</b>	<b>.76841</b>		
Constant					9.785	.000
Gender					.028	.637
Age					-.308	.008**
Married					.084	.198
DivWid					.092	.143
High school					-.138	.053
2-year deg.					-.023	.770
Bachelors					-.091	.270
Position					.058	.313
Union member					-.059	.316
Tenure					.211	.064
Observers					.215	.001**
RB1(bullying=yes/no)					.232	.000***

\* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

<b>Model 2 (Operational Definition- WB)</b>						
<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>R</i></b>	<b><i>R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Adjusted R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Std Error of the Estimate</i></b>	<b><i>β</i></b>	<b><i>Sig.</i></b>
<b>Model</b>	<b>.490</b>	<b>.240</b>	<b>.206</b>	<b>.75158</b>		
Constant					10.934	.000
Gender					.091	.121
Age					-.243	.032*
Married					.066	.300
DivWid					.069	.257
High school					-.137	.050*
2-year deg.					-.022	.775
Bachelors					-.086	.288
Position					.087	.121
Union member					-.037	.524
Tenure					.156	.162
Observers					.205	.001**
WB					-.325	.000***

\* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001, Standardized coefficients are reported

<b>Model 3 (RB1 and WB together)</b>						
<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>R</i></b>	<b><i>R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Adjusted R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Std Error of the Estimate</i></b>	<b><i>β</i></b>	<b><i>Sig.</i></b>
<b>Model</b>	<b>.504</b>	<b>.255</b>	<b>.218</b>	<b>.74422</b>		
Constant					5.354	.000
Gender					.088	.130
Age					-.266	.018*
Married					.078	.219
DivWid					.083	.170
High school					-.135	.051
2-year deg.					-.037	.626

**Table 23. continued**

Bachelors	-.091	.253
Position	.073	.187
Union member	-.026	.652
Tenure	.168	.129
Observers	.169	.008*
WB	-.283	.000***
RB1(bullying-yes/no)	.118	.079

\* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

As a result of three separate regression analyses; it can be concluded that the last model that incorporates both subjective definition and operational conceptualization (combination of RB1 and WB) explains 25.5 percent of variation in employees' perceptions of organizational justice whereas the inclusion of dichotomous bullying question and associated responses has yielded 20.2 percent of variance. On the basis of these findings; it is decided that regression analyses are going to be performed through including the results of both subjective and operational definition of workplace bullying exposure.

#### **4.2.2. Regression Analyses**

In this section of the present study, the results of the regression analysis with regard to the impact of workplace bullying exposure and several demographic variables on organizational justice and citizenship behavior perceptions are to be elaborated respectively. These regression analyses are conducted with the full sample of participants.

##### **4.2.2.1. Multiple Regression Analysis of Dependent Variable OCB**

The limited scope of this study, that intends to present the influence of workplace bullying exposure, observation and demographic variables to the performance of organizational citizenship behavior, acknowledges the relatively higher impact of several other forces (i.e. organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational justice) on this dependent variable. But still, model summary table of the regression analysis (Table 24) reveals that 13.4 percent of the variance in organizational citizenship behavior (inclusion of the whole scale) can be predicted from the independent variables incorporated in the model. The regression model is statistically significant ( $F=3.153$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

However coefficients table of regression analysis has displayed that only the variables of gender (RE1), age, union membership, workplace bullying exposure (WB) and observation combine to be significant predictors of organizational citizenship behavior performance. The interpretation of these coefficients are as follows; compared to male respondents, the level of OCB performance of female participants are lower ( $\beta=-.148$   $p < .05$ ). Increase in each year of age tends to lower the level of organizational citizenship behavior by  $-.259$  units ( $p<0.05$ ). The impact of marital status ( $\beta_{\text{divwid}} = .138$ ,  $\beta_{\text{married}} = .018$   $p> .05$ ), education level and job position ( $\beta = -.035$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) are not significant predictors affecting the level of OCB. With respect to the variable of union membership (RE5); union members tend to display higher levels of OCB than non-unionized participants ( $\beta = .166$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Furthermore, tenure in the organization (RE6) is not a significant variable with  $\beta = .220$ ,  $p > 0.05$ .

The notion of being a by-stander to workplace bullying exposure and its impact on performance of OCB has revealed significant results. The observers of these aggressive behaviors (B2) tend to refrain from performing OCBs compared to non-observers. ( $\beta=.182$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Lastly, the effect of workplace bullying (WB) in the form of frequency of exposure on OCB is significant so that for each unit of increase in the value of workplace bullying exposure (i.e. approaching to 'never' been bullied), the rating point of OCB would decrease by  $.161$  (i.e. approaching to

‘strongly agree’). On the same token, as workplace bullying exposure intensifies (as smaller the number); performance of organizational citizenship behavior would decrease thus reflecting the negative relationship.

**Table 24. Results of Regression Analysis Estimating the Relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Workplace Bullying Exposure**

<b>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</b>						
<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>R</i></b>	<b><i>R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Adjusted R</i><sup>2</sup></b>	<b><i>Std Error of the Estimate</i></b>	<b><i>β</i></b>	<b><i>Sig.</i></b>
<b>Model</b>	<b>.365</b>	<b>.134</b>	<b>.091</b>	<b>.40192</b>		
Constant					2.791	.000
Gender					-.148	.019*
Age					-.259	.033*
Married					.018	.79
DivWid					.138	.036*
High school					-.059	.426
2-year deg.					-.022	.790
Bachelors					-.017	.842
Position					-.035	.552
Union member					.166	.008*
Tenure					.220	.066
Observers					.182	.008*
WB					-.161	.023*
RB1(bullying=yes/no)					-.121	.095

\* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

#### **4.2.2.2. Multiple Regression Analysis of Dependent Variable OJ**

The second regression analysis run for this study converges with the former one except for the dependent variable. The model summary table of the regression analysis (Table 23) reveals that 25.5 percent of the variance in organizational justice perceptions (inclusion of the whole scale) can be predicted from the independent variables. The model is statistically significant ( $F=6.986$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Since both of the

models incorporate same independent variables, it can be concluded that organizational justice is much more related with those variables than that of organizational citizenship behavior. This can also stem from the differences in conceptualizing OCB as in-role versus extra-role behavior; only if it is considered as beyond the formal job requirements then the effect of independent variables on OCB would be more critical.

