

The relationship of downward mobbing with leadership and  
work-related attitudes

by

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## STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

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## ABSTRACT

The present study has four aims: (1) to explore the effects of different leadership styles on mobbing behaviors exhibited, (2) to identify the work-related attitudes of employees following exposure to mobbing, (3) to find out the moderating effects of social support from colleagues, and organizational support on the relationship between the mobbing exposure and development of work-related attitudes, (4) to investigate the phenomenon of mobbing in a Turkish sample. Transformational, transactional, authoritarian and paternalistic leadership practices affecting mobbing behaviors displayed, and the work-related attitudes of the victims (i.e. overall job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment and turnover intention) were investigated. Data from 219 white-collar employees from different sectors working under supervisor was used to test the proposed path model. It was found that mobbing was negatively associated with transformational, transactional and paternalistic leaderships and positively associated with authoritarian leadership. In turn, mobbing was found to be related to lower job satisfaction, lower affective commitment, higher turnover intention and higher continuance commitment. Social support from colleagues and organizational support failed to moderate the relationships between mobbing and work-related attitudes of employees. Scientific and practical contributions are discussed along with suggestions for future research.

**Keywords:** Downward mobbing, leadership, job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational commitment, social support, organizational support

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın 4 amacı vardır: (1) Farklı liderlik tiplerinin yıldırma (mobbing) olan etkisini incelemek, (2) yıldırma davranışına maruz kalan çalışanların örgütsel tutumlarındaki değişiklikleri incelemek, (3) çalışanların iş arkadaşlarından aldıkları destek ve algılanan ve varolan örgütsel desteğin örgütsel tutumlar ve yıldırma davranışları arasındaki moderatör etkisini incelemek ve (4) Türkiye’de işyerinde yıldırma olgusunu incelemek. Çalışmada doğrudan bağlı bulunan yöneticinin liderlik tipi (transformasyonel, transaksiyonel, otoriter ve babacan liderlik) ile yıldırma arasındaki ilişki ile, yıldırma ile çalışanların örgütsel tutumları (duygusal ve mecburiyet bağlılığı, iş memnuniyeti ve işten ayrılma niyeti) arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Araştırmaya, farklı sektörlerden, en az altı aydır doğrudan bir yöneticiye bağlı olarak çalışan 219 beyaz yaka çalışan katılmıştır. Path analizine göre transformasyonel, transaksiyonel ve babacan liderlik ile yıldırma arasında negatif, otoriter liderlik ile yıldırma arasında pozitif ilişki bulunmuştur. Yıldırma ile iş memnuniyeti ve duygusal örgütsel bağlılık arasında negatif, ayrılma niyeti ve mecburiyet örgütsel bağlılık arasında pozitif ilişki görülmüştür. Çalışanların iş arkadaşlarından aldıkları sosyal destek ile algılanan ve varolan örgütsel desteğin, yıldırma ile çalışanların örgütsel tutumları arasında moderatör etkisi bulunamamıştır. Bulguların bilimsel ve uygulamaya yönelik katkıları değerlendirilmiştir.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** Yukarıdan aşağıya mobbing, yıldırma, liderlik, iş memnuniyeti, ayrılma niyeti, örgütsel bağlılık, sosyal destek, örgütsel destek

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<i>AC</i>	Affective Commitment
<i>ANOVA</i>	Analysis of Variance
<i>CC</i>	Continuance Commitment
<i>MMR</i>	Moderated Multiple Regression
<i>POS</i>	Perceived organizational support
<i>PTSD</i>	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

The present study investigates the effect of different leadership styles on mobbing behaviors exhibited and related organizational attitudes of employees who are subjected to mobbing at work from superiors. Additionally, the moderating roles of social support from colleagues and perceived and actual organizational support on the relationship between mobbing exposure and organizational attitudes are tested.

In today's public and private organizations, counterproductive workplace behaviors are prevalent phenomena. Many researchers have studied such hostile work behaviors under the heading of 'workplace bullying' or 'mobbing' (Brodsky, 1976; Leymann, 1990). Specifically, mobbing has been defined as "hostile and unethical communication that is directed in a systematic way by one or more persons, mainly towards one targeted individual" (Leymann, 1990). Different terminologies are used in the literature for mobbing mostly synonymously; such as 'psychological terror' (Leymann, 1990), 'harassment' (Brodsky, 1976), 'bullying' (Adams, 1992), 'workplace trauma' (Wilson, 1991), 'scapegoating' (Thylefors, 1987; cited in Rayner & Hoel, 1997), 'work abuse' (Bassmann, 1992), 'victimization' (Olweus, 1994), 'petty tyranny' (Ashforth, 1994), 'emotional abuse' (Keashly, 1998) and 'workplace aggression' (Baron & Neuman, 1996), though with some geographical and terminological differentiations. 'Mobbing' has been adapted primarily by German-speaking countries, the Netherlands and some Mediterranean countries; whereas 'bullying' is used mostly in English-speaking countries (Matthiesen, 2006; Zapf & Einarsen, 2001). Some researchers also suggest slight differences in meanings of these terms. According to Leymann (1996), the English word 'bullying' includes

physical aggression and threat and used generally to describe conflicts at *school settings*, while ‘mobbing behavior’ includes non-sexual harassment in the *workplace*. In the present study, the latter definition is used.

Mobbing emerges in different forms at the workplace. The most common type is ‘downward mobbing’, in which the mobbers are superiors and victims are the subordinates. Other types of mobbing include ‘upward mobbing’, which is mobbing by subordinates to superiors; and ‘horizontal mobbing’ or ‘collegial mobbing’ which is mobbing of employees against a colleague (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003; Vandekerchove & Commers, 2004). Downward workplace mobbing is the most prevalent type in today’s organizations, and defined as “the intentional and repeated inflictions of physical and psychological harm by superiors on subordinates” (Vandekerchove & Commers, 2004, p. 42). Organizational changes and insufficient transformation of leadership in response to those changes are cited among the important reasons of downward mobbing (Vandekerchove & Commers, 2004). Accordingly, poor leadership has been accepted as an important antecedent of mobbing. A US survey (EOA, 1997) on workplace harassment showed that poor leadership contributed to workplace pressure. In addition, Vartia (1996) found that victims of mobbing described their work environment negatively in every respect. Many of the environmental characteristics they described were related to the leadership style and supervisory practices. Einarsen et al. (1994) also showed that particularly role conflict, but also leadership, work control, and social climate were correlated with downward mobbing. Other risk factors facilitating the process of mobbing are a strict hierarchical organization, an authoritarian atmosphere, and a leader uncertain of himself (Bjorkvist et al., 1994). Most researchers suggest that the leader is always responsible in one way or another; either by actively participating in

the mobbing, (which is true in 40 % of the cases according to Leymann (1992)), or ignoring the mobbing process. These are consistent with Leymann's (1996) suggestion that not personality, but contextual factors are the main reasons why mobbing occurs at workplace. As work organization and supervisory practices emerge to be the most important factors that contribute to mobbing in the literature, studying the effects of different leadership practices would be important for the understanding of different mobbing behaviors. Examining the association between previously uninvestigated leadership styles such as paternalistic, transformational, and transactional leadership and mobbing would be important to clarify the nature of relationship between different leadership styles and mobbing exposure. Thus, focusing on leadership styles as a predictor of mobbing, one main research question of the current study is "How do different leadership styles influence mobbing behaviors exhibited?" The current study is conducted in the Turkish work setting; accordingly the behaviors which are perceived as mobbing might be expected to be different from the pattern seen in other countries. Since the previous literature is scarce about the influence of different leadership types on mobbing behaviors in organizations, the current study is expected to contribute to the scientific literature, especially in the Turkish context of high collectivism, paternalism and power distance (Hofstede, 1980).

