

BULLYING BEHAVIORS AS ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICAL TACTICS

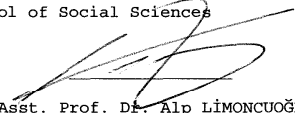
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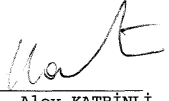
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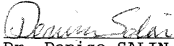
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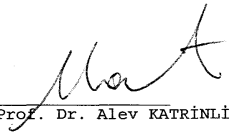
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

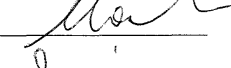
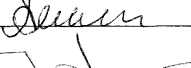

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ABSTRACT

BULLYING BEHAVIORS AS ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICAL TACTICS

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This study examines bullying behaviors as organizational political tactics and investigated if they are perceived as effective political tactics in the workplace. Besides, the effects of individual factors that may influence this perception such as age, gender, education and Machiavellianism are also investigated. Moreover, other potential reasons of bullying and their relevancy with different bullying behaviors are identified.

Survey method was employed as a research tool. Data was collected from two samples; 217 participants responded to vertical bullying and 238 participants responded to horizontal bullying questionnaire. Written vignettes were prepared to explain different

bullying behaviors based on Leymann's classification (1996), and Machiavellian orientation was measured by Mac-IV scale.

Results showed that bullying behaviors were perceived as effective political tactics. In fact, their effectiveness changed according to the decision domains that the perpetrator aims to influence. Regarding individual characteristics, the effect of age and education was not found as statistically significant. However, the effect of gender on the perceived effectiveness of bullying across different decision domains was found as statistically significant. Accordingly, female respondents perceived the overall effectiveness of different bullying behaviors as more effective political tactics than male respondents. Furthermore, people with low Machiavellian orientation perceived bullying behaviors as more effective political tactics than people with high Machiavellian orientation. Regarding, the relevancy of bullying behaviors with different reasons, it was identified that different bullying behaviors were associated with different reasons. However, generally the low attention of management was seen as the most relevant reason for being bullied.

Keywords: Bullying, organizational politics, Machiavellianism, vignette method.

ÖZET

YILDIRMA DAVRANIŞLARININ POLİTİK TAKTİKLER OLARAK İNCELENMESİ

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Çalışma kapsamında yıldırma davranışları politik taktikler olarak incelenmiş ve ne derece etkili politik taktikler olarak algılandıkları araştırılmıştır. Ayrıca, yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim durumu ve Makyavelizm gibi bireysel faktörlerin bu algıya etkisi araştırılmıştır. Çalışmanın kapsamında, yıldırma davranışlarının örgütsel politika dışındaki diğer potansiyel öncelleri üzerinde de durulmuştur.

Veri toplamada anket yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Veriler 2 ayrı örneklemden toplanmıştır. Yatay düzeyde yıldırma davranışlarının araştırıldığı anket formunu 238, dikey düzeydeki yıldırma davranışlarının araştırıldığı anket formunu 217 kişi cevaplamıştır. Yıldırma davranışlarının ölçümünde Leyman (1996) tarafından geliştirilen sınıflamaya

dayanarak hazırlanan yazılı senaryolar kullanılmıştır. Makyavelizm ise Mach-IV ölçeği kullanılarak ölçülmüştür.

Araştırmanın sonucunda, yıldırma davranışlarının kişilerin örgütsel kararları kendi çıkarlarına hizmet edebilecek şekilde etkilemede kullandığı etkili politik taktikler olarak görüldüğü belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca, yıldırma davranışlarının algılanan etkililik düzeyinin etkilenmek istenen karar türüne göre de değişiklik gösterdiği bulunmuştur. Bireysel özelliklerin bu algıya olan etkisine bakıldığında, yaş ve eğitim durumunun istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir etkisinin bulunmadığı, ancak cinsiyetin bu algıyı istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir şekilde etkilediği ortaya konmuştur. Bu doğrultuda, kadınların yıldırma davranışlarını erkeklere göre daha etkili politik taktikler olarak algıladığı ve bu farkın tüm karar alanlarında gözlemlendiği belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca, Makyavelist oryantasyonu düşük olan katılımcıların da, yüksek olanlara göre yıldırma davranışlarını daha etkili politik taktikler olarak algıladıkları görülmüştür. Yıldırma davranışlarının politik olmayan diğer faktörlerle ilişkisi araştırıldığında, farklı yıldırma davranışlarının farklı nedenlerle ilişkilendirildiği, ancak yönetimin ilgisizliği maddesinin en çok ilgili bulunan faktör olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yıldırma, örgütsel politika, Makyavelizm, senaryo yöntemi

To
My parents
&
My husband

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When I started my PhD at the Department of Business Administration, Izmir University of Economics, I was very excited about my new life. As a professor said in my interview, being a PhD student and a research assistant is not only a profession, but it is a life style. Since 2004, my life has had full of challenges with sleepless nights but has offered feeling of personal developments and accomplishments.

The last part of my PhD has started with this thesis. The study presented in this thesis has been conducted over a period of two years at Izmir University of Economics in Izmir, and at Hanken University in Helsinki. As expected, I have attempted to do my best by showing enormous effort during this period. However, it is obvious that without the contribution of many people, my efforts will be insufficient to create such a work. Thus, here, I would like to thank these people for their vital contributions to this work and their support during this period.

First of all, I am exceedingly grateful to Prof. Dr. Alev Katrinli for her guidance, support and critical contributions. Since the beginning of my academic life, she has had confidence in me and encouraged me for every challenge. I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Sevinç Köse for her kind support and useful suggestions. Moreover, I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Erhan Ada for his assistance and positive criticisms. Additionally, I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Kemal Kurtulus for his guidance and vital contributions, especially for statistical analyses. I am also grateful to Asst. Prof. Dr. Gulem Atabay and Asst. Prof. Dr.

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CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction of the Main Concept and General Aims of the Study

21st century can be characterized as being extremely competitive with high level of uncertainty from the perspective of working population in many countries. As industry faces the pressure of global competition and sustainability of competitive advantage, workers have to deal with significant changes in their work life. It can be said that in this century, workers are expected to work harder and be more productive as a result of downsizing and changes in work methods. Hence, many organizations have competitive work climate which makes employees and managers more pressured and creates a suitable environment for conflict as well as other negative work behaviors.

One of the negative work behaviors, which has been investigated by many scholars due to its severe consequences, is bullying. Einarsen et al. (2003) defines bullying as *“Bullying at work means harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks. In order for the label bullying to be*

applied for a particular activity, interaction or process it has to occur repeatedly and regularly and over a period of time. Bullying is 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. A conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is an isolated event or if two parties of approximately equal strength are in conflict”.

Bullying has been an important research topic in the field of management since 1990s. Although early studies on bullying date the late 1970s and the beginning of 1980s, during 1990s research on bullying spread all over the world and researchers attracted the attention of practitioners and policy makers by outlining the severe consequences of bullying to both victims and organizations. Hence, this taboo of the past has become a popular research topic and found itself a place in academic and business life.

The reason for the increased interest in the concept is strongly associated with its severe consequences. For victims, bullying has consequences such as stress disorders, mental and psychosomatic health consequences (Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996), and even suicide (Groeblichhoff & Becker, 1996). Also, it harms organizations since it is associated with high turnover, high absenteeism and decreased organizational commitment and employee productivity (Hoel et al., 2003; Keashly & Jagatic, 2003). Therefore, understanding the dynamics of bullying is crucially important for scholars as well as for practitioners to create a peaceful and productive working environment and achieving the target of healthy society (Leymann, 1996).

Literature suggests that bullying is a broad concept involving different types of behaviors. Hence, different kinds of behaviors, which occur under different conditions and have different causes and consequences, can be considered as bullying if carried out systematically. For example, verbal aggression and spreading rumors (Zapf et al., 1996), social isolation (Jennifer et al., 2003; Vartia, 1993), humiliation (Davenport et al., 1999), name-calling (Brodsky, 1976) and threat to professional status (Jennifer et al., 2003) can be labeled as bullying.

It is argued that among the wide range of bullying behaviors, some can be considered as micro political behaviors from the point of view of the perpetrator where they are deliberately used to serve people's self interests (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Ferris et al., 2007; Guneri, 2008; Salin, 2003; Samanci, 2001). Hence, there is an intersection between bullying and organizational politics.

Although a small number of researchers mentions that bullying can be considered as a form of organizational politics (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Ferris et al., 2007; Guneri, 2008; Salin, 2003; Samanci, 2001), there is only one piece of research that examined bullying behaviors as political tactics and outlined the perceived effectiveness of those behaviors for influencing organizational decisions (Katrinli et al., 2008; at least to author's knowledge). Hence, it can be said that research and empirical evidence regarding the association of bullying with organizational politics is insufficient especially when the importance of the subject is taken into account. It can be argued that examining the association between bullying and organizational politics and outlining how effective they are perceived to serve people's self interests is important

for understanding the complex nature of bullying as well as for its prevention and intervention.

Following this argument, the current study focuses on the concept of bullying and specifically, the situations in which bullying behaviors are used as political tactics by the perpetrators to achieve their aims. At this point, it is worth noting that perceived effectiveness of those behaviors can be seen as the key in explaining the perpetrators' motives for engaging in such behaviors. Accordingly, the first aim of this study is to identify whether bullying behaviors are seen as effective political tactics in influencing organizational decisions and in turn serving the self interests of the perpetrators. In order to provide deeper understanding, the association between different bullying behaviors and political aims are specifically examined.

It is known that bullying may take place between a manager and a subordinate (vertical bullying) as well as among peers (horizontal bullying). Researchers mention this fact and address the question as to whether vertical bullying and horizontal bullying are the same or distinct concepts. With the aim of contributing to this discussion, the current study also investigates whether there is a difference in perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors between vertical and horizontal bullying.

Since people's perception of the effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics is the main focus of the study, the effects of some factors on this perception are investigated. Based on the bullying and organizational politics literature, age, gender,

education and Machiavellianism are included in the study as the factors that may influence the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics.

As stated above, the main aim of the study is to emphasize the relationship between bullying and organizational politics as well as to explore the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics. However, it is known that bullying and organizational politics could be related, are infact separate concepts. Hence, explaining bullying incidents only in terms of organizational politics will not be a sufficient argument. Accordingly, this study also explores the perceived relevancy of different bullying behaviors with some potential causes of bullying, which are determined in accordance with the literature.

1.2. Significance of the Study

By focusing on the intersection between bullying and organizational politics, this study will provide important contributions to theory as well as provide useful information to practitioners. Regarding its contribution to theory, it can be said that it will empirically support a neglected point in two areas of both bullying and organizational politics and provide deeper understanding of the complex nature of the issue. Moreover, findings of research can guide further research on the correlates of bullying, which as is indicated by this reaserach, appears itself to be a correlate of rganizational politics.

When it comes to its utilization in practice, it can be said that identifying the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors for achieving personal aims and their perceived relevancy to potential causes are crucially important, because the way people perceive bullying will affect how they respond to, and cope with it. The findings of the study may provide great help in increasing the awareness of employees and managers of the nature of bullying. This point is especially important as most people are subjected to bullying, which is labeled as a natural part of the competition by peers and managers, and occasionally even by the victims' themselves.

Moreover, findings will provide managers important clues about which intervention techniques will be more effective in combating different bullying behaviors and what can be done to prevent bullying in the workplace. As expected, findings can be utilized in designing prevention or intervention programmes as well as input into management training programs.

1.3. *Structure of the Thesis*

As it was mentioned, the main concept that is examined within the context of this thesis is bullying. Accordingly, theoretical background starts with Chapter-2, which provides an extensive literature on bullying. Different definitions, related concepts, classifications of bullying behaviors, its antecedents, consequences as well as prevention and intervention techniques are explained in detail. In the third chapter, the concept of organizational politics is explained with a special emphasis on its association

with bullying. Based on the literature review, in the fourth chapter, research model and hypotheses are introduced. The fifth chapter includes methodology; data collection methods, characteristics of the samples, statistical analyses as well as results are explained. Finally, the sixth chapter provides discussion of the results, their contribution to theory and practice. Moreover, limitations of the study are explained, and recommendations for further research are provided.

CHAPTER-2

THE CONCEPT OF BULLYING: ITS NATURE, ANTECEDENTS, CONSEQUENCES AND PREVENTION METHODS

2.1. The Concept of Bullying

During the last three decades, research on harassment has gained substantial importance. It is now known that harassment takes place in many forms and has severe consequences (Einarsen, 1999). Brodsky (1976) argues that name calling, scapegoating, physical abuse and work pressure can be considered as forms of harassment at work.

Einarsen (2000) states that a hostile work environment, in which insulting and offensive remarks, persistent criticism, personal or even physical abuse and threats prevail, is a reality for many employees in both public and private organizations. Hence, harassment takes place in organizations in the forms of all repeated and enduring negative acts which provoke, frighten, intimidate and bring discomfort for the victim.

With the identification of the prevalence and severe effects of these behaviors, researchers have started to focus on them. Their nature, antecedents, consequences as well as prevention methods have been investigated by different scholars in various countries. Hence, there now exists an extensive body of research on systematic mistreatment in workplace, which may use different terminology but mainly describes and emphasizes similar behaviors. Petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994), workplace victimization (Aquino et al., 1999), bullying (Einarsen, 2000), incivility (Anderson & Pearson, 1999), psychological terror (Leymann, 1990), mobbing (Leymann, 1996), workplace mistreatment (Meares et al., 2004), social undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), emotional abuse (Keashly, 1998), and work abuse (Bassmann, 1992) are the best terms for this behavior used by different scholars. In Europe, the term “bullying” is preferred in English speaking and Scandinavian countries, “mobbing” in German speaking countries and in Netherlands, while in the USA different terms like “workplace victimization” and “emotional abuse” are commonly used. Following the European, and especially the Scandinavian tradition, the term *“bullying”* is preferred in the current study due to the fact that it is used in a huge number of studies and preferred more than other terms in recent work in this field (e.g. Ferris et al., 2007, Hoel et al., 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Salin, 2003a).

As stated above, those terms have slight differences of emphasis but mainly describe similar behaviors; the systematic mistreatment which, if continued, may cause severe social, psychological and psychosomatic problems in the victim (Einarsen et al., 2003).

As it has been described, examining the link between bullying and organizational politics and assessing the perceived effectiveness of those behaviors as political tactics is the main focus of this thesis. Hence, bullying behavior which takes place in workplace is the focal point of the current study. However, noting that bullying behavior takes place not only at work but also in schools is useful to provide deeper understanding of the concept. The development of bullying theory among schoolchildren dated early 1970s (Olweus, 2003). Researchers have identified that school bullying is an important problem, which affects a very large number of students. Olweus (1994) reports that one student out of seven in Norway is the victim of school bullying. Also, prevalence rates from previous studies identified that it is not only a problem in Norway but also in various countries such as US, Finland, Sweden, Ireland and Canada (for an extensive review: Olweus, 2003; Pellegrini & Bartini, 2000). Smith et al. (2003) investigated the link between school and workplace bullying and found that there is a significant relationship between reported roles in school bullying, and experience of workplace victimization. Accordingly, the highest risk of workplace victimization was for those who were both bullies and victims at school (bully/victims), followed by those who were only victims. As indicated by that study, there are fundamental similarities between school and workplace bullying. Hence, it can be argued that workplace bullying researchers can benefit from well developed theory and measurement methods of school bullying.

In the following parts of this thesis, workplace bullying, its process, antecedents, consequences and prevention methods will be examined and in some

parts, such as the measurement and prevention sections, the link between school and workplace bullying will be emphasized.

2.2. Bullying at Work

In line with the increasing awareness of the public and growing attention of scholars, the bullying literature has significantly expanded during the last 15 years. Although there is an extensive body of research which investigates the prevalence, antecedents, correlates and consequences of bullying, researchers still discuss its operational definition, the elements are required to discuss this issue and what separates it from conflict (Agervold, 2007; Einaersen et al., 2003; Rayner et al., 1999). In this section, different definitions of bullying are examined, and then I discuss the elements essential to an operational definition.

Leymann preferred the term mobbing, which he defined as *“hostile and unethical communication, which is directed in a systematic way by one or few individuals mainly towards one individual who, due to mobbing, is pushed into a helpless and defenseless position, being held there by means of continuing mobbing activities”* (Leymann, 1996; p:168). Also, he states that to be labelled as mobbing, an action must last at least six months and happen at least once a week. Otherwise, it can be considered as a conflict, which is an inevitable part of the daily working life. Hence, according to him, the distinction between conflict and mobbing does not depend on what is done or how it is done, but it depends on how long and how frequently it is done.

Leymann (1996) also distinguished between the terms mobbing and bullying, stating that bullying involves physical aggression and threat, while mobbing is characterized by more sophisticated behaviors like social isolation. However, other researchers disagree to this distinction and state that bullying involves different types of behavior which are mainly characterized by psychological aggression, but also may involve physical aggression (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Salin, 2003a). Another distinction between mobbing and bullying is related to the number of the perpetrators who engage in those behaviors. According to Zapf (1999), mobbing is generally considered as a group activity, while bullying is carried out by a single person. However, when the trend in literature seems to be using mobbing and bullying interchangeably at first (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003; Zapf, 1999), currently however, the term bullying has become more preponderant.

As previously mentioned, Einarsen and Raknes (1997) defines bullying as “*all repeated actions and practices that are directed to one or more workers, which are unwanted by the victim, which may be done deliberately or unconsciously, but clearly cause humiliation, offence and distress, and they may interfere with job performance and/or cause an unpleasant work environment*”.

Vartia (1996: p.205) provides another definition of bullying as; “*bullying is long-lasting, recurrent, and serious negative actions, and behaviors that are annoying and oppressing. It is not bullying if you are scolded once or somebody shrugs his/her*

shoulders once. Negative behavior develops into bullying when it becomes continuous and repeated. Often the victim of bullying feels unable to defend him/herself”.

Hirigoyen (2001: p.3) defines bullying as; *“all behaviors deemed abusive (through gestures, words, demeanor, attitude...) which diminish, by its repetition or systematization, the dignity or the psychological or physical integrity of an individual, thereby interfering the individual's employment or causing damage to labor relations”.*

Doyle (2001) discusses the forms of bullying in its definition and stated that bullying is *“repeated inappropriate behavior, direct or indirect, whether verbal, physical or otherwise, conducted by one or more persons against another or others, at the place of work and/or in the course of employment, which could reasonably be regarded as undermining the individual(s) right to dignity at work”.*

As can be clearly seen in above definitions, it is accepted by different scholars that systematization (duration and frequency) is required to separate conflict and bullying and to be included in the operational definition of bullying. This point is also explained by Salin (2003a), who mentioned that not all acts which are involved in bullying are necessarily perceived as negative in the ordinary context of work life. For example, setting a tight deadline can be considered as the normal activity of the daily work life. However, what makes these acts bullying is the systematization behind them. When they are done systematically, i.e. repetitively and over a significant period of time, they become bullying. Although systematization is required before actions can be labelled “bullying”, many scholars stated that defining systematization through

determining exact duration (e.g. 6 months) and frequency criterion (e.g. once a week) in the operational definition of bullying, like Leymann (1996) does, seems arbitrary. In some cases, some negative behaviors may last less than 6 months or may take place less frequently than once a week, but they may cause severe harm to the victim and be perceived by him/her as bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003).

Hoel et al. (1999) determines four main elements in the different definitions of bullying. According to them, frequency and duration, the reaction of the target, the imbalance of power and the intent of harm are the requirements for describing behavior as bullying. However, they also argue that imbalance of power and the intention to harm are the weakest elements of the definitions. A similar argument was developed by Quine (1999), stated that at least three elements are common in the different definitions of bullying; the recurring and the persistent nature of action, the harmful effects on the person being targeted; and finally the focus on the effects on the victims instead of the focus on the intention of the perpetrator. Although in the definitions, the negative perception of the target is the focus rather than the intention of the perpetrator (Einarsen, 1996), Björkqvist et al. (1994) argue that there is always intention to cause harm in bullying incidents and where there is no intention to cause harm, we cannot talk about bullying. However, as determining the intention of the perpetrator is almost impossible, researchers agree to focus on the perception of the victim and the perceived intention (Rayner et al., 2002). The importance of the victims' perception is emphasized by Arquino and Bradfield (2000), who states that the victims' perception should be the focus of the studies due to its strong impact on the victims' psychological and emotional responses. Rayner et al. (1999) highlight the importance of the

perception of the victim and his/her reactions. They argue that it is questionable whether the same term can be applied to a severely traumatized target of bullying who has left their job equally to someone who is able to cope in some way and perceive it as merely an unpleasant experience.

As indicated in the definitions, and mentioned by different scholars, a major element of bullying is an actual or a perceived difference in power and strength between the perpetrator and the victim in a bullying incident (Einarsen, 1999; Salin, 2003a). Generally, in bullying incidents, more powerful people tend to use their power for bullying and the less powerful victims are unable to defend themselves. At this point, it should be noted that power differences between the perpetrator and the victim may not necessarily depend on their positions. Authority, which comes from position, is only one of the sources of social power, and it can be considered that it may play an important role when superiors bully subordinates. However, there are other sources of social power, which may create power differences between the victim and the perpetrator in peer bullying, or even in the case that subordinates bully their superiors (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Einarsen (2000) states that power imbalance between the perpetrator and the victims may be due to physical, economic (e.g., economic dependency, private economy, labor market) and psychological (e.g., victims' self esteem, dependent personality, charismatic leadership) power differences in addition to hierarchical differences. Also, it should be remembered that in some cases, although there is no real power difference, victims may perceive that they are targeted by more powerful person(s). Consequently, serious conflicts between parties of equal strength or isolated episodes of conflict are not considered as bullying (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen &

Skogstad, 1996). However, research also shows that bullying can also start within an equal power structure, but for various reasons an unequal power structure will result over time (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Einarsen et al., 2003; Zapf et al., 1996).

Rayner et al. (1999) examine the different definitions of bullying and determined the main definitional parameters as frequency, longevity, reaction to behaviors and power differences. However, in line with the above arguments, they also state that those parameters should not be considered as strict criteria, and any definition must match the research purpose. In other words, particular criterion may be crucial for a definition in certain cases, however, in other cases may not be so important.

In line with the above definitions and discussions, Einarsen et al. (2003) suggest a comprehensive definition of bullying as; *“Bullying at work means harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone’s work tasks. In order for the label bullying to be applied for a particular activity, interaction or process it has to occur repeatedly and regularly and over a period of time. Bullying is 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. A conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is an isolated event or if two parties of approximately equal strength are in conflict”*. As it can be considered as the most comprehensive definition, this study investigates bullying behaviors based on this definition of bullying.

2.3. Examining Bullying as a Process

Research shows that bullying is a gradually evolving process rather than an “either or” phenomenon (Einarsen, 1999; Einarsen et al, 1994; Leymann, 1990). There are four stages in bullying incidents; aggressive behavior, bullying, stigmatization and severe trauma (Einarsen et al, 1994). Bullying generally starts with aggressive behaviors towards the target person. At this stage, it is difficult for the victim to outline what is happening because of the indirect and discrete nature of the behaviors. This may lead to the second stage, where aggressive behaviors are more open, direct and systematic. The victims are clearly isolated and avoided, humiliated in public by excessive criticism or by being made a laughing-stock (Einarsen et al., 2003). Generally victims feel themselves as so powerless as to be unable to defend themselves. The social environment generally cannot identify the real reasons of the situation, and perpetrators generally make the personality flaws of the victims more visible. Hence, the third stage appears; people talk negatively behind the back of the victim and begin to omit the victim. Since victims cannot deal with the situation, they will experience some psychological problems and suffer from a wide range of stress symptoms, which may severely affect their work and private life. The fourth stage is called “severe trauma” or “expulsion”, where victims are forced directly out of the workplace, by means of dismissal or redundancy, or indirectly when the victims consider their work situation so unbearable that they decide to leave voluntarily (Leymann, 1990). The effects of this stage may be so severe that the victims may even commit suicide (Einarsen, 1999, Leymann, 1996).

Theoretical models which attempt to explain the bullying process as well as its antecedents and potential consequences will be explained in further sections of the thesis.

2.4. Classification of Bullying Behaviors

We can also draw a conclusion from the above-mentioned definitions of bullying that it may include variety of verbal behaviors, but only few are related to physical violence. Einarsen and Raknes (1997) found that although 88% of the participants from Norwegian shipyards workers were exposed to at least one act specified in Negative Act Questionnaire, only 2.4% of them reported physical violence. Hence, bullying involves negative and aggressive behaviors of a primarily psychological nature (Einarsen et al., 2003). Those negative and aggressive behaviors include a wide range of actions, which probably occur under different circumstances (Zapf et al., 1996). As previous research offers some evidence that bullying involves various facets, it should not be treated as a unified concept.

Researchers have focused on this point and attempted to identify which negative behaviors are included in bullying. Leymann (1996) determines 45 different categories of bullying behaviors and developed a scale called Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization (LIPT-45). Moreover, he classified those 45 behaviors under five main dimensions. Another classification, which depends on factor analysis of

LIPT-45, was made by Zapf et al. (1996). According to these researchers, bullying behaviors can be classified under seven dimensions. Besides LIPT-45, "The Negative Act Questionnaire" (NAQ), which includes 22 items, was developed by Einarsen and Raknes (1997) in order to determine and measure bullying behaviors. Based on NAQ, Einarsen and Hoel (2001) classify bullying behaviors into two classes; work-related and personal bullying. In addition to the classifications of Leymann (1996), Zapf et al. (1996) and Einarsen and Hoel (2001), different classifications of bullying behaviors have been done by a number of other scholars. Table-2.1 shows the classification of bullying behaviors.

Although literature offers different classification for bullying behaviors, when examined carefully, it will be seen that most are related to a high degree. Hence, as with bullying terminology, similar behaviors were examined under different names. For example, the content of effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately (Leymann, 1996), verbal aggression and rumors (Zapf et al., 1996), threat to personal status (Jennifer et al., 2003), rumor and innuendo (Davenport et al., 1999), verbal abuse (Lee & Brotheridge, 2006), and threatening and criticizing (Vartia, 1993) coincide to a high degree. Similarly, the content of effects on the victims' possibilities for maintaining their social contacts (Leymann, 1996) overlaps the content of social isolation (Jennifer et al., 2003; Vartia, 1993), attacking the victim's social relations with social isolation (Zapf et al., 1996), and isolation (Davenport et al., 1999). Also, behaviors that are included in effects on the victims' possibilities for maintaining their personal reputation (Leymann, 1996) coincide to a high degree with the behaviors mentioned in humiliation (Davenport et al., 1999), attacking the victim's private life and

attitudes (Zapf et al., 1996), name-calling (Brodsky, 1976) and threat to professional status (Jennifer et al., 2003).

TABLE-2.1: DIFFERENT CLASSIFICATIONS OF BULLYING BEHAVIORS

Scholars	Bullying Dimensions
Brodsky (1976)	Scapegoating, name-calling, physical abuse, work pressure and sexual harassment.
Vartia (1993)	Slander, social isolation, giving a person too few or very simple tasks, threatening and criticizing, physical violence and threat of it, and insinuations about the victim's health
Leymann (1996)	Effects on the victims' possibilities for communicating adequately, effects on the victims' possibilities for maintaining their social contacts, effects on the victims' possibilities for maintaining their personal reputation, effects on the victims' occupational situation, effects on the victims' physical health
Zapf et al. (1996)	Attacking the victim with organizational measures, attacking the victim's social relations with social isolation, attacking the victim's private life, physical violence, attacking the victim's attitudes, verbal aggression, and rumors
Devenport et al. (1999)	Rumor, innuendo, intimidation, humiliation, discrediting, and isolation
Einarsen (1999)	Predatory vs dispute-related bullying
Einarsen and Hoel (2001)	Work-related (unreasonable deadlines, excessive workloads, meaningless tasks etc.) and personal (insulting remarks, spreading gossip and rumors, persistent criticism etc.) bullying
Jennifer et al (2003).	Threat to professional status (e.g. public humiliation, belittling opinion, accusations about lack of effort), threat to personal status (e.g. offensive remarks, name-calling, insults, intimidation, devaluing with reference to age), isolation (e.g. physical/social exclusion, preventing access to opportunities, withholding of information), unrealistic workload (e.g. impossible tasks and deadlines, unnecessary interruptions), destabilization (e.g. removal of responsibilities, failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks, setting up to fail), and unwanted physical contact.
Omari (2003)	Overt (verbal, by implication and action, and physical forms) and covert (setting up to fail, undermining, and rumors)
Lee and Brotheridge (2006)	Verbal abuse, work being undermined and belittlement

Moreover, the content of the bullying dimension; effects on the victims' occupational situation (Leymann, 1996) is similar to the content of giving a person too few or very simple tasks (Vartia, 1993), attacking the victim with organizational measures (Zapf et al., 1996), destabilization and unrealistic workload (Jennifer et al., 2003), work pressure (Brodsky, 1976) and work being undermined (Lee and Brotheridge, 2006). Finally, the content of effects on the victims' physical health overlaps the content of insinuations about the victim's health (Vartia, 1993), physical violence (Zapf et al., 1996), physical abuse and sexual harassment (Brodsky, 1976) and unwanted psychical contact (Jennifer et al., 2003) in the literature. It can be said that only the classification done by Einarsen and Hoel (2001) seems different from the above, and implied a broader view of classification.