However coefficients table of regression analysis (Table 23, Model 3) has displayed that only the variables of age, workplace bullying exposure (WB) and observation combine to be significant predictors of organizational justice perceptions ( $p < 0.05$ ). The interpretation of these coefficients is as follows; increase in each year of age tends to lower the level of justice perception by .266 ( $p < 0.05$ ). The impact of gender ( $\beta = .088$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $\beta_{\text{divwid}} = .083$   $\beta_{\text{married}} = .078$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), education level, job position ( $\beta = .073$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), union membership ( $\beta = -.026$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) and tenure in the organization ( $\beta = .168$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), are not significant predictors affecting the level of organizational justice perception.

The notion of being a by-stander to workplace bullying exposure and its impact on organizational justice has revealed significant results. The observers of these aggressive behaviors (B2) tend to view organizational injustices as more prevalent and critical compared to non-observers. ( $\beta = -.169$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Lastly, the effect of workplace bullying (WB) in the form of frequency of exposure on organizational justice perceptions is significant so that for each unit of increase in the value of workplace bullying exposure (i.e. approaching to 'never' been bullied), the rating point of OJ would decrease by .283 ( $p < 0.001$ ) (i.e. approaching to 'strongly agree'). Same logic holds for other way round; leading to the conclusion that as workplace bullying exposure intensifies (as smaller the number), employee perceptions of organizational justice would negate.

### **4.3. Results of Hypotheses Testing**

The hypotheses proposed in this study tested via Pearson correlation and regression analyses. Additionally, chi-square tests are conducted to determine whether significant differences exist between workplace bullying incidence and socio-demographic characteristics of the participants.

**Hypothesis 1: There is a significant negative relationship between workplace bullying exposure and employee perceptions of organizational justice.**

Correlation analysis is performed to test hypothesis 1 that identifies the nature of relationship between workplace bullying exposure and organizational justice perceptions. The analysis has included not only the OJ scale but also has encompassed the subscales of DJ, IJ and PJ. Pearson correlation test results showed that there is a negative and significant relationship between employees' perceptions of justice and prevalence of workplace bullying exposure ( $r = -0.373$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Table 19). Additionally, results of multiple regression analysis estimating the relationship between OJ and workplace bullying exposure while controlling for the effects of other demographic variables revealed that there is statistically significant negative relationship ( $\beta = -.283$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Table 23).

**Hypothesis 2: Compared to other dimensions of organizational justice, interactional justice is better able to account for the variance in the concept of workplace bullying exposure.**

A regression analysis is performed to test the second hypothesis for identifying which one of the justice dimensions is better able to account for the variance in the concept of workplace bullying. The analysis indicated that procedural justice has accounted for 8.9 percent, distributive justice for 9.8 percent and lastly interactional justice has accounted for 14.2 percent of the amount of variation in the dependent variable of workplace bullying (Table 25). It can be concluded that the hypothesis is supported by the research data; however there is not a strong relationship.

**Table 25. Model Summary Table of PJ, DJ, IJ and Workplace Bullying**

Variables	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
OJPJ	.298	.089	.086	.55336	.000
OJDJ	.313	.098	.095	.55056	.000
OJIJ	.376	.142	.139	.53716	.000

a Dependent Variable: WB

P-value also indicates the significance of regression model at a very high significance level ( $p < 0.001$ ). The regression model is found to be statistically significant. The result of regression analysis displays that the contribution of interactional justice variable is relatively high ( $\beta = -.376$ ).

**Hypothesis 3: The performance of organizational citizenship behavior is negatively related to workplace bullying exposure.**

Correlation and multiple regression analyses are conducted to test the hypothesis 3 in order to depict the relations among organizational citizenship construct and workplace bullying exposure. Pearson correlation test results indicated that there is a negative and significant relationship between organizational citizenship behavior construct and workplace bullying scale as a whole ( $r = -0.154$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Table 19). Therefore, this hypothesis is supported by the findings even though it is not a strong relationship.

Additionally, results of multiple regression analysis estimating the relationship between OCB and workplace bullying exposure while controlling for the effects of other demographic variables revealed that there is statistically significant negative relationship ( $\beta = -.161$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; Table 24).