With respect to the outcomes of mobbing, there are direct social, economic and psychological consequences for the individual, organization and society at large. Since the introduction of the term mobbing by Heinz Leymann in 1984, the outcomes of mobbing have received considerable attention, particularly regarding its effects on the psychological well-being of the employees exposed to mobbing. When we look at the *individual side*, we see that there is a significant negative relationship between

exposure to mobbing and psychological health and well-being (Bjorkqvist et. al., 1994; Brodsky, 1976; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Leymann, 1990). From the *organizational side*, these psychological problems are associated with lowered productivity, increased sick leaves, turnover intentions, lack of personnel motivation, reduced organizational commitment, and actual turnover (Einarsen et. al., 1994; Leymann, 1990; Niedl, 1996). The negative effects on *society* include sick leaves and early retirements which in turn are burdens for the governments (Leymann, 1990). Therefore, it is crucial for the individual, organization, and the society to understand the mechanisms of mobbing and be able to intervene to this process. The contributions of the present study on mobbing literature will also be valuable in the practical sense, since identifying problems related with mobbing will lead to proper intervention plans.

Previous literature has mostly concentrated on the effects of mobbing on victims' emotional and psychological outcomes, but not on their attitudes towards the organization (Ashfort, 1994; Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Brodsky, 1976). The current study focuses on the organizational attitudes of mobbing victims; more specifically their overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Therefore, this study is expected to contribute to the scientific literature by filling the gap concerning the organizational outcomes of mobbing. Accordingly, the second research question to be investigated is "How are work-related attitudes of victims toward the organization influenced by exposure to mobbing?" The predictors and organizational outcomes of mobbing are tested in a model as shown in Figure 1.

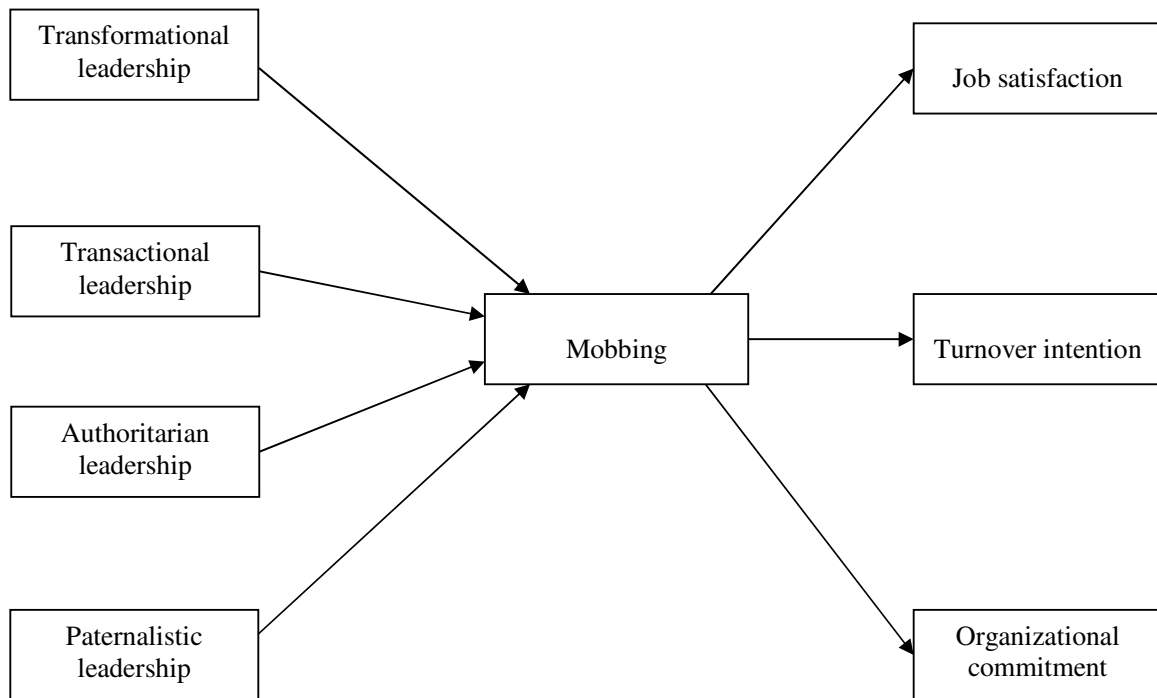


Figure 1. The conceptual model.



Yet, the relationship between exposure to mobbing and the development of work-related attitudes is not direct. There are some mechanisms that possibly moderate the relationship between these phenomena. One such moderator is *social support*, defined as ‘actual or perceived resources that are accessible in the case of management of stress that help to increase the experience of well-being’ (McIntosh, 1991, p. 202). Previous research has shown that emotional and/or instrumental social support from colleagues and supervisors moderate or ‘buffer’ the relationship between perceived job stressors and psychological and job strains (House & Wells, 1978; LaRocco, House & French, 1980). In addition, related to but distinct from social support from colleagues, *organizational support* also affects the development of work-related attitudes of employees. Employees’ attitudes are influenced by their perceptions about their organizations willfulness to help them when they need, such as in stressful conditions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Therefore, perceived organizational support (POS), in addition to the presence of actual organizational support mechanisms and perceived social support from colleagues are possible variables that would moderate the relationship between mobbing exposure and development of employees’ attitudes toward their organization. Consequently, the final research question of the current study is “Do social support from colleagues and organizational support moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and organizational attitudes of the employees?”

In summary, the current study explores the association of different leadership styles with mobbing; identifies the work-related attitudes of employees following exposure to mobbing and the moderating effects of social support from colleagues and organizational support on the relationship between mobbing and work-related attitudes.

## Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 The prevalence of workplace mobbing

Previous research on mobbing has shown that mobbing is a widespread phenomenon in Europe and the USA. A 2004 survey for the *European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions* showed that 9% of workers in Europe (about 12 million people) had been exposed to mobbing over the last 12 months, in both public and the private sectors (Ferrari, 2004). This ratio is 1 in 6 (16.8%) in the US (Namie & Namie, 2000). In a British population-wide survey, 10.6 % of the employees reported being mobbed during the last 6 months, 1.4 % reported being mobbed on a daily or weekly basis, 24.4 % reported that they had been mobbed during the last five years and 46.5 % reported having witnessed mobbing of others (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Previously in another study in the UK, it was found that 53 % of 1137 respondents were exposed to mobbing at some point in their working lives; and 77 % had witnessed the occurrence of mobbing (Rayner, 1997). Mobbing has been studied particularly in Scandinavian countries in Europe besides Britain. In Norway, among 14 different surveys which consisted of 7986 participants, on average 8.6 % reported being subjected to mobbing within the last 6 months (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). The percentage is 3.5 % in Sweden among 154,000 employees from both genders (Leymann, 1992).