The above mentioned classifications, including Einarsen and Hoel's (2001), are based on the types of behaviors that are included in bullying, and as expected, their contents are similar. However, the classification by Einarsen (1999) and Omari (2003) do not depend on the types of bullying behaviors themselves, but focus on other aspects. In his classification, Einarsen (1999) classifies bullying behaviors depending on their main causes. Accordingly, in predatory bullying, victims may be bullied due to being assessed as easily defeated, while in dispute-related bullying, work-related conflict escalates and becomes bullying. Omari (2003) focuses on the nature of these behaviors instead of types or causes of them. According to her, bullying behaviors can be classified into two main types; overt and covert. Verbal, by implication and action, and physical forms are in the overt part, while setting up to fail, undermining, and rumors are the forms of covert bullying.

2.5. Prevalence of Bullying in Workplace and Measurement

Methods

As mentioned, bullying has become a popular research topic since 1990s resulting from the identification of the prevalence and severe consequences of bullying in the workplace. It is obvious that determining the prevalence rates of bullying is crucially important especially for practical reasons in organizations. Hence, there has emerged an extensive body of research which attempted to identify the prevalence rates by employing different methods. When the findings of previous research are examined, it will be seen that a wide range of prevalence rates are reported. Researchers argue that the reason for reporting a wide range of prevalence rates may be related to the measurement methods and the characteristics of the samples (Agervold, 2007).

Hoel et al. (1999) argue that the frequency of bullying depends very much on how it is measured. Although for determining the prevalence rate for school bullying, a wide range of methods are employed, such as observations, interviews, sociometric procedures, questionnaires and teacher ratings (Crothers & Levinson, 2004), for determining the prevalence rate of bullying in workplace researchers generally prefer to use survey methods, which depend on the self reports of victims. Zapf et al. (2003) list the measures, which are administrated in questionnaires, as; employing cut-off points (report prevalence rate as 10-17%), administrating scales like LIPT-45 (Leymann, 1996) and NAQ (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) (report prevalence rate as 3-7% and higher), directly asking individuals whether they were bullied during the last six months (report

prevalence rate as 10-25%) and giving an exact definition of bullying, then asking the respondents whether they perceive themselves as the victims of such an incident or not (report prevalence rate as 1-4%).

When the above mentioned rates are examined, it will be clearly seen that the measurement method heavily affects the reported prevalence rate. Giving an exact definition of bullying, and then asking the respondents whether or not they perceive themselves as victims results the lowest prevalence rates. Salin (2001) demonstrates this point by comparing two methods of giving an exact definition and then asking the respondents whether they perceive themselves as victims or not and administration of NAQ scale in a sample of business professionals. Results showed that 24.1% of the respondents reported that they were exposed to at least one negative act under this system. However, when they reported to being exposed to bullying based on the definition, the prevalence rate reduced to 8.8%. Zapf et al. (2003) emphasize the effect of measurement in reported prevalence rates, and they summarize the results of different studies, which are conducted between 1994 and 2002, and their measurement methods. This summary is shown in Table-2.2.

The prevalence rates, which are shown in Table-2.2, mainly represent the prevalence of bullying behaviors in Europe and especially in Scandinavia as the development of the concept and its theory were mainly done by Scandinavian researchers. It is known that Scandinavian countries can be characterized by their low power distance, feminine values, and individualism, which place a high value on the well being of the individual worker and a clear negative attitude towards any sign of power abuse (Hofstede, 1980). When the fact that bullying takes place in such a culture

is considered, it can be argued that bullying may take place more frequently in other countries characterized by high power distance and masculinity (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Findings of previous research may support this argument. For example, research conducted among university employees in USA identified that 23% of the respondents reported being mistreated at work (Spratlan, 1995). Also, Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007) measured the prevalence of bullying in the USA by employing NAQ scale. They showed that 25% of the participants reported that bullying takes place in their organizations.

Similar findings can be reached from research which was conducted in Turkey, whose culture can be characterized by femininity but high power distance (Hofstede, 1980). In line with the growing attention to bullying in international area, it has attracted the attention of scholars in Turkey and prevalence rates from different studies conducted with different samples were reported. For example, Yildirim et al. (2007) employed a 33-item bullying scale in a sample of nursery school teachers, and found that 17% of them were exposed to bullying. Similarly, it was identified that 18% of the respondents were exposed to bullying in a study conducted with employees working at different levels of business organizations as well as in public institutions (Özdemir & Açıkgöz, 2007). Moreover, a large scale online survey, which measured bullying after giving its definition, was conducted among public sector employees. Accordingly, it was identified that 55.7% of the respondents were exposed to bullying.

http://www.mobbingturkiye.net/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=62&Itemid=58). It can be argued that this proportion was considerably higher than the

expected, especially when the measurement method employed in this study was taken into consideration.

As previously mentioned, the above reported prevalence rates were determined based on the self-reports of victims, not the perpetrators as expecting an honest answer from them is not realistic (Avergold, 2007). However, some scholars argue that the reliability of the data collected from the victims, is questionable due to some reasons. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) argue that determining the prevalence rates depending on the self reports of victims may not reflect the real rates as the victims may actually underestimate the severity experiences as part of the coping process.

TABLE-2.2: INTERNATIONAL STUDIES ON THE FREQUENCY OF WORKPLACE BULLYING

Country	Authors	Sample	Definition/ Measurement Method	Incidence
Austria	Niedl (1995)	Hospital employees	1b 3a	26.6% in sample, 7.8% of the population
		Research institute employees	1b 3a	17.5% in sample, 4.4.% of the population
Denmark	Hogh & Dofradottir (2001)	Randomized sample	5	2%
		Course participants at the Royal Danish School of Educational Studies	1b 3a 4	4: 2%; 1b 3a: 14% (7.8% for a more stringent criterion)
	Mikkelsen & Einarsen (2001)	Hospital employees	1b 3a 4	4: 3% now and then, 1b 3a: 16% (2%)
		Manufacturing company	1b 3a 4	4: 4.1% now and then, 1b 3a: 8% (2%)
		Department store	1b 3a 4	4: 0.9% now and then, 1b 3a: 25% (6.5%)
Finland	Björkqvist et al. (1994)	University employees	1a 2	16.9%
	Salin (2001)	Random sample of business professionals holding a university degree	1b 4	4: 8.8% occasionally, 1b: 24.1%
	Vartia (1996)	Municipal employees	4	10.1%
	Vartia and Hyyti (2002)	Prison officers	1a 4	20%, 11.8% bullied several times a month
	Piirainen et al. (2000)	Representative of employees	4	4.3%

	Kivimäki et al. (2000)	Hospital staff	4	5.3%
Germany	Minkel (1996)	Employees of a rehabilitation clinic	1b 3a	8.7%
		Communal administration	1b 3a	10.0%
	zur Mühlen et al. (2001)	Administration within federal armed forces	1b 3a	10.8%
	Mackensen von Astfeld (2000)	Administration	1b 3a	2.9%
Ireland	O'Moore (2000)	Random national sample of 4425	4	16.9% occasionally, 6.2% frequently
The Netherlands	Hubert et al. (2001)	Mixed production office business	4	4.4%
	Hubert et al. (2001)	Financial institutions; stacked sample	3a 4	1%
	Hubert and van Veldhoven (2001)	Sample including the following branches; industry, education, health care, local government and public administration, trade, business services, financial institutions, construction industry, transport, public utilities and service organizations on environmental, cultural and recreational issues	2 5	2.2% mean of 4 items referring to aggressive and unpleasant situations often and always
Hungary	Kaucsek and Simon (1995)	Army	1b 3a	5.6%
		Bank employees	1b 3a	4.9%
		Bank inspectors	1b 3a	2.5%
Norway	Einarsen and Skogstad (1996)	14 different samples; total	1a 4	Weekly 1.2% (yes, by and then: 3.4%); 8.6% occasional bullying
		Health and welfare managers	1a 4	0.3% (12%)
		Psychologists' union	1a 4	0.6% (2.3%)

		Employer's federation	1a 4	0.7% (2.8%)
		University	1a 4	0.8% (3.1%)
		Electricians' union	1a 4	1.1% (2.2%)
		Health-care workers	1a 4	1.3% (6.5%)
		Industrial workers	1a 4	1.9% (8.9%)
		Graphical workers' union	1a 4	2.4% (2%)
		Trade and commerce	1a 4	2.9% (4.3%)
		Union of hotel/restaurant workers	1a 4	2.9% (4.1%)
	Matthiesen et al. (1989)	Clerical workers and officials	1a 4	3.9% (3.9%)
		Nurses and assistant nurses	1a 4	10.3%
	Einarsen et al. (1998)	Teachers	1a 4	6%
		Representative sample from a country	1a 4	3% 8.4% with previous experience
Portugal	Cowie et al. (2000)	International organization	4	33.5%
Sweden	Leymann (1993, 1996)	Representative of employees except self-employed	1b 3a	3.5%
		Steelworks employees	1b 3a	3.5%
	Leymann and Tallgren (1993)	Sawing factory	1b 3a	1.7%
	Leymann et al. in Leymann (1993)	Nursery schools	1b 3a	16.2%
	Leymann (1992)	Handicapped employees; non-profit organization	1b 3a	8.4%; 21.6% handicapped, 4.4% not handicapped
	Lindroth and Leymann (1993)	Nursery school teachers	1b 3a	6%

UK	Rayner (1997)	Part time students	1c 4	53%
	UNISON (1997)	Public sector union members	1a 4	14%; 1c 4: 50%
	Quine (1999)	National health service	3b	38% persistently bullied within last 12 months
	Cowie et al. (2000)	International organization	4	15.4%
	Hoel et al. (2001)	Representative sample	1a 3a 4	1.4%; 3b:10.6%

1 denotes duration of acts: 1a within the last 6 months, 1b over 6 months, 1c ever in the career

2 denotes type of acts included in judgments

3 denotes frequency of acts: 3a at least weekly, 3b less frequently than weekly

4 denotes victims label themselves as bullied based on a definition

5 denotes approximate criterion

Source: Zapf, D., Einarsen, S., Hoel, H. & Vartia, M. (2003). Empirical findings on bullying in the workplace. In Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.) Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace: International perspectives in research and practice, Routledge, London and New York.

In line with the above criticisms of the studies based on the self reports of the victims, some scholars argue that observers' ratings, which are commonly used to determine the prevalence of school bullying, should be used for the verification of the data (Coyne et al., 2003; Hoel et al., 1999). Coyne et al. (2003) compared the prevalence rates determined by self-reports of the victims and peer nominations, and found that the prevalence rate is determined as 39.6% according to self reports, while it decreases to 11.3% when peer nominations are used. This finding can be interpreted as determining the prevalence of bullying depending on self reports may result in overrated prevalence rates. However, Lutgen-Sandik et al. (2007) showed that although 25% of the participants reported that bullying takes place in their organizations, only 9.4% of them labeled themselves as victims. As the differences between self-reports of victims and observers' ratings may be at variance, as in these two studies, it can be argued that other factors, such as culture and organizational policies may also affect those rates. This argument questions the implied reliability of observer rating method as an independent objective measure or a way of data verification. Björkqvist et al. (1994) argue strongly against an approach where peer nominations are used as an objective measure of bullying since observers may not be completely reliable for a number of reasons. First of all, they may not be reliable as they are afraid to lose their jobs or positions as a result of reporting bullying incidents. The second factor that may affect the reliability of the reports of observers is related to lack of sufficient information about their neutrality in the bullying incident (Einarsen et al., 2003). As perpetrators are generally able to count on social support, observers' reports may be affected by the actions of the perpetrator and they may feel that the victim receives what he/she deserves (Einarsen et al., 2003). Alternatively, observers may know the perpetrator as

a difficult person who has psychological problems, and perceive his/her action as the fair treatment of a neurotic and difficult person (Einarsen et al., 2003). The third factor that questions the reliability of the observers' reports is related to the nature of bullying behaviors. Since bullying behaviors are often of a subtle and discrete nature and sometimes occur in private, they may not be observed by third parties (Einarsen et al., 2003). Hence, it is generally accepted that observers' reports may be required in law suits but not for scientific research or prevention policies for organizations as the subjective evaluations of the victims may in fact be the better predictors of individual and organizational consequences of bullying.

The last factor that may affect the validity of findings in bullying research in terms of victims' profiles and the prevalence rates can be considered as the sampling methods that mainly are applied in bullying research. Nielsen and Einarsen (2008) state that in interpersonal aggression research including bullying generally convenience samples were used due to the fact that surveying randomized and large samples are not cost and time effective. However, they also argue that researchers generally reach support-seeking victims by using convenience samples as they generally work with trade unions, health organizations and other professional bodies to gain access to individuals willing to participate in research studies (Rayner et al., 1999). This situation may strongly influence the prevalence rates as well as the victims' profiles. By comparing the findings from a convenience sample and a representative randomized sample, Nielsen and Einarsen (2008) empirically show that convenience sampled targets of interpersonal aggression differs from targets in general on both demographic characteristics and with regard to intensity and frequency of aggression.

In line with the above mentioned criticisms of research methodology, Rayner et al. (1999) argue that a broader range of methodologies, including interviews (e.g., Lee, 2000; 2002; Lewis, 1999; Lewis & Orford, 2005), focus groups, critical incident techniques (e.g., Liefoghe & Olafsson, 1999), and the use of vignettes (e.g., Katrinli et al., 2008; Keashly et al. 1994) should be applied more in order to understand the complex nature of bullying.

2.6 Existence of the Third Party: Observers

As known, in a simple bullying incident, there are at least two sides; victim and perpetrator. However, as mentioned above, there can be a third side, observer, in a bullying incident. In fact, a large number of people report having witnessed bullying taking place (Hoel & Cooper, 2000a; Rayner, 1997; Soraes, 2002). Because discussing the problem with his/her colleagues is the most common coping strategy of victims, involvement of the third to a party in bullying incident becomes inevitable (Hoel et al., 2003).

The existence of observers has attracted the attention of scholars for several reasons. First of all, their reports of the prevalence of bullying are seen as one of the measurement tools by some scholars (Coyne et al., 2003; Hoel et al., 1999) as previously mentioned. Also, their assessments of psychosocial factors in their work environment, like management style, job demands, and organizational culture has

attracted attention because the victims' perceptions of their environment are likely to be negatively affected by the presence of bullying (Zapf, 1999) and, hence, may not reflect reality. Accordingly, the role of observers and whether they are affected by bullying has been investigated by different scholars.

Tremblow (1999) argues that observers can be classified into 4 groups. The first group of observers may be called bully-bystanders. They typically enjoy witnessing victimization, but do not want to directly participate. As expected, they may help the perpetrator in a passive way. The second group is labeled the victim bystander, who is afraid to intervene but feels discomfort due to the bullying incident. The third group of observers is avoidant bystanders. They typically deny the problem, and probably they do it as a part of unconscious defense mechanism. Finally, the last group of observers can be labeled ambivalent bystanders who attempt to intervene in the bullying incident by attempting to change the psychosocial characteristics of the environment and bring harmony to the workplace.

It can be argued that observers' general attitude towards a bullying incident may play a crucial role. For example, they can provide passive support to the perpetrator, or just observe and do nothing to intervene due to reasons such as being afraid or not knowing what to do. In this case, the perpetrator feels himself/herself free to act and is not afraid of being punished. Predictably, these situations create suitable environment for bullying and may stimulate it. Hence, the observers' actions against the perpetrator and their support of the victims may be vital in bullying incidents.

It is also worth noting that bullying might affect the well-being of observers in a negative way unless they are one of the bully-bystanders. Research shows that observers who were exposed to indirect or passive bullying were affected by the general negative climate in the organization (e.g., Jennifer et al., 2003; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Soraes, 2002; Vartia, 2001) and reported higher level of stress than employees who were working in non-bullying organizations. Accordingly, prevention of bullying affects the well-being of many employees, not only the victims'.

2.7. *Theoretical Models of Bullying at Work*

As mentioned above, bullying may create significant costs to individuals, organizations, and societies, which will be explained in further sections in detail. Research also shows that it is observed more frequently than estimated in today's industrial world and thus, in order to avoid the costs of bullying, prevention of bullying behaviors in organizations is crucial. Researchers emphasize that in order to prevent or at least minimize bullying, its process and antecedents should be outlined and well understood.

As a complex social phenomenon, bullying is characterized by multi-causality, involving different interacting factors at different levels. Hence, researchers have attempted to develop conceptual models to examine these factors, their relationships, how they contribute to the bullying process, as well as the potential consequences of

bullying (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Einarsen et al., 2003, Heames & Harvey, 2006; Leymann, 1996; Salin, 2003a; Zapf, 1999).

In a theoretical study, Aquino & Lamertz (2004) developed a relational model in which the role of victim is not considered as passive and his/her contribution to the bullying process is emphasized. Accordingly, the provocative victim promotes the bullying process by his/her aggressive behaviors. Although the submissive victim does not represent any specific provocative behaviors, his/her personality traits (being shy, lack of conflict management skills) may stimulate the process. Similarly, the role of the perpetrator is examined in two parts. The domineering perpetrator may start the process through his/her authoritarian style, while the reactive perpetrator generally acts to punish the norm violator. Hence, the dynamic relationship between the victim and perpetrator in a bullying incident can be examined, based on their roles. In the model, it is emphasized that the nature of a bullying incident and its level may differ according to which type of victim and perpetrator are involved. Besides their roles, an imbalance in dyadic power relations, the presence of observers, the positions of the victim and the perpetrator in the organization's social networks, and the domineering values of the organizations' culture are discussed as other factors which may affect the nature of the bullying process.

However, Leymann (1996) strongly argues against the argument that individualistic factors, especially the personality of the victims can be examined as stimulators of bullying, as in the above model. He states that workplace is an environment where is regulated by behavioral rules, which no one can ignore,

especially because of personality dislikes. Thus, according to him, it is not meaningful to incorporate personality as a stimulator, and organizational factors should be blamed for bullying incidents. Based on this argument, he develops a model for the bullying process which incorporates organizational factors, namely deficiencies in work-design, deficiencies in leadership behavior, the victim's socially exposed position and low departmental morale, as stimulators of bullying process.

Salin (2003a) also focuses on the organizational-related antecedents of bullying and examines them in a model, as enabling structures and processes, motivating structures and processes, and precipitating processes. According to her, enabling structures and processes provide the necessary conditions for bullying. A perceived power imbalance between the victim and the perpetrator, low perceived costs (due to organizational culture, laissez faire leadership behaviors, and bureaucratic and large organizations), dissatisfaction and frustration with the working situation, and the organizational climate are examined as the subparts of these necessary conditions. The second stimulator, motivating structures and processes, includes internal competition, the characteristics of the reward system and bureaucracy. Finally, precipitating processes involve restructuring and crises, other organizational changes and change in management styles. It should be noted that these three groups of stimulators are considered as interacting and their joint effect creates bullying. Salin (2003a, p.1217) also mentions this point and states that *'Conditions in themselves may not usually lead to bullying. Similarly, motivating and precipitating factors do not result in bullying, unless the conditions are right.'* It is worth noting that, although she mainly focuses on organizational-related antecedents, she also emphasizes that individual factors and

their interaction with organizational related antecedents can be important to understand bullying.

Neuman and Baron (2003) have also mentioned the interaction of the different factors which may lead to bullying. They utilize a general aggression model to explain the bullying process. Accordingly, social situational variables (e.g., provocation, perceived injustice, frustration, stress, negative affect) and individual difference variables (e.g., negative affectivity, type-A behavior, low self-monitoring, low self esteem) are considered as the main inputs of bullying process. They also mention that their interaction may create aggressive behaviors as well as affect the perception of the victim and his/her responses to the aggression.

Zapf (1999) mentions that efforts for explaining bullying by incorporating only individual or organizational factors are likely to be inappropriate due to its complex nature. In line with this argument, he develops a model which examines the antecedents of bullying in four main categories. In the model, leadership behaviors, organizational culture, job stressors, such as time pressure and uncertainty, and the work organization's characteristics are considered as organizational antecedents. The perpetrator himself/herself is included as an independent antecedent. The other group of antecedents is called the social group, and they involve related group dynamics such as hostility, envy, group pressure and scapegoating. Finally, the victim's personality characteristics are involved as a fourth group of antecedents. Similar to above models, this model emphasizes the interaction of the different groups of antecedents and

mentions that one independent factor cannot lead to bullying without the contribution of others.

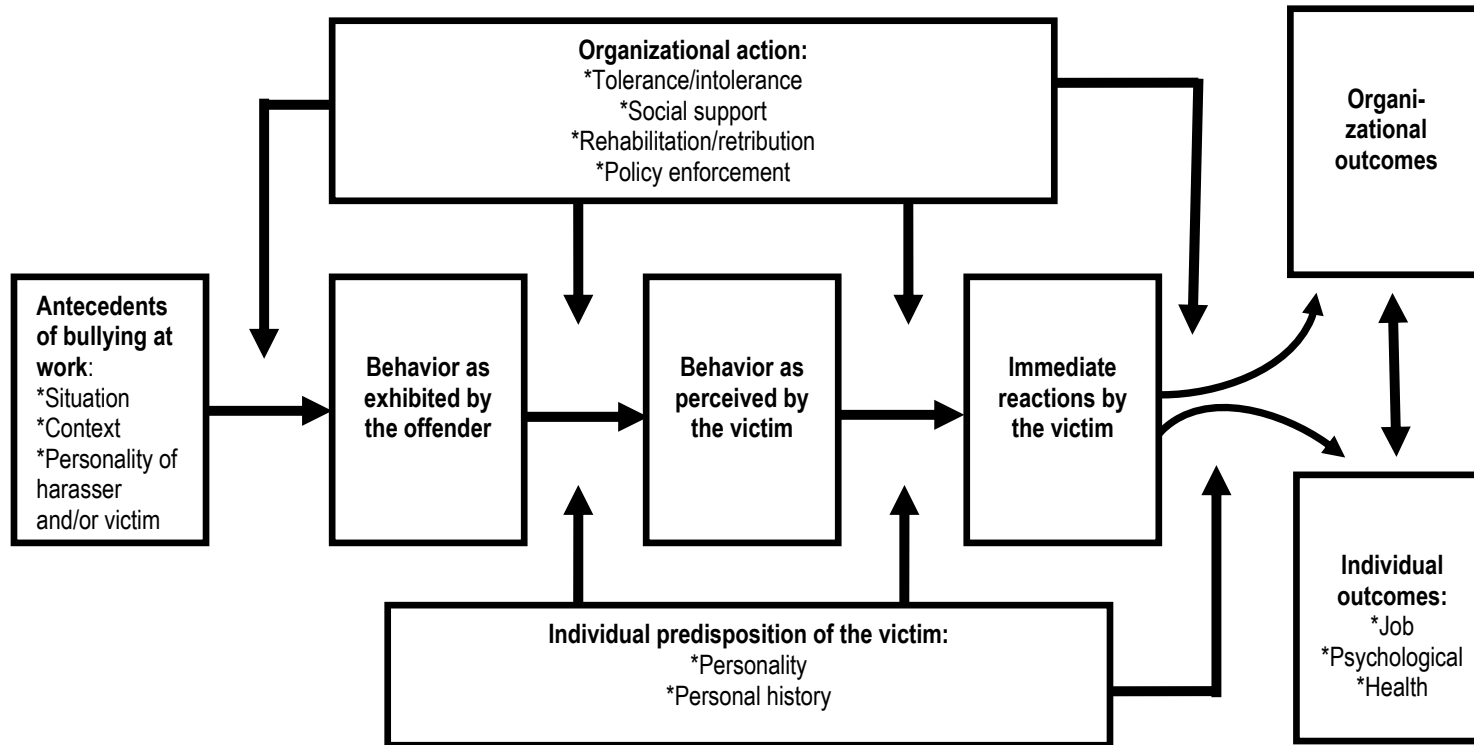
Similar to the approach developed by Zapf (1999), Heames and Harvey (2006) argue that bullying incidents should be examined in three different levels. The first level is called the dyadic level and involves the nature of the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. The second level is labeled the group/meso level and incorporates the dynamics of the immediate work group of the victim and the perpetrator. The last level is determined as the organizational/macro level. It includes the general behaviors of top management and related policies and procedures. They also underline that there are direct and indirect interactions among the levels which may result in bullying.

In a review article, Einarsen (2000) discusses all the related factors of bullying, including antecedents, process, and the potential outcomes, and illustrates them in a model which is shown in Figure-2.1. As seen in Figure-2.1, Einarsen (2000) examines the antecedents of bullying in three classes; situation, context and the personality of the victim and the perpetrator. It can be argued that this is in line with the models developed by Zapf (1999) and Heames and Harvey (2006), which examine antecedents of bullying at different levels. Also, a process perspective is implied in the model and the victim is not considered as a passive recipient; instead he/she is considered as an active interpreter of ambiguous stimuli from their environment (Liefoghe & Olafsson; 1999; Rayner et al., 1999) as shown in the models represented in the studies of Aquino and Lamertz (2004) and Neuman and Baron (2003). Moreover, organizational factors

are included in the model as a group of antecedents, which is consistent with the arguments of Leymann (1996) and Salin (2003a).

As indicated in different models, bullying is not a result of one condition or a reason; instead it is the result of complex interactions of many factors (Einarsen, 2000, Einarsen et al., 2003; Salin, 2003a; Zapf, 1999). Hence, antecedents of bullying involve a wide range of factors which can be examined at different levels. In the next part of the study, the antecedents of bullying will be examined.

FIGURE-2.1: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF BULLYING AND HARASSMENT AT WORK



Source: Einarsen, S. (2000). Harassment and bullying at work: A review of Scandinavian Approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 5(4), 379-401.

2.8 Antecedents of Bullying

Antecedents of bullying are examined in this part of the study in detail under two main headings; individual related and organizational related antecedents. It should be noted that social group related antecedents are explained under organizational related antecedents because the social group is part of the organization and its norms probably represent the organization's culture.

2.8.1 Individual Antecedents of Bullying

Individual antecedents of bullying are examined by different researchers in two groups; individual characteristics of the perpetrator and of the victim. According to findings of previous research, although there is no exact profile for either victims, or perpetrators, some characteristics can be more frequently observed in victims while some other characteristics can be more frequently observed in perpetrators (Atkinson, 2000; Coyne et al., 2004; Einarsen, 2000; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Zapf, 1999). Before discussing those characteristics, it should be noted that no one can be blamed for the bullying process because of having some specific characteristics. The characteristics of the victims, especially, cannot be considered as the main reasons for bullying, as the workplace is an environment that is regulated by behavioral rules that cannot not be ignored. However, ignoring the potential role of those characteristics as stimulators or moderators may lead to an insufficient understanding of the issue.

After discussing the general characteristics of the victim and the perpetrator, the dyadic relationship between them will be explained under the heading of 'who bullies whom?'.

2.8.1.1 *Perpetrator*

The issue of whether perpetrators can be separated from other people because of their personality characteristics has attracted the attention of scholars, who have investigated the personality profiles of the perpetrators. A special emphasis has been given to investigation of some specific personality characteristics such as self esteem, independence, negative affectivity and the level of social competence skills due to their relevancy with aggression.

Regarding self esteem, research shows that high self-esteem may increase the engagement of aggressive behaviors due to its relation to perfectionism, arrogance and narcissism (Ashforth, 1994; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). Also, people who have low self esteem may not be willing to engage in aggression as they are afraid of losing the battle. Conversely, Kernis et al. (1993) identify the highest risk of engaging in aggression as belonging to people who have unstable self esteem since they perceive even minor negative behaviors as major threats to themselves and may respond in an aggressive way.

Moreover, research shows that negative affectivity, especially experiencing frustration, anger, envy or anxiety may play a significant role in engaging in aggressive behaviors as well as a mediating role between self esteem and aggression (Baumeister

et al., 1996; Salovey, 1991; Smith et al., 1994). Regarding envy, victims can perceive this as an important reason for being bullied (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Einarsen et al., 1994). However, it can also be case that perceiving envy as a reason for being bullied is a self-preserving behavior from the perspective of the victim.

Similarly, having less social competency skills may affect conflict management in a negative way and escalate the conflict process, which will likely to turn bullying (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). In addition, perpetrators are generally assessed by others as people who they would prefer not to work with (Coyne et al., 2004) as they are not seen as socially accepted people. Jolliffe & Farrington (2006) investigated the level of empathy, which may play a significant role in social relationships, among the perpetrators. They found a significant difference in affective and total empathy between perpetrators and other people, so it can be postulated that perpetrators are low on empathy.

What is more, Hepworth and Towler (2004) found that individual variables accounted for 27% of the variance explained in workplace aggression, especially, that anger and low self control are related to aggression.

In addition, victims of bullying reported that they were being victimized by unwell and possibly psychotic perpetrators (Atkinson, 2000; Einarsen, 2000). Similarly, Zapf (1999) found that victims perceived they were bullied because “a hostile person influenced others”.

Seigne et al. (2007) investigated the general personality profiles of the perpetrators and found that their personality characteristics significantly differed from other people in terms of aggression and independence. Also, they showed that perpetrators were more competitive, assertive and confrontational than non bullies.

Omari (2003) suggests that the perpetrator may face some difficulties in his/her private life and reflect those problems to his/her professional life through bullying.

In addition to personality characteristics, demographic characteristics of the perpetrators have been investigated by different scholars (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Rayner, 1997). When the results of these studies are examined, gender does not appear to be a predictor of being a bully (Zapf et al., 2003). However, male perpetrators are more likely than females to use direct forms of bullying such as shouting, humiliating or threatening compared to females.

As explained above, some negative personality characteristics are attributed to perpetrators. This raises the issue of whether being a perpetrator is a stable position or whether a person can be a victim or a perpetrator in different settings. According to some scholars, being a victim or a perpetrator is not a stable role and social settings, instead of personalities, should be blamed for bullying (e.g., Björkqvist et al., 1994; Leymann, 1996). However, other researchers argue that being a perpetrator is a stable condition because experiences in one social situation influence experiences in other social situations (Seigne et al., 2007).