**Hypothesis 4: Organizational justice perceptions of observers are lower than non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**



In order to test hypothesis 4, observers are represented by '1' and non-observers of any workplace bullying episode are represented by '2'. Because this variable is measured in nominal scale; independent sample t-test (one-tailed) for variable organizational justice and observers/non-observers is computed to explore if any group differs according to means of the variances of the concepts of this survey. This procedure involves conducting Levene test for testing the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal. Levene test hypothesis for these two variables are formulated as follows;

**H<sub>0</sub>: There is not any statistically significant difference on the perceptions about organizational justice among observers and non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is statistically significant difference on the perceptions about organizational justice among observers and non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

**Table 26. Independent Samples Test for OJ and Workplace Bullying Observation**

		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	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
<b>OJ</b>	<b>Equal variances assumed</b>	.752	.387	5.804	286	0.000	.56039	.09654	.37036	.75041
	<b>Equal variances not assumed</b>			5.702	237.257	0.000	.56039	.09829	.36676	.75401

According to Levene test results, the specific row that will be accepted for the t-test result is decided. Levene test result for dependent variable organizational justice (OJ) is F= 0.752 and p= 0.387; since p is greater than 0.05; the first line of the t-test (equal variances assumed) is to be considered for hypothesis testing. Since SPSS only conducts two-tailed independent sample t-test; the results are being converted by

dividing the p value by two; the results are still statistically significant. The first row of the t-test reveals that  $p=0.00005$  (one-tailed). This leads to the conclusion that  $H_0$  is rejected.

As shown in the following Table 27, non-observers with  $\mu= 2.70$  have a greater result than observers with  $\mu = 3.26$ . So, “There is statistically significant difference on the perceptions about organizational justice between observers and non-observers of workplace bullying behavior of having the latter group with lower mean values.” So, we can conclude that by-standers perceive organizational injustices much more than non-observer employees.

**Table 27. Group Statistics of Variable Observed Bullying and OJ**

Have you witnessed any workplace bullying behavior during the last six months?		N	Mean	SD	Standard Error Mean
<b>OJ</b>	Yes (observer)	119	3.2620	.85488	.07837
	No (non-observer)	169	2.7016	.77118	.05932

**Hypothesis 5: Organizational citizenship performance of observers is lower than non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

Similar to the hypothesis 4; the last hypothesis of this study is being tested via independent sample t-test (one-tailed) for variable organizational citizenship behavior and observers/non-observers. The aim to explore if any group differs according to means of the variances of the concepts of this survey. This procedure involves conducting Levene test for testing the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal. Levene test hypothesis for these two variables are formulated as follows;

**H<sub>0</sub>: There is not any statistically significant difference on the perceptions about organizational citizenship behavior among observers and non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

**H<sub>1</sub>: There is statistically significant difference on the perceptions about organizational citizenship behavior among observers and non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.**

According to Levene test results, the specific row that will be accepted for the t-test result is decided. Levene test result for dependent variable organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is  $F = 2.566$  and  $p = 0.110$ ; since  $p$  is greater than 0.05; the first line of the t-test (equal variances assumed) is to be considered for hypothesis testing. The first row of the t-test reveals that  $p = 0.00005$  (one-tailed). This leads to the conclusion that  $H_0$  is rejected. So, “Organizational citizenship performance of observers is lower than non-observers of workplace bullying behavior.

**Table 28. Independent Samples Test for OCB and Workplace Bullying Observation**

		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	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
OCB	Equal variances assumed	2.566	.110	3.439	286	0.001	.16921	.04920	.07237	.26606
	Equal variances not assumed			3.338	225.658	0.001	.16921	.05069	.06933	.26910

As shown in the following Table 29, non-observers with  $\mu = 2.09$  have a greater result than observers with  $\mu = 1.92$ . So, we can conclude that by-standers perform less organizational citizenship behaviors than non-observer employees.

**Table 29. Group Statistics of Variable Observed Bullying and OCB**

Have you witnessed any workplace bullying behavior during the last six months?		N	Mean	SD	Standard Error Mean
OCB	Yes (observer)	119	2.0928	.45164	.04140
	No (non-observer)	69	1.9236	.38015	.02924

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

Starting from late 1980s, interest in destructive behavior in organizational settings has increased. Organization scholars have suggested that forms of workplace aggression (i.e. bullying, abusive supervision, workplace violence etc.) possess deleterious consequences for organizations and their members (Zellars et al., 2002). This research aims to extend the domain of these harmful impacts associated with workplace bullying to include subordinates' performance of behaviors that organizations value. Likewise, this study contributes to this literature by analyzing the concept of workplace bullying and its impact on two specific organizational outcomes namely organizational justice and citizenship behavior.

As it is further examined in "Analysis and Discussion of Findings" section of the present study, the regression analyses are concluded and resulted that bullied employees are more likely to withhold OCBs compared with their non-bullied counterparts. From the findings, it can be said that intensification of workplace bullying behavior tends to decrease employees' OCB performance when it is controlled for other factors. This result enables the target employee to achieve low-intensity type of revenge (Bies et al., 1997; cited in Zellars et al., 2002). However, the findings have suggested that some bullied employees may prefer to perform OCBs because they may consider OCBs as in-role requirements of the job; as pointed by Zellars et al. (2002) bullied employees may feel that regardless of the superior's behavior, they are normatively obligated to perform these behavior.

Furthermore, this research provides support for employees' justice-based perceptions as to how workplace bullying exposure and/or observation impacts subordinates' justice views. Evidently, the perceived injustices are evoked by workplace bullying incidents. From the findings, it can be concluded that workplace bullying behavior of

the perpetrator negatively affects employees' organizational justice perceptions when it is controlled for other factors.

Together with the above-mentioned organizational dependent variables; this study tries to unveil information on both the status of target employees and observers of the bullying episodes. Chi-square test is conducted to explore whether there is any statistically significant association between employees who have reported to be bullied and those who have reported to have witnessed. The results signify that "there is statistically significant association between two variables" ( $\chi^2=65.15$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $df=1$ ). Among 86 bullied employees; 77.6% of them have reported to become witnesses of bullying episodes in the workplace whereas 73.8% of non-bullied employees have reported to be unaware of any workplace bullying incident. That is to say, exposure to bullying on the part of any employee tends to make that employee to become more aware of abusive behavior taking place in organizational setting.