In Turkey, mobbing has only been recently identified as an occupational health issue (Bilgel et al., 2006); therefore it is hard to fully understand the incidence of mobbing in the Turkish context. However, the survey for the *European Foundation*

*for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions* (2004) has listed Turkey as one of the 13 candidate countries for the possibly high incidence of mobbing due to the economic structures and contingencies in the country such as high unemployment rate. In a recent survey on 100 Turkish participants conducted by *Human Resources Management*, a consultant firm, it was found that 81% of the participants have been exposed to mobbing behaviors at least once in their work lives. Supporting the high occurrence rate in Turkey, Bilgel et al. (2006) found that, of the 877 respondents, 55 % reported experiencing some kind of mobbing in the previous year and 47 % had witnessed mobbing of others. Another research conducted in the Turkish health care sector (Yıldırım & Yıldırım, in press) found that 86.5 % of 1463 nurses reported having faced mobbing behaviors one or more times during the previous year. In another study, Yıldırım and Yıldırım (2007) demonstrated that of 346 nurse teaching staff, 91 % of them had witnessed mobbing behaviors one or more times in the last 12 months and 17 % was directly exposed to mobbing. Though limited, recent studies has supported that mobbing is a prevalent issue in the work life in Turkey. Thus, understanding the definition of mobbing and identifying the kinds of behaviors which are classified as mobbing are crucial.

## **2.2 Defining the term ‘mobbing’**

As Coyne et al. (2004) stated, despite the lack of an agreed upon operational definition of the mobbing concept in the literature, there is agreement on the basic features of the concept (Hoel et al., 2001). These are (1) the frequency (repeated/persistent) and duration (long-term/enduring) of the acts, (2) subjective perception of the victims of how they view the behaviors and their effects, (3)

negative acts that characterize the mobbing situation, and (4) imbalance of power between mobbers and victims.

### **2.2.1 Frequency and duration of the mobbing acts**

Several studies state that mobbing behaviors occur on a frequent basis (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000). For instance, according to Vartia (1996), a negative act is not defined as mobbing if it occurs for *once*. Although single occasions of conflict and aggression occur frequently in everyday lives at the workplace, they are classified as mobbing only when they occur regularly (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Matthiesen, 2006). Majority of the literature takes Leymann's (1996) specification into account regarding the occurrence of mobbing, which states that, in order for an act to be considered as mobbing, it should occur at least once a week.

In addition to the frequency, the long-term pattern is considered as the most significant feature of the mobbing concept. Most definitions of mobbing focus on the enduring pattern, which Leymann (1996) defines as occurring at least for 6 months. In Britain, 47 % of the individuals who are exposed to mobbing behaviors at work reported that it had lasted for more than one year and 30 % reported two years or more (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). In Finland, local employees reported that they were exposed to mobbing for an average of five years or more (Vartia, 1996). In Ireland, the average exposure time of mobbing was 3.4 years (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). In general, previous research shows duration of mobbing for more than 1 year, supporting the point that mobbing behaviors occur for a long time.

### 2.2.2 Subjective perception

By definition, mobbing includes a subjectivity factor; it is the victims' perceptions of how they interpret the behavior they are exposed to and its consequences (Einarsen et al., 2003). Painter (1991) stated that any assessment of mobbing should take this subjective evaluation notion into account. Therefore, what may be seen as mobbing by one person may not be perceived the same way by another (Coyne et al, 2004). This complicates the identification of the victims and mobbers at the workplace.

In order to understand the mobbing issue, the factors that influence how the negative acts of mobbing are perceived need to be explored (Einarsen, 1999). Earlier Brodsky (1976) had distinguished between subjective and objective forms of mobbing; *subjective mobbing* is the victim's perceptions of mobbing, and *objective mobbing* is when there is actual evidence about mobbing situation. For instance, statements of colleagues, superiors and subordinates could be considered as evidence for objective mobbing; whereas the descriptions of the victims of the mobbing situation are the subjective forms. Later, Einarsen (2000) suggested that subjective mobbing is indeed important both as a sign of discomfort on part of the person, and as perceptions of his/her interactions with others in the workplace. Therefore he argued that 'subjective perception of mobbing' exposure may be the only 'objective measure of mobbing' (p. 383). He further pointed out that both subjective and objective forms of mobbing must be taken into account, because treating mobbing as only an objective phenomenon leads to difficulties in developing practical interventions to deal with the situation. However, as a gradually evolving process, the course of mobbing changes its character over time (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996). During the early stages of the problem, when the conflicts begin to turn into mobbing, mobbing

behaviors might be covert and indirect, which Leymann (1996) define as ‘critical incidents’ Later, these acts turn into more direct aggressive acts which might stigmatize the victims (Leymann, 1996; Einarsen, 1998).

### **2.2.3 Negative acts**

Most definitions of mobbing emphasize negative acts in mobbing (Einarsen, 2000; Olweus, 1991). Leymann (1994) argued that at the early stages of conflict, the activities need not necessarily involve purely negative behaviors. As the conflict escalates and the situation begins to be regarded as mobbing, the content and meaning of these conflicts change, and turn into hostile, dangerous behaviors which characterize the mobbing situation. This is related with more covert and indirect forms of negative acts at the early stages of mobbing, which may not have an objective indicator.

Various typologies of mobbing acts have been identified in the literature. Brodsky (1976) recognized five forms: scapegoating, name calling, physical abuse, work pressure, and sexual harassment. Ashfort (1994) used the term ‘petty tyranny’ and divided the leaders’ tyrant behavior into 6 forms: arbitrariness and self – exaggeration, underestimating subordinates, lack of consideration, a forcing style of conflict resolution, discouraging initiative, and noncontingent punishment. Among 137 Norwegian victims of mobbing, social isolation and exclusion, devaluation of one’s work and efforts, being teased, insulting remarks and ridicule were the most frequently reported negative acts (Einarsen, et al., 1994). Furthermore, in a Finnish study, six types of mobbing behaviors were identified: (1) slander, gossips, rumors spread about the person, (2) social exclusion, (3) giving the person too simple or few work tasks, (4) continuous criticism of person’s work and results, (5) physical violence or threat, (6) hints about the person’s mental health (Vartia, 1991). Rayner

and Hoel (1997) and Quine (1999) used five categories to identify mobbing behaviors, which are threat to professional status, threat to personal standing, isolation, overwork, and destabilization. Niedl (1995) identified 7 forms of mobbing behaviors; as attacking a person's integrity, isolation, direct and indirect criticisms, sanction by certain tasks, threats, sexual encroachment, and attacking a person's private sphere. Leymann (1990) divided mobbing actions into five forms which include the manipulation of: (1) the victim's reputation (gossiping, ridiculing, making fun of a handicap, ethnical heritage or the way of moving/talking), (2) his/her possibilities of performing the work tasks (not given any work tasks or given meaningless work tasks), (3) victim's possibilities of communicating with his/her coworkers adequately (no possibility to communicate, being silenced, verbal attack regarding work tasks, and/or verbal threats), (4) his/her social circumstances (colleagues not talking with him, even forbidden to do so by the management, and/or being isolated in a room far from others), and (5) the behaviors involving physical coercion or assaults, or the threats of such (dangerous work tasks, threatened or attacked physically, and/or sexually harassed).

Overall, mobbing acts overlap in different researchers' classifications, most of them excluding physical violence and sexual harassment. The current study uses Leymann's (1996) definition of mobbing, as "a social interaction through which one individual is attacked by one or more individuals on a daily basis and for periods of many months, bringing the person into an almost helpless position with potentially high risk of expulsion" (p. 168).