As explained above, previous research provides empirical support that perpetrators have certain specific characteristics. However, it should be noted that the representativeness of samples and the methods of data collection are questionable as the assessment of the personality profile of the perpetrators on the basis of the victims' perceptions may not be reliable.

It should also be remembered that the real problem may be related to the social system or organization where a specific individual may be seen as a ringleader (Zapf, 1999). Attribution theory, which claims that people tend to blame or held responsible other people instead of situations, may support this argument. Hence, the personality characteristics of the perpetrator may play a role but cannot be held responsible for the entire bullying process.

2.8.1.2 Victim

A number of researchers (Coyne et al., 2004; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Zapf, 1999) have argued that the personality of the victim may be a factor in bullying. Even if the personality of the victim is not considered a stimulator, its role in affecting perception of and responses to aggression can be considered vital (Einarsen, 2000; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003).

Research shows that the personality characteristics of the victims can vary, which makes it difficult to draw exact profiles. However, some researchers argue that victims can be characterized according to certain negative characteristics, such as being weaker, less skilled, low performing, paranoid, and having less social skills

(Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Zapf, 1999). According to the researchers, those victims who have psychological disorders after the bullying incidents may also have had those disorders before the bullying incident. Hence, it can be argued that certain behavioral disorders may stimulate bullying (Zapf, 1999).

Moreover, as cited in Zapf and Einarsen (2003), a study among 2,200 Norwegian employees showed that victims of bullying are characterized by being low on self esteem, high on social anxiety, and low on social competence (Einarsen et al., 1994). Similarly, Coyne et al. (2000) reported that victims of bullying are more anxious and suspicious and have problems coping with difficult situations. Matthiesen and Einarsen (2001) investigated the personality profiles of bullying victims utilizing MMPI-2, a known scale used to assess the psychological problems of respondents for clinical purposes. They showed that victims can be classified as 'the seriously affected', 'the disappointed and depressed, and 'the common'. The seriously affected group reported the highest level of anxiety, while vulnerability is mostly observed in the common group.

Smith et al. (2003) investigated whether being a victim in school affects the likelihood of victimization at work. They found that bullies and victims at school (bully/victims) is the highest risk group for victimization, followed by those who were only victims.

The above mentioned findings regarding the negative personality profile of the victims can be considered as consistent with the argument that victimization can occur

only if the victim feels that she/he is being victimized and is unable to cope with the situation.

However, it should be noted that due to ethical issues, the majority of bullying studies depends on surveys instead of experiments, which does not allow for building clear cause-effect relationships. Soares (2002) mentions this point and argues strongly against the argument that negative personality traits can be the stimulators of bullying. He states that post-traumatic stress syndrome, an important consequence of bullying, causes personality changes in the victims to the point of triggering depressive or obsessive behaviors. This suggests that victims' personality profiles may not reflect their personalities prior to being exposed to bullying.

Furthermore, there is another victim profile characterized by positive personality traits such as being highly skilled, competent, achievers, trusting, creative, loyal, and politically inept (Yeung & Cooper, 2002; Noring, 2000; Zapf & Bühler, 1998). In addition, using sociometry, Coyne et al. (2004) found that victims of bullying tended to be considered as preferred people to work with and generally nominated as stars in informal social networks. For this group of victims, it can be argued that what makes them victims is related to internal competition. As perpetrators perceive them as their rivals, they may attack them to decrease their performance or instigate their dismissal. Another explanation for being bullied among high performer victims may be related to norm violation, that is, they may violate the norms of the group to which they belong, because they often consider as 'know it better', legalistic and having difficulties of understanding others' views (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003).

Based on the above mentioned arguments, Glasø et al. (2007) have attempted to identify whether it is possible to talk about a general victim profile. They compared the victims' personality characteristics with non-victims based on the Big Five Model, and found that, although a small group of victims' personality characteristics significantly differed from non victims, and they were more neurotic and less agreeable, conscientious and extravert, a majority of victims did not differ from non-victims in terms of personality traits.

Like perpetrators', the demographic characteristics of victims' (e.g. age, gender, nationality and ethnicity) have attracted the attention of scholars who have investigated related factors with bullying (Einarsen, 1999; Rayner et al., 1999; Salin, 2001; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999). Among the number of demographic characteristics, a special emphasis has been given to gender (e.g., Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004; Lee, 2002; Lewis & Orford, 2005). Generally, researchers investigated the argument that female employees are exposed to bullying more frequently than males. The logic behind this argument is related to the belief that women are educated to be less self assertive and less aggressive, and tend to be more obliging than men (Björkqvist, 1994). In addition, it is possible that women generally represent the minority in many sectors, especially in upper levels of management (Davidson & Cooper, 1992). Although, some scholars empirically support this argument (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Björkqvist et al., 1994; Salin, 2001; O'Moore et al., 1998), some report balanced ratios (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Rayner, 1997). When the issue is examined in detail, it appears that being a female is not a significant predictor of being bullied in

many settings (Lee, 2002; Lewis & Orford, 2005). Instead, the significant predictor may be related to being a member of a minority or out-group. Based on this argument, Eriksen and Einarsen (2004) investigated the effect of representing gender minority as a factor in bullying. As opposed to the mainstream research, they focused on male assistant nurses as a gender minority group. Results showed that male assistant nurses are more often exposed to bullying than their female colleagues which is similar to the case of a victim being attacked because she is the first woman in a local police force (Rayner et al., 1999). It is known that being perceived as an outsider may affect the people's assessments and responses in a negative way. Zapf (1999) supports this argument and showed that victims saw themselves as different from the rest of the group in terms of demographic characteristics or in terms of personality characteristics.

2.8.1.3 Who bullies whom?

Researchers have attempted to identify the general characteristics of victims and perpetrators. However, as the results of previous research indicate, the nature of bullying is very complex and making exact classifications about the characteristics of the victims and perpetrators is not possible. Bullying may take place in different forms and due to various reasons. Many situational factors and the dynamics of the relationships affect bullying incidents.

Furthermore, theoretical models on bullying indicate the effect of dyadic relationships between the victim and the perpetrator and their effects on the bullying process. Due to the above mentioned reasons, researchers focus on the relationships

between perpetrators and victims, and attempt to answer the question; “who bullies whom?”. The answer to this question may be related to gender, age or position of the victims and the perpetrators.

Leymann (1996) emphasizes the findings of research done in Sweden, and states that 76% of men-victims were bullied by other men, while only 3% were bullied by women, and 21% were bullied by both sexes. On the other hand, 40% of women-victims were subjected to bullying by other women, 30% were bullied by men and another 30% by both. However, he also states that the findings of this research should not be interpreted as men generally bullying other men and women generally bullying other women because of the characteristics of the Swedish working environment. In Sweden, men generally work with other men and women generally work with other women, and this fact can greatly affect the results. It should be noted that this case may be valid in other different countries.

Victims can be exposed to bullying from their superiors, colleagues and even from their subordinates. A study by Hoel et al. (2001) show that 37% of the employees in a British sample report being bullied by a colleague and 7% by a subordinate. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) found that 54% of the victims were bullied by their superiors. Another study by Rayner (1997) found that 16% of members of public sector union had been bullied by peers. Similarly, Soares (2002) showed that 31% of the victims were bullied by a colleague, 22% by several colleagues, 22.4% by their immediate supervisor, and 4.4% were bullied by their subordinates. Zapf et al. (2003) argue that, in cases where subordinates bully their superiors, they generally collaborate

with the colleagues of their superiors or with senior managers because overcoming the formal power of a superior is not easy.

Regarding supervisory bullying, Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) state that victims who were bullied by their superiors seemed to suffer more in psychological terms than victims of peer bullying. At this point, Einarsen (1999) addresses the question of whether leadership bullying and peer bullying are the same concepts or are distinct enough to be considered as different concepts which occur under different circumstances. When the literature of bullying is examined, it appears that although there are few studies which focused on leadership bullying only (Ferris, 2007), there has not been enough empirical evidence to separate these terms. Hence, this point could benefit from further research.

It should also be noted that the findings of the above mentioned studies may be considered as culture-bound. Most of them were conducted in Scandinavian countries, where are characterized by low power distance and femininity (Hofstede, 1980). Hence, the power distance between an employee and his/her immediate supervisor is relatively low, which may produce similar numbers of perpetrators for supervisors and colleagues. Thus, further research in different cultures is required to identify the effect of culture on this issue.

Furthermore, there can be a gender effect in the positions of perpetrators and victims. For example, Vartia and Hyyti (2002) reported that women are more often bullied by coworkers while men are bullied by their immediate supervisor.

2.8.2 Organizational Antecedents

Besides individual factors, researchers focus on the effects of organizational related factors on bullying. Some of the researchers believe that an organization itself, through its policies and practices, can bully (Zapf, 1999). Moreover, some scholars argue that it should be called organizational or structural bullying, and should be distinguished from interpersonal bullying (Liefoghe and Mackenzie Davey, 2001). Organizational or structural bullying refers to situations in which organizational practices or procedures are perceived to be oppressive, demeaning, humiliating, are employed so frequently and persistently that many employees feel victimized. Hence, in that case, bullying does not strictly refer to interpersonal interactions, but rather to indirect interactions between the individual and management (Einarsen et al., 2003).

It can be argued that whether we separate the interpersonal and organizational bullying or not, it is clear that organizations, through their policies, culture and practices may create a suitable environment for bullying. Bayrak K k (2006) supports this argument in her study, which shows that victims of bullying reported that the most important reason of being bullied is related to organizational factors.

As the presence of the effect of organizational factors as stimulators is clear, researchers have attempted to identify which factors and situations in organizations create a suitable environment for bullying.

2.8.2.1. Reward System and Working Arrangements

It is known that reward or performance evaluation systems of an organization may create an appropriate environment for bullying incidents. For example, individual performance based reward systems may stimulate bullying since, in this case, people want to show their individual performance as higher than others, and in order to do that they may bully others (Neuman & Baron, 1998) and try to affect their performance in a negative way. However, it is also argued that collective bonus systems may promote bullying as team members may feel aggression towards underachieving member, who indirectly decreases others' bonuses (Collinson, 1988). Consequently, it can be claimed that there may be other factors as moderators, such as culture and management style, which influence the relationship between bullying and performance evaluation systems.

Furthermore, today's organizations have attempted to be more flexible and ready to accept innovations, which demand a flexible workforce. Hence, different employment methods including part-time workers, job sharing and flexible working hours are implemented by organizations. Although flexible working methods are mainly characterized by their positive effects, it is known that they involve less job security, less opportunities for socialization and less time for conflict resolution. Hence it can be argued these factors may indirectly contribute to aggression and bullying (Hoel & Salin, 2003). The findings of a study conducted among university employees may support this argument as it is outlined that short-term contracts and job insecurity are stated as contributory factors of bullying by the victims (Lewis, 1999).

2.8.2.2. Job Design

It is known that characteristics of the job itself may indirectly stimulate bullying by affecting employee relationships and employee-management relations as well as employee satisfaction from work. Leymann (1996) argues that the poor organized working methods may promote bullying. Similar findings can be achieved in Einarsen's (1999) study showing that deficiencies in work design may promote bullying. Poor information flow (Vartia, 1996) and having less job control (Rayner et al., 1999; Omari, 2003) are seen as other important antecedents of bullying related to work. In particular, victims' control over time is found to be significantly lower than non-victims (Zapf et al., 1996). It can be claimed that those factors increase the stress level of employees as well as decrease their tolerance for mistakes. Hence, a suitable environment for both task related and interpersonal conflict is created. It is known that where the conflict is not well-managed, it likely turns to bullying.

Moreover, victims of bullying reported having monotonous work (Zapf et al., 1996). Interestingly, among the work related factors job complexity was not found as a significant predictor of bullying (Zapf, 1999). Concerning this finding, it can be argued that bullying may take place at the different hierarchical levels and in different departments.

Zapf et al. (1996) found that work which requires high degree of cooperation and teamwork may also stimulate peer bullying. Regarding this finding, it can be said that working in teams may create an appropriate environment for the scapegoating process, which team members direct their aggression towards least powerful individual.

The likelihood of this process may increase in case there is time pressure, significant workload and the risk of not achieving desired results.

2.8.2.3. Organizational Culture and Climate

The characteristics of organizational culture and climate have been argued by many scholars as contributory factors to bullying (e.g., Hoel & Salin, 2003). In fact, this argument is supported by empirical evidence. For example, Vartia (1996) compared the organizational culture of bullying and non-bullying working places, and she found that bullying working places can be characterized by their competitive cultures, while the non-bullying places have easy-going and pleasant organizational cultures. Similar findings emerge from the study of O'Moore et al. (1998). They identified that a highly stressful and competitive environment and organizational climate factors explain 27% of the variance in bullying. Rayner et al. (1999) and Aquino and Lamertz (2004) state that it is expected that bullying is observed more frequently in organizations characterized by competitive culture, due to the fact that one of the reasons of bullying is the competition for tasks, advancement or achieving supervisors' approval. Moreover, Keashly and Jagatic (2000) reported that the prevalence of emotional abuse is higher in organizations where employee involvement is not facilitated, morale is low, teamwork is not promoted and supervision is problematic.

As indicated by empirical evidence, the characteristics of organizational culture and climate may stimulate bullying and workplace aggression. At this point the question is; how do culture and climate affect the prevalence of bullying in organizations? In order to answer this question, the definition of culture should be examined. Culture is

defined by Hofstede (1980) as “collective programming of mind”. Hence, it represents the values, norms and beliefs that are shared by the organization’s members while determines what is true/wrong and desired/undesired in a social context. Thus, it can be argued that culture shapes people’s behaviors by affecting their values. Also, through socialization process, new-comers are expected to change their values and behaviors to provide fit to organization’s culture.

As culture determines what is acceptable or not and desirable or not, it is expected that it affects people’s responses to aggression and bullying. Emphasizing this fact, Liefoghe and Olafsson (1999) argue that behaviors perceived as bullying may change according to organizational context. If humiliating jokes, surprises and insults are regarded as a part of organization’s culture, they are seen as the normal part of daily work life. From the perspective of the perpetrators, Brodsky (1976) calls this situation “sense of permission to harass”. In such cultures, the likelihood of punishment of such behaviors is low, thus justifying them. Hence, a suitable environment for bullying is created (Hoel & Salin, 2003).

As stated above, characteristics of culture such as competitiveness may act as stimulator for bullying by providing appropriate conditions for the perpetrator (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; O’Moore et al., 1998; Rayner et al., 1999; Vartia, 1996). Research has identified a number of other characteristics of culture which may stimulate bullying, such as high power distance (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Vartia, 1996), lack of accountability and low moral standards (Ferris et al., 2007; Keashly & Jagatic, 2000; Omari, 2003).

Regarding high power distance, it can be argued that it stimulates bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) as where subordinates perceive high power distance in the organization, they believe that they have to obey the orders of superiors without even questioning their abusive behaviors and demands. Supporting this argument, Vartia (1996) found that the way in which differences of opinion are settled at the workplace seemed to be important factors in bullying. In organizations where bullying is observed more frequently differences of opinion were most often settled by taking advantage of one's position or authority. However, in non-bullying workplaces, differences of opinion were most often settled by talking over the subject or negotiating.

Other aspects of organizational culture which may stimulate bullying can be listed as lack of accountability and having low moral standards. If bullying behaviors are not punished by superiors, then they will be perceived as usual and the part of the organizational culture by the members of the organization (Omari, 2003). In that case, a Machiavellian "get the job done at all costs" value system that would suggest a good person-environment fit for bully is provided (Ferris et al., 2007).

Identifying the effects of culture and climate is vital for prevention of bullying due to the fact people's perceptions of and accordingly reactions to bullying behaviors are heavily influenced by culture. To implement effective prevention programmes, intervention of the core values and socialization process should be taken into consideration incase cultural values promote bullying (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003).

2.8.2.4. Leadership

The dynamics of leadership as well as its effects on individuals, groups and organizations have attracted to the attention of scholars for many years. Although there is an extensive body of leadership research, its negative effects are relatively not well documented. Instead the positive aspects of leadership are generally emphasized. However, now it is known that leadership behaviors may act as stimulators of workplace aggression and bullying (Hoel & Salin, 2003).

The dark side of leadership is emphasized by Ashforth (1994) under the name of “petty tyranny”. He describes arbitrary and self-aggrandizing behaviors, lack of consideration of subordinates and using force in conflict resolution as aspects of petty tyranny behaviors. It is clear that those behaviors can be easily considered in the context of vertical bullying. Tepper (2000) classes the prevalence and negative effects of above mentioned behaviors under the name of abusive supervision. Besides the studies investigating the dark side of leadership behaviors (called destructive leadership), there are studies which identify the effect of authoritarian leadership as a stimulator of bullying. For example, O’Moore and Lynch (2007) found that a significantly greater number of victims reported being employed in departments or organizations managed in an authoritarian manner.

Petty tyranny or authoritarian leadership behaviors can be expected as the antecedents of bullying. However, it is known that the effect of leadership on bullying is not limited to these behaviors, but that leadership behaviors may contribute to peer bullying (Hoel & Salin, 2003). Kelloway et al. (2005) states that poor leadership may be

a root cause of particular workplace stressors such as role conflict, role ambiguity and a low level of satisfaction with interpersonal relationships. Similarly, the greatest difference between victims and non-victims was found to be the level of satisfaction with the immediate supervisor's ability to resolve conflicts by O'Moore and Lynch (2007). One of the founders of the bullying theory, Leymann (1996) states that low attention of management was an important antecedent of bullying. Also, through making in depth-interviews, Lewis (1999) determined that 35% of the respondents claimed that the reason for being bullied is related to the low attention of management. Hence, lack of attention of an immediate supervisor or his/her less ability to intervene interpersonal relationships are seen as associated with bullying. As those behaviors can be considered in the context of laissez faire leadership, Skogstad et al. (2007a) investigated the effect of laissez faire leadership on workplace aggression and bullying. Results revealed that laissez faire leadership is associated with bullying in many ways: it stimulates role conflict, and role ambiguity as well as interpersonal conflict among the employees.

Hauge et al. (2007) examined authoritarian and laissez faire leadership behaviors as work stressors which may lead to bullying. The regression analyses of data collected from a representative Norwegian sample showed that authoritarian and laissez faire leadership behaviors together with role conflict and interpersonal conflict are the significant predictors of workplace bullying.

Furthermore, the effect of charismatic leadership behaviors which are active, visionary, involving high consideration of employee well-being, and interpersonal

relationships, on workplace aggression can be considered as being inversely proportional to laissez faire leadership. Hence it can be expected that charismatic leadership behaviors are negatively associated with workplace aggression. This argument was tested by Hepworth and Towler (2004). They found that charismatic leadership behaviors are negatively correlated with workplace aggression. Moreover, they underlined that psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and workplace aggression.

An interpretation of line above mentioned findings is that active involvement of management, and high consideration behaviors may decrease the prevalence of bullying, while passive or authoritarian leadership may directly or indirectly contribute.

2.8.2.5. Organizational Changes

The relationship between workplace bullying and organizational change has been investigated by many scholars due to the argument that organizational changes directly or indirectly leads to bullying (Hoel & Salin, 2003). In fact, this argument is supported by empirical research. For example, Soares (2002) found that 45.3% of the victims were bullied following organizational change. Similar findings can be observed in the studies of Vartia (1996) and Zapf (1999), which shows that the frequency of bullying behaviors may increase during the change periods. In UK, victims of bullying reported a higher prevalence of organizational change such as budget cuts, change in management and major restructuring (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Skogstad et al. (2007b) found that different organizational changes were positively correlated to reports of

exposure to bullying at work, and being exposed organizational changes more often increased the probability of being exposed to both task related and personal bullying.

As known, organizational changes, including downsizing, de-layering, change in management teams, changes in the nature of work as well as employment conditions have become a normal part of professional life. In a highly competitive, globalized world, the survival of organizations strongly depends on their ability to find new ways to improve customer satisfaction, their ability to innovate and improve productivity levels. For employees, this situation creates obligations of adaptation to new organizational dynamics. Accordingly, the main argument that organizational changes stimulates the presence of bullying lies behind the fact that changes in organizations affect the nature of employee relationships, employee-manager relationships, nature of work as well as the general climate of the organization.

Regarding employee relationships and general organizational climate, it can be argued that organizational changes often influence the general organizational climate and employee relations in a negative way. It is claimed that during and following organizational change, stress level in organizations will increase, which may result more often engagement in aggression as well as increase in the rate of bullying behaviors (Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999). In addition to increased level of stress, the level of competition among employees most likely increase during the change periods as promotion opportunities due to de-layering or downsizing decrease. It may therefore be assumed that in situations where the level of internal competition, ambiguity and stress increase as a result of change, the level of social support will decrease which may lead

to aggressive behaviors (Vinokur et al., 1996). Furthermore, the situations characterized above provide appropriate conditions for task related and interpersonal conflict, which is likely turn to bullying where it is not well managed (Hoel & Salin, 2003).

Furthermore, it is known that organizational changes lead to increased vertical bullying behaviors (between managers and their subordinates) as they affect the nature of the relationships between managers and employees in many ways. Being responsible for the implementation of change, managers may engage in authoritarian leadership style and coercive behaviors (McCarthy et al., 1995; Sheehan, 1999). In this way, they attempt to overcome resistance to change as well as implement adaptation without loosing a significant amount of time (Skogstad et al., 2007b). The findings of McCarty et al. (1995) are in line with this argument as they emphasize that a variety of coercive leadership behaviors are reported during restructuring periods. In this case, it can be argued that aggressive behaviors including bullying are used as means of changing subordinates' behaviors and achieving the organizational goals (Hoel & Cooper, 1999; Ironside & Seifert, 2003). Moreover, managers in charge of implementing change may experience high level of stress, which is most likely turn to aggression and may be perceived as bullying by subordinates. Furthermore, Hoel & Salin (2003) argue that during change and restructuring, employees tend not to challenge aggressive treatment by managers because of fear of loosing their jobs. Hence, aggressive treatment is likely to be part of work life contributing the prevalence of bullying.

As it is expected, organizational changes may lead to changes in the nature of work. It is argued that the level of ambiguity in the nature of work significantly increase as a result of change (Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999). The link between the changing nature of work and the increasing prevalence of bullying behaviors is examined by the mediating role of role conflict and role ambiguity, which are experienced more often during change. Einarsen et al. (1994) showed that victims of bullying reported higher levels of role conflict. Similarly, Vartia (1996) found that there is a significant positive correlation between role ambiguity and exposing to bullying.

2.8.2.6. Sector Dynamics

In addition to above mentioned internal dynamics organizations' bullying levels may also be affected by the external environment in which they operate, for example the business sector. Research shows that bullying is mostly observed in service sector, especially in health, public administration, education and financial services (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Omari, 2003). This may be due to the distinct characteristics of the service industry such as intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability. Intangibility, heterogeneity and perishability make people more intense about work-related problems, create a stressful working environment and in turn may lead to bullying. Inseparability involves customers in the operation stage and creates possible conditions for bullying that may come from the customers themselves. Moreover, mounting emphasis on customer satisfaction and the management perspective of "customers are always right" may contribute to the risk of being bullied by customers. In his study conducted in service sector, Soares (2002) showed that 4.4% of the sample of health care professionals and teachers are bullied by their

patients/students. Also, in UK employees of service sector are reported to being bullied by their clients (Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

Leymann (1996) supports the argument that bullying is observed more frequently in service industry. He argues that employees in health care sector, especially nurses are the potential victims of bullying due to the fact that they have significant work load and work under two supervisors (a doctor and a nurse supervisor). Since there may not be clear rules about the supervisors' authority limits, a nurse can easily face conflicting demands from the nurse supervisor and the doctors. This situation may create a suitable environment for bullying since it has significant level of uncertainty for nurses and is open to conflict. Consistent with this argument, Yildirim and Yildirim (2007) showed that 87% of nurses were exposed to bullying in Turkey.

What is more, it is argued that bullying is more frequently observed in public sector. A high degree of bureaucracy, stricter rules and high levels of job security may create an appropriate environment for bullying (Salin, 2001) as they make the perpetrator less visible and decrease the likelihood of voluntary and involuntary dismissal of the victim.

In this section of the thesis, antecedents of bullying were examined under two main topics; individual and organizational. Although those factors and their potential effects on bullying process were discussed individually, it should be remembered that it is generally their interaction which creates bullying (Hoel & Salin, 2003).

Another point that should be emphasized that majority of the results regarding the antecedents of bullying are based on cross-sectional surveys, which permit no clear cause-effect relationships. Hence, a careful language should be used in differentiating the antecedents and consequences of bullying.

2.9 Consequences of Bullying

The bullying literature provides an extensive body of research for the consequences of bullying. Hence, its severe effects on individuals, organizations and societies discussed below in detail, have been previously analyzed by different scholars.

2.9.1 Consequences of Bullying for Individuals

Being exposed to bullying may have severe effects for individuals' health and well-being as it can be examined as an extreme social stressor. Hence, many psychological and even physical problems were reported by the victims of bullying. Psychological distress, insomnia, various nervous symptoms, melancholy, apathy, lack of concentration, socio-phobia, depression, personality changes and even tendency to suicide were identified as the effects of bullying (e.g., Björkqvist et al., 1994; Brousse et al., 2008; Einarsen et al., 1999; Groeblichhoff & Becker, 1996; Leymann, 1996;

Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Mikkselsen & Einarsen, 2002b; O'Moore et al., 1998; Soares, 2002).

Regarding psychological distress, Soares (2002) found that victims' level of psychological distress is the highest when it is compared to observers' and employees who are working in non-bullying organizations. He also stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the average score of victims and the observers. Soares (2002) states that findings of the study are worth focusing on since psychological distress is considered a major illness, which may affect people's well-being.

In addition to psychological distress, different psychological disorders were associated with bullying. For example, Björkqvist et al. (1994) conducted interviews with the victims of harassment and found that all reported insomnia, various nervous symptoms, melancholy, apathy, lack of concentration and socio-phobia.

Another frequently cited consequence of bullying on individuals was depression. Soares (2002) found that among those presently experiencing bullying, 45.5% demonstrated symptoms of depression severe enough to warrant medical attention. Also, he showed that among the people who had experienced bullying in the last 12 months, 37% still suffered from symptoms of depression and needed medical attention. Similarly, anxiety, irritability and depression were found as the most common consequences of bullying on victims in an Irish study (O'Moore et al., 1998). Brousse et al. (2008) studied the treatment of victims of bullying over 12 months, and they found

that there was no significant change in symptoms of depression during this period. The above mentioned findings have great importance due to the fact that depression is a severe mental illness which may lead to important health problems and even suicide. Research shows that suicide or attempted suicide can also be considered as the consequences of bullying (Groeblichhoff & Becker, 1996; Leymann, 1996). Leymann (1996) states that, according to Swedish statistics, these problems may be responsible for 6 of 15 officially noted suicide.

It was identified that post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is also one the important consequences of bullying (Einarsen et al., 1999; Mikkselsen & Einarsen, 2002b; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Soares, 2002). This point is vitally important due to the fact that PTSD may cause personality changes in the victims to the point of triggering depressive or obsessive behaviors. The finding that bullying led to stress disorders, and in turn personality changes is also supported by different researchers. For example, Omari (2003) found that bullying might also result in lowered level of self-efficacy for the victim. Since most of the victims felt that they were unable to defend themselves, they perceived themselves as incapable. This situation may also negatively affect their level of self esteem (Einarsen et al. 1994; Zapf, 1999). Mikkselsen and Einarsen (2002b) showed that bullying might result in increased negative views on self, others and the world as a result of PTSD. Since, victims might be socially isolated as a result of the perpetrators' bullying efforts (Omari, 2003), they might experience low social competence, and high social anxiety (Einarsen et al., 1994; Zapf, 1999). Similar findings could be achieved in a study conducted in the USA as it identified that bullying resulted in lowered self-confidence, self-worth and productivity (Spratlen, 1995).

As stated, bullying was associated with severe negative effects on individuals' health and well being. Einarsen and Raknes (1997) emphasized this fact and showed that being bullied explained 23% of variance in psychological health and well being. It can be said that the finding is crucial due to identifying the strength of the effect of bullying on health and well being. However, it is worth noting that not all bullying incidents create the same significant effects. Lutgen Sandvik et al. (2007) developed a concept of "bullying degree" based on its frequency, intensity and duration, and investigated the relationship between bullying degree, and the levels of stress and job satisfaction of the victims. Accordingly, they found that the degree of bullying could be examined at three different levels, and higher degrees of bullying create higher level of stress as well as lower level of job satisfaction. Moreover, the relationship between the degree of bullying and its effects on individuals could be moderated by the personality characteristics of the victims. For example, Nielsen et al. (2008) examined the sense of coherence (SOC) as a protective mechanism of victims from the severe effects of bullying on their health. The SOC can be described as a global orientation to view the world and individual environment as comprehensible, manageable, and meaningful. Hence, it postulates that the way people view their life has a positive influence on their health (Eriksson & Lindström, 2005). Findings showed that at low levels of bullying, SOC could work as a protective mechanism and decreased the effects of bullying, whereas at higher levels, it was not able to create effects positive enough to diminish the serious negative effects of bullying. Accordingly, it can be claimed that at high levels of bullying incidents, victims' personality characteristics might be unable to prevent their negative effects on their psychological health and well being.

As discussed above, the bullying literature is overwhelmingly concerned with the negative effects of bullying in the victims. Only Zapf and Einarsen (2003) argued that victim may gain benefits from being bullied. They suggested that some workers have started to exploit the benefits of “victim” status by claiming they have been “bullied” by others, to achieve their personal goals. Claiming victim status might provide benefits to victims as they are perceived as “fair and innocent” and need to be protected from the perpetrators, who are demonized as “unfair and guilty”. However, we can say that this situation is highly unusual since it is generally perpetrators who are able to benefit from social support.