Although the main focus of this study is to reveal the effects of workplace bullying exposure on two specific organizational variables via keeping demographic factors under control; it is still crucial to note whether there is any statistically significant relationship between several demographic characteristics and workplace bullying incidence. Firstly, the findings have revealed that "there is statistically significant association between variables of gender and workplace bullying" (RB1) ( $\chi^2=4.39$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $df=1$ ). Being a female employee tends to make the respondent less likely of being a victim of workplace bullying. Though our survey results cannot reveal gender dyads of all bullying; U.S. Workplace Bullying Institute-Zogby Survey (2010)<sup>i</sup> has concluded that women-on-women bullying prevalence is 80% and the majority (68%) of bullying is same gender harassment. Secondly, it can be concluded from the findings that "there is no statistically significant association between marital status of participants and their exposure to workplace bullying" ( $\chi^2=2.88$ ,  $p=0.411$ ,  $df=3$ ). Moreover, the relationship between education level and workplace bullying

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<sup>i</sup> <http://www.workplacebullying.org/research/WBI-NatlSurvey2010.html>

exposure is being tested in which, “there is no statistically significant association between these two variables” ( $\chi^2=4.18$ ,  $p=0.382$ ,  $df=4$ ).

Also, the impact of hierarchical status (managerial or non-managerial) and its relation with workplace bullying exposure is being studied by several researchers (Aquino and Thau, 2009; Einarsen and Raknes, 1997; Hoel et al., 2000). In line with the literature, the findings have suggested that “there is no statistically significant association on the workplace bullying exposure among employees in managerial and non-managerial positions” ( $\chi^2=0.544$ ,  $p=0.461$ ,  $df=1$ ). Finally whether union membership provides a shield from workplace bullying exposure is tested and revealed that “there is no statistically significant association between two variables” ( $\chi^2=0.345$ ,  $p=0.557$ ,  $df=1$ ).

Furthermore, the data of this study has included descriptive about employees’ absenteeism. The literature has suggested that the correlation between workplace bullying and absenteeism is relatively weak (Einarsen et al., 2009). Similarly, our findings have revealed weak correlation between these two variables ( $r=0.11$ ,  $p=0.062$ ). Exposure to bullying behavior may oblige workers to go to work in order to avoid further retaliation or victimization from the perpetrators. Likewise, targets of workplace bullying often do not protest as they believe that this could worsen the current situation (European Foundation Report, 2010).

## **5.2. Practical Implications**

In terms of its practical implications this study deserves to be highlighted for its conclusions to be internalized by organizational management which operate in bullying impacted atmosphere. Evidently, U.S. Workplace Bullying Institute-Zogby Survey (2010) has concluded that 35% of the U.S workforce reported being bullied at work; likely our survey findings (based on sample of six institutions) have revealed similar results of having approximately 30% of the Turkish public sector workforce identify themselves with bullying exposure.

Currently, organizational environment is characterized by intense competition with multiple deadlines; such frustration may cause many employees to exhibit more abusive behavior (Spector, 1997; cited in Zellars et al., 2002). On the other hand, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) have established that OCBs benefit organizations in terms of sales, performance quality and operating efficiency. Hence, our findings suggesting that bullied subordinates perform fewer OCBs than their non-bullied counterparts provide motivation for management to be concerned about allowing workplace bullying behavior to go unchecked (Zellars et al., 2002). Similarly, the finding that justice perceptions of employees regarding their workplace are negatively affected as a result of bullying practices may provide insights for the management team given that organizational justice is an essential component in high levels of organizational commitment, performance and trust. So, a better understanding of dynamics of bullying and their impact on organizational outcomes and workers' well-being should serve as an impetus for organizations to develop effective policies for discouraging these dysfunctional behaviors (Lee and Brotheridge, 2006). Overall, since workplace bullying is a costly issue for organizations (Tınaz, 2006); understanding workplace bullying may help organizations and researchers figuring out remedies to reduce both the financial and psychological costs of abusive behavior.

The discussion in this dissertation underlines negative impacts of workplace bullying that are not limited to the perpetrator-target relationship but can generalize into injustice and withdrawal of organizational citizenship behavior, thereby influencing both targets' and bystanders' organizationally relevant attitudes. As emphasized by Parzefall and Salin (2010, pp.774), it is therefore significant for organizations "to react bullying incidents immediately, to prevent them from escalating into phenomenon that is not only ethically wrong but also costly in terms of its negative effects on organizational climate." So, management should take proactive stand in terms of intervening in destructive behaviors promptly, whether these occur between superior and employees, or among peers.



However, results of the U.S. Workplace Bullying Institute-Zogby Survey (Namie, 2007) have elaborated that; 62% of the employers ignore the problem, 40% of bullied targets and by-standers take no action, 37% informally report to the organization, 19% file formal complaints and only 3% filed lawsuits. Due to the relatively lower rate of formal action taken by targets usually out of the fear that things may get worse; Namie and Namie (2004; cited in Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009) has labeled bullying as a ‘silent epidemic.’