Leymann (1996) and Randall (1997) have pointed out that mobbing behaviors may not be necessarily atypical negative acts but their severity and/ or regularity makes them detrimental. Moreover, these classifications of mobbing behaviors are

primarily based on the studies in Nordic countries; therefore cross-cultural identifications of mobbing behaviors may be different. Cultural aspects such as power distance might lead to different types and levels of mobbing behaviors in different cultures. For instance, Hofstede (1980) identified Scandinavian countries as less power distant than United States; and accordingly a survey between these two countries on sexual harassment showed that in Norway, perceived hostility and frequency of these behaviors were lower compared to American women (Einarsen & Sorum, 1996). Likewise, males in Norway were less sexually aggressive and dominant than American males. Similarly, different cultural values in different contexts might affect the perceptions of mobbing. This is especially important since most definitions of mobbing are based on the subjective evaluations of the victims.

#### **2.2.4 Imbalance of power**

Imbalance of power between victims and perpetrators is viewed as the core aspect of the definition of mobbing (Einarsen & Skodsgad, 1996; Liefoghe & Davey, 2001; Niedl, 1995). According to Niedl (1995), only if the person perceives that s/he is unable to defend herself/himself or escape from the situation, the person is victimized. The inability to defend himself/herself may be directly related with the formal or informal power relationships between parties, unequal status of the parties or an indirect outcome of mobbing itself (Niedl, 1995). Generally, literature supports the point that, if there is an equal balance of power between two persons in a conflict state; it is not referred as mobbing (Hoel et al., 2001). However, Leymann argues that mobbing can start with an equal power structure, but after some time there will eventually be an unequal power structure; and the victims will be pushed into an inferior position which will limit their resources to defend themselves. Bjorkqvist (1994) also defined mobbing as a long term aggression directed towards a person who



is not able to defend himself/herself, leading to victimization of that individual. However, he argued that only having lower power does not explain mobbing for the victimization course. It is generally because of the hierarchical-organizational structure of the company that leads to the victim having less power to defend herself/himself.

The emphasis on the imbalance of power between the victim and the perpetrator leads to the assumption that the power associated with leadership may be a cause of mobbing and may lead to mobbing from superiors to subordinates (Nielsen et al, 2005). Superiors mobbing the subordinates are referred as ‘downward mobbing’ in the literature and reported as the most common form of mobbing (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Niedl 1995; Nielsen et al., 2005; Zapf et al., 1996). The next section summarizes literature on downward mobbing.

### **2.3 Downward mobbing and its antecedents**

In the mobbing literature, *downward mobbing* seems to be the most prevalent form of workplace mobbing (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003; Vandekerchhove & Commers, 2004). Other types of mobbing include ‘upward mobbing’, which is mobbing by subordinates to superiors, up the ladder; and ‘horizontal mobbing’ or ‘collegial mobbing’ which is mobbing of employees against a colleague (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003; Vandekerchhove & Commers, 2004). Vredenburg and Brender (1998) defined downward mobbing as “acts which manifest disrespect for a subordinate’s dignity or provide obstacles to a subordinate’s job performance and/or deserved rewards” (p. 1339). Vandekerchhove and Commers (2004) stated that this type of mobbing is related to malfunction of authority and organizational power. Other factors related with downward mobbing are cited as dysfunctional organizational structure or culture, lack of communication, and job control that cause mobbing which directly or

indirectly imply leadership failures in the organization (Davenport et al., 1999; Zapf, 1999). However, poor leadership practices are not the only causes of mobbing identified in the literature.

There are a variety of individual and organizational factors related with mobbing. Individual perspective focuses on the proneness of some workers to be mobbed, due to their personality characteristics or any vulnerability that they might possess. For instance, victims of mobbing were found to be low on self esteem and high in anxiety (Einarsen et al., 1994), highly conscientious, more traditional, rigid and moralistic, and less assertive and competitive than non victims (Coyne et al., 2000), unsophisticated, with an unrealistic view of their abilities and resources and the demands of the situation (Brodsky, 1976). Likewise, a study with 72 mobbing victims showed victims to be more neurotic, less agreeable, conscientious, and extraverted than non victims (Glaso et al., 2007). These studies suggest that some personality characteristics make people more prone to be mobbed (Matthiesen, 2006). However, whether these personality characteristics are the causes or the outcomes of mobbing exposure is still unanswered (Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Leymann (1996) suggested that it is not useful to blame the personality of the victim when the conflicts at the workplace escalate into mobbing. He argued that the victims' behaviors are normal responses to poor conflict management strategies in the organization. Therefore, a second perspective holds the organization responsible for the occurrence of mobbing.

Organizational perspective proposes that mobbing is a symptom of organizational dysfunction (Matthiesen, 2006). Leymann (1996) suggested four factors related to the organizational context lead to mobbing situations as (1) deficiencies in work design, (2) deficiencies in leadership behavior, (3) socially-

exposed position of the victim, and (4) low moral standard at the department. Weak superiors, competition for tasks, status, advancement or supervisor's approval, poorly organized production and working methods, a helpless or uninterested management, extensive workloads due to shortage of workforce, monotonous and unchallenging work, negative social environment at work, bad job content, role conflict, role ambiguity, work control, and poor leadership practices are other factors listed in the literature as organizational antecedents of mobbing (e.g. Appelberg et al, 1991; Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen, Raknes & Matthiesen, 1994; Leymann, 1999; Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003; Vartia, 1996). Organizational cultures own specific norms, values and rules that direct the behaviors of the employees as well as the leaders; and those values and norms may implicitly promote the occurrence of mobbing behaviors (Einarsen, 2000; Matthiesen, 2006).

The features of organizational culture turn out to be closely related to leadership practices carried out by the managers. For instance, Einarsen (1999) found that mobbing was common where the managers felt that their abusive behaviors were supported explicitly or implicitly by the senior managers. In another study, 30 Irish victims of mobbing reported that their workplace was highly stressful and competitive, full of interpersonal conflicts and managed through an authoritarian leadership style (Seigne, 1998; cited in Matthiesen, 2006). Moreover, in a Finnish study, an authoritarian way of settling differences in ideas, poor information flow, lack of mutual discussions, low influence in matters concerning oneself were found to facilitate mobbing behaviors (Vartia, 1996).

Overall, the literature supports the view that mobbing can be mainly explained by work conditions. Leymann (1999) suggested if the management has a poor conflict management strategy, mobbing situations might get worse. If the supervisor takes part

actively in the conflict instead of sorting the problem, s/he has to choose sides; and this leads to the escalation of the conflict into a mobbing case. He further argued that poor leadership performance such as getting involved in group dynamics during conflict situations or denying that a conflict exists are among the major causes of mobbing. These propositions point to the effect of leadership practices on the development and escalation of mobbing. The next section will summarize basic types of leadership and state the hypotheses of the current study relating each leadership style to mobbing.