2.9.2 Consequences of Bullying in Organizations

As explained in the above section, bullying creates serious health problems and affects the well being of the individuals in a negative way. Hence, it is expected that those negative effects manifest themselves in the victims’ work related attitudes and behaviors, and in turn harm organizations. The most common effects of bullying in organizations can be listed as lowered job satisfaction, productivity, performance and increased absenteeism, intention to leave and turnover.

Research found that bullying heavily affected the victims’ work related attitudes. For example, a strong negative association between bullying and job satisfaction was reported by different researchers (e.g., Hoel & Cooper, 2000a, Keashly & Jagactic,

2000; Spratlen, 1995; Quine, 1999). Similarly, their commitment to the organization decreased as a result of bullying (Hoel & Cooper, 2000a). Also, victims' intention to leave was cited as a common consequence of bullying. Several studies report that victims of bullying were thinking to leave from their working organization (e.g., Djurkovic et al., 2004; Özarallı & Torun, 2007; Vartia, 1993; Keashly & Jagatic, 2000). This intention might occur as a result of a defense mechanism, by which the victim attempts to avoid the attacks of the perpetrator. Another argument might be related to the aim of the perpetrator. In cases where the aim of the perpetrator is to provide the dismissal of the victim, attacks could in fact be designed to encourage victims to leave (Hoel et al., 2003). Moreover, it was found that bullying affected the psychological health in a negative way, and in turn increased intention to leave (Djurkovic et al., 2004). As expected, these negative changes in work related attitudes of the victims affect their behaviors and performance in the workplace.

It was found that victims generally show low job performance due to losing their commitment and loyalty to their working organizations (Omari, 2003; Soares, 2000). Regarding the effects of bullying on productivity, mainstream research is theoretical. It is generally argued that negative effect on productivity is to be expected due to victims' loss of initiative, creativity, team spirit and motivation (Hoel et al., 2003). As cited in Hoel et al. (2003), Einarsen et al. (1994) measured the empirical relationship between productivity and bullying. They showed that 27% of the respondents agreed on the statement that *"bullying at my workplace reduces our efficiency"*.

As stated, there is a strong association between being bullied and existence of negative employee attitudes, which are expected to create behavioral consequences. However, it can be said that the relationship between bullying and negative employee behaviors are not as strong as its relationship with negative work attitudes. For example, a high level of intention to leave may not necessarily create the same level of voluntary turnover. Leymann (1996) explained the potential reasons for not leaving the organization with the argument that in some cases people might feel that they had no alternative. For example, as a person becomes older, the opportunity to find alternative employment diminishes (Leymann, 1996). A similar argument can be valid during crises, when the frequency of bullying increases (Samanci, 2001). It can be said that not being able to realize this intention might have positive effects for the organization as it reduces the potential recruitment and training costs. However, it should be remembered that in that cases the negative effects of being bullied on victims' health and well being would increase and in turn harm organizations as the victims' performance and productivity would sharply decrease. Besides productivity, performance and turnover, absenteeism was found to be associated with bullying (e.g., Hoel & Cooper, 2000a; Soares, 2002) as it manifests itself in sick leaves.

In conclusion, the cost of bullying to organizations can be examined by its negative effects on the general climate and in monetary terms as it is related to loss of productivity, lowered performance and increased absenteeism and turnover.

2.9.3 Consequences of Bullying in Societies

Bullying also creates significant costs to societies. First of all, it leads to severe psychological and physical health problems and damages the target of creating a healthy population and society (Leymann, 1996). Furthermore, the cost of bullying can be examined in monetary terms because treatment of health problems creates significant costs to victims as well as to social security institutions. In addition, the productivity level of the whole society decreases because of the high level of employee absenteeism and the number of people who are out of the workforce. Hoel et al. (2001) estimate that absenteeism due to bullying contributes to an extra 18 million lost working days annually. Besides absenteeism, the cost of bullying can be measured by the cost of early retirement. Leymann (1996) stated that in Sweden, where early retirement is seen as an issue, approximately 40% of the early retirements were caused by poor psychological environments and bullying.

2.10 Prevention and Intervention

As was explained above, bullying has serious effects on health and well-being of individuals, and harms productivity and performance level in organizations, as well as creating significant costs to societies. In the light of these findings, the prevention of bullying should be in the interest of employees, employers and policy makers (Leymann, 1996).

It is clear that organizations should create effective non-bullying policies, which emphasize zero tolerance for such kind of behaviors. These policies should make it clear that the potential costs to the perpetrators will outweigh any benefit that they might gain by their bullying behavior (e.g. European Agency, 2002; Richards & Daley, 2003). However, it is also obvious that preparing well documented non-bullying policies can only be the first step to prevention and should not be considered as a sufficient method of stopping the perpetrator. The implementation of these policies is as vital as the announcement of them. It has been argued by different scholars that, in the effective implementation of non-bullying policies, the responsibility of managers as the representatives of the organizations is very significant (e.g., Ferris, 2004; Leymann, 1996; Salin, 2008). Hence, the action of the managers can be considered as a vital input in prevention.

Ferris (2004) mentioned the role of managers in prevention and claimed that the most common coping strategy used by the victims was to contact their managers and seek help. She also mentions that when managers followed a *"see no evil"* (a deliberate non-intervention, seeing bullying as an acceptable behavior in the competitive work place) or *"hear no evil"* (a basic misunderstanding of the situation, labeling it as interpersonal conflict) approaches to bullying, they provided passive support for the perpetrator. However, when they followed a *"speak no evil"* strategy, characterized by effective intervention, it was clear to the perpetrator that employee well-being was one of the important values of the organization and those who violated this value would be punished.

Another scholar who focuses on the role of managers in the prevention of bullying is Leymann (1996). According to him, managers play a crucial role in the bullying process and their actions can be considered as stimulators of bullying. He also shows that in organizations, where bullying was observed more frequently managers generally acted in two ways. They might involve the group and be part of the problem or they just ignore the situation. He emphasized that the first was generally used by female managers, while the second was used by male managers, but both ways created a suitable environment for bullying.

The argument that prevention of bullying is the managers' responsibility is also supported by research findings, which outline that laissez faire leadership or low attention by management were seen by the victims as important antecedents of bullying, as discussed in earlier sections (Hauge et al., 2007; Leymann, 1996; Skogstad et al. 2007a). Additionally, managers' autocratic behavior can sometimes be considered as stimulators of bullying (e.g., Ashforth, 1994; O'Moore & Lynch, 2007; Tepper, 2000).

Based on the previous research findings and arguments mentioned above, it can be concluded that managers should recognize that prevention of bullying is crucial in organizations and is their responsibility. Hence, managers must be actively involved in the bullying process and intervene effectively. At this point, it can be argued that management training in conflict resolution methods and handling deviant work place behaviors, including bullying, are vital since managers are expected to clearly understand what level of conflict is natural and useful, and when it transforms into bullying (Leymann, 1996) and how they can provide early interventions.

In addition to creating written non-bullying policies and direct intervention of the immediate supervisor, managers can decrease the prevalence of bullying indirectly. For example, a competitive and demanding organizational culture may stimulate bullying (e.g., Vartia, 1996) so, managers need to promote innovative, cooperative and relaxed cultures with open communication, which will in turn, prevent an appropriate environment for bullying.

Increasing the awareness of the staff about the consequences of bullying and enlisting their involvement in the implementation of non-bullying policies may help in effective prevention. In addition to the staff, involvement of third parties, such as union representatives and counselors may stimulate collective action against bullying (Richard & Daley, 2003). It is also known that early intervention can play a crucial role in prevention; different methods, including employee surveys, focus groups as well as appointing one or more individuals to determine and report potential bullying cases can be utilized as part of such intervention (Leymann, 1996; Mathieson et al., 2006).

Salin (2008) argues that the above mentioned policies should be implemented in organizations for the prevention of bullying. However, she also states that in the effective implementation of them, the proactive role of human resource managers should not be ignored. They have the opportunity to prevent bullying by designing appropriate performance appraisal systems, providing training, forming strong collaborations with unions, as well as being a support center for the victims. However, she also notes that in many organizations, the active prevention of bullying by human

resource managers is unlikely, because they generally intervene after the incidents have occurred.

As mentioned, the reasons for bullying are very complex and interactive. Since the issue is very complex and results in severe problems for individuals, and organizations, as well as for societies, individuals, organizations and governmental agencies should collaborate to prevent bullying. At this point, increasing public awareness through media, conferences and training programs may help avoid bullying and its severe consequences for the workplace (Sheehan et al., 1999).

Additionally, in the prevention of bullying, vocational rehabilitation may play an important role. Instead of stigmatizing the victim or urging him/her to take sick leave, management should offer vocational rehabilitation and attempted to win him/her back to the organization (Leymann, 1996).

Finally, enacting legislation encompassing not only sexual harassment or physical violence, but also bullying incidents in the workplace may provide great help in the prevention of bullying. Punishment of the perpetrator under the law may offer guidance to other victims on how to defend themselves and increase the potential cost that the perpetrator will have to pay. Moreover, through the publicity generated from the results of law-suits results in the media, public awareness, which is an important factor in prevention, will be increased as discussed above. An example of this is worth noting, a law-suit, which resulted in compensation having to be paid to an employee, was taken against an organization in Turkey because of its managers' bullying actions

http://www.mobbingturkiye.net/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=141&Itemid=96). The modification of the law of obligations, to include bullying incidents has been proposed so that victims will also be protected by law in Turkey as in Sweden, Finland, France, and Germany (Tahincioglu, 2008).

CHAPTER-3

ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS AND ITS ASSOCIATION WITH BULLYING

As explained in the previous chapter, the concept of bullying has generally been investigated from the perspective of the victims, as collecting reliable data from the perpetrators is not seen as applicable. This situation makes difficult to understand the complex nature of the issue and leave some points in darkness. For example, the intent of perpetrators is generally determined based on the victims' perceptions, which may not reflect the real intent.

It is argued that in some cases, the intent of the perpetrator is not specifically to harm others but to serve his/her self interest. In such cases, bullying can be considered as a rational behavior, which represents micro political behavior that is part of the organizational politics. (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Salin, 2003b). When the factors which may stimulate bullying are carefully examined it will be seen that some cases of bullying follow the logic of micro political behaviors in organizations (Neuberger, 1995, 1999).

Following this argument, in this part of the study, the concept of organizational politics is explained and the argument that there is an association between bullying and organizational politics is discussed. As it will be seen, this intersection refers to the

situations that bullying behaviors are applied to serve the self interests of the perpetrator/political actor. Hence, they are shown as political behaviors or tactics.

3.1 The Concept of Organizational Politics

It was argued that organizations could be characterized by political games and processes, in which people aimed to serve their self interests, instead of being perfectly rational places (e.g., Pfeffer, 1981; Mintzberg, 1983; Miles, 1980). The field that focuses on those processes and examines managers and employees as political actors is called organizational politics. Since it has been seen as a fundamental way to explain what is really going on in organizations (Gandz & Murray, 1980), organizational politics has become one of the major research topics in the field of management for several decades.

As a major research topic in the field of management, organizational politics has been defined by different scholars. Robins (1983) suggested that all behaviors in organizations are political as people consciously or unconsciously show behaviors to serve or at least protect their self-interests. However, other scholars have argued against this claim, and developed more specific definitions, which emphasize the characteristics of political behaviors. For example, Mayes and Allen (1977, p.675) defined it as *"the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned influence means"*. In another definition it was said that organizational politics is an intentional social process

in which behavior is strategically designed to maximize short term or long term self interests (Madison et al., 1980; Gray & Ariss, 1985; Ferris et al., 1989). Mintzberg (1983, p.172) mentions the nature of political behavior and defined it as: *"informal, parochial, typically divisive and illegitimate behavior that is aimed at displacing legitimate power"*. Similarly, Drory and Romm (1988) emphasize the informal nature of political behaviors. Gandz and Murray (1980) suggest that organizational politics should be clearly separated from other similar concepts like conflict, power and influence. Accordingly, they proposed that it should be defined as *"a subjective state in which organizational members perceive themselves or others as intentionally seeking selfish ends in an organizational context when such ends are opposed to those of others"* (Gandz & Murray, 1980; p.248)

Although literature has different definitions of organizational politics, it can be stated that self serving behaviors are at the core of the definitions. Hence, different kind of behaviors, which are directed towards serving the self interest of employees and managers at all levels, can be considered as a part of organizational politics (Allen et al., 1979; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison et al., 1980).

3.2. Perceptions of Organizational Politics

As stated, political behaviors are generally directed to serve self interests of the political actors. As it is difficult to determine whether a behavior is self-serving or not by employing an objective criterion, research on organizational politics mainly depends on

people's perceptions (Harris et al., 2007). However, this is not seen as a problem for research accuracy, since people feel and act according to their perceptions (Lewin, 1936).

According to Kacmar and Ferris (1991, p.193-194), and Kacmar and Carlson (1994, p.3), "*perceptions of organizational politics (POPs) represents the degree to which respondents view their work environment as political in nature, promoting the self interest of others, and thereby unjust and unfair from the individual point of view*".

Previous research shows that people's perceptions of organizational politics and the degree to which they define their environment as politicized can be affected by certain factors. In their pioneering study, Ferris et al. (1989) developed a conceptual model which incorporates situational and personal factors that may affect POPs. Accordingly, both situational factors and personal characteristics can be used as the predictors of POPs.

3.2.1 Situational Factors as the Predictors of People's Perceptions of Organizational Politics

In the model developed by Ferris et al. (1989) situational factors which affect POPs were related to work environment and organizational characteristics. Hence different factors such as centralization, formalization, resource scarcity, span of control, hierarchical level, autonomy, skill variety, feedback, advancement opportunity and job

ambiguity were included to the model. Among them, the effect of high centralization (Kacmar et al., 1999), formalization (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), resource scarcity (Daft, 1992; Muhammad, 2007) and job ambiguity (Muhammad, 2007; Poon, 2003) on the perceptions of organizational politics were also stated by different researchers in different studies.

Regarding the positive association between centralization and the level of POPs, two main arguments were developed (Parker et al., 1995). It is known that centralization can be characterized by a continuum and in highly centralized organizations legitimate power is exercised by very few people (Muhammad, 2007). Accordingly, it can be said that as the level of centralization increases, the middle and first line managers' likelihood of engaging in organizational politics will increase as they have limited legitimate power to influence decisions. Another argument states that as employees have almost no rights to participate decision making process in highly centralized organizations, they tend to perceive most of the decisions as politicized (Allen et al., 1979; Kacmar et al., 1999).

A similar explanation can be given for the role of job ambiguity, which can be defined as the degree of equivocality surrounding the job environment (Poon, 2003). When high, employees cannot be sure about what is expected from them, which behaviors will be punished and which will be rewarded. Hence, performance criteria, roles and goals are seen as unclear. In this situation, people tend to protect their self-interest by engaging in organizational politics (Ferris et al., 1989; Poon, 2003). From this perspective, it can also be expected that formalization- the extent to which instructions,

rules and procedures are officially specified (Smith & Grenier, 1982)-, which decrease job ambiguity, is negatively associated with the level of POPs (Ferris et al., 1996; Madison et al., 1980, O'Connor & Morrison, 2001) whereas larger span of control-the number of subordinates-, which may increase the job ambiguity, is positively associated (Ferris et al., 1989; Parker et al., 1995).

Researchers also have argued that POPs can be affected by the hierarchical position of the perceiver. Specifically, the lower an employee's position within an organization, the greater the likelihood that he or she will perceive the organization as political (Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). The reason for this argument may be similar to the explanation of the role of centralization as it indicates that people with limited legitimate power in organizations tend to engage in organizational politics more. Moreover, employees at lower levels are expected to be affected by political activity as they have little chance to intervene to the decisions, and thus they perceive their environment as highly politicized.

Another organizational factor which has been cited as one of the predictors of POPs was resource scarcity. It was argued that there was a positive correlation between resource scarcity and POPs due to the fact that when the resources that employees value are limited, the level of competition will increase. In this case, it is expected that people's engagement in organizational politics will increase as it can be an effective way to outperform the potential rivals and achieve scarce resources (Ferris et al., 1989; Muahmmad, 2007; Poon, 2003)

As stated above, in addition to organizational factors, characteristics of the work itself are expected to affect people's POPs. Accordingly, it was argued that when autonomy, skill variety and feedback levels increase, people's perception of the level of uncertainty in their work environment will decrease, and affect the level of POPs in a negative way (Ferris et al., 1989; Poon, 2003).

It is worth noting that situational predictors might vary and interact with each other. Hence, determining the level of POPs may not be easy or reliable, if their interaction is not taken into consideration. Drory and Romm (1988, p.176) explain this as follows, *"... in reality employees' perceptions may be more complex and flexible so that the meaning of political behavior is determined by a set of elements which are in compensatory relationships. The nature of these compensatory relationships is such that if element A is present, the addition of element B will not make the situation perceived as being more political. Yet, if element A is replaced by another one, the same element B might make a significant contribution towards the perception of the behavior as political."* Furthermore, those factors are interacting with individual characteristics of the person who evaluated the level of POPs.

3.2.2. Personal Factors as Predictors of People's Perceptions of Organizational Politics

As organizational politics is considered as a perceived behavior and analyzed as such, it is natural to expect that personal characteristics of the perceiver will affect it.

Mayes and Allen (1979) note this and state that individual characteristics are pertinent to understanding how people perceive and respond to organizational politics. Personal factors which may affect POPs fall into two categories; demographic and personality characteristics.

Ferris et al. (1989) argue that gender, age, education, Machiavellianism and self monitoring can be the predictors of POPs. However, in 2002, Ferris et al. reviewed their own model and stated that the role of demographic characteristics of people as the predictors of organizational politics is not clear due to the conflicting research findings. For example, for gender, while a number of studies reported that there was no significant effect (e.g., Kesken, 1999) many other studies conclude that women perceive their environment as highly politicized than men do (Fernandez, 1981; Ferris et al., 1989; Rosen, 1982; Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). However, other researchers argue that men tend to be more involved in political activity. Hence, they perceive politics as a part of ordinary work life and do not regard their environment as highly politicized. A similar problem is seen regarding the role of age. Although, some studies find that there is a negative or positive relationship between age and POPs (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Parker et al., 1995), Ferris et al. (1996) argue that when employees become older, they gain more experience of organizational politics and they tend to perceive it as an ordinary part of work life. What is more, regarding education, it can be expected that high education level might help to reduce ambiguity and decrease the level of POPs (Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). However, similar to age and gender, research findings do not provide empirical support (e.g., Parker et al., 1995) or indicate a small effect for the level of education (e.g., Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). Therefore, it can

be said that further research, which examines the role of demographic variables as the predictors of POPs, is required.

Among the personality characteristics that may influence POPs, O'Connor & Morrison (2001) mentioned the importance of locus of control (both external and internal) and Machiavellianism. Locus of control (LOC) was defined as the extent to which individuals perceive themselves as having control over life events (Mudrack & Mason, 1995). Individuals who believe that they have control over their life and they are responsible of their successes and failures are labeled as internal LOC, while those who believe their life is controlled by powerful external factors such as luck are labeled as external LOC. As people with internal LOC tend to believe that they can change their lives and destinies, they are expected to engage in organizational politics more frequently than external LOCs. From this point of view, it can be said that as people with internal LOC engage in organizational politics more, they tend to label political behaviors as a natural part of the workplace. Accordingly, it can be argued that people with external LOC tend to perceive their environment as more politicized. This argument is empirically supported by O'Connor & Morrison (2001). They showed that there was a positive correlation between POPs and having external LOC, and a negative relationship between POPs and having internal LOC.

Regarding the role Machiavellianism, which denotes a cluster of cynical beliefs about human nature, morality, and the acceptability of using various manipulative tactics to satisfy one's goals (Johns, 1992), it has been emphasized that individuals, who are high in Machiavellianism have lives dominated by manipulation and

opportunism. As political behaviors can be characterized by their self-serving nature, it is not surprising that such people exploit organizational politics in the work environment. Also, it can be argued that those individuals tend to regard their environment as consisting of various political games. Hence, high Mach individuals may tend to interpret actions and events in political terms (Mudrack, 1993). In their study, O'Connor & Morrison (2001) provide empirical support for this argument and show the positive association between Machiavellianism and the level of POPs.

In addition to those personality characteristics, Vrendenburgh and Maurer (1984) examined the role of need for power, which reflects an individual desire to influence the behavior or emotions of someone else (Liebert & Spiegler, 1990), as a predictor of POPs. Accordingly, the higher need for power an individual has, the greater the likelihood that he/she engages in organizational politics and perceives the environment as more politicized.

Finally, the role of negative affectivity (NA) and positive affectivity (PA) in people's POPs were investigated. NA describes the extent to which an individual experiences high level of anxiety, fear, hostility and anger (Watson & Clark, 1984). People who have high NA focus on the negative aspects of themselves and their lives and perceive social interactions as ambiguous and frequently feel that they are threatened by their environment (Aquino et al., 1999). As POPs was found as positively associated with perceived ambiguity and feeling of threatened, it can be expected that high NA individuals perceive higher level of POPs. Moreover, PA, which refers to the extent to which individuals feel active and enthusiastic about themselves and their lives

(Cropanzano et al., 1993; Watson et al., 1988), represents individuals' willingness to engage in social interactions (Cropanzano et al., 1993). When it is taken into consideration that organizational politics requires to engage in social interactions, it may be seen as the normal part of social life by high PA individuals. Thus, they do not tend to evaluate behaviors of people as political. Based on these arguments, Valle et al. (2002) empirically tested the relationships between POPs, and both PA and NA. Results indicated that POPs was positively associated with NA, while negatively associated with PA. Furthermore, they identified that individuals who have both high NA and low PA perceive the level of POPs as highest.

As previously mentioned, factors which affect the POPs are complex and interacting. Hence, making exact classifications of what behaviors are perceived as political and what behaviors are not may not be applicable. Hence, various behaviors can be perceived as political depending on the interaction of situational and dispositional factors.

3.2.3 Outcomes of Perceptions of Organizational Politics

Although people's POPs can be vary according to the factors mentioned above, it can be said that organizational politics is generally perceived as a negative term (Poon, 2003). This situation was emphasized by Block (1988) who claimed that people who hear that they are good at organizational politics perceive that they are being insulted.

There may be a number of different reasons of this negative perception. However, in general it can be said that it is associated with the outcomes of POPs, as most were seen as negative for the individuals and organizations. Employees tend to associate organizational politics with self-serving behaviors- behaviors that promote personal objectives, usually at the expense of others (Poon, 2003). Poon (2006) states that people may not know whether their efforts will be evaluated fairly or not, or they are uncertain about the accuracy of reward system, when they perceive their environment as highly politicized.

From an occupational stress perspective, organizational politics can be perceived as a stressor (e.g., Ferris et al, 1996; Harris & Kacmar, 2005). Vigoda (2002) supports this argument, finding that job distress appears as an immediate response to organizational politics in different organizations. When people perceive their environment as highly politicized, they feel threatened. Thus, negative work attitudes such as turnover intentions (e.g., Miller et al., 2008, Poon, 2003), low worker satisfaction (e.g., Miller et al., 2008; Parker et al, 1995; Poon, 2003; Vigoda & Cohen, 2002; Witt et al., 2000) and low organizational commitment (e.g., Vigoda & Cohen, 2002; Witt, 1998) as well as occupational stress (e.g., Ferris et al., 1996; Harris & Kacmar, 2005; Poon, 2003) will arise.

Moreover, it was found that people's engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) and the level of open communication among the non-managerial employees (Jablin, 1981) were inversely associated with the level

of POPs in the work environment. It is also stated that organizational politics affects the organizational climate in a negative way through stimulating conflict and disharmony. Thus, it may stimulate aggressive behaviors of employees (Gilmore et al., 1996). What is more, Parker et al. (1995) identified that when people perceived their environment as highly politicized, they tended to believe that their organization did not value high work standards, challenging work and integrity as well as they tended to evaluate the management of the organization as ineffective.

However, in contrast to the above mentioned findings, some of the researchers argued that in some cases organizational politics can be functional, that is, beneficial for the organization (Mayes & Allen, 1977; Randolph, 1985). At this point, the aim of the political actor is important. If their aim is consistent with the organizational goals, their political behaviors can be labeled as functional. However, if the political actor attempts to achieve personal goals at the expense of organizational goals, it will be considered as dysfunctional. Parker et al. (1995) emphasized this point, and stated that organizational politics might lead to functional or dysfunctional outcomes for the organizations, and in cases where it was used to provide consensus or motivate employees towards the organizational goals, it cannot be considered as a negative term.

3.3 Understanding the Logic behind Political Behaviors and the Nature of Political Tactics

It is obvious that whether a political actor engages in functional or dysfunctional organizational politics, he/she expects to obtain positive benefits for his/her self interests. Vigoda (2002) listed the expected benefits of organizational politics from the perspective of the political actor as career advancement, recognition and status, enhanced power and position, the accomplishment of personal goals, getting the job done, a feeling of achievement, an enhanced sense of control, and success.

Political actors attempt to serve their personal interests through influencing the decision-making process in organizations. Drory (1993) determines ten main decision domains which are mostly subject to organizational politics. These are; promotion, task assignments, allocation of personal benefits, operational budget allocations, recruiting and dismissal, sharing information, performance appraisals, allocation of equipment and operational means, and organizational structures. To influence these fundamental decision areas, and in turn, achieve their personal goals, political actors may display different behaviors.

As previously stated, a variety of behaviors can be used by the political actor to influence organizational decisions, and in turn serve his/her self interests. Sussman et al. (2002) mention this point and state that political behaviors or tactics can vary, from the relatively innocuous flattery and ingratiation exhibited towards superiors to the Machiavellian attempts to influence outcomes through sabotage, deception and

character assassination. Because political behaviors differ, the literature has different classifications.

According to Drory and Romm (1988), political behaviors may be classified as organizationally prescribed/formal, discretionary/informal and prohibited/illegal behaviors. Formal behavior is supported by the organization, while prohibited behavior is specifically forbidden or criminal behaviors. Finally, informal behavior is in between these two groups; neither supported nor forbidden by the organization.

Kipnis et al. (1980) identify a wide range of political tactics/behaviors in eight categories; assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward appeal, blocking and coalitions. A similar classification has also been done by Allen et al. (1979). They identify different political behaviors which are frequently preferred by political actors. Accordingly, *"blaming or attacking others"*, which is one of the most common political tactics, can occur as a reactive or proactive behavior. When it is a reactive behavior, it centers on scapegoating. However, when it is a proactive behavior, it mainly includes making a competitor look bad in order to eliminate competition. Like blaming or attacking others, *"use of information"*, another frequently preferred political tactic- can be in reactive or proactive nature, and it includes withholding and distorting information as well as manipulating it. Another commonly used political tactic, *"image building or impression management"*, is generally proactive and includes having an attractive appearance, sensitivity to organizational norms and drawing attention to success. According to the classification of Allen et al. (1979), another frequently preferred political tactic is *"developing a base for support"*. This tactic is mainly used by

top managers and generally proactive in nature. Understanding the ideas of others before decisions are made or setting up the decision before the meeting is called are included in this political tactic. In addition to the above mentioned political tactics, Allen et al. (1979) determined that “*praising others/ingratiation*”, “*power coalitions/strong allies*”, “*associating with the influential*”, “*creating obligations/reciprocity*” are the other most commonly used political tactics.

Farrell and Petersen (1982) develop a typology for political behaviors, which is based on three dimensions; illegitimate vs. legitimate, vertical vs. lateral, and external vs. internal. Hence, different political behaviors can be examined under eight groups, as shown in Table 3-1.

TABLE 3.1: A TYPOLOGY OF POLITICAL BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS

	LEGITIMATE		ILLEGITIMATE	
	VERTICAL	LATERAL	VERTICAL	LATERAL
INTERNAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Direct voice * Complain to supervisor * Bypassing chain of command * Obstructionism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Coalition forming * Exchanging favors * Reprisals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Sabotage * Symbolic protests * Mutinies * Riots 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Threats
EXTERNAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Lawsuits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Talk with counterpart from another organization * Outside professional activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Whistle blowing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Organizational duplicity * Defections

Source: Farrell, D., & Petersen, J. C. (1982). Patterns of political behavior in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 7(3), 403-412. (p.407).

In a series of studies, Mowday (1978; 1979) determines that political behaviors can be classified into five groups; threats, appeals to legitimate authority, reasoning and persuasive arguments, reciprocity reflected in exchange of rewards or favors and manipulation. He also suggests that the choice of the political tactic depends on different factors like the position power of the target and the nature of the issue communicated. This point is also supported in subsequent research. Accordingly, it has been found that softer tactics are generally preferred for upward influence, while harder ones for downward and lateral influence (e.g., Schlicht & Locke, 1982; Kipnis et al., 1984; Yukl & Falbe, 1991).

Based on the research findings mentioned above, it can be concluded that the organizational politics literature clearly identifies that political behaviors involve a wide range of acts, ranging from innocent gestures to criminal behaviors, and the choice of which one is used is made based on the situational factors.

3.4 Examining the Association Between Bullying and Organizational Politics

As it was stated at the beginning of the chapter, in some cases bullying and organizational politics can be treated as similar concepts. In other words, there is an intersection in some situation where bullying behaviors are displayed as political tactics by the perpetrator/political actor (e.g., Björkqvist et al., 1994; Neuberger, 1995, 1999; Salin, 2003b, Ferris et al., 2007). In such cases, the intent of the perpetrator/political

actor is not to harm others but to serve his/her self interests, and bullying takes place as a rational behavior and a deliberate strategy as part of the political game. Below, the association between bullying and organizational politics and how bullying behaviors can be used as political tactics are explained based, on the previous research on bullying and organizational politics.