### **5.3. Final Remarks about “what can be done?”**

Although top-level commitment is important, a solely top-down approach is not a panacea; rather prevention and intervention efforts should focus on anti-bullying initiatives at organizational level. Policies should first define bullying; “a definition is needed because it enables all staff to understand what the organization terms workplace ‘bullying’” (Richards and Daley, 2003, pp.250, cited in Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009). Also, as it is suggested by Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2009), organizations may summarize the misbehavior encoded in NAQ with categories such as; verbal abuse, intimidating communication, work obstruction. The lack of common bullying perception on the part of employees is also reflected in our findings. Our findings reveal that when employees are asked whether they are subjected to workplace bullying via subjective definition in the form of yes or no; the results are less severe than the responses achieved when participants are asked to rate the behavior that they encounter according to the items in NAQ. So what is included within the scope of bullying and what is not remains blurred. Furthermore, policies must be complemented with formal and informal complaint mechanisms in order to provide for individual voice and an opportunity to be heard. Finally, for policies to be effective they “need to be backed by groups who are responsible for the sensitive dissemination of the policy” (Crawford, 2001, pp.25).

Apart from the anti-bullying policies, organizations should provide support for both bullied employees and co-worker witnesses whom are often affected by seeing peer

and being helpless to make it stop (Vartia, 2001). Organizations may provide target and witness-oriented support by persons other than those whose first loyalty is to the employer (i.e. HR, Employee Assistance Programs) (Lutgen- Sandvik et al., 2009).

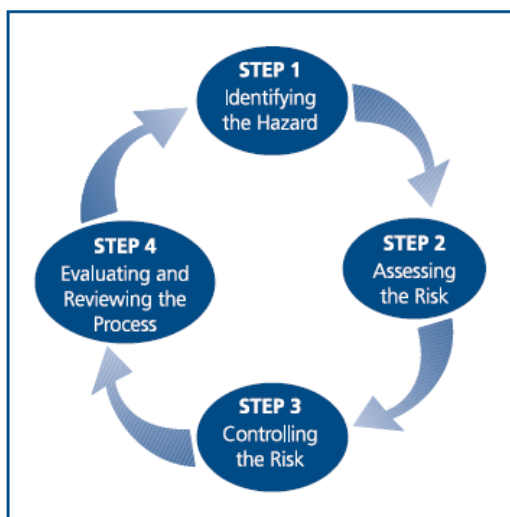
In line with the prevention and intervention strategies; IntraAgency Round Table Report on Workplace Bullying (South Australia, 2005)<sup>ii</sup> has recommended four step process led by employers and ultimately minimizes the direct and indirect costs associated with bullying (Figure 2). The first step is “identifying the hazard”; in this stage employer should actively take reasonable steps to identify whether workplace bullying exists or has the potential to emerge; hence employers should monitor patterns of absenteeism, staff turnover, grievances, deterioration in workplace relationships between employees and continuously receive feedback from managers/supervisors or any other internal or external party. The second step referred as “assessing the risk factors”; involves determining specific behaviors that may result in incidents of workplace bullying. For instance, employers should check whether there exists repeated criticism that is targeted at an individual(s) rather than at work performance, threats of punishment for no justifiable reason, overloading a particular employee with heavy work or share of unpleasant jobs.

In the third step of “controlling the risk factors”, employers should implement plans to minimize and control the risks relating to bullying such as; establishing expectations of appropriate behavior and the consequences for failing to comply with expectations of appropriate behavior; developing a complaint handling and investigation procedure; providing training, education, information and awareness for all employees on workplace bullying; and providing clear job descriptions that include an outline of the specific roles and responsibilities for each position within the workplace. Finally step four is labeled as “evaluation and review”; it ensures that the strategies implemented are effective in preventing or minimizing incidents of workplace bullying within the workplace. The framework underlines the importance

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<sup>ii</sup> [www.stopbullyingsa.com.au/documents/bullying\\_employers.pdf](http://www.stopbullyingsa.com.au/documents/bullying_employers.pdf)

of continual process cycle that would enable the prevention of workplace bullying from recurring.



**Figure 2. Four-Step Process**

#### **5.4. Limitations of the Study**

This study encompasses several potential limitations that need to be acknowledged in interpretations of findings and suggestions for future research. First of all, the nature of the research design and sampling procedure are two main limitations. The cross-sectional nature of the study has limited the scope to a snapshot from the perspective of time. For instance, workplace bullying construct could have been analyzed through a longitudinal study for understanding the changes in the perceptions of the employees at different time periods in bullying episodes. Even though hypotheses tested in this study were proposed on the basis of relevant empirical evidence shown in the literature; it is not possible to claim causal relationships among the variables due to the lack of a longitudinal design. Rather the results reflect associations between variables at a single point in time.

Future studies should have longitudinal or experimental designs to provide a stronger support for the proposed theoretical framework. Longitudinal research would also help to tease out whether workplace bullying is a cause or consequence of

subordinates' OCB. On the one hand it may be argued that superiors are more inclined to bully towards subordinates who withhold OCBs; on the other hand the victims may intentionally prefer to withhold extra-role behavior when they are exposed to workplace bullying. So research designs encompassing measures of workplace bullying and OCB at multiple points in time will aid to display whether bullying is a cause or consequence of subordinates' OCB (Zellars et al., 2002).

With respect to the sampling procedure; the main limitation is that the study could not be able to be conducted among a sample of only bullied public sector employees. If only these victimized individuals could have been captured then, performing of interviews rather than questionnaires would generate deeper insights. However the present study has encompassed 288 respondents via convenience sampling procedure where only one-third of them were labeled themselves as targets of workplace bullying. Furthermore, this study has been performed with the participation of six public institutions in which some other organizations did not want to participate in this study. Some public officials avoided the participation when they heard that the study is about workplace bullying which may uncover negative information about their organizations. So, participation of more organizations would have been preferred in extending the reliability and external validity of this research.