### **2.3.1 Leadership**

As discussed above, leadership has been identified as one of the most important predictors of mobbing in the literature (Leymann, 1996; Vartia, 1996). The terms ‘health endangering leadership’ (Kile, 1990; cited in Einarsen, 2000), ‘petty tyranny’ (Ashfort, 1994), ‘militant managers’ (Elbing & Elbing, 1994), ‘destructive leadership’ (Einarsen et al., 2002; Skogstad, 1997), and ‘abusive supervision’ (Tepper, 2000) are used in the literature for managers and leaders who mob their subordinates. For instance, Einarsen et al. (2006) defined *destructive leadership* as “the systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor or manager that violate the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates” (p.208). Since the present study focuses ‘downward mobbing’, which is mobbing by the superiors on subordinates, leadership styles of superiors in relation to mobbing are analyzed.

The effects of particular leadership styles on mobbing behaviors have seldom been explored in the literature. This may be because the studies generally imply that ineffective leadership means merely the lack of the factors that make leadership

effective; and this may be the major reason why negative leadership behaviors such as unpredictability or ridiculing subordinates have not been clearly studied (Ashfort, 1994).

Since the term mobbing inherently includes a notion of imbalance of power between parties, and the previous literature generally supports downward mobbing as the most common form, it is important to study the effects of different leadership styles on mobbing behaviors. On the basis of the limited literature that investigates the effects of leadership styles on mobbing behaviors exhibited, different leadership styles are expected to be associated differently with the display of mobbing behaviors. While some types of leadership behaviors are mainly destructive and might be perceived as ‘negative acts’ by the employees, other forms are more constructive and might be negatively related to mobbing. Therefore, in the current research, leadership styles are expected to differently influence the occurrence of mobbing behaviors at the workplace. The current study investigates four different forms of leadership, namely transformational, transactional, authoritarian and paternalistic leadership styles and their relationships with mobbing.

### **2.3.1.1 Transformational leadership**

Since the development of Multifactor Leadership Theory of Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership has received considerable attention.

*Transformational leadership* is seen when leaders stimulate interest among followers for new perspectives, develop them for higher levels of their potential, generate awareness among followers for the mission or vision of the group, and motivate them to look beyond their own interests for the good of the group (Bass & Avolio, 1994; p. 2). As such, transformational leaders *transform* the employees to higher performance

standards and initiate growth and change in the organization (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Yamarinno & Dubinsky, 1994).

The relationship between transformational leadership and mobbing has not been directly investigated before. However, when four dimensions of transformational leadership are analyzed (Bass & Avolio, 1994) in the context of mobbing behaviors, it can give a general idea about the possible negative relationship with transformational leadership and mobbing.

1. **Idealized influence:** Transformational leaders become role models for their followers. They are admired, respected and trusted, and are modeled by their followers and they gain trust, respect and confidence by transmitting a sense of mission and vision to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yamarinno & Dubinsky, 1994). On the other hand, previous research shows that mobbing behaviors include intimidation and humiliation of subordinates, and continuous criticism which lead to lower self-confidence and self-questioning (Janoff-Bulman, 1992; Moayed, Darasieh, Shell & Salem, 2006). Rather than being a role model by showing examples of good performance, abusive leadership behaviors include withholding information and excluding subordinates (Einarsen, et al., 1994).
2. **Inspirational motivation:** Transformational leaders encourage and challenge the followers and therefore increase their motivation and inspiration for personal development, team spirit and a better future. They also clearly communicate the expectations and create commitment for goals and the shared vision. However, mobbing behaviors include setting unrealistic targets and discouraging initiative among the subordinates which decreases motivation and leads to higher stress (Ashfort, 1994; Quine, 1999).

3. Intellectual stimulation: Transformational leaders encourage creativity and new approaches, stimulate followers' efforts to be innovative and direct them to develop distinctive ways to deal with difficult situations, and do not criticize their ideas. However, removing responsibilities and continuous criticism of the person's performance are cited among the main forms of mobbing behaviors (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2002; Salin, 2001; Vartia, 1991).
4. Individualized consideration: Transformational leaders pay individual attention to their followers by creating new learning opportunities, being aware of individual differences, encouraging a two-way communication, and directing them to engage in challenging tasks that will lead to their self-development. On the other hand, mobbers give meaningless tasks to the victims, show verbal threat and anger, show belittling attitudes and inhibit employees' communication and social circumstances with others (Leymann, 1990; Rayner, 1997; Rayner, 1999; Salin, 2001).

Overall, the literature supports that transformational leadership is a form of effective leadership style and positively influences many work-related outcomes (Kelloway et al., 2005), such as organizational commitment (Barling et al., 1996), job satisfaction, supervisory satisfaction (Hater & Bass, 1988), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Koh et al., 1995). However, as Kelloway et al. (2005) stated, few studies have investigated the extent of the effect transformational leadership exerts on negative organizational outcomes. Findings of such research have reported negative association between transformational leadership and job-related stress (Gill et al., 2006; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), role stress (Podsakoff et al., 1996), and individualized consideration dimension and stress (Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004;

Seltzer et al, 1989), This makes sense since transformational leaders encourage followers to perceive stressful events and difficult situations as challenges and personal development opportunities (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Shamir et al., 1993). Since transformational leadership has been defined as the most effective and satisfying leadership style in many studies (Bass & Avolio, 1994), and has been demonstrated to stimulate positive socio-emotional responses such as trust, liking and willingness (Bass, 1999) transformational leaders are not expected to display mobbing acts at the workplace. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership behavior will be negatively associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.

#### **2.3.1.2 Transactional leadership**

In contrast to transformational leadership, *transactional leadership* involves a single exchange/transaction process between the leader and the follower (Burns, 1978). The leader identifies the circumstances and rewards that will be given when the follower or colleague fulfills the requirements (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Therefore, there is a mutual dependence between the parties in which both sides' inputs are rewarded (Kellerman, 1984; cited in Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987), either by "contingent reward", or "management-by-exception" (Bass & Avolio, 1994). In "contingent reward", the leader assigns a goal and promises or actually rewards for satisfactory performance. In "management-by-exception" (MBE), the leader actively monitors the follower's work and takes the necessary corrective actions either proactively or retroactively (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transactional leadership involves a "cost-benefit exchange process" between the leader and follower (Bass, 1985). The leader either clarifies what is expected from



the subordinates and what they will receive in return for accomplishing those performance criteria in contingent reward, or takes the corrective action after active or passive management styles. Despite the outcomes for unsatisfactory performance might also be negative for the subordinates, the literature quotes transactional leadership as another type of effective leadership and states that these types of leaders reward subordinates for meeting the goals, and correct them for failing to meet the goals (Eagly et al., 2003). Stress research suggests that transactional leadership, especially *contingent reward* behaviors reduce job-related stress by decreasing uncertainty in the work environment by setting clear targets and clarifying desired performance criteria (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Since role ambiguity and role conflict are the major work stressors for employees (Kahn et al., 1964), contingent reward behaviors decrease job-related stress by clarifying role characteristics of the individual (Stordeur et al., 2001).

Moreover, one of the most common mobbing behaviors is cited as threats to both professional and personal status in the literature (Leymann, 1990; Niedl, 1995; Quine, 1999). On the other hand, transactional leadership refers to actively monitoring the follower's performance and taking the corrective action for unacceptable performance (Bass, 1985). Therefore, it may be inferred that transactional leadership behaviors are possibly not positively associated with abusive behaviors such as threats but are rather active monitoring and corrections about performance. Therefore, transactional leadership behaviors are expected to be negatively associated with mobbing exposure at work.

Hypothesis 2: Transactional leadership behavior will be negatively associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.