As previously mentioned, political behaviors involve a wide range of acts from innocent gestures to criminal or Machiavellian behaviors. This fact has been discussed by different researchers, who offer different classifications of political behaviors. Based on these classifications, it can be argued that Machiavellian attempts to influence outcomes (e.g., sabotage, deception and character assassination) (Sussman et al. 2002), prohibited/illegal behaviors (Drory & Romm, 1988), blocking (Kipnis et al. 1980), blaming or attacking others (scapegoating and making a competitor look bad) and use of information (distorting and manipulating information) (Allen et al., 1979), and illegitimate behaviors (Farrell & Petersen, 1982) can be considered as bullying if they are applied systematically. Salin (2003b) empirically supports this argument by showing the significant positive correlation between the frequency of bullying behaviors and the level of perceived organizational politics.

In situations where bullying is used as political tactics, the aim of the perpetrator is merely to serve his/her self interests rather than harming the victim. However, the victim may perceive these behaviors as bullying and may experience severe consequences, such as depression, social isolation, a high level of stress, low job performance, low satisfaction and intention to leave. At this point, it is worth

reiterating that in order to label a behavior as bullying or not, the perception of the victim is taken into consideration without questioning the real intent of the perpetrator.

Moreover, when the factors or situations that may increase the prevalence of bullying behaviors and organizational politics are examined, it is evident that there are some important similarities. For example, previous research identifies that in organizations, some decision domains have a particularly political nature. Specifically, decisions related to performance appraisal, promotion, organizational structure and positions, organizational changes, recruiting and firing can be influenced by political games (Drory, 1993). Consistent with the argument that bullying can be used as a political game or tactic by the perpetrator, there can be a link between the prevalence of bullying and organizational members' efforts to influence the above listed decision domains. The bullying literature may provide support for this claim. For example, individual performance-based reward systems may stimulate bullying since, in this case, people want to show their individual performance as higher than others, and in order to do that they may bully others (Neuman & Baron, 1998) and try to affect their performance in a negative way. Also, the fact that a demanding and competitive organizational culture stimulates bullying (e.g., Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Rayner et al., 1999; Salin, 2003b; Varita, 1996) can be considered in line with the above argument, because, in these types of organizations, people try to protect their self interest at the expense of the well-being and interest of others. Moreover, it has been clearly identified that the prevalence of bullying increases during change and restructuring periods (e.g., Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Hoel & Salin, 2003; Skogstad et al., 2007b; Soares, 2002; Vartia,

1996; Zapf, 1999) which involve many micro-political behaviors shown to influence decisions.

There are other examples that show bullying can be used by managers or peers to influence or manipulate the victims' behaviors. Without the intent of harming their subordinates, ambitious managers can use bullying in order to increase subordinates performance and achieve challenging organizational goals or compete with other managers (Omari, 2003; Salin, 2003b). Similarly, Brodsky (1976) argues that harassment can be viewed as functional by management and perhaps necessary to achieve productivity and an acceptable performance from employees. Moreover, Ironside and Seifert (2003) build a link between the increasing difficulty of organizational goals and the managers' bullying behaviors. They argue that bullying is used as a means of changing subordinates' behaviors by managers who have to achieve challenging organizational goals. In opposition to this, managers may bully to decrease the performance of their subordinates if they perceive them as potential threats to their career (Salin, 2003b). Hence, the intent of affecting subordinates' performance in a negative or a positive way, as well as manipulating their behavior, is seen as relative to bullying. Guneri (2008) mentions the intersection of bullying and organizational politics based on interviews with two employees working in different positions. The part of the interview which was conducted with a journalist in Turkey emphasizes the relationship between bullying and managers' manipulative behavior: *".....There is no such thing as a free journalist, that's definitely utopian. The news is shaped first by the chief of intelligence and then the editor-in-chief. As an editor, I am below the editor-in-chief and the chief of broadcasting; if they have special demands,*

we are put in the position of changing, even distorting, the news as they please in order to keep our social security. If I were to say "I will not publish it like this, so I quit" no one really cares. Before you can tell them you are not going to write the news, and that some one else should do it, you have to consider all the psychological consequences. The manager will keep a certain attitude and will become less tolerant towards you. Then the verbal abuse begins, which might even lead to a psychological trauma. He begins to misuse his personal initiative, giving you less time-off, questioning your performance, saying that you lack enthusiasm; ultimately, more and more people begin to talk about you. We all have been through that. In such a case, you have no choice but to custom make the news....." (p.169-170)

She conducted another interview with a consultant who worked as a top manager in different organizations located in Turkey. This interview underlines the argument that bullying can be used as an effective political tactic to ensure the dismissal of the victim. As is seen below, the most interesting point of the transcription is that it is from someone who acted as both the victim and the perpetrator in different settings. *".....Following this incident, I received a job offer for the position of general manager in a textile company, a large firm with a Turkish-American partnership. I was to head the Izmir office. I accepted their offer, and after a two-month internship in USA, I began to work in the firm. My time spent there taught me about the importance of design in creating value. Even though I learned a lot in that company, I was not able to work there for a long time because of my Turkish bosses' attitudes towards me. It was as if they did not like me working there; no matter what I did, it was always criticized harshly. They would refuse all my suggestions, and after an elapse of some time, my*

ideas would be promoted and implemented as their own ideas. When I got to work and as I left, they would glance at their watches as if to imply something. This attitude of theirs was not just towards me but towards all the others who were not family members. Their behavior was not limited to only one or two occasions, but it was constant. After a while, I could no longer get any work done. I had a feeling that they were doing this deliberately so that I would resign. They would not terminate me since they were apprehensive about their American partners' reaction, and they did not want to give me severance pay, so they were doing everything in their power to get me to quit. I finally felt that I had had enough of it and left. I don't think what went on in that company was unique to them: I have seen other places where power was abused for intimidating employees. Actually, if I have to be honest, I might have done that once or twice myself. It's a very effective method which gets results. I know that it's wrong and that it should not be done, that's something you understand better in the long run....." (p. 177-178).

Regarding the use of bullying as a political tactic which aims to provide the dismissal of the target, similar findings have been found in the study of Samanci (2001). He identifies that managers may deliberately bully during economic crises because through bullying they can push some of their employees out of the organization without paying any severance allowances

In line with the above mentioned arguments and findings, Ferris et al. (2007) examine bullying in the context of destructive leadership and indicate that it can be considered as a type of organizational politics. They argue that leaders and managers

may deliberately bully their subordinates, not only to push them out of the organization, but also to manipulate their behaviors and achieve organizational goals.

As seen above, the intersection between bullying and organizational politics has generally been examined from the perspective of manager-subordinate relationships. However, it can be argued that bullying can be used as a micro-political behavior among peers. As mentioned above, the level of competition among employees, and the identification of individual performance reward-based systems as a stimulator of bullying, may support this argument. This point has also been emphasized in the study of Katrinli et al. (2008). They examined different horizontal bullying behaviors among nurses as political tactics, and they found that different bullying behaviors were perceived as effective political tactics. Moreover, the effectiveness of bullying behaviors may change according to the decision domains that the perpetrator aims to influence.

It is worth noting that the above arguments and examples should not be interpreted as though bullying and organizational politics are the same concepts. This point is emphasized by Zapf and Einarsen (2003). They state that although there are some similarities between bullying and organizational politics, the interpretation of bullying behavior as political tactics may lead to an underestimation of the severe effects of bullying as, in this case, it may be treated as an ordinary part of professional life. Considering this hazard, I argue that bullying and organizational politics are not the same but two related concepts and in some cases bullying behaviors can be

considered as a part of organizational politics, without the intent of underestimating the severe consequences of bullying.

CHAPTER-4

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

As discussed in theoretical background, in some cases, bullying may be deliberately done for serving self interests of the perpetrators (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Brodsky, 1976; Omari, 2003). If it is deliberately done to serve self interests of the perpetrators, it can be considered as a form of organizational politics (Ferris et al., 2007; Salin, 2003; Samanci, 2001).

Although literature shows that bullying may be a form of organizational politics, to my knowledge only one study has addressed the perceived effectiveness of those behaviors as political tactics (Katrinli et al., 2008). The purpose of this study was to discover whether there is any change in the perceived effectiveness of horizontal bullying behaviors across the different decision domains that the perpetrator attempts to influence. Results identified that perceived effectiveness of horizontal bullying behaviors may vary according to the aim of political actor. For example, to influence decisions related to promotion, task assignments and organizational structure, effects on the victims' occupational situation was perceived as the most effective bullying behavior while the perceived effectiveness of effects on victims' physical health is highest when the aim is the dismissal of the victim.

Hence, it can be argued that the number of studies which emphasized the relationship between bullying and organizational politics is remarkably low when compared to importance of the subject. As identifying the intersection of bullying and organizational politics will provide important implications, especially in prevention of bullying, it is expected that more interest will be shown by researchers.

Based on this gap in the bullying and organizational politics literature, this study emphasized the association between bullying and organizational politics based on the argument that political actors tried to serve their own self-interest by influencing major organizational decision domains through different tactics, including bullying. Accordingly, the first aim of the study is to examine bullying behaviors as political tactics and identify whether there is a difference in the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors across different decision domains that the perpetrator aims to influence.

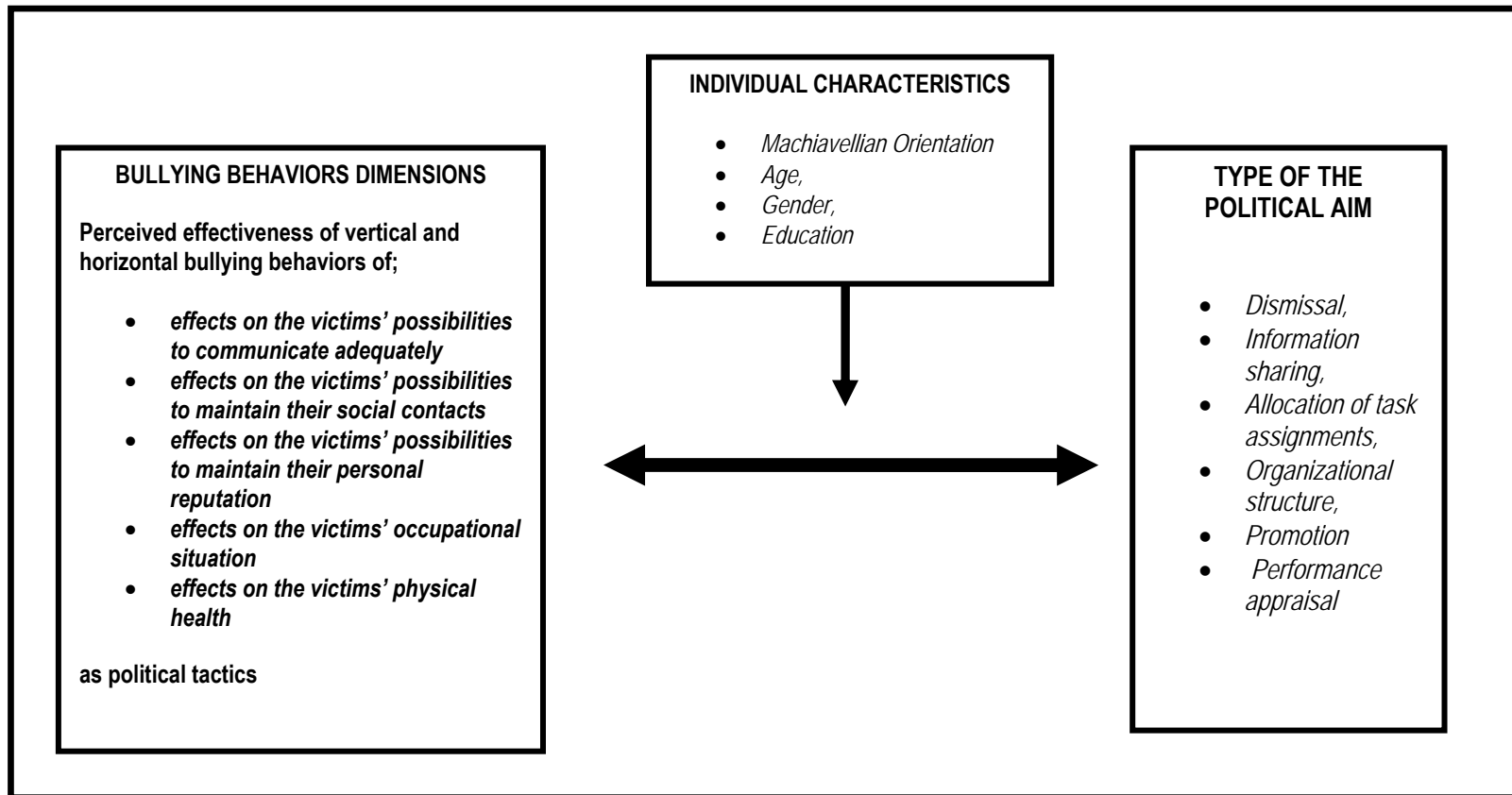
Furthermore, as explained in the organizational politics section, people's perceptions of organizational politics can be affected by many factors such as age, gender, education (Ferris et al., 1989), Machiavellianism (Ferris et al., 1989; O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), self monitoring (Ferris et al., 1989), locus of control (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), need for power (Vrendenburgh & Maurer, 1984), and negative and positive affectivity (Valle et al., 2002). Accordingly, it may be expected that some of those factors may also affect the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics. It is worth noting that among the personality characteristics mentioned above, Machiavellian orientation can be considered as the most relevant to the focus of the study as it represents people's tendency to engage in unethical acts. Hence, the

second aim of this research is to identify the effects of age, gender, education and Machiavellian orientation of the respondents at the level of perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics.

Accordingly, the relationship between the “perceived effectiveness of different horizontal and vertical bullying behaviors” and “different organizational decision domains” was determined as a dependent variable in the current study, and respondents’ Machiavellian orientation, and demographic characteristics such as age, gender and education were determined as independent variables. The research model, which incorporates dependent and independent variables in the context of the study, is illustrated in Figure-4.1.

As seen in the model, bullying behaviors was examined in different dimensions as in line with the multidimensionality of bullying concept. Among the different classifications in the literature, Leymann’s classification (1996) of bullying behaviors was chosen in the current study for three reasons. First of all, the effectiveness of bullying behaviors determined in this classification as political tactics has been tested in Turkish culture in a previous research (Katrinli et al., 2008). Second, the number of the dimensions and their contents were suitable for the vignette method, the main research tool in the study. Third, this classification covers main bullying behaviors that were determined in the literature.

**FIGURE-4.1: FACTORS AFFECTING THE PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS
ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS**



The major organizational decision domains that political actors might want to influence were determined as; promotion, task assignments, dismissal, sharing information, performance appraisal and organizational structure based on the classification of Drory (1993), and their relevance with organizational antecedents of bullying. Below the relevance of bullying to these decision domains is explained.

As previous research indicates, bullying might be deliberately done to influence dismissal decisions, since the most cited reason of being bullied is stated by victims as; *"They wanted to push me out of the company"* (Zapf, 1999, p:76; Zapf et al., 1995). Bullying can be seen as an effective tool not only among peers but also between managers and subordinates, in order to influence dismissal decisions. As mentioned above, Ferris et al. (2007) argue that leaders and managers may deliberately bully subordinates to force them out of the organization. Samanci (2001) supports this argument and showed that managers may deliberately bully during economic crises because in this way they can eliminate employees out of the organization without paying severance allowances.

Another cited reason for bullying was related to poor information flow in organizations (Vartia, 1996). Since having accurate information on time is vital for decision making, controlling information is considered as a source of power. It was argued that in organizations people tend to hold back knowledge to maintain a competitive advantage (Liu, 2008). Through withholding and distorting information, perpetrators can intervene the decision making process. Hence, bullying can be seen as an effective tool for influencing decisions regarding information flow.

The characteristics of organization's culture have been frequently cited as the factors that may stimulate bullying. Research indicates that if an organization can be characterized by its demanding, competitive culture (Seigne, 1998) instead of a cooperative culture, it will be a suitable place for bullying. Also, research conducted among university employees showed that the victims perceive that the reasons of bullying emerged from the competition for job and status (Björkqvist et al., 1994). Similarly, Rayner et al. (1999) and Aquino and Lamertz (2004) state that bullying is observed more frequently in organizations which can be characterized by its competitive culture, due to the fact that one of the reasons for bullying is competition for tasks or achieving supervisors' approval. Since the causes of bullying are seen as relevant to competition for status, tasks and advancement of the supervisors' approval, bullying is likely to be perceived as an effective tool to influence decisions regarding allocation of task assignments, promotion and organizational structure.

It is also known that individual performance based reward systems may stimulate bullying since, in this case, people want to show individual performance as higher than others, and may bully in order to do this (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Hence, bullying may be perceived as an effective tool to influence decisions related to performance appraisal.

Based on the explanations above, this study hypothesized that different dimensions of horizontal and vertical bullying will be perceived as effective political

tactics for influencing six major organizational decision domains. Thus, the first hypothesis of the study was formulated below.

Hypothesis-1a: Different dimensions of vertical bullying will be perceived as effective political tactics for influencing organizational decisions regarding dismissal, information sharing, allocation of task assignments, organizational structure, promotion, and performance appraisal.

Hypothesis-1b: Different dimensions of horizontal bullying will be perceived as effective political tactics for influencing organizational decisions regarding dismissal, information sharing, allocation of task assignments, organizational structure, promotion, and performance appraisal.

As the contents of bullying dimensions are different, it may be expected that their perceived effectiveness as political tactics to influence different organizational decisions may differ. This point was investigated by Katrinli et al. (2008). According to their findings, different dimensions of bullying were perceived as more effective in influencing particular organizational decisions and gaining personal objectives. For instance, bullying behaviors which were related to affecting victims' occupational situation were perceived as the most effective bullying behaviors in order to influence decisions regarding promotion, allocation of tasks/personal benefits/equipment and operational means, organization structure and performance appraisal. However, when people aimed to influence recruiting and dismissal decisions, the most effective bullying behaviors were perceived as affecting victims' physical health. Hence it can be

considered that there is a change in the level of perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors with respect to different political aims. Based on this argument, the second hypothesis of the study was formulated as;

Hypothesis-2a: The perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions in vertical bullying will differ according to the decision domains that people aim to influence.

Hypothesis-2b: The perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions in horizontal bullying will differ according to the decision domains that people aim to influence.

As stated above, bullying may take place between peers, and between managers and their subordinates. Some researchers mention this fact and state that the question of “whether leadership bullying and the peer bullying are the same concepts or they are distinct enough to be considered as different concepts that occur under different circumstances” should be answered (Einarsen, 1999). When the literature of bullying is examined, it can be said that although there is a small number of studies which focused on exclusively leadership bullying (Ferris, 2007), there has not been enough empirical evidence to distinguish these terms. However, this point would seem to be important for further research. According to this need, this study also investigates whether the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors will differ in horizontal and vertical bullying. Thus, the third hypothesis of the study is as follows.

Hypothesis-3: The perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions will differ in horizontal and vertical bullying.

As mentioned above, the other group of factors that are expected to influence to the perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors is related to people's demographic characteristics such as age, gender and education. The effects of these factors on the perceived effectiveness of bullying as political tactics are expected due to the fact that they affect perceptions of organizational politics. However, no specific conclusions about the effects of those factors can be identified since their effects on the perceptions of organizational politics are not seen as clear due to equivocal research findings. In the case of gender, many studies state that women perceive their environment as more politicized than men (Fernandez, 1981; Ferris et al., 1989; Rosen, 1982). However, other researchers argued that men tend to be more involved in political activity. Hence, they perceive politics as a part of ordinary work life and report their environment as not highly politicized. A similar problem is seen regarding the role of age, as some studies found that a positive relationship between age and perceptions of organizational politics, while others found negative relationships (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Parker et al., 1995). Finally, regarding education, it is argued that high education might help to reduce ambiguity and decrease the level of POPs (Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). However, research findings either provide no empirical support (e.g., Parker et al., 1995) or indicate a minor effect of level of education (e.g., Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). Thus, the fourth hypothesis argues that age, gender and education level may affect the perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors across different political aims without indicating a specific direction.

Hypothesis-4a: The perceived effectiveness of different vertical bullying dimensions across different political aims will differ according to people's demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and education.

Hypothesis-4b: The perceived effectiveness of different horizontal bullying dimensions across different political aims will differ according to people's demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and education.

In the model, the third group of factors that may affect perceived effectiveness of using bullying behaviors as political tactics was determined as personality characteristics. According to the literature, personality characteristics such as Machiavellianism (Ferris et al., 1989; O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), self monitoring (Ferris et al., 1989), locus of control (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), need for power (Vrendenburgh & Maurer, 1984), and negative and positive affectivity (Valle et al., 2002) may influence perceptions of organizational politics. Among these factors, Machiavellianism may affect the perceived effectiveness of using bullying behaviors as political tactics. As a personality construct, Machiavellianism is defined as the ability to view and manipulate others for personal purposes (Christie & Geis, 1970). In another definition, it is emphasized that Machiavellianism denotes a cluster of cynical beliefs about human nature, morality, and the acceptability of using various manipulative tactics to satisfy one's goals (Johns, 1992). Hence, it is expected that individuals who are high in Machiavellianism are dominated by manipulation and opportunism. When talking about negative personality or unethical behavior, Machiavellian orientation is always mentioned since they tend to engage in unethical activities in order to serve

their self interests (Liu, 2008). For people who are high in Machiavellianism results can justify the means. Accordingly, it can be expected that people who are high in Machiavellianism will perceive bullying behaviors as more effective political tactics than people who are low in Machiavellianism. Hence, the fifth hypothesis of the study was;

Hypothesis-5a: People who are high in Machiavellianism will perceive bullying behaviors as more effective compared to people who are low in Machiavellianism in vertical bullying.

Hypothesis-5b: People who are high in Machiavellianism will perceive bullying behaviors as more effective compared to people who are low in Machiavellianism in horizontal bullying.

As explained above, in this study, two main questions are addressed. First; “how effective do people perceive bullying behaviors as political tactics in organizations?” Second; “what factors may affect their perceived effectiveness as political tactics?”. Hence, this study has attempted to explain bullying as a form of organizational politics. However, bullying is a complex phenomenon which is the result of many interacting factors. Thus, explaining it as only a form of organizational politics may not be a sufficient argument. The characteristics of victims and perpetrators, and the nature of their relationship, as well as the many organizational factors, may create a suitable environment for bullying behaviors.

Based on the multidimensionality of bullying incidents (Devenport et al., 1999; Jennifer et al., 2003; Lee & Brotheridge, 2006; Leymann, 1996; Omari, 2003; Vartia, 1993; Zapf et al., 1996), it can be argued that different reasons may lead to different bullying behaviors. Hence, the perceived relevancy of the different reasons for bullying may change according to different bullying dimensions.

In the literature, different factors were cited as antecedents of bullying. However, they can be considered under two main groups; individual and organizational antecedents. In this study, as individual antecedents of bullying, three factors were incorporated; personality clashes between the victim and the perpetrator, envy (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Einarsen et al., 1994), and psychological problems of the perpetrator (Atkinson, 2000; Einarsen, 2000; Zapf, 1999). Also, as organizational antecedents of bullying, four factors were added, namely, deficiencies of work design (e.g., Einarsen, 1999), competitive organizational culture (e.g., Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Björkqvist et al., 1994; Rayner et al., 1999; Salin, 2003; Seigne, 1998; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, et al., 1995), organizational change (e.g., Soares, 2002; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999), and low attention of management (e.g., Rayner et al., 1999; Leymann, 1996; Omari, 2003, Zapf, 1999). These factors were selected among all the potential antecedents of bullying since they were cited in many studies as the most common antecedents of bullying. Accordingly, the final hypotheses of the study were formulated below.

Hypothesis-6a: The perceived relevancy of different reasons with different bullying dimensions in vertical bullying will differ.

Hypothesis-6b: The perceived relevancy of different reasons with different bullying dimensions in horizontal bullying will differ.

CHAPTER-5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Participants and Procedures

To test the hypotheses, data was collected from employees who were working at different levels (managers, white and blue collar employees, teachers/academicians) of business organizations operating in manufacturing and service industries, as well as in public institutions, in Izmir in 2009. Hence, a convenience sampling method, using an elimination criterion as being employed in an organization, was used for the current study. The reason for using this elimination criterion was related to the nature of the questions that were used in the study. As will be explained in the Measures Section in detail, a vignette method was being employed as a main investigation tool. Since it was required that participants reflected their observations as well as experiences while answering the questions related to each vignette, “being currently employed” was determined as a condition of being a participant.

As will be explained in the Measures Section in detail, two different questionnaires were used, one for vertical and the other for horizontal bullying. Hence, data was collected from two different samples. As the similarity of the two samples in terms of demographic characteristics was essential for the accuracy of the analyses

and results, during the data collection period of 4 weeks, the distribution of demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education and income level, tenure as well as employment in a public or a private organization and work in the service or manufacturing industry, were controlled regularly. Results guided the further steps of data collection.

In the distribution of the questionnaires, two main data collection methods were employed. First of all, 500 questionnaires, 250 for vertical and 250 for horizontal bullying, were distributed to different companies located in Izmir along with a cover letter, which informed participants about the general aims of the study. Also, with the same cover letter, participants were informed that it was not necessary to indicate their identities. After a period of one week, the completed questionnaires were collected from the companies, and for the incomplete ones, a reminder was sent. One week after sending the reminder, companies were revisited and completed questionnaires were collected. At the end of two weeks, 160 horizontal and 102 vertical bullying questionnaires were collected. Hence, among the distributed 500 questionnaires 262 were collected resulting with a 52.4% response rate. 4 horizontal and 1 vertical bullying questionnaires were excluded from the analysis because they were incomplete.

As indicated above, the similarity of the two samples in terms of demographic characteristics was essential for the accuracy of the analyses and results. Hence, data was entered into the SPSS-16 programme, and the demographic characteristics of the two samples were compared. In this way, an outline which identified the necessary

qualifications of future respondents was obtained. Based on the outline, the data collection process continued with the second data collection method.

As the second method of data collection, creating online surveys for vertical and horizontal bullying was used because of its advantage of reaching more participants at lower cost in a lesser period of time. Over a period of two weeks, the links of vertical and horizontal bullying questionnaires were emailed to 400 participants with a cover letter which explained the general aims of the study and assured participants that their identities would be confidential. At the end of two weeks, 198 online questionnaires, 82 for horizontal and 116 for vertical bullying, were completed. Hence, a 49.5% response rate was obtained. It should also be noted that, in that two weeks period, respondents' demographic characteristics were controlled daily to achieve similarity in these two samples.

With the employment of the above mentioned two main data collection methods (238 horizontal and 217 vertical bullying) a total of 455 questionnaires were collected, resulting in a 51.11% response rate.

53.5% ($n_1=116$) of the participants, who responded to the vertical bullying questionnaire, were female. 26.3% ($n_1=57$) of them had high school and lower education degree, 6.9% ($n_1=15$) had graduated from vocational school, 47.5% ($n_1=103$) were university graduates and 19.4% ($n_1=42$) had Masters and PhD degrees. The mean age was 34.91 ($sd=9.6$). In respect of income, 17.5% ($n_1=38$) of the respondents reported low and middle-low, 51.6% ($n_1=112$) middle, and 29.5% ($n_1=64$) middle-high

and high income levels. Although tenure was asked by means of an open-ended question, results were grouped for further analysis. 15.7% ($n_1=34$) had less than 1 year, 42.9% ($n_1=93$) 1-5 years, 20.3% ($n_1=44$) 6-10 years, 8.3% ($n_1=18$) 11-15 years and the remaining 9.7% ($n_1=21$) 16 or more years of tenure. 10.1% ($n_1=22$) of them had managerial positions (owners/managers), 49.8% ($n_1=108$) worked as white collar employees and 14.7% ($n_1=32$) as a blue collar employees, while 25.3% ($n_1=55$) were teachers/academicians. 23.5% ($n_1=51$) of the respondents were employed in public institutions while the remaining 74.7% ($n_1=162$) worked in private business organizations. Finally, 71.4% ($n_1=155$) worked in service, while 26.3% ($n_1=57$) in manufacturing industries.

Among the total of the 238 respondents who answered the horizontal bullying questionnaire, 55% ($n_2=131$) were female. 20.6% ($n_2=49$) had a high school and lower educational level, 5.5% ($n_2=13$) had a vocational school degree, 54.6% ($n_2=130$) had graduated from university, and 19.3% ($n_2=46$) had Masters and PhD degrees. The age mean was 34 ($sd=10.02$). 26.9% ($n_2=64$) of the participants reported low and middle-low income levels, 50.8% ($n_2=121$) had middle incomes, and 21.8% ($n_2=52$) reported middle-high and high income levels. As stated above, the participants' answers about tenure were grouped for further analysis. Accordingly, 13.4% ($n_2=32$) of them had less than a year, 51.7% ($n_2=123$) 1-5 years, 15.1% ($n_2=36$) 6-10 years, 5.9% ($n_2=14$) 11-15 years and remaining 7.1% ($n_2=17$) 16 or more years of tenure. 10.5% ($n_2=25$) of the respondents had managerial positions (manager/owner), 51.7% ($n_2=123$) worked as white collar employees and 9.7% ($n_2=23$) as a blue collar employees, and 28.2% ($n_2=67$) were teachers/academicians. 17.6% ($n_2=42$) of them were employed in public

institutions, while the remaining 81.1% ($n_2=193$) were employed in private business organizations. Finally, 68.1% ($n_2=162$) worked in the service industry while 31.1% ($n_2=74$) worked in the manufacturing industry. Table-5.1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the two samples.