Furthermore, collection of information only from respondents (self-report method) and thus lack of peer/supervisor ratings may be cited as a limitation for the validity of this study. For instance; if supervisor reported OCB data could have been provided then this would eliminate the risk of common method variance associated with single source nature of the data. Likewise, controversy exists whether workplace bullying exposure should rely on victim's subjective experience or another person confirming this experience because as targets and observers may disagree on how to interpret the same behavior. The self-reported nature of the study may have led to represent only a small fraction of workplace bullying compared to its actual occurrence; as it is found out from the results of European Working Conditions Survey (2005); the lack of willingness of respondents to disclose the

problem and identify themselves as victims is prevalent. Besides, the report has presumed that many employees subjected to serious instances of psychological abuse are likely to withdrawn from the labor market and therefore not to appear in their survey sample.

Moreover, measurement of variables through self-reporting may have entailed the effect of social desirability in labeling positively considered responses. It could be quite common for respondents to cite 'strongly disagree' to a statement that can be regarded as negative. So if supervisor rating in OCB and peer nomination technique in workplace bullying incidences would have been adopted, inflating relationships between variables would be alleviated. As pointed by Lamertz and Aquino (2004), future studies should use cognitive social network data, in which all respondents report their perceptions of interpersonal behavior between all pairs of actors in a social network.

Additionally, this study intended to determine the prevalence of workplace bullying during a certain past period of time in such a way that employees were asked about the memory of being bullied in the previous six months, thus the estimated prevalence would have been subjected to recall bias (Nielsen and Einarsen, 2007). Finally, although the questionnaires were able to depict the source of bullying behavior, the study could not be able to distinguish whether the victimizing behavior came from one person or many and between acts that were intentional or accidental.

### **5.5. Directions for Future Research**

This study has embraced quantitative approach with large-N analysis; however future research may involve mixed methods design thus incorporating the previous approach with small-N qualitative study to gain further insight. For instance; in-depth semi-structured interviews can also be conducted with several bullied employees in public sector together with statistical analyses of survey data.

Furthermore, recent research maintained that OCB may be motivated by impression management concerns (Bolino, 1999). In this approach performing OCBs is depicted to be image enhancing; it is reasonable to assume that some bullied employees perform OCBs to be viewed favorably by their superiors and to avoid triggering the perpetrator's hostility towards them. So, further research should consider the role of impression management motivations in OCB performance.

The workplace bullying part of the questionnaire has included NAQ items which have begun with the wording of "during the past six months how often have you experienced the following..." However as argued by Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007); regardless of this wording, some respondents may report acts that have occurred for less than six months. Future research should focus on asking for each negative act as; "how long did this continue?". This would enable more accurate and continuous duration variable for each negative act and avoid measuring bullying with reported negative acts that may have been short-lived. Moreover, with the existing data that is used in this study; future research may encompass the relationship between unionization and workplace bullying in terms of whether the presence or absence of a union bears a strong relationship in promoting or hindering workplace bullying. Also since the data is being collected both from central and local administrative bodies; the diverse effects of workplace bullying on these employees can be dealt separately.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX A**

#### **QUESTIONNAIRE FORM**



Değerli Katılımcı,

Aşağıda Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü öğretim üyesi Doç.Dr.Semra AŞCIGİL danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilmekte olan yüksek lisans çalışması için hazırlanmış anket formu yer almaktadır. Çalışma, işyerlerindeki davranışların incelenmesini amaçlamaktadır.

Lütfen ankette yer alan her bir ifadeye belirtilen kriterler doğrultusunda içtenlikle yanıt veriniz. Anket sonuçları kişi ya da kurum bazında değil sektörel olarak değerlendirilecektir; bu nedenle herhangi bir şekilde isminizi, bölümünüzü ya da çalıştığınız kurumu belirtmenize gerek bulunmamaktadır. Anketten elde edilecek kişisel bilgiler, yalnızca bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacak, kesinlikle hiçbir kişi veya kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır. Anketi doldurma süresi yaklaşık 20-25 dakikadır. Değerli vaktinizi ayırıp araştırmaya katkıda bulunduğunuz için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,  
Deniz ÖZTÜRK

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

**A. Aşağıda çalıştığınız kurumda sergilediğiniz davranışlar ile ilgili çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeye katıldığınız seçeneğin üzerine (X) işareti yazarak yanıt veriniz.**

**(a) Kesinlikle katılıyorum    (b) Katılıyorum    (c) Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**  
**(d) Katılmıyorum    (e) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**

A1. İşle ilgili sorun yaşayan arkadaşlarıma yardımcı olmak için zaman ayırıyorum.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A2. İşe gelememiş arkadaşlarımdan işlerinin yerine getirilmesine destek veririm.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A3. Talep edilmediği halde, çalıştığım kuruma yeni katılanların işlerine uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olurum.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A4. İş yükü fazla diğer çalışanlara yardım ederim.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A5. Her zaman işimin olumlu yönlerini vurgulamayı tercih ederim.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A6. Kurumda mevcut olan kurallara saygılıyım.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A7. Her zaman işe vaktinde gelirim.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A8. Dinlenme aralarını veya öğle yemeği arasını uzun tutmam.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

(a) Kesinlikle katılıyorum (b) Katılıyorum (c) Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum  
(d) Katılmıyorum (e) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