### 2.3.1.3 Authoritarian leadership

Authoritarian leadership has been previously suggested to be positively associated with mobbing at the work place (O'Moore, 2000; cited in Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Authoritarian leadership is defined as the "leader's behavior that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience from subordinates" (Cheng et al., 2004; p. 91). Authoritarian leaders believe they know more than others in their organizations and have the right to get things done in their own ways; therefore they stress "personal dominance" over the followers, unify the authority over themselves and make one-sided decisions (Tsui et al., 2004). In authoritarian management, leaders exhibit strong control and authority over the group and in turn the group is forced to obey the leader (Cheng et al., 2004). According to Farh and Cheng (2000), authoritarian leadership leads to dependence and compliance in the subordinates.

Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) found that victims of mobbing rated the management style of supervisors as more authoritarian, less employee-oriented and non-constructive. Similarly, Aryee et al. (2007) also showed authoritarian leadership style to be positively related to abusive supervision, which is another conceptualization of downward mobbing. Engaging in mobbing behaviors by the authoritarian leader satisfies the leader's need for control and power over the subordinates (Aryee et al., 2007). Moreover, authoritarian leaders are unable to manage their emotions and for this reason they are more prone to displaying abusive behaviors at the workplace (Ashfort, 1997; Aryee et al., 2007).

Likewise, Nielsen et al. (2005) termed authoritarian leadership as "*tyrannical leadership*" which refers to the leader being high in task-orientation, humiliation and manipulation in order to 'get the job done' but low on concern for the subordinates.

Tyrannical leadership had the strongest association with mobbing in Nielsen et al. (2005) study and perceived as a heavy form of stress among workers. McGregor (1960) also terms this type of management “Theory X”, in which the leader is oppressive to the subordinates. Ashfort (1994) suggested that the ‘Theory X’ beliefs of the leaders about their subordinates such as ‘an average person/employee lacks ambition, dislikes work, and avoids responsibility’ leads to coercive behavior of managers in organizations.

Studying victims of mobbing, Nielsen et al. (2005) found that tyrannical leadership caused all three psychological symptoms of post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), which are hyper arousal, intrusive thoughts/feelings and avoidance behavior. The authors discussed that this may be because victims perceive mobbing from a tyrannical leader as uncontrollable according to the attribution theory. This explanation is consistent with Ashfort’s (1994) proposition that tyrannical leadership leads to helplessness and work alienation on subordinates because of close monitoring, restricted communication and random and noncontingent punishments. Relative mobbing acts such as threats and excessive monitoring (Quine, 1999) seem to be closely related with authoritarian leadership practices. In addition, employees’ helplessness, anxiety and/or depression are related with both exposure to mobbing and authoritarian leadership style. Since previous literature suggests that authoritarian leadership is associated with leaders’ use of control, power and authority over the subordinates, authoritarian leaders are expected to show more mobbing behaviors. Therefore;

Hypothesis 3: Authoritarian leadership behavior will be positively associated with employees’ experiences of mobbing.

### 2.3.1.4 Paternalistic leadership

Despite the already studied types of leadership in the previous literature, there has been debate on whether there are universal or culture-specific leadership behaviors (Fikret Pasa et al., 2001). Cross-cultural research community lacks a consensually agreed upon definition of leadership, and different leadership profiles have been found in developing countries. One of the leadership styles most often seen in developing countries is ‘paternalistic leadership’, and has been found to be the dominant type in South-East, Asian, Latin American, Middle Eastern, and African countries (Aycan et al., 2000). Paternalistic leadership has been defined as hierarchical leadership in which “the role of the superior is to provide care, protection, and guidance to the subordinate both in work and non-work domains, while the subordinate, in return, is expected to be loyal and deferential to the superior” (Aycan, 2006; p. 446). A paternalistic leader includes elements of both autocratic and nurturant behaviors and acts like a father to his/her followers and takes care of them like a parent, and (Aycan & Fikret-Paşa, 2003; Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998). The basic paternalistic leadership behaviors are, creating a family atmosphere in the workplace, establishing close and individualized relationships with subordinates, getting involved in non-work domain, expecting loyalty and maintaining authority and/or status (Aycan, 2006).

The perception and effectiveness of paternalistic leadership style differs across cultures (Aycan, 2006). For instance, in Western cultures, paternalistic leadership behaviors may be perceived as exploitative, repressing, authoritarian, ineffective and immoral, and as an invasion of privacy in the context of high individualism and low power distance (Aycan, 2006). In paternalistic relationships, compliance and dependency to the leader is on a voluntary basis (Aycan, 2006). Because compliance

and conformity with authority is perceived as an involuntary action in Western cultures, paternalism has been equated with authoritarianism in Western literature. On the contrary, in cultures where there is high collectivism and power distance, paternalistic leadership is not viewed negatively.

Since paternalistic leadership style is found to be common in Turkish organizational contexts (Aycan, et al., 2000); and Turkey is a high collectivist and power distant country (Hofstede, 1980), the paternalistic management behaviors of the superiors are less likely to be perceived as mobbing/harassment by the subordinates. Pasa, Kabasakal and Bodur (2001) reported that Turkish employees identified an ideal leader as “considerate and paternalistic” (p. 584). In addition, from the organizational perspective, most dominant characteristic of organizational culture in Turkish organizations emerged to be collectivism and “a leader in Turkish context emerges as a parent who takes care of the follower’s feelings of belonging to the family” (Pasa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001; p. 585). In line with these findings, it is expected that paternalistic behaviors of leaders are not perceived as mobbing by the employees.

Hypothesis 4: Paternalistic leadership behavior will be negatively associated with employees’ experiences of mobbing.

#### **2.4 Relationship of mobbing with organizational outcomes**

As mobbing is a type of social and psychological harassment at the workplace, it has direct psychological, social, economic, and legal consequences for the individual, organization, and society at large. Most of the previous literature on the effects of mobbing is primarily concentrated on the psychological effects on the victim’s health and well-being. Psychosomatic complaints and PTSD are the most common symptoms of exposure to mobbing. Others include insomnia, nervous

symptoms, melancholy, apathy, lack of concentration and socio-phobia, social isolation, stigmatizing, psychosomatic illnesses, depressions, compulsions, feelings of victimization and helplessness, anger, anxiety and despair symptoms, and vague physical symptoms, such as weakness, loss of strength, chronic fatigue, pains and aches, and lack of self esteem, hostility, hypersensitivity, and loss of memory (e.g. Bjorkqvist et. al., 1994; Brodsky, 1976; Leymann, 1990; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Niedl, 1996; Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999). In summary, there is comprehensive evidence showing significant negative relationship between exposure to mobbing and psychological health of the victims.

However, the evidence on organizational outcomes of mobbing are limited (Einarsen, 2000). As the concept of mobbing is new, and most of the previous research on mobbing has been cross-sectional and not longitudinal, it seems difficult to estimate the negative effect of mobbing on the organization's productivity and functioning (Leymann, 1996; Matthiesen, 2006). However, the possible outcomes on the organizations include productivity loss by the victim which results in increasing costs, lowered productivity coupled with increased sick leaves, turnover and compensation claims and liability (Leymann, 1990). These poor work environments lead to early retirement. In a study of union members in Norway, 27 % of the participants reported that mobbing reduced their efficiency at work, which then leads to increased organizational costs.