TABLE 5.1- DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

		Vertical Bullying Questionnaire		Horizontal Bullying Questionnaire	
		$n_1=217$	%	$n_2=238$	%
Gender	Female	116	53.5	132	55
	<i>Male</i>	101	46.5	106	45
Education	<i>High School and lower</i>	57	26.3	49	20.6
	<i>Vocational School</i>	15	6.9	13	5.5
	<i>University</i>	103	47.5	130	54.6
	<i>Graduate Study</i>	42	19.4	46	19.3
Income	<i>High</i>	11	5.1	6	2.5
	<i>Medium-High</i>	53	24.4	46	19.3
	<i>Medium</i>	112	51.6	121	50.8
	<i>Medium-Low</i>	30	13.8	56	23.5
	<i>Low</i>	8	3.7	8	3.4
Position	<i>Manager/Owner</i>	22	10.1	25	10.5
	<i>White Collar</i>	108	49.8	123	51.7
	<i>Blue Collar</i>	32	14.7	23	9.7
	<i>Teacher/Academicians</i>	55	25.3	67	28.2
Institution	<i>Public</i>	51	23.5	42	17.6
	<i>Private</i>	162	74.7	193	81.1
Industry	<i>Service</i>	155	71.4	162	68.1
	<i>Manufacturing</i>	57	26.3	74	31.1
Tenure	<i>Less than 1 year</i>	34	15.7	32	13.4
	<i>1-5 years</i>	93	42.9	123	51.7
	<i>6-10 years</i>	44	20.3	36	15.1
	<i>11-15 years</i>	18	8.3	14	5.9
	<i>16 years and more</i>	21	9.7	17	7.1
Age	<i>29 and younger</i>	57	26.3	49	20.6
	<i>Between 30-45</i>	15	6.9	13	5.5
	<i>46 and older</i>	103	47.5	130	54.6

As stated above, the similarity of the two samples, in terms of demographics, was crucial for the accuracy of the results. Therefore, before conducting any further analysis, the similarity of the demographic characteristics was controlled by conducting chi-square and t-test analyses. The results of the chi-square analyses showed that two samples were not statistically significantly different in terms of gender $\chi^2 (1, N=455)=.12 p>0.5$, education $\chi^2 (3, N=455)=3.09 p>0.5$ and income levels $\chi^2 (4, N=451)=9.02 p>0.5$, occupations/positions $\chi^2 (3, N=455)=2.85 p>0.5$, tenure $\chi^2 (4, N=432)=5.62 p>0.5$, type of institutions $\chi^2 (1, N=448)=2.50 p>0.5$ and type of industry $\chi^2 (1, N=448)=1.08 p>0.5$ where they worked. Also, t-tests results identified that there was no statistically significant difference between the two samples in terms of age ($M_1=34.91 SD_1=9.61, M_2=34.00 SD_2=10.02$), $t(450)=0.98, p=0.328$.

5.2. Measures

5.2.1. Perceived Effectiveness of Bullying Behaviors

The perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors in influencing major organizational decision domains was measured by written vignettes. The main reason for using vignettes was related to the nature of the subjects that were under study. Bullying and organizational politics may be considered as subjects that people are willing to discuss, thus causing, some difficulties in data collection. Especially for bullying, collecting data from observers and perpetrators can be somewhat problematic (Avergold, 2007). Vignettes are recognized as being particularly useful in the study of

potentially difficult topics or when ethical issues are addressed (Hughes & Huby, 2001). As argued in this study, bullying others in order to achieve one's personal goals can be considered as unethical because of the severe consequences of bullying on victims. Thus, asking people whether they engage in this kind of behavior to achieve their personal goals, or asking how effective they see engaging in bullying is in order to serve their self interest may not provide reliable data. It is also expected that the social desirability bias may affect the accuracy of the data, and people may tend to deny their engagement in bullying to create positive impressions. It should also be noted that the vignette method is seen as useful in decreasing the social desirability bias in social sciences (Hughes & Huby, 2001). Hence, it is frequently preferred for investigating topics where a social desirability bias may heavily affect the reliability of data, such as drug use (Link et al., 1999), and sexual and aggressive behaviors (Hall & Hirschman, 1994).

Written vignettes were prepared with the contribution of five experts in the organizational behavior field, who have general knowledge of bullying and its main premises. Written vignettes were prepared according to Leymann's classification (1996) of bullying behaviors, which involved five main bullying dimensions. The content of each bullying dimension is summarized in Table-5.2. Although the vignettes dealt with different dimensions of bullying, and had different contents, some points reflecting the main characteristics of bullying incidents, were common in all the vignettes. Hence, the repeated and enduring nature of the behavior, negative perception of the victim, and the perceived power differences were mentioned in all the vignettes.

TABLE 5-2: CONTENT OF THE VIGNETTES

Vignettes	The Type of Bullying	Bullying Dimensions and Behaviors under Each Dimension
1h	Horizontal	Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately; Victim is silenced, verbal attacks against the victim regarding work tasks, verbal threats, verbal activities in order to reject the victim
2h	Horizontal	Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts; Colleagues do not talk with the victim any longer, victim is isolated in a room far away from others
3h	Horizontal	Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation; Gossiping about the victim, others ridicule the victim, others make fun about the victim's handicap, ethnical heritage, or the way the victim move or talk
4h	Horizontal	Effects on the victims' occupational situation; Victim is not given any work tasks at all or given meaningless work tasks
5h	Horizontal	Effects on the victims' physical health; Victim is given dangerous work tasks, others threaten the victim physically or the victim is attacked physically or the victim is sexually harassed
1v	Vertical	Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately; Victim is silenced, verbal attacks against the victim regarding work tasks, verbal threats, verbal activities in order to reject the victim
2v	Vertical	Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts; Colleagues do not talk with the victim any longer, victim is isolated in a room far away from others
3v	Vertical	Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation; Gossiping about the victim, others ridicule the victim, others make fun about the victim's handicap, ethnical heritage, or the way the victim move or talk
4v	Vertical	Effects on the victims' occupational situation; Victim is not given any work tasks at all or given meaningless work tasks
5v	Vertical	Effects on the victims' physical health; Victim is given dangerous work tasks, others threaten the victim physically or the victim is attacked physically or the victim is sexually harassed

A total of 10 vignettes were prepared in two groups. In the first, there were five episodes, which examined each bullying dimension for horizontal (peer) bullying. In the

second group, there were again five episodes, which explained each bullying dimension in vertical (manager-subordinate) bullying. As expected, in the first group of vignettes, one of coworkers acted as the perpetrator and the other acted as the victim. In the second group of vignettes, a manager acted as the perpetrator and the subordinate acted as the victim. Between the vignettes which explained the same dimension in horizontal and vertical bullying, the only difference was the perpetrator and the remaining contents were the same. Bullying incidents, in which a subordinate acting as a perpetrator and a manager being the victim, much less frequently encountered compared to above forms of bullying (Hoel et al., 2001; Soares, 2002; Zapf et al., 2003). Hence, this situation was not included in the study due to the time and resource limitations.

In the vignettes the names of the victims and the perpetrators were written by using letters such as "Person A" and "Person B" or "Manager A" and "Person B" instead of using real names. The reason of not using real names was to omit the effect of gender. Since it can be expected that gender of the perpetrator and the victim may affect the perception of potential causes of bullying and aims of the perpetrator, writing episodes which emphasized the victims' and perpetrators' genders might affect participants' responses. Although it could be argued that vignettes that explained bullying behaviors between men and men, men and women, women and men, and women and women could be written, this would increase the number of vignettes from 10 to 40. Due to time and resource limitations and the fact that this point was not the main study concern, removing gender effect through using letters in place of names was preferred.

After the 10 episodes were prepared, they were evaluated by a group of 20 judges, all the members of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Izmir University of Economics. They were able to match each episode with the appropriate bullying dimension, with ease, and thus the episodes were placed in the questionnaires. All the episodes are shown in Appendix-1 and Appendix-2. Also, a sample vignettes was given below in order to provide clear understanding about their contents.

“Person A” had been seen as a preferred person to work with by colleagues. However, he/she felt that his/her image have begun to change in the eyes of his/her colleagues since appointment of a new manager to the department. The manager often gossiped about “Person A” and made his/her mistakes more visible. Also, the manager ridiculed his/her behaviors, imitated him/her and persistently criticized his/her private life. After a while, “Person A”'s relationship with his/her colleagues was damaged. “Person A” could not understand the reason for the manager’s behaviors and couldn’t know what he/she should do to cope with it. Person A thought that he/she was not happy with his/her colleagues as he/she believed that they always gossiped about him/her.”

As asking respondents to read as many as 10 vignettes and answering the questions might have decreased the response rate and reliability of the responses, two separate questionnaires, each including five vignettes, were prepared. In the first questionnaire, five vignettes which involved horizontal bullying took place. In the second one, there were five vignettes representing vertical bullying.

5.2.2 Decision Domains that Perpetrator Aim to Influence

Respondents were asked to read each vignette and answer the questions that followed. The first question was related to the major organizational decision domains that the perpetrators aimed to influence and formulated as; *“The possible aims of the behaviors of person/manager A (refers to the perpetrator indicated in the vignette) are listed below. Please read them and indicate the effectiveness of those behaviors for reaching that aim on a five-point scale (1=totally ineffective and 5=totally effective)”*. The aim list included 6 items, each referred to one organizational decision domain. As explained above, decision domains were selected from ten major organizational decision domains that were mostly subjected to organizational politics (Drory, 1993) based on their relevance with the antecedents of bullying. They were promotion, task assignments, dismissal, information sharing, performance appraisal and organizational structure. A sample item which referred to task assignment decisions in vertical bullying was; *“The manager aimed to create a situation in which Person A had to accept the tasks that no one else was willing to carry out”*.

5.2.3 Other Potential Reasons

The second question addressed the other potential reasons of bullying. It was formulated as; *“Other possible reasons of the behaviors of person A (refers to the perpetrator indicated in the vignette) are listed below. Please read them and indicate the relevancy with his/her behaviors on a five-point Likert scale (1=totally irrelevant and*

5=totally relevant)". As it was explained in prior sections, bullying occurs as result of different interacting factors. Hence, wide ranges of individual and organizational factors were involved in antecedents of bullying. In this study, as individual antecedents of bullying, three items were included to the reason list, namely; clashing personalities of the victim and the perpetrator (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2006; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003), envy (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Einarsen et al., 1994) and the perpetrator's psychological problems (Atkinson, 2000; Einarsen, 2000; Zapf, 1999). As organizational-related antecedents of bullying, four items were added as follows: deficiencies of work design (Einarsen, 1999), competitive organizational culture (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Björkqvist et al., 1994; Rayner et al., 1999; Salin, 2003; Seigne, 1998; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, et al., 1995), organizational change (Soares, 2002; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999), and low attention of management (Rayner et al., 1999; Leymann, 1996; Omari, 2003, Zapf, 1999). These items were selected since they were cited in many studies as the most common organizational related antecedents of bullying.

5.2.3 Machiavellian Orientation

Machiavellian orientation was measured by Mach IV scale (Christie & Geiss, 1970) since it was widely used in many studies and found to be a reliable scale (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001). Mach-4 scale consisted of 20 statements that respondents indicate their level of agreement on a five point Likert scale (1=totally disagree to 5= totally agree). In the original scale, 10 of 20 statements were reversed.

However, in Turkish translation version, 9 statements were reversed in order to protect meaningfulness of the statements. Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.68 in this study.

In addition to questions related to the vignettes, both of the questionnaires consisted of questions regarding demographics such as age, gender, education, tenure, income, type of the working organization, type of the sector and Machiavellian orientation. Vertical bullying questionnaire was shown in Appendix-1 and horizontal bullying questionnaire in Appendix-2.

5.3 Results

To test the Hypotheses 1a and 1b, which were about the perceived effectiveness of bullying dimensions, one sample t-tests were used for each political aim in both horizontal and vertical bullying. Hence, total of 12 (6x2) one sample t-tests, which compared the means with a constant, were run. 3 was selected as the constant since it referred to the indifference point on a five point Likert scale. Results provided full support for Hypothesis-1a and partial support for Hypothesis-1b. Table-5.3 showed the results for Hypothesis-1a and Table-5.4 for the Hypothesis-1b. As it is seen in Table-5.3 respondents perceived bullying as an effective political tactic to achieve all the stated aims when it is applied by a manager towards a subordinate. The situation in horizontal bullying is similar. As indicated in Table-5.4, respondents perceived bullying behaviors as effective political tactics to influence the stated organizational decision domains except for decisions related to information sharing. Accordingly, the main

argument of this study that bullying may be carried out to influence major organizational domains and in turn serve the perpetrator's self interest was empirically supported.

TABLE 5.3: ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS-1A

	N₁	M₁	SD₁	(M₁-3)	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Promotion	208	3.65	.76	0.65	12.34	207	.000**
Task Assignment	206	3.30	.81	0.30	5.33	205	.000**
Dismissal	206	3.93	.73	0.93	18.32	205	.000**
Information Sharing	209	3.16	.81	0.16	2.81	208	.005**
Performance Appraisal	207	3.83	.66	0.83	18.02	206	.000**
Organizational Structure	210	4.03	.69	1.03	21.61	209	.000**

TABLE 5.4: ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS-1B

	N₂	M₂	SD₂	(M₂-3)	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Promotion	235	3.46	.75	.46	9.49	234	.000**
Task Assignment	236	3.62	.70	.62	13.60	235	.000**
Dismissal	230	3.62	.77	.62	12.30	229	.000**
Information Sharing	136	3.07	.77	.07	1.03	135	.307
Performance Appraisal	236	3.69	.67	.69	15.79	235	.000**
Organizational Structure	235	3.79	.71	.79	17.11	234	.000**

In order to test Hypotheses-2a, which claimed that perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions in vertical bullying differed according to the decision domains that people aimed to influence, one-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analysis was employed for each decision domain. Results showed that the perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors as political tactics differed across decision domains. Accordingly, full support for Hypotheses-2a was obtained. Table-5.5 showed the descriptive statistics of one-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analysis. To identify

the mean differences of each bullying behavior dimension for influencing organizational decision domains, LSD tests were run for 6 organizational decision domains.

Results showed that perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors for influencing promotion decisions in vertical bullying statistically significantly differed (*Wilks' Lambda*=.86, $F(4,204)=8.35$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.75). Among the different bullying dimensions, perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” was significantly lower than perceived effectiveness of other dimensions except for “effects on the victims’ physical health”.

TABLE 5-5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT VERTICAL BULLYING DIMENSIONS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

Type of the vignette \ Type of the political aim	Being promoted		Intervening task assignments		Achieving dismissal of victim		Affecting information sharing decisions		Affecting performance appraisal results		Affecting organization structure	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
A) Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	3.78	1.15	2.94	1.31	3.95	1.09	3.06	1.23	3.83	1.08	3.78	1.15
B) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	3.34	1.22	3.39	1.19	3.87	1.02	3.26	1.21	3.45*	1.14	3.34	1.22
C) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	3.84***	1.31	3.04	1.28	3.97	1.12	3.06	1.22	4.05	.98	3.84***	1.32
D) Effects on the victims' occupational situation	3.81	1.62	3.64**	1.21	3.73	1.15	3.37****	1.27	3.94	1.11	3.81	1.16
E) Effects on the victims' physical health	3.47	1.28	3.50	1.29	4.13*	1.05	3.03	1.17	3.87	1.03	3.47	1.28

* This mean differs significantly from means in all other vignettes.

** This mean differs significantly from means of vignettes A, B and C.

*** This mean differs significantly from means of vignettes B and E.

**** This mean differs significantly from means of vignettes A, C and E.

A statistically significant difference was found in the perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions for affecting task assignment decision (*Wilks' Lambda=.80, F(4,202)=12.82, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.20*). As identified by pair wise comparisons, perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” was significantly higher than others with the exception of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts”.

Effectiveness of different bullying dimensions was perceived as significantly different for influencing dismissal decision (*Wilks' Lambda=.90, F(4,202)=5.46, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.10*). “Effects on the victims’ physical health” was seen as the most effective bullying tactic and statistically significantly differed than other bullying dimensions.

In affecting information sharing decision, perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions was statistically significantly differed (*Wilks' Lambda=.90, F(4,202)=5.46, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.10*). Perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” significantly higher than other bullying dimensions “except for “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts”.

A statistically significant difference was found in the perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions for influencing performance appraisal decision (*Wilks' Lambda=.83, F(4,203)=10.76, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.18*). As identified by

pair wise comparisons, perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” was significantly lower than others.

Finally, for influencing organizational structure decision, the perceived effectiveness of different bullying behaviors was found as statistically significantly different (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.81, $F(4,206)=12.05$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.19). As the results of LSD tests showed perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” was significantly lower than others for influencing organizational structure decision.

Hypothesis-2b was related to the differences in perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions across different decision domains in horizontal bullying. To test the hypothesis, one-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analyses were conducted. Results showed that the perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions significantly differed for all the stated organizational decision domains, namely; promotion (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.55, $F(4,231)=47.69$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.45), task assignments (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.56, $F(4,232)=45.07$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.44), dismissal (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.96, $F(4,226)=2.60$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.04), information sharing (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.60, $F(4,132)=21.74$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.40), performance appraisal (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.59, $F(4,232)=40.97$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.41) and organizational structure (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.57, $F(4,231)=43.27$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.43). Table-5.6 showed the descriptive statistics of one-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analysis.

TABLE 5.6: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT HORIZONTAL BULLYING DIMENSIONS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

Type of the vignette \ Type of the political aim	Being promoted		Intervening task assignments		Achieving dismissal of victim		Affecting information sharing decisions		Affecting performance appraisal results		Affecting organization structure	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
A) Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	3.31	1.17	3.69	1.05	3.56	1.14	3.06	1.18	3.80	1.06	3.80	1.04
B) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	3.29	1.14	3.27	1.17	3.66	1.02	3.32	1.15	3.41	1.10	3.61	1.10
C) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	3.74	1.10	3.95	1.03	3.65	1.00	2.71	1.18	3.84	1.09	4.05	1.01
D) Effects on the victims' occupational situation	4.05*	1.06	4.16*	.96	3.51	1.06	3.54***	1.13	4.29*	.91	4.31*	.90
E) Effects on the victims' physical health	2.93	1.16	3.03	1.13	3.74**	1.13	2.71	1.17	3.12	1.20	3.20	1.21

* This mean differs significantly from means in all other vignettes.

** This mean differs significantly from means of vignettes A and D.

*** This mean differs significantly from means of vignettes A, C and E.

In order to identify the mean differences among the vignettes for each decision domain, LSD tests were run. Results showed that the perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” was significantly higher than other bullying dimensions for influencing decisions related to promotion, task assignments, performance appraisal and organization structure. Although the perceived effectiveness of the same bullying dimension was the highest for influencing information sharing decision, it was not statistically significantly different than “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts”. Finally, in order to affect dismissal decision, “effects on the victims’ physical health” was perceived as the most effective bullying dimension, and it statistically significantly differed from “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” and “effects on the victims’ occupational situation”.

In order to test the hypothesis 3, which argued that perceived effectiveness of bullying behavior dimensions would change in horizontal and vertical bullying, independent samples t-tests were conducted for each bullying dimension in vertical and horizontal bullying. Thus, total of 5 independent samples t-tests were run. Results showed that perceived effectiveness of bullying dimensions of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” ($M_1=3.78$ $SD_1=.71$, $M_2=4.05$ $SD_2=.76$), $t(358)=3.35$, $p=0.001$, and “effects on the victims’ physical health” ($M_1=3.68$ $SD_1=.80$, $M_2=3.14$ $SD_2=.92$), $t(354)=5.81$, $p=0.000$, were significantly different in horizontal and vertical bullying while perceived effectiveness of other bullying dimensions as “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” ($M_1=3.6$ $SD_1=.71$, $M_2=3.53$ $SD_2=.76$), $t(426)=0.98$, $p=0.327$, “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social

contacts" ($M_1=3.51$ $SD_1=.72$, $M_2=3.48$ $SD_2=.78$), $t(362)=0.49$, $p=0.624$, and "effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation" ($M_1=3.7$ $SD_1=.86$, $M_2=3.67$ $SD_2=.80$), $t(358)=0.30$, $p=0.762$ did not differ. According to the results, perceived effectiveness of "effects on the victims' occupational situation" was significantly higher in horizontal bullying while "effects on the victims' physical health" was perceived as more effective in vertical bullying. Results are shown in Table 5-7.

As indicated in hypotheses 4a and 4b, demographic characteristics that were expected to influence perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as political tactics were determined as gender, age and education. To test their effects, between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were conducted. Total of thirty six between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were run to test the effects of three demographics characteristics in horizontal and vertical bullying separately. It should also be noted that assumption of equality of covariance was tested by Box's M statistics. Pallant (2003) mentioned that Box's M statistics was sensitive to both homogeneity and normality, and $p=.001$ was determined as significance level for this analysis.

The first group of between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses was conducted to identify the effect of gender in vertical bullying. As it was shown in Table-5.8, which illustrated Box's M statistics, assumptions of between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analysis were met.

TABLE 5.7: INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TESTS RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS-3

	N₁	N₂	M₁*	M₂*	SD₁	SD₂	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	208	220	3.6	3.53	.71	.76	.98	426	.327
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	214	150	3.51	3.48	.72	.78	.49	362	.624
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	210	150	3.7	3.67	.86	.80	.30	358	.762
Effects on the victims' occupational situation	213	152	3.78	4.05	.71	.76	3.35	358	.001**
Effects on the victims' physical health	207	149	3.68	3.14	.80	.92	5.81	354	.000**

* M₁ referred to the mean scores of vertical bullying behaviors and M₂ referred to the mean scores of horizontal bullying behaviors.

Results of the analyses showed that the interaction effect of gender and political aims was not statistically significant for promotion (*Wilks' Lambda*=.969, $F(4,203)=1.61$, $p>.05$), task assignments (*Wilks' Lambda*=.972, $F(4,201)=1.46$, $p>.05$), information sharing (*Wilks' Lambda*=.974, $F(4,204)=1.38$, $p>.05$), performance appraisal (*Wilks' Lambda*=.984, $F(4,202)=.80$) and organizational structure (*Wilks' Lambda*=.982, $F(4,205)=.92$). However, the interaction effect was found as significant for dismissal decision (*Wilks' Lambda*=.953, $F(4,201)=2.45$, $p<.05$, *multivariate eta squared*=.05). As identified by LSD tests, female participants rated the perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” ($M_{female}=4.09$ $SD_{female}=1.05$, $M_{male}=3.78$ $SD_{male}=1.12$), “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” ($M_{female}=4.16$ $SD_{female}=1.05$, $M_{male}=3.73$ $SD_{male}=1.16$) and “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” ($M_{female}=3.88$ $SD_{female}=1.13$, $M_{male}=3.54$ $SD_{male}=1.15$) as significantly higher than male participants.

When the effect of gender on overall perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors were examined, it can be seen that it had a significant effect on the overall effectiveness of bullying behaviors for influencing promotion ($F(1,206)=14.87$, $p=.000$ *partial eta squared*=.07), dismissal ($F(1,204)=5.49$, $p=.020$ *partial eta squared*=.03), performance appraisal ($F(1,205)=5.90$, $p=.016$ *partial eta squared*=.03) and organizational structure ($F(1,208)=11.38$, $p=.001$ *partial eta squared*=.05) decisions. As shown in Table-5.9, the perceived overall effectiveness of bullying behaviors to influence these four organizational decisions is perceived as significantly higher by female participants.

TABLE 5.8: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF VERTICAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	25.756	25.765	27.047	15.469	31.154	34.765
F	1.672	1.672	1.755	1.004	2.022	2.257
df1	15	15	15	15	15	15
df2	162388.700	159093.787	156959.827	163004.371	159694.980	163574.567
Sig.	.049	.049	.035	.447	.011	.004

TABLE 5.9: FEMALE AND MALE PARTICIPANTS' MEANS OF OVERALL PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF VERTICAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS FOR INFLUENCING DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Female	3.83*	3.38	4.04*	3.25	3.93*	4.17*
Male	3.44*	3.20	3.80*	3.05	3.71*	3.86*

* There is a significant difference between female and male participants' means ($p=.05$).

Another set of six between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were conducted to identify the gender effect in the change of perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors for horizontal bullying. Table-5.10 showed the results of Box's M statistics. As it was shown the main assumption of the analysis were met.

Results of the analyses, which explored the effect of gender in the change of perceived effectiveness of different horizontal bullying dimensions across different political aims, identified that interaction effect of political aim and gender was not statistically significantly different for influencing promotion (*Wilks' Lambda*=.976, $F(4,230)=1.44, p>.05$), task assignments (*Wilks' Lambda*=.971, $F(4,231)=1.70, p>.05$), dismissal (*Wilks' Lambda*=.985, $F(4,225)=.85, p>.05$), information sharing (*Wilks' Lambda*=.965, $F(4,131)=1.18, p>.05$) and performance appraisal (*Wilks' Lambda*=.984, $F(4,231)=.95, p>.05$) decisions. However, the interaction effect of gender and political aims was statistically significant for influencing organizational structure decision (*Wilks' Lambda*=.958, $F(4,230)=2.53, p<.05, multivariate\ eta\ squared=.04$). As indicated by LSD tests, female participants perceived the effectiveness of "effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts" ($M_{female}=3.82, SD_{female}=.99, M_{male}=3.34, SD_{male}=1.18$) and "effects on the victims' physical health" ($M_{female}=3.36, SD_{female}=1.15, M_{male}=2.99, SD_{male}=1.26$) statistically significantly higher than male participants for influencing organizational structure decisions.

TABLE 5.10: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF HORIZONTAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	33.887	36.266	31.704	19.304	25.509	18.563
F	2.206	2.362	2.063	1.234	1.661	1.209
df1	15	15	15	15	15	15
df2	198625.762	198991.863	187920.503	60346.277	198991.863	198625.762
Sig.	.005	.002	.009	.237	.051	.256

TABLE 5.11: FEMALE AND MALE PARTICIPANTS' MEANS OF OVERALL PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF HORIZONTAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS FOR INFLUENCING DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Female	3.60*	3.73*	3.69	3.17	3.82*	3.90*
Male	3.30*	3.48*	3.55	2.92	3.54*	3.66*

* There is a significant difference between female and male participants' means ($p=.05$).

Results of the analyses also showed that gender had a small but statistically significant effect on the overall perceived effectiveness of different horizontal bullying behaviors for influencing *promotion* ($F(1,233)=9.76, p=.002$ *partial eta squared*=.04), *task assignments* ($F(1,234)=7.59, p=.006$ *partial eta squared*=.03), *performance appraisal* ($F(1,234)=10.19, p=.002$ *partial eta squared*=.04) and *organizational structure* ($F(1,233)=6.39, p=.012$ *partial eta squared*=.03) decisions. As seen in Table-4.10, female participants perceived the overall effectiveness of bullying behaviors as being significantly higher in influencing these four organizational decisions.

The third set of six between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were run to test the effect of education in the change of perceived effectiveness of vertical bullying behaviors across the different political aims. As it was shown in Table-5.12 assumptions of ANOVA about homogeneity and normality were met except for the dismissal decision. Hence, results about the dismissal decision were excluded from the study.

Results of the analysis identified that the interaction effect of education and political aims was not significant for *promotion* (*Wilks' Lambda*=.906, $F(12,526)=1.69, p>.05$), *task assignments* (*Wilks' Lambda*=.974, $F(12,526)=.44, p>.05$), *information sharing* (*Wilks' Lambda*=.934, $F(12,534)=1.16, p>.05$), *performance appraisal* (*Wilks' Lambda*=.964, $F(12,529)=.624, p>.05$) and *organizational structure* (*Wilks' Lambda*=.957, $F(12,537)=.75, p>.05$) decisions.

TABLE 5.12: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF EDUCATION IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF VERTICAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	75.906	53.383	86.131*	45.400	73.690	76.913
F	1.560	1.091	1.769	.933	1.507	1.574
df1	45	45	45	45	45	45
df2	10498.668	8930.512	10542.154	10481.200	8914.887	8891.924
Sig.	.010	.313	.001	.600	.016	.009

* F value is significant at p=.001

When the effect of education on overall perceived effectiveness of vertical bullying behaviors was examined, it was seen that the effect of education was not significant for all decisions, namely; promotion ($F(3,204)=.518, p=.671$), task assignments ($F(3,202)=.79, p=.499$), information sharing ($F(3,205)=.64, p=.593$), performance appraisal ($F(3,203)=.232, p=.874$) and organizational structure ($F(3,206)=.29, p=.833$).

Another group of six between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were conducted to identify the effect of education in the change of the perceived effectiveness of horizontal bullying behaviors across different political aims. As it was shown in Table-5.13, homogeneity and normality assumptions of between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analysis were met except for the organizational structure decision. Thus, analysis regarding this decision was excluded.