A9. Çalıştığım kurumda başkalarının sorun yaşamaması için önceden önlem alırım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A10. Çalıştığım kurumda aldığım kararlar başkalarını etkileyecekse, onlara fikirlerini sorarım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A11. Çalıştığım kurumda başkalarının haklarını çiğnememeye özen gösteririm. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A12. Kurum içinde iş ile ilgili düzenlenen toplantılara düzenli olarak katılırım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A13. Çoğu zaman etrafımdaki kişilere işimden ayrılmak istediğimi dile getiririm. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A14. Çalıştığım kurumdaki değişimleri takip ederim ve iş arkadaşlarımdan bunları kabul etmesinde rol oynarım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A15. Belirlenmiş mola saatleri dışında ara vermem. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A16. Çalıştığım kurumun imajına olumlu yönde katkıda bulunmaya çalışırım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A17. İşte ortaya çıkan sorunları olduğundan fazla büyültmeye meyilliyim. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A18. İşimle ilgili önemli bir adım atmadan önce mutlaka üstümü bilgilendiririm. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

A19. Çalıştığım kurumda çoğu zaman çok önemli sayılmayacak konulardan yakınırım. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

**B.**

**B1.** ‘Psikolojik yıldırma’ örgütlerde belirli bir çalışana yöneltilen ve uzun süre sistematik bir şekilde devam ettirilen olumsuz tutum ve davranışlardır. Siz *son 6 ay içerisinde* çalıştığınız kurumda yıldırmaya yönelik bir tutumla karşılaştınız mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

**Eğer cevabınız ‘EVET’ ise 1.a sorusunu yanıtlayınız. Değilse 2. soruya geçiniz.**

**1.a.** Size karşı psikolojik yıldırmayı uygulayan(ların) sizin bulunduğunuz konuma göre çalışma konum(larını) aşağıdaki kriterler doğrultusunda belirtiniz.

☐ Üst Kademe (sizden yukarı kademe)

☐ Aynı Kademe

☐ Alt Kademe (sizden aşağı kademe)

**B2. Son 6 ay içerisinde yıldırımaya yönelik bir tutumla karşılaşan çalışan gözlemlediniz mi?**

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

**B3. Son 6 ay içerisinde kasıtlı olarak işe gelmeme sıklığınız:**

☐ Çok sık

☐ Sık

☐ Ara sıra

☐ Nadiren

☐ Hiç

**C. Lütfen aşağıda belirtilen her bir olumsuz davranışa son 6 ay içerisinde çalıştığınız kurumda ya da işinizle ilgili olarak hangi sıklıkla maruz kaldığınızı kriterler doğrultusunda katıldığınız seçeneğin üzerine (X) işareti vazarak belirtiniz.**

**(a) Hemen hemen her gün**

**(b) Haftada birçok kez**

**(c) Ara sıra**

**(d) Nadiren**

**(e) Hiç**

- |  |                     |
|--|---------------------|
| C1. İş performansınızı etkileyecek bilgilerin sizden saklaması       | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C2. İşinizle ilgili çalışmalarınızla ilgili aşağılanmanız            | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C3. Yeterlilik düzeyinizin çok altında görevler verilmesi            | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C4. İşinizle ilgili temel sorumluluklarınızın elinizden alınması     | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C5. Görev ve sorumluluklarınızın istenmeyen işlerle değiştirilmesi   | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C6. İş arkadaşlarınızın hakkınızda dedikodu yapması                  | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C7. İşinizle ilgili konularda dikkate alınmamanız                    | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C8. İşinizle ilgili konuların dışında bırakılmanız                   | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C9. Özel yaşamınız hakkında aşağılanma içeren yorumlarda bulunulması | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C10. Kişiliğinize yönelik hakaret içeren yorumlarda bulunulması      | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C11. Hak etmediğiniz şekilde bağırılması                             | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C12. İşyerinizde itilip kakılmanız                                   | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C13. İşin bırakılması gerektiğine dair imalarda bulunulması          | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C14. Hataların sürekli hatırlatılması                                | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |
| C15. İş arkadaşlarınız tarafından hiçe sayılmanız                    | (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) |

- C16. İşyerinizdeki kişiler tarafından düşmanca davranışlar gösterilmesi (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C17. İşle ilgili çalışmalarınızın sürekli olarak eleştirilmesi (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C18. İşle ilgili ürettiğiniz fikirlerinizin dikkate alınmaması (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C19. Geçinemediğiniz kişilerin ağır şakalarına maruz kalmanız (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C20. Mantık dışı ve imkansız hedefler, zaman kısıtlamalarının konması (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C21. Size karşı ithamlarda bulunulması (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C22. İşinizin aşırı derecede denetime tabi tutulması (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C23. Hastalık izni, yıllık izin gibi aslında hak edilmiş olan şeylerin talep edilmemesi konusunda baskılar yapılması (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C24. Çalıştığınız kurumda sürekli kızdırılmanız (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C25. Üstesinden gelinemeyecek ölçüde aşırı iş yüküyle karşı karşıya kalmanız (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C26. Şiddet içeren tehditlere maruz kalmanız (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- C27. İstek dışında işinizin değiştirilmesi veya transfer edilmeniz (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

**D. Aşağıda çalıştığınız kurumdaki çeşitli davranışlarla/uygulamalarla ilgili algılarınızı yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeye kriterler doğrultusunda katıldığınız seçeneğin üzerine (X) işareti yazarak yanıt veriniz.**

- (a) Kesinlikle katılıyorum (b) Katılıyorum (c) Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**
- (d) Katılmıyorum (e) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**

- D1. İşle ilgili kararlar üst yönetim tarafından tarafsız biçimde alınır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D2. Çalıştığım kurum, işle ilgili kararlar alınmadan önce, çalışanların tüm kaygılarının dile getirilmesine özen gösterir. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D3. İşle ilgili kararlar alınmadan önce, yönetim doğru ve tam bilgi toplar.