Despite the lack of broad evidence on organizational outcomes, there has been some research on the organizational attitudes of the mobbing victims. For instance, Quine (2001) found that victims reported lower levels of job satisfaction and higher turnover intention. Leymann (1992) found that mobbing has been associated with insecurity and lack of initiative. Martino, Hoel and Cooper (2003) suggested that such

reactions on the part of the victim lead to lack of motivation and creativity. A German nationwide study confirmed that 72 % of the victims were de-motivated and 59 % socially withdrew. Regarding the specific pattern of downward mobbing, Keashley et al. (1994) found that employees who were exposed to supervisory mobbing were less satisfied with their jobs, had higher turnover, and questioned their abilities. Likewise, Ashfort (1997) reported that tyrannical supervision was associated with alienation from work and low group cohesiveness. Bowling & Beehr (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of 90 studies and found that mobbing was negatively associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and positively associated with turnover intentions. Duffy et al. (2002) reported that specifically downward mobbing was negatively related with organizational commitment. In addition, Tepper (2000) reported that victims reported greater continuance commitment, lower normative commitment and lower affective commitment. These studies on the effects of downward mobbing suggest that abusive supervisor behaviors are negatively associated with employees' work-related attitudes (Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000).

Even though there have been some estimates of effects of mobbing in the European and the US workforce, Turkish context lacks evidence of the effects on the organizational attitudes of mobbing victims. To study the Turkish work life, we have to take the socio-economic context of the country into account. Turkish economy is defined to become crisis prone, has chronic inflation, extreme volatility of economic growth and unstable financial system (Auer & Popova, 2003). This unpredictability and instability influence investment and employment since the 2001 economic crisis. The biggest challenge for the employees who may be experiencing job stress and/or mobbing is to stay within their organizations (Auer & Popova, 2003). These economic conditions make it particularly important to study work-related attitudes of mobbing

victims in the Turkish context of high unemployment and displacement rate. It is likely that the employees face a dilemma in cases when they are unsatisfied with working conditions. Even when exposed to mobbing, they are unlikely to quit because of the unemployment problem and decreased possibility of finding a new job. In turn, this situation influences employees' commitment types to their organizations. Thus, because of the current Turkish economic situation, and depending on the basic variables that have been examined previously, *job satisfaction*, *organizational commitment*, and *turnover intention* are chosen as the 3 organizational variables related to exposure to mobbing in the current study.

#### **2.4.1 Organizational commitment**

*Organizational commitment* has the potential to predict many organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and achievement of organizational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Three types of organizational commitment are distinguished. *Normative commitment* refers to employee's perceived obligation to continue employment; *affective commitment* refers to employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organization; and *continuance commitment* is an attachment to the organization based on the perceived costs of leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The current study focuses on affective and continuance commitment, and normative commitment is excluded, because of its considerable overlap with affective commitment. Furthermore, more research is needed to understand the development of normative commitment and previous research has shown some measurement problems of the normative commitment scale (Meyer et al., 2002).

Affective commitment (AC) mainly develops from positive work experiences such as organizational fairness (Wasti, 2002). Allen and Meyer (1990) reported that



work experiences that lead to positive relationships between the members of the organization lead to higher AC at work. Dunham et al. (1994) found that when supervisors provided feedback to the employees and encouraged them to get involved in decision making processes, employees' AC levels became higher. Likewise, Zaffane (1994) reported supportive management practices to be positively related with commitment. Since mobbing leads to negative affect on part of the victim (Taylor, 1991), it is likely to decrease victim's emotional attachment to the organization. Therefore, abusive supervisory practices are likely to lead to lower levels of AC in employees.

The second type of commitment is continuance commitment (CC). Its main antecedents are the lack of availability of job alternatives and perceived costs of leaving the organization (McCormack et al., 2006; Wasti, 2002). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), when leaving the organization leads to harsh outcomes for the person and/or when there are little or no alternatives, people report higher levels of CC. Due to economic structures and contingencies in the Turkish work context, victims are more likely to report higher levels of CC although they are exposed to mobbing. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Exposure to mobbing will be negatively related to affective commitment; and positively related to continuance commitment.

#### **2.4.2 Job satisfaction**

Overall job satisfaction is the general feelings of employees toward their jobs. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p.1300). Job Characteristics Theory of Turner and Lawrance (1965; cited in Hackman & Oldham,

1976) suggested that task characteristics such as autonomy, amount of responsibility and opportunity to interact with others are the main reasons for the development of employees' work related attitudes, such as job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1976) argued that job characteristics such as task identity, autonomy and feedback, job enrichment and enlargement lead to higher levels of job satisfaction in employees. Since abusive supervisory behaviors include limiting employees' communication with others, autonomy and job enrichment, mobbing is likely to decrease employees' job satisfaction levels. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 6: Exposure to mobbing will be negatively related to overall job satisfaction.

### **2.4.3 Turnover intention**

The relationship of job satisfaction and turnover intention has received considerable attention (George & Jones, 1996). Turnover intention is defined as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993; p.262). While some researchers suggest job satisfaction to be an antecedent of turnover intention (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Lee & Mitchell, 1994), others suggest factors other than job satisfaction such as perceived quality of work life as the main predictor of turnover intention (Huang et al., 2007). May et al. (1999) suggested that employees working in organizations with better quality of work life such as challenge, supportive supervisory practices and better organizational climate would report lower levels of turnover intention. Hom and Griffeth (1995) found that autonomy in decision making decreased turnover intentions of employees. Another study found that employee involvement, which provide employees autonomy and empowerment and to get engaged in decision making process decreases their turnover intentions, and

indicates a 'healthy work place' (Grawitch et al., 2007). Since mobbing damages the harmony of the organizations (Vega & Comer, 2005), employees are likely to report higher turnover intentions when they are exposed to mobbing. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 7: Exposure to mobbing will be positively related to turnover intentions.

There are possibly some factors that moderate the relationship between mobbing exposure and the development of certain work-related attitudes. To better understand the phenomenon of mobbing in the Turkish culture, two types of support, social support from colleagues and organizational support are investigated as moderators of mobbing and organizational outcomes in the current study.

## **2.5 Moderating role of support**

### **2.5.1 Social support from colleagues**

House (1981) defined social support as a resource which helps the person to cope with stress and its harmful effects. Previous literature has found both main effects and moderating effects of social support on job stress (Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; House & Wells, 1978; LaRocco et al, 1980; Sykes & Eden, 1985). Support directly reduces stress, and also moderates the relationship between stress and psychological strain on individuals. Researchers demonstrated that the harmful effects of stress on the well-being of individuals were eliminated in the presence of social support; whereas remained strong for those who received little or no support. This 'buffering' or moderating hypothesis has been the dominant hypothesis on the effects of social support on job stress (Fenlason & Beehr, 1994).

Generally two main *components* of social support are discussed, which are *emotional/psychological* support and *instrumental/active* support (House, 1981). Emotional/psychological support includes providing emphatic listening, caring, social approval, sympathy and the like. Instrumental/active support includes instrumental, active behaviors involving information cues, cooperation, physical assistance or advice and help (White & Mitchell, 1979). Usually researchers have concentrated on emotional support, assuming it is the most important on reducing job related stress (LaRocco et al, 1980; House, 1981). Kauffmann and Beer (1986) found that these two types of social support were strongly interrelated when they came from the same source, such as from a colleague.