Results showed that the interaction effect of education and political aims was not significant for dismissal ($Wilks' Lambda=.911, F(12,590)=1.76, p>.05$), information sharing ($Wilks' Lambda=.981, F(12,341)=1.27, p>.05$) and performance appraisal ($Wilks' Lambda=.976, F(12,606)=.46, p>.05$) decisions. However, for promotion ($Wilks' Lambda=.901, F(12,603)=2.03, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.03$) and task assignments ($Wilks' Lambda=.908, F(12,606)=1.88, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.03$) decisions this effect was found as statistically significant. As indicated by LSD tests, the perceived effectiveness of "effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately" was significantly different between the education groups of participants. Accordingly, vocational school graduates ($M=4.08, SD=.86$) rated its

effectiveness for influencing promotion decisions significantly higher than participants whose education level was to high school or less ($M=2.92$, $SD=1.30$) and graduate level ($M=3.49$, $SD=1.12$) degrees. Also, for affecting the promotion decision, perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” was different among education groups. Participants with high school and lower education ($M=3.86$, $SD=1.22$) degrees rated the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors as significantly lower than vocational school ($M=4.38$, $SD=.96$) and university graduates ($M=4.18$, $SD=.97$). For the task assignment decision, perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” significantly differed based on the education level of participants. According to the results, participants whose education level was to high school or less ($M=3.43$, $SD=1.30$) degrees rated its perceived effectiveness as significantly lower than vocational school ($M=4.00$, $SD=1.08$) and university graduates ($M=3.75$, $SD=1.02$). Finally, in influencing task assignment decision, the perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ physical health” was rated as significantly different by different education groups. Participants with graduate level ($M=2.63$, $SD=1.02$) degree perceived its effectiveness as significantly lower than participants whose education level was to high school or less ($M=3.32$, $SD=1.14$) and participants with university degree ($M=3.06$, $SD=1.10$).

However, results identified that the effect of education on overall perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors was not significant for promotion ($F(3,231)=1.84$, $p=.140$), task assignments ($F(3,232)=.18$, $p=.910$), dismissal ($F(3,226)=.52$, $p=.672$), information sharing ($F(3,132)=1.04$, $p=.377$) and performance appraisal ($F(3,232)=.33$, $p=.803$) decisions.

TABLE 5.13: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF EDUCATION IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF HORIZONTAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	69.424	54.937	75.290	27.047	55.859	90.354*
F	1.413	1.119	1.532	.833	1.138	1.840
df1	45	45	45	30	45	45
df2	7391.610	7380.374	7424.432	16462.338	7380.374	7391.906
Sig.	.036	.271	.013	.726	.245	.001

* F value is significant at p=.001

The fifth set of six between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were run to test the effect of age in the change of the perceived effectiveness of different vertical bullying behaviors across different political aims. Before conducting the test, three age groups were formed, based on the age distribution of the participants for two samples. Age distribution of the samples was shown in Table-5.-14.

TABLE 5.14 AGE GROUPS OF TWO SAMPLES

		Vertical Bullying Questionnaire		Horizontal Bullying Questionnaire	
		<i>n</i>₁=217	%	<i>n</i>₂=238	%
Age Groups	<i>29 and younger</i>	57	26.3	49	20.6
	<i>Between 30-45</i>	15	6.9	13	5.5
	<i>46 and older</i>	103	47.5	130	54.6

Results of Box's M statistics identified that main assumptions of the analysis were met. Table-5.15 showed the results of Box's M statistics.

Results showed that the interaction effect of age and political aims was not significant for all decision domains, namely, promotion (*Wilks' Lambda*= .930, $F(8,389)=1.84, p>.05$), task assignments (*Wilks' Lambda*= .956, $F(8,394)=1.12, p>.05$), dismissal (*Wilks' Lambda*= .963, $F(8,394)=.95, p>.05$), information sharing (*Wilks' Lambda*= .967, $F(8,400)=.85, p>.05$), performance appraisal (*Wilks' Lambda*= .948, $F(8,396)=1.33, p>.05$) and organizational structure (*Wilks' Lambda*= .983, $F(8,402)=.45, p>.05$) decisions. Also the effect of age on the overall perceived effectiveness of different vertical bullying behaviors was not found as significant for all decisions;

promotion ($F(2,202)=.93, p=.396$), task assignments ($F(2,200)=.50, p=.606$), dismissal ($F(2,200)=.11, p=.895$), information sharing ($F(2,203)=.90, p=.406$), performance appraisal ($F(2,201)=.19, p=.825$) and organizational structure ($F(2,204)=.65, p=.521$).

To complete the test of the third hypothesis, the final set of 6 between and within subject ANOVA (split plot) analyses were conducted. According to the results of Box's M statistics, which were shown in Table-5.16, analysis regarding organizational structure decision was excluded from the study.

Results of the analysis showed that the interaction effect of age and political aims in the change of the perceived effectiveness of different political behaviors was not significant for dismissal ($Wilks' Lambda=.981, F(8,448)=.54, p>.05$) and information sharing ($Wilks' Lambda=.947, F(8,260)=.90, p>.05$), while significant for promotion ($Wilks' Lambda=.916, F(8,458)=2.58, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.04$), task assignments ($Wilks' Lambda=.925, F(8,460)=2.29, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.04$) and performance appraisal ($Wilks' Lambda=.908, F(8,460)=2.84, p<.05, multivariate eta squared=.05$) decisions.

TABLE 5.15: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF AGE IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF VERTICAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	42.083	41.892	33.434	38.800	43.082	38.913
F	1.344	1.336	1.067	1.240	1.377	1.244
df1	30	30	30	30	30	30
df2	52808.582	46753.211	49859.823	52795.329	56212.927	55949.925
Sig.	.099	.103	.367	.172	.082	.168

TABLE 5.16: BOX'S M STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF AGE IN THE CHANGE OF PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF HORIZONTAL BULLYING BEHAVIORS ACROSS DIFFERENT POLITICAL AIMS

	Promotion	Task Assignments	Dismissal	Information Sharing	Performance Appraisal	Organizational Structure
Box's M	42.078	37.737	51.395	57.004	55.252	62.321*
F	1.343	1.205	1.638	1.702	1.765	1.990
df1	30	30	30	30	30	30
df2	33301.233	35813.184	31120.233	4010.988	35813.184	35879.507
Sig.	.100	.203	.015	.010	.006	.001

* F value is significant at $p=.001$

As identified by LSD tests, the effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” was perceived as significantly higher by the under 30 age group ($M=3.89$, $SD=1.05$) than the over 45 age group ($M=3.46$, $SD=1.20$) for influencing promotion decision. Also, the over 45 age group ($M=3.52$, $SD=1.06$) perceived the effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” as significantly lower than the under 30 ($M=4.15$, $SD=1.07$) and the 30 to 45 ($M=4.12$, $SD=.99$) age groups. Finally, effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ physical health” was rated as significantly lower by the 30 to 45 age group ($M=2.67$, $SD=1.09$) than by the under 30 age group ($M=3.07$, $SD=1.20$) and the over 45 ($M=3.27$, $SD=1.10$) age groups for influencing promotion decision.

The perceived effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” for influencing task assignment decision significantly differed among age groups. Accordingly, the under 30 age group ($M=4.13$, $SD=1.00$) rated its effectiveness as significantly lower than the over 45 age group ($M=3.65$, $SD=1.01$) group. Also, the 30 to 45 age group ($M=4.19$, $SD=.86$) perceived the effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” as significantly higher than the under 30 age group ($M=3.31$, $SD=1.02$).

Finally, for influencing performance appraisal decision, the over 45 age group ($M=3.82$, $SD=.83$) perceived the effectiveness of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” as significantly higher than the under 30 ($M=3.31$, $SD=1.17$) and the 30 to 45 age groups ($M=3.37$, $SD=1.07$). Also, the “effects on the

victims' occupational situation" was rated by the under 30 age group ($M=4.42$, $SD=.91$) as significantly higher than by the over 45 age group ($M=3.94$, $SD=.80$). Finally, the over 45 age group ($M=3.53$, $SD=.89$) perceived the effectiveness of "effects on the victims' physical health" as significantly higher than between 30-45 age group ($M=2.99$, $SD=.89$).

Also the affect of age on the overall perceived effectiveness of horizontal bullying behaviors was investigated. Results showed that the effect of age on the perceived effectiveness of horizontal bullying behaviors did not significantly differ for any of the decisions, namely; promotion ($F(2,232)=2.20$, $p=.113$), task assignment ($F(2,233)=1.62$, $p=.204$), dismissal ($F(2,227)=1.19$, $p=.307$), information sharing ($F(2,233)=.16$, $p=.850$) and performance appraisal ($F(2,233)=.82$, $p=.437$) decisions.

Hence, hypotheses 4-a and 4-b were partially supported based on the results.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b were related to the effect of Machiavellian orientation on the perceived effectiveness of bullying dimensions as political tactics. As explained by Christie and Geiss (1970) a neutral score of Machiavellian orientation was calculated as number of items (20) multiplying the neutral point of a Likert scale (3 on a 5 point Likert scale) and adding 20 as a constant. Thus, $20 \times 3 + 20 = 80$ referred to the neutral score in this scale. Hence, scores lower than 80 showed the tendency of low Machiavellianism, while scores that were higher than 80 showed high Machiavellianism tendency. Hence, before testing the hypotheses, participants of two samples were divided into two groups, low or high Machiavellian oriented, based on the suggestions of Christie and

Geiss (1970). It should also be noted that number of participants with high Machiavellian orientation was relatively low compared to number of participants with low Machiavellian orientation.

Moreover, to test the hypotheses, average scores for each vignette in vertical bullying and horizontal bullying questionnaire were calculated, and five new variables were created in each data sheet. To test the hypothesis-5a independent t-tests analysis was run. Results showed that there was no significant difference between the ratings of participants with high or low Machiavellian orientation, except for “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” bullying dimension. However, in contrast to the argument in hypothesis-5a, results showed that participants with low Machiavellian orientation perceived the effectiveness of this vertical bullying dimension as significantly higher than participants with high Machiavellian orientation. Table-5.17 summarized the results.

Similarly, to test hypothesis-5b t-tests were conducted. As it was shown in Table-5.18, results of t-tests identified that means scores on the perceived effectiveness of different horizontal bullying behaviors between the participants with high and low Machiavellian orientation did not significantly differ. Hence, hypothesis 5a and 5b were not supported.

TABLE 5.17: INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS-5A

	N₁	N₂	M₁*	M₂*	SD₁	SD₂	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	26	157	3.47	3.65	.75	.69	1.26	181	.210
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	27	162	3.12	3.60	.65	.71	3.32**	187	.001
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	25	160	3.65	3.74	.70	.76	.54	183	.592
Effects on the victims' occupational situation	27	161	3.70	3.88	.76	.86	1.04	186	.300
Effects on the victims' physical health	27	157	3.54	3.74	.84	.76	1.20	182	.230

* M₁ refers to the mean scores of participants with high M₂ refers to the mean scores of low Machiavellian orientation

** t value significant at p=.05

TABLE 5.18: INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS-5B

	N₁	N₂	M₁*	M₂*	SD₁	SD₂	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	53	154	3.63	3.49	.76	.76	1.13	205	.260
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	38	106	3.38	3.51	.76	.80	.87	142	.388
Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	37	108	3.61	3.68	.79	.81	.47	143	.637
Effects on the victims' occupational situation	38	108	3.99	4.08	.86	.61	.68	154	.564
Effects on the victims' physical health	38	106	3.16	3.09	.70	.98	.41	142	.680

* M₁ refers to the mean scores of participants with high and M₂ refers to the mean scores of participants with low Machiavellian orientation.

Finally, to tests the hypotheses 6a and 6b, related to the perceived relevancy of different personal and organizational causes of bullying with different bullying dimensions, one-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analyses were conducted. Results showed that the relevancy of the vignettes; “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.814, $F(6,202)=7.87$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.19), “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.789, $F(6,200)=8.90$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.21), “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.623, $F(6,201)=20.24$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.38), “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.761, $F(6,204)=10.67$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.24) and “effects on the victims’ physical health” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.665, $F(6,199)=16.71$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.34) with the different reasons were perceived as significantly different. As indicated by LSD tests, the relevancy of the first vignette, “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” with low attention of management was significantly higher than other reasons except for personality clashes. Similarly, the relevancy of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” with low attention of management was significantly higher than other reasons. However, “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” was found as significantly more relevant with envy. The relevancy of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” was perceived as significantly more relevant with low attention of management than other reasons, except for personality clashes and envy. Finally, the relevancy of “effects on the victims’ physical health” with low attention of management was significantly higher than other reasons, except for personality clashes and the

perpetrator having psychological problems. Means and standard deviations are shown in Table-5.19.

One-way-repeated-measures ANOVA analyses were also run for horizontal bullying. Results identified that the relevancy of the vignettes; “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.715, $F(6,223)=14.79$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.28), “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.698, $F(6,226)=16.33$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.30), “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.434, $F(6,225)=48.89$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.52), “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.560, $F(6,226)=29.59$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.44) and “effects on the victims’ physical health” (*Wilks’ Lambda*=.467, $F(6,227)=43.14$, $p<.05$, *partial eta squared*=.53) with the different reasons were perceived as significantly different. As identified by LSD tests, the relevancies of “effects on the victims’ possibilities to communicate adequately” and effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their social contacts” with low attention of management were significantly higher than other reasons, except for envy. However, “effects on the victims’ possibilities to maintain their personal reputation” was found as significantly more relevant with envy. The relevancy of “effects on the victims’ occupational situation” was perceived as significantly more relevant with the low attention of management. Finally, the relevancy of “effects on the victims’ physical health” with the perpetrator having psychological problems was significantly higher than other reasons, except for envy and low attention of management. Means and standard deviations were shown in Table-5.20. Hence, results provide full support for Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

TABLE 5-19: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RELEVANCY OF REASONS WITH DIFFERENT VERTICAL BULLYING DIMENSIONS

Type of the vignettes \ Type of other reasons	Personality clashes between the victim and the perpetrator		Envy		Perpetrator having psychological problems		Deficiencies in work design		Working organization having competitive culture		Working organization having recent change		Low attention of management	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
A) Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	3.68	1.26	3.48	1.23	3.48	1.22	3.28	1.13	3.36	1.17	3.35	1.13	3.81**	1.09
B) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	3.41	1.21	3.15	1.20	3.27	1.19	3.24	1.15	3.28	1.20	3.04	1.14	3.67*	1.22
C) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	3.84	1.18	4.13*	1.03	3.85	1.11	2.88	1.27	3.41	1.27	3.48	1.27	3.89	1.11
D) Effects on the victims' occupational situation	3.64	1.25	3.63	1.07	3.44	1.21	3.22	1.19	3.38	1.17	2.99	1.27	3.75***	1.12
E) Effects on the victims' physical health	3.81	1.24	3.61	1.34	3.89	1.14	3.23	1.26	3.21	1.23	2.93	1.26	3.90****	1.16

* This mean differs significantly from means of all other reasons.

** This mean differs significantly from means of other reasons namely; envy, perpetrator having psychological problems, deficiencies in work design, working organization having competitive culture, work organization having recent change.

*** This mean differs significantly from means in other reasons namely; perpetrator having psychological problems, deficiencies in work design, working organization having competitive culture, work organization having recent change.

**** This mean differs significantly from means in other reasons namely; envy, deficiencies in work design, working organization having competitive culture, work organization having recent change.

TABLE 5-20: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RELEVANCY OF REASONS WITH DIFFERENT HORIZONTAL BULLYING DIMENSIONS

Type of other reasons Type of the vignettes	Personality clashes between the victim and the perpetrator		Envy		Perpetrator having psychological problems		Deficiencies in work design		Working organization having competitive culture		Working organization having recent change		Low attention of management	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
A) Effects on the victims' possibilities to communicate adequately	3.47	1.26	3.86	.98	3.62	1.17	3.31	1.15	3.45	1.15	3.22	1.11	3.89**	1.06
B) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts	3.44	1.19	3.66	1.10	3.45	1.15	3.23	1.19	3.29	1.11	3.10	1.07	3.83**	1.13
C) Effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation	3.49	1.20	4.17*	.99	3.70	1.21	2.71	1.24	3.08	1.20	2.87	1.13	3.77	1.12
D) Effects on the victims' occupational situation	3.41	1.17	3.68	1.09	3.41	1.20	3.69	1.13	3.54	1.09	2.79	1.07	3.97*	1.11
E) Effects on the victims' physical health	3.68	1.19	3.84	1.02	4.00***	1.17	3.25	1.20	2.68	1.19	2.56	1.16	3.92	1.17

* This mean differs significantly from means of all other reasons.

** This mean differs significantly from means in other reasons namely; clashing personalities of the victim and the perpetrator, perpetrator having psychological problems, deficiencies in work design, working organization having competitive culture, work organization having recent change.

*** This mean differs significantly from means in other reasons namely; clashing personalities of the victim and the perpetrator, deficiencies in work design, working organization having competitive culture, work organization having recent change.

CHAPTER-6

DISCUSSION

6.1. Discussion of the Results and Managerial Implications

The current study aims at examining bullying behaviors as political tactics based on the argument that there is an intersection between bullying and organizational politics. Hence, bullying behaviors are considered as the means/political tactics which are used by the perpetrators for influencing major organizational decision domains, and in turn serving their self interests.

The results supports the main argument of the thesis as they revealed that different vertical and horizontal bullying behaviors are perceived as effective political tactics to influence major organizational decision domains. Accordingly, different vertical bullying behaviors were perceived as effective political tactics used to influence promotion, task assignments, dismissal, information sharing, performance appraisal and organizational structure decisions. The findings of the current study are consistent with the argument developed by Ferris et al. (2007) which claims that managers may deliberately bully their subordinates to manipulate their behavior. Also, findings regarding dismissal decisions are in line with the argument that bullying may be used by managers to provoke the dismissal of the victim (Samanci, 2001). Hence, results

support argument that in some cases, bullying between managers and subordinates can be examined in the context of destructive leadership (Ferris et al., 2007; Samanci, 2001).

Moreover, different horizontal bullying behavior is perceived as effective political tactics used to influence promotion, task assignment, dismissal, performance appraisal and organizational structure decisions. This emphasizes that colleagues of the victim may deliberately bully him/her in order to affect these decisions and, in turn, serve their self interests. For example, to get promoted or achieve better performance appraisal results, people may deliberately bully others to affect their performance negatively way and show their own performance as better. This finding can be considered as consistent with the findings of previous research which emphasizes that a competitive organizational culture and individual performance based reward systems may stimulate bullying (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Hoel & Salin, 2003; Neuman & Baron, 1998; O'Moore et al., 1998; Rayner et al., 1999; Vartia, 1996). Results show that horizontal bullying behavior is not perceived as effective political tactics used to influence information sharing decisions. This finding can be explained as in situations in which there is no authority differences employees may think that affecting information flow though bullying may not applicable.

Understanding the fact that bullying is perceived as a deliberate and effective strategy from the perspective of the perpetrator is crucially important to understand the dynamics of bullying since the way people perceive bullying will affect the way they respond to it. For example, if people perceive bullying behavior as an effective political

tactic used to achieve their personal gains, they might think that those behaviors are the natural components of the competition in the workplace. This point is crucial for three reasons. First of all, it affects people's responses to bullying when they face this kind of abusive behavior. They might think that what they face is an ordinary part of their work life and they have to deal with the situation without asking for support. As expected, these kinds of responses may create an appropriate environment for bullying. What is more, when they observe this kind bullying behavior, they might think that this behavior is not so extraordinary that requires intervention. Hence, a sense of permission will be provided to the perpetrators. From the other perspective, it can also be argued that perceiving bullying behaviors as effective political tactics may lead people to bully others to influence organizational decisions and serve their self interests.

Emphasizing the fact that bullying behavior is perceived as an effective political tactic is vital for the prevention of bullying since it may necessitate different intervention techniques compared to a situation where personality clashes or psychological problems of the perpetrator which leads to bullying. In other words, in the case where the perpetrator bullies to serve his/her self interests, intervention policies and managers' actions should emphasize the fact that the potential costs will be higher than the potential benefits. Moreover, in such cases, intervening in the factors that may stimulate people's engagement in organizational politics (like internal competition, level of uncertainty, job ambiguity and centralization) may function to decrease the frequency of bullying behaviors. It is worth noting that the findings of this current study are valuable for providing input to management and leadership training programmes. Since managers and leaders are seen as responsible for developing and implementing

effective intervention programmes, the fact that bullying behavior might be used as a deliberate strategy and seen as an effective political tactic should be emphasized in such programmes in order to increase managers' awareness of the issue and increase their understanding of the complex nature of bullying.

To develop and implement an effective intervention programme, it would also be helpful to understand what kind of bullying behaviors are perceived as particularly effective in influencing what kind of organizational decision domains. The results of the study identify that among the vertical bullying dimensions, affecting a victim's possibilities to maintain their personal reputation was perceived as the most effective in influencing promotion and organizational structure decisions. This can be interpreted as people perceived that through humiliating, gossiping about the victim and making fun of his/her handicaps, managers may influence promotion and organizational structure decisions. For example; in this way managers can prevent promotion of a subordinate or prevent them from having an important position in the organization. Also, respondents perceived that when managers aim at affecting task assignments and information sharing decisions, the effectiveness of effects on victims' occupational situation is the highest. Moreover, when the aim is achieving the dismissal of the victim, the most effective bullying dimension was perceived as effects on the victims' physical health. This finding should be specifically emphasized, as harming a person's health, which can be illegal, was seen as an effective behavior in the workplace. Finally, in case the managers' aim is to influence performance appraisal decisions, affecting a victim's possibilities to maintain their social contacts which included social isolation is seen as the most effective bullying behavior.

Similarly, the perceived effectiveness of different bullying behavior changes across different political aims in horizontal bullying. However, in horizontal bullying, the effects on the victims' occupational situation was perceived as the most effective in influencing promotion, task assignments, information sharing and organizational structure decisions. This may be interpreted as due to power differences; respondents may think that managers may use a variety of tactics to influence decisions, including social isolation and humiliation. On the other hand, when it comes to peer bullying, only intervening in the occupational situation was seen as effective. However, similar to vertical bullying, for achieving the dismissal of the victim, affecting his/her physical health was seen as the most effective bullying behavior. Findings regarding the perceived effectiveness of different horizontal bullying behaviors were quite similar to the findings of the previous study conducted with nurses in Turkey (Katrinli et al, 2008). In this study, it was found that the effects on the victims' occupational situation was seen as the most effective horizontal bullying behavior used to influence organizational decisions except for dismissal. Also, for achieving the dismissal of the victim, effects on the victims' physical health was perceived as the most effective one. Although samples of the two studies were quite different, the similarity of the results may be interpreted in the same way, that is, the perceived effectiveness of bullying behaviors may not be affected by the nature of the work or organizational settings. However, it should be noted that both the current study and the study by Katrinli et al. (2008) were conducted in Turkey. Hence, results may be affected by the characteristics of Turkish culture, which are characterized by high power distance, collectivism, short term orientation, femininity and high uncertainty avoidance values (Hofstede, 1980).

Furthermore, this study investigated whether there is a difference between the perceived effectiveness of the vertical and horizontal bullying dimensions. The results identified that the effects on the victims' occupational situation were perceived as more effective in vertical bullying than in horizontal bullying. This may be due to the fact that managers have more opportunities to intervene in tasks and the occupational situation of the victims than their colleagues. Interestingly, the effects on the victims' physical health was perceived as more effective in horizontal bullying than in vertical bullying. Investigating the differences of people's perception between vertical and horizontal bullying addressed an unanswered question in the literature, as it is still not clear whether leadership bullying and the peer bullying are the same concepts or whether they are distinct enough to be considered as different concepts. Although this study identifies some differences in people's perceptions, this point should be investigated in future research to provide more empirical evidence.

Perceptions of organizational politics are affected by some individual characteristics. As different bullying behaviors were examined as political tactics in the context of this study, it was expected that people's characteristics might affect this perception. Hence, based on the literature, the effects of age, gender and education in the perceived effectiveness of different bullying dimensions across different decision domains was investigated. Results showed that although age and education may create some small but significant effects, they have no specific direction. In other words, it is not possible to say that less or more educated people perceived the specific bullying dimensions as more effective than others, or older or younger people perceived

particular bullying dimensions as more effective in influencing specific decision domains. It is worth noting that previous research also reports inconsistent findings regarding the effect of age and education on the perception of organizational politics. However, regarding gender, it can be clearly said that gender had a small but statistically significant effect. Accordingly, in vertical bullying, female participants perceive the overall effectiveness of bullying behavior as higher than male participants in influencing promotion, dismissal, performance appraisal and organizational structure decisions. Similarly, in horizontal bullying, the overall effectiveness of bullying behavior for affecting promotion, task assignments, performance appraisal and organizational structure decisions was perceived as higher than male respondents. This finding can be interpreted in different ways. For example, it could be that as women perceive the effectiveness of different bullying behaviors as higher than men, and their likelihood of engaging in these behaviors is higher than men's. However, from a different perspective, it could be that women might perceive the overall effectiveness of different vertical and horizontal bullying behaviors as political tactics higher than men because they are exposed to those behaviors more frequently and might feel that they are outperformed by their competitors in such kinds of actions. It is worth noting that these findings were consistent with the previous research in organizational politics, as it was reported that women generally perceive their work environment as more politicized than men. It should be kept in mind that some scholars argue that the reason for this situation may be related to the argument that men tend to be more involved in political activity. Hence, they perceive politics as a part of ordinary work life and report their environment as not highly politicized. This argument can be seen as similar to the second explanation of the current findings. Whatever the reason of the finding is, it is

worth focusing on, as it addresses the possibility that women and men may respond to bullying in different ways as they perceive its effectiveness as political tactics at a different levels.

Another variable that was expected to influence respondents' perceptions about the effectiveness of different bullying behaviors as political tactics was their Machiavellian orientation. It was hypothesized that people with high Machiavellian orientation perceived different vertical and horizontal bullying dimensions as more effective than people with low Machiavellian orientation. However, results did not provide support for this hypothesis. In fact, in vertical bullying the effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their social contacts was perceived as more effective by people with low Machiavellian orientation than people with high Machiavellian orientation. It can be argued that this unexpected result may be due to the absence of validity and the reliability of Mach-IV in Turkish culture prior to the current study. Another explanation might be similar to the gender case. People with low Machiavellian orientation may observe or be exposed to bullying behaviors more frequently than people with high Machiavellian orientation and may think that they or other victims are outperformed by their rivals through such kind of behaviors. In that situation, they may perceive these behaviors as more effective than people with high Machiavellian orientation, who may perceive them as ordinary political tactics and not particularly effective ones.

Finally, the association between non-political reasons and different bullying dimensions was investigated because examining bullying behaviors from the organizational politics perspective only would provide insufficient data. Results showed

that the relevancy of different bullying behaviors for different reasons would change. Accordingly, in vertical bullying the reason of low attention of management was perceived as the most relevant reason with the effects on the victims' communicate adequately, maintain their social contacts, occupational situation and physical health. This finding is consistent with previous research findings because low attention of management (Leymann, 1996; Lewis, 1999) and laissez faire leadership style (Hauge et al., 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007a) were found as stimulators of bullying. Additionally, effects of the victims' personal reputation was perceived as most relevant with envy supporting the results of previous research which indicated that envy was an important reason for being bullied (Björkqvist et al., 1994; Einarsen et al., 1994). However, in previous research it was also argued that perceiving envy as a reason of being bullied might be a self-preserving behavior from the perspective of the victim. Nevertheless, this study identified that, from the perspective of the observers, bullying may be seen as related to envy. Furthermore, the perceived relevancy of horizontal bullying behaviors with different non-political reasons differed. Accordingly, low attention of management was also seen as the most relevant reason for the effects on victims' possibilities to communicate adequately, maintain their social contacts and occupational situation. Moreover, the effects on the victims' possibilities to maintain their personal reputation was perceived as more relevant to envy. Hence, similar to the findings in vertical bullying, the low attention of management and envy were found as the most relevant reasons. However, differing from vertical bullying, in horizontal bullying, the effects on the victims' physical health was perceived as the most relevant with the perpetrator having psychological problems. It can be argued that identification of the factors which

were perceived as more relevant with bullying has importance in prevention as it may help managers to plan how they should intervene in different types of bullying behavior.

6.2. Limitations and Recommendation for Further Research

Like all research, this study has some limitations. First of all, the perceived effectiveness of bullying behavior was measured by written vignettes. Vignettes were prepared to reflect the characteristics of real bullying incidents in terms of types of behavior and systematization. However, the fact that respondents' evaluations were based on the vignettes rather than real bullying incidents may have affected the results since bullying is a complex phenomenon which is heavily affected by organizational factors. Also, respondents were treated as observers, who judged the potential reasons and effectiveness of those behaviors as political tactics used to influence particular decisions. However, having the role of the perpetrator or victim may change their evaluations. Also, whether they were bullied by others, bullying others or observing bullying in their work environment was not questioned, whereas it might have affected their perceptions. Accordingly, this study suggests that in a future study, respondents' perceptions about the effectiveness of bullying behavior should be investigated on the basis of their real experiences and whether they were the victims, perpetrators or observers.

Moreover, a convenience sampling method was used for data collection. Hence, it can be argued that the samples may not reflect the real characteristics of the

Turkish working population. Particularly, the percentages of women and highly educated appeared to be higher than their real percentages. The reason of overrepresentation of women and highly educated people may have been related to their willingness to respond, as well as the unwillingness of men and lower educated people to spend time in participating in the study. The overrepresentation of women may have affected the results as it was found that women perceived the overall effectiveness of bullying behavior as higher than men. Hence, in order to generalize, results should be tested with a representative sample in a further study.

As discussed in the theoretical background, the prevalence of bullying, as well as how it is perceived, could be affected by cultural values, especially power distance, and masculinity versus femininity. Therefore, a similar study conducted in a different culture will provide an opportunity for a cross-cultural comparison opportunity and a better understanding of the issue.

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APPENDICES

Questionnaire forms for vertical and horizontal bullying are given in this part. Vertical bullying questionnaire is shown in the Appendix-1 and the horizontal bullying questionnaire in the Appendix-2.