- (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D4. Çalıştığım kurum alınan kararları net bir şekilde açıklar ve çalışanların talep etmesi durumunda ek bilgiler sunar. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D5. İşle ilgili alınan tüm kararlar, ilgili tüm çalışanlara tutarlı şekilde uygulanır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D6. Çalışanlar, kurum tarafından alınan kararlarda değişiklik talep etme ya da bunlara itiraz etme hakkına sahiptirler. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D7. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, çalıştığım kurumdaki üstlerim bana saygılı ve itibarlı davranır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D8. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, çalıştığım kurumdaki üstlerim bana nazik ve düşünceli davranır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D9. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, üstlerim kişisel gereksinimlerime duyarlıdır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D10. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, üstlerim bana karşı gerçekçi bir tavır sergiler. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D11. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, çalıştığım kurum bir çalışan olarak sahip olduğum hakları göz önünde bulundurur. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D12. İşimle ilgili kararlar söz konusu olduğunda, çalıştığım kurumdaki üstlerim kararların olası etkilerini benimle tartışır. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D13. Çalıştığım kurumdaki üstlerim, işimle ilgili kararlar hakkında yeterli gerekçeler sunar. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D14. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, üstlerim bana mantıklı açıklamalarda bulunur. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D15. Çalıştığım kurum, işimle ilgili alınan her kararı bana net bir şekilde açıklar. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D16. İş programım adildir. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D17. Ücret düzeyimin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D18. İş yükümün oldukça adil olduğunu düşünüyorum. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)
- D19. Genel olarak, bu kurumda aldığım ödüller oldukça adildir. (a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

D20. İş yükümlülüklerimin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)

**Cinsiyetiniz:** ☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın

**Yaşınız:**.....

**Medeni Durum:** ☐ Evli ☐ Bekar (Hiç evlenmemiş) ☐ Boşanmış ☐ Dul

**Eğitiminiz:** ☐ Orta Öğretim ☐ Önlisans ☐ Lisans ☐ Lisans üstü ☐ Doktora

**Pozisyonunuz:** ☐ Yönetici (Müdür, Müdür Yrd., Şef vb.)  
☐ Yöneticilik ile ilgili olmayan (Hiç astı olmayanlar)

**Sendika Üyeliği:** ☐ Evet, üyeyim. ☐ Hayır, üye değilim.

**Kurumda Çalışma Süreniz:**..... yıl.

**Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.**

## **APPENDIX B**

### **SELF-REPORTED ASPECTS OF WORKPLACE BULLYING AMONG REPORTED BULLIES**

**Appendix B. Self-Reported Aspects of Workplace Bullying among Reported Bullies (N=86)**

	Almost Daily		Weekly		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
C1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance	6	7.0	15	17.4	28	32.6	18	20.9	19	22.1
C2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with work	6	7.0	6	7.0	17	19.8	29	33.7	28	32.6
C3. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	17	19.8	8	9.3	25	29.1	18	20.9	17	19.8
C4. Having key areas of responsibility removed	9	10.5	10	11.6	25	29.1	15	17.4	27	31.4
C5. Having key areas of responsibility replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	8	9.3	8	9.3	20	23.3	16	18.6	34	39.5
C6. Spreading of gossips about you	9	10.5	13	15.1	20	23.3	25	29.1	19	22.1
C7. Spreading rumors about you * <sup>1</sup>	6	7.0	7	8.1	18	20.9	22	25.6	32	37.2
C8. Having your opinions and views ignored	11	12.8	14	16.3	21	24.4	22	25.6	18	20.9
C9. Being ignored, excluded or being 'sent to Coventry'	9	10.5	14	16.3	17	18.8	28	32.6	18	20.9
C10. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or personal life	5	5.8	2	2.3	9	10.5	17	19.8	53	61.6

<sup>1</sup> \* show the items that have 1 missing value



C11. Systematically being required to carry out tasks which clearly fall outside your job description	3	3.5	2	2.3	9	10.5	17	19.8	55	64.0
C12. Being shouted at or targeted with spontaneous anger	1	1.2	3	3.5	12	14.0	18	20.9	52	60.5
C13. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	2	2.3	2	2.3	5	5.8	11	12.8	66	76.7
C14. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	1	1.2	5	5.8	3	3.5	18	20.9	59	68.6
C15. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	3	3.5	2	2.3	9	10.5	29	33.7	43	50.0
C16. Attempts to find fault with your work	1	1.2	5	5.8	8	9.3	22	25.6	50	58.1
C17. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	4	4.7	4	4.7	17	19.8	21	24.4	40	46.5
C18. Persistent criticism of your work and effort	2	2.3	5	5.8	11	12.8	30	34.9	38	44.2
C19. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with	3	3.5	2	2.3	14	16.3	14	16.3	53	61.6
C20. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	3	3.5	6	7.0	13	15.1	34	39.5	29	33.7
C21. Having allegations made against you *	3	3.5	6	7.0	9	10.5	25	29.1	42	48.8
C22. Excessive monitoring of your work *	3	3.5	6	7.0	19	22.1	29	33.7	27	31.4
C23. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to * (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	3	3.5	7	8.1	16	18.6	19	22.1	40	46.5
C24. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	5	5.8	5	5.8	21	24.4	19	22.1	36	1.9

C25. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	6	7.0	7	8.1	19	22.1	27	31.4	27	31.4
C26. Threats of violence or personal abuse *	3	3.5	2	2.3	0	0.0	11	12.8	69	80.2
C27. Being moved or transferred against your will	3	3.5	5	5.8	18	20.9	14	16.3	46	53.5

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