APPENDIX-1: VERTICAL BULLYING QUESTIONNARIE

Sayın Katılımcı,

Elinizdeki soru formu akademik amaçlı olarak kullanılacaktır. Araştırmada önemli olan kişilerin bireysel cevapları değil, örneklemden elde edilecek toplu sonuçlardır. Bu doğrultuda soru formuna adınızı veya kimliğinizi ifade eden herhangi bir şey yazmanıza gerek yoktur. Araştırmaya getirdiğiniz değerli katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Öğr. Gör. Burcu GÜNERİ ÇANGARLI

İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi

İşletme Bölümü

BÖLÜM-1

1. Cinsiyetiniz?

Kadın Erkek

2. Doğum yılınız?

3. Eğitim durumunuz?

4. Mesleğiniz?

5. Aile geliriniz ile ilgili olarak aşağıdaki en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Yüksek Orta-Yüksek Orta Orta-Düşük
 Düşük

6. Çalıştığınız kurum:

Kamu kurumu Özel Teşebbüs Diğer:

7. Çalıştığınız kurum:

Hizmet sektöründe faaliyet göstermektedir.

Üretim sektöründe faaliyet göstermektedir.

8. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda ne kadar süredir çalışmaktasınız?
..... yıl ay

Anketin ikinci bölümde **tamamen hipotetik (hayal ürünü)** olan 5 adet senaryo bulunmaktadır. Lütfen senaryoları okuduktan sonra her bir senaryonun altında yer alan ölçeği **kendi fikirleriniz** doğrultusunda işaretleyiniz.

BÖLÜM-2

Birinci Senaryo

B kişisi büyük bir şirkette beş yıldır çalışmaktadır. 8 ay önce eleman yetersizliği nedeniyle pazarlama departmanında görevlendirilmiştir. Yeni departmanında başlangıçta her şey yolunda giderken, daha sonraları çalıştığı birimin yöneticisinin bir takım davranışları nedeniyle işinden soğumuştur. Yöneticisi B kişisine karşı pek de olumlu olmayan davranışlar içerisinde. Onun yaptığı işleri devamlı eleştirel bir gözle izlemekte, yapılan işi beğenmediğini ima eden bakışlarla B kişisini süzmektedir. B kişisi yaptığı işleri, aldığı kararları açıklamaya, savunmaya çalıştığında ise dudak bükerek yanından uzaklaşmakta ve ona açıklama fırsatı vermemektedir. B kişisi ısrar ederse haddini bilmesi gerektiğini, aksi takdirde hiç hoş olmayan şeylerle karşılaşabileceğini söyleyerek tehdit etmektedir. B kişisi için son derece tatsız olan bu görüşmelerin dışında, yöneticisi onunla neredeyse hiç iletişim kurmayıp, onu görmezlikten gelmekte, B kişisinin çalışma arkadaşlarının da onunla konuşmasını, iyi ilişkiler içinde olmasını onaylamadığını hissettirmektedir.

(V.1.1) Aşağıda B kişisinin yöneticisinin ona bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, B kişisinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.

2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.

3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir

4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.

5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi B kişisinin olası bir terfi için aday olmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
2	Yöneticisi B kişisinin kimsenin yapmak istemediği görevleri kabul etmesini sağlama amacındadır.					
3	Yöneticisi B kişisinin işten kendiliğinden ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	Yöneticisi B kişisinin departman için önemli olan birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	Yöneticisi B kişisinin yılsonunda yapılacak performans değerlendirmesinden olumsuz puan almasını sağlama amacındadır.					
6	Yöneticisi B kişisinin departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinmesini engelleme amacındadır.					

(V.1.2) Aşağıda Yöneticisinin B kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, B kişisinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi ile B kişisinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	Yöneticisi B kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	Yöneticinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	Yöneticisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	Yöneticisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	Yöneticisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	Yöneticisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler, üst yönetimin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

İkinci Senaryo

C kişisi çalıştığı kurumda yaşadığı bir takım olumsuz olaylar nedeniyle psikolojik tedavi görmektedir. Olaylar, C kişisinin çalıştığı birimin yöneticisinin çalışanlara bir görev listesi vermesi ile başlamıştır. C kişisi kendisine verilen listeyi aldığı anda herkesten uzak ve yalnız başına çalışılması gereken görevlerin tamamının kendisine verildiğini görmüştür. C kişisi yeni görevinde çalışma arkadaşlarını nadiren görebilme şansına sahiptir. Üstelik yöneticisi C kişisinin çalıştığı yerin uzak olmasını bahane ederek, çalışma arkadaşlarının onun yanına gitmesine, hatta öğlen yemeğe birlikte gitmek için C kişisini beklemelerine dahi engel olmaktadır.

(V.2.1) Aşağıda C kişisinin yöneticisinin ona bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, C kişisinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi C kişinin olası bir terfi için aday olmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
2	Yöneticisi C kişinin kimsenin yapmak istemediği görevleri kabul etmesini sağlama amacındadır.					
3	Yöneticisi C kişinin işten kendiliğinden ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	Yöneticisi C kişinin departman için önemli olan birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	Yöneticisi C kişinin yılsonunda yapılacak performans değerlendirmesinden olumsuz puan almasını sağlama amacındadır.					
6	Yöneticisi C kişinin departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinmesini engelleme amacındadır.					

(V.2.2) Aşağıda Yöneticisinin C kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçüğe göre, C kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi ile C kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	Yöneticisi C kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	Yöneticinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	Yöneticisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	Yöneticisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	Yöneticisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	Yöneticisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler, üst yönetimin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Üçüncü Senaryo

E kişisi çalıştığı kurumda arkadaşları tarafından sevilen, başarılı bir çalışan olarak görülmekteydi. Ancak, çalıştığı birime farklı bir yönetici atanmasıyla bu durum tersine dönmüştür. Yöneticisi sürekli olarak E kişinin özel hayatı hakkında dedikodu yapmakta, onun işte ve özel yaşamında yaptığı hataların herkesin gözüne batmasını sağlamaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, E kişinin konuşmasını ve mimiklerini taklit ederek, onu çalışma arkadaşları içinde komik duruma düşürmektedir. Ayrıca, şaka yollu sözlerle E kişinin aile yapısını da eleştirmektedir. Bir süre sonra, çalışma arkadaşları E kişinin eskisi kadar başarılı ve iyi biri olmadığını düşünmeye başlamışlardır. E kişisi bu tutumun nedenini anlamamakta ve karşı koymak için ne yapabileceğini bilememektedir.

Ancak artık çalışma arkadaşlarının yanında kendini rahat ve mutlu hissetmemekte, sürekli alay konusu olduğunu ve hakkında dedikodu yapıldığını düşünmektedir.

(V.3.1) Aşağıda E kişinin yöneticisinin ona bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçüğe göre, E kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi E kişinin olası bir terfi için aday olmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
2	Yöneticisi E kişinin kimsenin yapmak istemediği görevleri kabul etmesini sağlama amacındadır.					
3	Yöneticisi E kişinin işten kendiliğinden ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	Yöneticisi E kişinin departman için önemli olan birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	Yöneticisi E kişinin yılsonunda yapılacak performans değerlendirmesinden olumsuz puan almasını sağlama amacındadır.					
6	Yöneticisi E kişinin departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinmesini engelleme amacındadır.					

(V.3.2) Aşağıda Yöneticisinin E kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçüğe göre, E kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi ile E kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	Yöneticisi E kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	Yöneticinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	Yöneticisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	Yöneticisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	Yöneticisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	Yöneticisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler, üst yönetimin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Dördüncü Senaryo

G kişisi yöneticisinin davranışları nedeniyle çalıştığı departmanda zor günler geçirmektedir. Yöneticisi G kişinin her hareketini yakından izleyip, sürekli olarak ne yapması gerektiğini, nasıl yapması gerektiğini söylemektedir. G kişisi farklı bir fikir ileri sürse, ondan daha tecrübeli olduğunu ve tecrübesine saygı duyması gerektiğini belirtip, diğer çalışma arkadaşlarının yanında onu eleştirmektedir. Departmanda ne zaman sıkıcı, anlamsız bir iş olsa, bu işi G kişisine vermektedir. G kişisi ise, sıkılarak da olsa, bu işleri tamamladıktan sonra, aslında işin gereksiz bir iş olduğunu fark etmektedir. Önemli işlerde ise yöneticisi G kişinin bu işlere karışmamasını sağlamaktadır. Yöneticisinin bu davranışları G kişinin “beceriksiz” bir çalışan gibi algılanmasına neden olmaktadır. G kişisi bu durumla baş edebilmek için işlerini daha özenli bir şekilde yapmaya çalışmaktadır. Ancak üzerindeki baskı nedeniyle giderek daha fazla hata yapmaktadır.

(V.4.1) Aşağıda G kişinin yöneticisinin ona bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, G kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi G kişinin olası bir terfi için aday olmasını engelleme amacıyla.					
2	Yöneticisi G kişinin kimsenin yapmak istemediği görevleri kabul etmesini sağlama amacıyla.					
3	Yöneticisi G kişinin işten kendiliğinden ayrılmasını sağlama amacıyla.					
4	Yöneticisi G kişinin departman için önemli olan birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacıyla.					
5	Yöneticisi G kişinin yılsonunda yapılacak performans değerlendirmesinden olumsuz puan almasını sağlama amacıyla.					
6	Yöneticisi G kişinin departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinmesini engelleme amacıyla.					

(V.4.2) Aşağıda Yöneticisinin G kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, G kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi ile G kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					

2	Yöneticisi G kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	Yöneticinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	Yöneticisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	Yöneticisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	Yöneticisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	Yöneticisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler, üst yönetimin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Beşinci Senaryo

K kişisi çalıştığı hastaneden enfeksiyon kapdığı için bir süredir işe gidememektedir. Çalıştığı kliniğin yöneticisi K kişisine son derece ters davranmakta, K kişisi ne zaman koruyucu malzemelere ihtiyaç duyduğunu söylese, bittiğini, onlar olmadan idare etmesi gerektiğini söylemektedir. Ancak, K kişisi diğer çalışma arkadaşlarının bu konuda herhangi bir sıkıntıyla karşılaşmadıklarını son derece şaşırarak fark etmektedir. Ayrıca yöneticisi ne zaman K kişinin yanından geçse canını yakacak şekilde ona çarpmakta, dirseğiyle dürtmekte, K kişisi canının yandığını söylese ters bakışlarla onu süzmektedir.

K kişisi klinikte sağlık açısından tehlikeli bulunan işlerin sürekli olarak kendisine verildiğini fark etmekte, ancak bu sorunu nasıl çözeceğini bilememektedir.

(V.5.1) Aşağıda K kişinin yöneticisinin ona bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, K kişinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi K kişinin olası bir terfi için aday olmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
2	Yöneticisi K kişinin kimsenin yapmak istemediği görevleri kabul etmesini sağlama amacındadır.					
3	Yöneticisi K kişinin işten kendiliğinden ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	Yöneticisi K kişinin departman için önemli olan birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	Yöneticisi K kişinin yılsonunda yapılacak performans değerlendirmesinden olumsuz puan almasını sağlama amacındadır.					
6	Yöneticisi K kişinin departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinmesini engelleme amacındadır.					

(V.5.2) Aşağıda Yöneticisinin K kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, K kişisinin yöneticisinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir.
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	Yöneticisi ile K kişisinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	Yöneticisi K kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	Yöneticinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	Yöneticisi ile K kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	Yöneticisi ile K kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	Yöneticisi ile K kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	Yöneticisi ile K kişisi arasındaki problemler, üst yönetimin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

BÖLÜM-3

Aşağıda yaşamınızla ilgili bir takım yargı cümleleri verilmiştir. Bu yargılara ne derece katıldığınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre, her ifadenin yanındaki uygun kutucuğu işaretleyerek gösteriniz.

- 1 = HİÇ KATILMIYORUM
2 = KATILMIYORUM
3 = KARARSIZIM
4 = KATILYORUM
5 = TAMAMEN KATILYORUM

NO:	İFADELER	1	2	3	4	5
1	Size bir faydası olmayacaksa yaptığınız bir hareketin gerçek nedenini asla söylemezsiniz.					
2	İnsanları idare etmenin en iyi yolu, onlara duymak istediklerini söylemektir.					
3	Bir insan ancak etik olarak doğru olduğundan emin olduğu hareketi yapmalıdır.					
4	İnsanların birçoğu özünde kibar ve iyidir.					
5	İnsanların içinde kötü bir taraf olduğunu ve bunun zaman zaman ortaya çıkabileceğini varsaymak en güvenli yoldur.					
6	Dürüstlük her zaman en iyi seçenektir.					
7	Birine yalan söylemenin hiçbir mazereti olamaz.					
8	İnsanlar genellikle birisi onları zorlamadan çok çalışmazlar.					
9	Mütevazı ve dürüst biri olmak, önemli biri olup dürüst olmaktan daha iyidir.					

10	Birinden sizin için bir şey yapmasını istediğinizde, onu ikna etmek için başka sebepler söylemektense, gerçek sebepleri söylemek çok daha iyidir.						
11	Ahlaki değerlere uygun yaşam süren insanlar ilerleme kaydederler.						
12	Birine tamamen güvenen bir insan bela arıyor demektir.						
13	Suçlularla diğer insanlar arasındaki fark, suçluların yakalanacak kadar aptal olmasıdır.						
14	İnsanların çoğunluğu cesurdur.						
15	Önemli insanları pohpohlamak akıllıca bir harekettir.						
16	Her koşulda iyi biri olmak mümkündür.						
17	Her dakika asalak bir insanın dünyaya geldiğine inanıyorum.						
18	Kuralların dışına çıkmadan ilerlemek mümkün değildir.						
19	Tedavi edilemeyen hastalıklardan dolayı acı çeken insanlara ötenazi olanağı sunulmalıdır.						
20	Pek çok insan babasının ölümünü servetini kaybetmekten daha kolay unuttur.						

ANKET BİTMİŞTİR. KATKILARINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.

APPENDIX-2: VERTICAL BULLYING QUESTIONNARIE

Sayın Katılımcı,

Elinizdeki soru formu akademik amaçlı olarak kullanılacaktır. Araştırmada önemli olan kişilerin bireysel cevapları değil, örneklemden elde edilecek toplu sonuçlardır. Bu doğrultuda soru formuna adınızı veya kimliğinizi ifade eden herhangi bir şey yazmanıza gerek yoktur. Araştırmaya getirdiğiniz değerli katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Öğr. Gör. Burcu GÜNERİ ÇANGARLI
İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi
İşletme Bölümü

BÖLÜM-1

1. Cinsiyetiniz?

Kadın Erkek

2. Doğum yılınız?

3. Eğitim durumunuz?

4. Mesleğiniz?

5. Aile geliriniz ile ilgili olarak aşağıdaki en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Yüksek Orta-Yüksek Orta Orta-Düşük
 Düşük

6. Çalıştığınız kurum:

Kamu kurumu Özel Teşebbüs Diğer:

7. Çalıştığınız kurum:

Hizmet sektöründe faaliyet göstermektedir.

Üretim sektöründe faaliyet göstermektedir.

8. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda ne kadar süredir çalışmaktasınız?
..... yıl ay

Anketin ikinci bölümde tamamen hipotetik (hayal ürünü) olan 5 adet senaryo bulunmaktadır. Lütfen senaryoları okuduktan sonra her bir senaryonun altında yer alan ölçeği kendi fikirleriniz doğrultusunda işaretleyiniz.

BÖLÜM-2

Birinci Senaryo

B kişisi büyük bir şirkette beş yıldır çalışmaktadır. 8 ay önce eleman yetersizliği nedeniyle pazarlama departmanında görevlendirilmiştir. Yeni departmanında başlangıçta her şey yolunda giderken, daha sonraları işinden ve çalıştığı birimden çalışma arkadaşlarından biri olan A'nın bir takım davranışları nedeniyle soğumuştur. A kişisi B kişisine karşı pek de olumlu olmayan davranışlar içerisinde. Onun yaptığı işleri devamlı eleştirel bir gözle izlemekte, yapılan işi beğenmediğini ima eden bakışlarla B kişisini süzmektedir. B kişisi yaptığı işleri, aldığı kararları açıklamaya, savunmaya çalıştığında ise dudak bükerek yanından uzaklaşmakta ve ona açıklama fırsatı vermemektedir. B kişisi ısrar ederse haddini bilmesi gerektiğini, aksi takdirde hiç hoş olmayan şeylerle karşılaşabileceğini söyleyerek tehdit etmektedir. B kişisi için son derece tatsız olan bu görüşmelerin dışında, A kişisi onunla neredeyse hiç iletişim kurmayıp, onu görmemezlikten gelmekte, B kişisinin çalışma arkadaşlarının da onunla konuşmasını, iyi ilişkiler içinde olmasını onaylamadığını hissettirmektedir.

(H.1.1) Aşağıda A kişisinin B kişisine bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, A kişisinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	A kişisi B kişisini geride bırakarak, terfi alma amacındadır.					
2	A kişisi B kişisinin başarısız olduğu imajını yaratarak, birim yöneticisinden istediği görevleri kendine almak amacındadır.					
3	A kişisi B kişisinin işten ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	A kişisi B kişisinin iş ile ilgili önemli birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	A kişisi kendi performansının B kişisinininkinden daha üstün olduğunu gösterme amacındadır.					
6	A kişisi departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinme amacındadır.					

(H.1.2) Aşağıda A kişinin B kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, A kişinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	A kişisi ile B kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	A kişisi B kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	A kişinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	A kişisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	A kişisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	A kişisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	A kişisi ile B kişisi arasındaki problemler, yöneticilerinin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

İkinci Senaryo

C kişisi çalıştığı kurumda yaşadığı bir takım olumsuz olaylar nedeniyle psikolojik tedavi görmektedir. Olaylar, C kişinin çalıştığı birimin yöneticisinin çalışanlara bir görev listesi vermesi ve kendi aralarında bu görevleri paylaşmalarını istemesi ile başlamıştır. C kişinin çalışma arkadaşlarından biri olan D kişisi, görev paylaşımı yapıldığı sırada, C kişisine, kimsenin yapmak istemediği, herkesten uzak ve yalnız başına çalışılacak bir görevin verilmesini sağlamıştır. C kişisi yeni görevinde çalışma arkadaşlarını nadiren görebilme şansına sahiptir. Üstelik D kişisi C kişinin çalıştığı yerin uzak olmasını bahane ederek, çalışma arkadaşlarının onun yanına gitmesine, hatta öğlen yemeğe birlikte gitmek için C kişisini beklemelerine dahi engel olmaktadır.

(H.2.1) Aşağıda D kişinin C kişisine bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, D kişinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	D kişisi C kişisini geride bırakarak, terfi alma amacındadır.					

2	D kişisi C kişinin başarısız olduğu imajını yaratarak, birim yöneticisinden istediği görevleri kendine almak amacındadır.					
3	D kişisi C kişinin işten ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	D kişisi C kişinin iş ile ilgili önemli birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	D kişisi kendi performansının C kişisinkinden daha üstün olduğunu gösterme amacındadır.					
6	D kişisi departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinme amacındadır.					

(H.2.2) Aşağıda D kişinin C kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, D kişinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	D kişisi ile C kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	D kişisi C kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	D kişinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	D kişisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	D kişisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	D kişisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	D kişisi ile C kişisi arasındaki problemler, yöneticilerinin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Üçüncü Senaryo

E kişisi çalıştığı kurumda arkadaşları ve amirleri tarafından sevilen, başarılı bir çalışan olarak görülmekteydi. Ancak, çalıştığı birime M kişinin gelmesiyle bu durum tersine dönmüştür. M kişisi sürekli olarak E kişinin özel hayatı hakkında dedikodu yapmakta, onun işte ve özel yaşamında yaptığı hataların herkesin gözüne batmasını sağlamaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, M kişisi E kişinin konuşmasını ve mimiklerini taklit ederek, onu çalışma arkadaşları içinde komik duruma düşürmektedir. M kişisi şaka yollu sözlerle E kişinin aile yapısını da eleştirmektedir. Bir süre sonra, çalışma arkadaşları E kişinin eskisi kadar başarılı ve iyi biri olmadığını düşünmeye başlamışlardır. E kişisi bu tutumun nedenini anlamamakta ve karşı koymak için ne yapabileceğini bilememektedir. Ancak artık çalışma arkadaşlarının yanında kendini rahat ve mutlu hissetmemekte, sürekli alay konusu olduğunu ve hakkında dedikodu yapıldığını düşünmektedir.

(H.3.1) Aşağıda M kişinin E kişisine bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, M kişinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	M kişisi E kişisini geride bırakarak, terfi alma amacındadır.					
2	M kişisi E kişinin başarısız olduğu imajını yaratarak, birim yöneticisinden istediği görevleri kendine almak amacındadır.					
3	M kişisi E kişinin işten ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	M kişisi E kişinin iş ile ilgili önemli birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	M kişisi kendi performansının E kişisinkinden daha üstün olduğunu gösterme amacındadır.					
6	M kişisi departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinme amacındadır.					

(H.3.2) Aşağıda M kişinin E kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, M kişinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	M kişisi ile E kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	M kişisi E kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	M kişinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	M kişisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	M kişisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	M kişisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	M kişisi ile E kişisi arasındaki problemler, yöneticilerinin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Dördüncü Senaryo

G kişisi çalıştığı departmanda zor günler geçirmektedir. Çalışma arkadaşlarından biri olan H kişisi ile aynı ortamda çalışmak G kişisini çok mutsuz etmektedir. Çünkü H kişisi G kişisi ile aynı pozisyonda çalışmasına rağmen, G kişisine

sanki onun amiriymiş gibi davranıp, sürekli olarak ne yapması gerektiğini, nasıl yapması gerektiğini söylemektedir. G kişisi itiraz edecek olsa, ondan daha tecrübeli olduğunu ve tecrübesine saygı duyması gerektiğini belirtip, diğer çalışma arkadaşlarının yanında onu eleştirmektedir. Departmanda ne zaman kimsenin yapmak istemediği, anlamsız bir iş olsa, bu işin bir şekilde G kişinin üzerine kalmasına neden olmaktadır. G kişisi ise, sıkılarak da olsa, bu işleri tamamladıktan sonra, aslında işin gereksiz bir iş olduğunu fark etmektedir. Önemli işlerde ise H kişisi G kişinin bu işlere karışmamasını sağlamaktadır. H kişinin bu davranışları G kişinin “beceriksiz” bir çalışan gibi algılanmasına neden olmaktadır. G kişisi bu durumla baş edebilmek için işlerini daha özenli bir şekilde yapmaya çalışmaktadır. Ancak üzerindeki baskı nedeniyle giderek daha fazla hata yapmaktadır.

(H.4.1) Aşağıda H kişinin G kişiye bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, H kişinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	H kişisi G kişisini geride bırakarak, terfi alma amacıyla.					
2	H kişisi G kişinin başarısız olduğu imajını yaratarak, birim yöneticisinden istediği görevleri kendine almak amacıyla.					
3	H kişisi G kişinin işten ayrılmasını sağlama amacıyla.					
4	H kişisi G kişinin iş ile ilgili önemli birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacıyla.					
5	H kişisi kendi performansının G kişisinkinden daha üstün olduğunu gösterme amacıyla.					
6	H kişisi departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinme amacıyla.					

(H.4.2) Aşağıda H kişinin G kişiye bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, H kişinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.
3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.
5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	H kişisi ile G kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	H kişisi G kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	H kişinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	H kişisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					

5	H kişisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	H kişisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	H kişisi ile G kişisi arasındaki problemler, yöneticilerinin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

Beşinci Senaryo

Y kişisi çalıştığı hastaneden enfeksiyon kapdığı için bir süredir işe gidememektedir. Klinikte malzeme sorumlusu olan K kişisi Y kişisine son derece ters davranmakta, Y kişisi ne zaman koruyucu malzemelere ihtiyaç duyduğunu söylese, bittiğini, onlar olmadan idare etmesi gerektiğini söylemektedir. Ancak, Y kişisi diğer çalışma arkadaşlarının bu konuda herhangi bir sıkıntıyla karşılaşmadıklarını son derece şaşırarak fark etmektedir. Ayrıca K kişinin ne zaman Y kişinin yanından geçse canını yakacak şekilde ona çarpmakta, dirseğiyle dürtmekte, Y kişisi canının yandığını söylese ters bakışlarla onu süzmektedir.

Y kişisi klinikte sağlık açısından tehlikeli bulunan işlerin bir şekilde üstüne kaldığını ve K kişinin bu duruma neden olduğunu düşünmekte ve bu sorunu nasıl çözeceğini bilememektedir.

(H.5.1) Aşağıda K kişinin Y kişisine bu şekilde davranarak ulaşmak istediği bir takım amaçlar listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçüğe göre, K kişinin davranışlarının bu hedeflere ulaşmada ne kadar etkili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

- 1= Kesinlikle etkisizdir.
2= Büyük ölçüde etkisizdir.
3= Ne etkilidir, ne etkili değildir
4= Büyük ölçüde etkilidir.
5= Kesinlikle etkilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	K kişisi Y kişisini geride bırakarak, terfi alma amacındadır.					
2	K kişisi Y kişinin başarısız olduğu imajını yaratarak, birim yöneticisinden istediği görevleri kendine almak amacındadır.					
3	K kişisi Y kişinin işten ayrılmasını sağlama amacındadır.					
4	K kişisi Y kişinin iş ile ilgili önemli birtakım bilgilere ulaşmasını engelleme amacındadır.					
5	K kişisi kendi performansının Y kişisinkinden daha üstün olduğunu gösterme amacındadır.					
6	K kişisi departmanda önemli bir pozisyon edinme amacındadır.					

(H.5.2) Aşağıda K kişinin Y kişisine bu şekilde davranmasının olası başka nedenleri listelenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen ölçeğe göre, K kişinin davranışlarının bu nedenlerle ne derecede ilgili olabileceğini işaretleyiniz.

1= Kesinlikle ilgisizdir.

2= Büyük ölçüde ilgisizdir.

3= Ne ilgilidir, ne ilgili değildir

4= Büyük ölçüde ilgilidir.

5= Kesinlikle ilgilidir.

	Olası Nedenler	1	2	3	4	5
1	K kişisi ile Y kişinin kişilikleri büyük ölçüde uyuşmamaktadır.					
2	K kişisi Y kişisini kıskanmaktadır.					
3	K kişinin psikolojik sorunları vardır.					
4	K kişisi ile Y kişisi arasındaki problemler iş tanımlarındaki hata ve eksikliklerden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
5	K kişisi ile Y kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumdaki rekabetçi kültürden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
6	K kişisi ile Y kişisi arasındaki problemler kurumda kısa bir süre önce yaşanan değişimden kaynaklanmaktadır.					
7	K kişisi ile Y kişisi arasındaki problemler, yöneticilerinin duruma herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.					

BÖLÜM-3

Aşağıda yaşamınızla ilgili bir takım yargı cümleleri verilmiştir. Bu yargılara ne derece katıldığınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre, her ifadenin yanındaki uygun kutucuğu işaretleyerek gösteriniz.

1 = HİÇ KATILMIYORUM

2 = KATILMIYORUM

3 = KARARSIZIM

4 = KATILYORUM

5 = TAMAMEN KATILYORUM

NO:	İFADELER	1	2	3	4	5
1	Size bir faydası olmayacaksa yaptığınız bir hareketin gerçek nedenini asla söylemezsiniz.					
2	İnsanları idare etmenin en iyi yolu, onlara duymak istediklerini söylemektir.					
3	Bir insan ancak etik olarak doğru olduğundan emin olduğu hareketi yapmalıdır.					
4	İnsanların birçoğu özünde kibar ve iyidir.					
5	İnsanların içinde kötü bir taraf olduğunu ve bunun zaman zaman ortaya çıkabileceğini varsaymak en güvenli yoldur.					
6	Dürüstlük her zaman en iyi seçenektir.					
7	Birine yalan söylemenin hiçbir mazereti olamaz.					
8	İnsanlar genellikle birisi onları zorlamadan çok çalışmazlar.					
9	Mütevazı ve dürüst biri olmak, önemli biri olup dürüst olmaktan					

	daha iyidir.						
10	Birinden sizin için bir şey yapmasını istediğinizde, onu ikna etmek için başka sebepler söylemektense, gerçek sebepleri söylemek çok daha iyidir.						
11	Ahlaki değerlere uygun yaşam süren insanlar ilerleme kaydederler.						
12	Birine tamamen güvenen bir insan bela arıyor demektir.						
13	Suçlularla diğer insanlar arasındaki fark, suçluların yakalanacak kadar aptal olmasıdır.						
14	İnsanların çoğunluğu cesurdur.						
15	Önemli insanları pohpohlamak akıllıca bir harekettir.						
16	Her koşulda iyi biri olmak mümkündür.						
17	Her dakika asalak bir insanın dünyaya geldiğine inanıyorum.						
18	Kuralların dışına çıkmadan ilerlemek mümkün değildir.						
19	Tedavi edilemeyen hastalıklardan dolayı acı çeken insanlara ötenazi olanağı sunulmalıdır.						
20	Pek çok insan babasının ölümünü servetini kaybetmekten daha kolay unuttur.						

ANKET BİTMİŞTİR. KATKILARINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.

VITA

Burcu GÜNERİ ÇANGARLI was born in Eskişehir, on June 1, 1982. She completed her high school education in Afyon Fen Lisesi in 1999 and studied Business Administration in Ege University where she received her Bachelor's Degree in 2004.

In 2004, she started to work as a research assistant at the Department of Business Administration. In the same year, she started her PhD in the field of Business Administration with specialization of management. Since 2006, she has been working as a lecturer at the Department of Business Administration. Her research interests include bullying, health care management, and employee attitudes.