Social support literature has also concentrated on the *source* of social support as an important factor on the effects on job stress. Fenlason and Beehr (1994) suggested that it is common to divide the sources of social support into three categories in the organizational context: employee's supervisor, employee's coworkers and employee's family and friends. There is evidence that work-related stress is most effectively dealt with the support from supervisor and coworkers (Beehr, 1985; cited in Fenlason & Beehr, 1994; House & Wells, 1978, cited in Henderson & Argyle, 1985). La Rocco et al. (1980) found that support from coworkers was the strongest moderator between stress and health complaints.

Since mobbing is generally defined as a systematic and repeated pattern of negative acts, it increases job related stress of employees (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Indeed, Zapf et al. (1996) even suggested that mobbing should be studied as a type of social stressor at work. Thus, research findings from the stress field are considered as useful for estimating the effects of mobbing. Earnshaw and Cooper (1996) reported that a third of stress related employment cases in the UK were results of mobbing at

work. Moreover, Einarsen et al. (1996) found in a study of Norwegian union members that the relationship between mobbing and health was moderated by the victim's lack of social support in addition to his/her personality. Generally, it has been found that mobbing victims who have high social support are less vulnerable to health complaints in the long term (Einarsen, 2000; Zapf et al., 1996). However, like the consequences of mobbing behaviors on victims, the literature on the moderating effect of social support has mostly focused on the emotional and psychosomatic effects on the victim rather than organizational attitudes. Pinneau (1975) studied the moderating effect of social support on psychological strain measures which included boredom, somatic complaints, depression, anxiety and irritation. What he found was negative relationship with many job stressors and psychological strains. However, regarding the buffering hypothesis, social support has been found to moderate only to the extent that might be expected by chance. In Turkey, Bilgel et al. (2006) found that among employees who are exposed to mobbing, those with high social support reported lower job satisfaction levels than those with lower support. As the current study focuses on downward type of mobbing, which is from superiors to subordinates, it would be sound to study only social support from colleagues in the organizational context. It could be expected that, for victims of mobbing, receiving support from colleagues will alleviate their negative attitudes towards their organizations. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8: Social support from colleagues will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims, in such a way that those victims who receive instrumental and/or emotional support from coworkers will report higher levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and lower levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who receive little/no social support.

Second organizational variable as a possible moderator is perceived organizational support, which is a related but separate construct from social support. It includes employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their organizations', as well as their evaluations of the organization's policies and characteristics that demonstrate organization cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

### **2.5.2 Organizational support**

Organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986) holds the view that employees develop beliefs about the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Perceived organizational support (POS) is employees' beliefs about their organization's commitment to them; and the idea that the organization will provide help when needed, to perform one's job efficiently and to deal with stressful conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Among the factors that contribute to POS are fairness perceptions, supervisor support, organizational rewards and job conditions. These factors are all attributed to the organization's voluntary, intended acts. Among *job conditions*, job security and role stressors such as work overload, role conflict and role ambiguity, which are among the causes of mobbing at work, are found as the strongest predictors of POS, showing a negative relationship (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

To our knowledge, the relationship between POS and mobbing exposure has not been investigated previously. However, there are studies about the effects of POS on employees' work-related attitudes. For instance, Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis of 73 studies showed that POS had a strong and positive relationship with affective commitment, a weak and negative relationship with continuance commitment, a strong and positive relationship with job satisfaction, and a moderate

and negative relationship with turnover intentions. Similar to social support from colleagues, POS fulfills the needs of ‘emotional support, affiliation, esteem, and approval’ which in turn leads to more positive job related attitudes (Cobb, 1976; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; p.711). Furthermore, the meta-analysis reported a causal relationship between POS and affective commitment (AC). Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001) also found that POS contributed to AC, which shows that employees feel that their organizations value their contributions and welfare, which in turn increases their AC. On the other hand, employees’ continuance commitment (CC) to their organizations, due to the high costs of quitting, is lessened by POS (Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

In this study, based on the evidence of its association with organizational variables in the literature, POS is expected to moderate the relationship of organizational attitudes and mobbing in a way similar to social support from colleagues. Among employees who are exposed to mobbing, those who feel that their organization may help by providing institutional policies, procedures or taking legal actions, or attempt to do so, will have better organizational attitudes compared to employees who perceive little/no organizational support.

Hypothesis 9: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims in such a way that; those who have higher POS will report higher levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and lower levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who have little/no POS.

In addition to organizational support perceptions, the effects of actual support mechanisms in the organization, such as the human resources practices and psychological counseling to the victims, and legal support policies are also investigated in the current study. Since employees in supportive organizations which

care for the workers' needs report better organizational outcomes such as higher performance, and more organizational citizenship behaviors (Randall et al., 1999), actual organizational support mechanisms are also likely to moderate the relationships between mobbing and work related attitudes of the employees in a similar way.

Hypothesis 10: Presence of actual organizational support mechanisms will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims in such a way that; those who have actual organizational support will report higher levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and lower levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who have little/no actual organizational support.

Since there are not many studies of mobbing in the Turkish work setting, we have conducted two focus groups as a pilot to better understand the views of Turkish employees about mobbing and refine our research questions before the actual study. We asked questions such as whether employees working in Turkish organizations were familiar with the term 'mobbing', what kind of behaviors they inferred as mobbing, and from whom, if any, they were subjected to mobbing behaviors. Focus groups included 6 workers in two groups from different private sector organizations. One of the specific questions asked was what the participants thought when they heard the words 'mobbing/bullying at workplace' (psikolojik baskı/yıldırma/zorbalık/duygusal taciz in Turkish), and the most prominent response emerged as the 'fear of being fired'. They reported that the most frequently observed mobbing behaviors were verbal and nonverbal threats of dismissal, and work overload, which is usually beyond their job descriptions. Our participants stated that, due to the economic situation of Turkey characterized by high rates of unemployment, and underemployment for the current qualified workforce, leaders in organizations do not hesitate to harass their subordinates by threats of dismissal. They also stated that



personnel are not valued in organizations. Accordingly, we thought that behaviors perceived as mobbing by the Turkish employees might be different from those cited in the previous literature based on Western cultures. Turkey's economic situation indeed affects the definitions and extent of mobbing and this situation also makes identifying the most common mobbing behaviors in the workplace in Turkey crucial.

In addition, participants of the focus group stressed that they experienced mobbing mostly from their superiors and managers, which is consistent with the literature. Participants also reported that collegial mobbing, if happened, was mostly due to the tension shaped by the management pressure. This is consistent with Zapf's (1999) argument that people manifest mobbing behaviors as a reaction to leadership problems and organizational problems. In this sense, mobbing can be conceptualized as an extreme reaction to a stressor. In one of the first studies of mobbing in Turkey, Samancı (2004; cited in Yüçetürk, 2005) observed increase in psychological harassment in the workplace especially in the periods of economic crises. Employees are forced to leave the organization "to be freed of the responsibility to make severance payments" by the management, and mobbing acts are used as instrument for "firing" the employees.

In summary, on the basis of previous literature and reports of the participants in the focus groups, the current study tests a model on downward workplace mobbing, and its relationships with different leadership styles and work-related outcomes.

## Chapter 3

### METHOD

#### 3.1 Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from 251 white-collar employees who have been working under an immediate supervisor for at least 6 months. Of 251 responses, 32 were disregarded due to extensive missing data and the remaining 219 surveys constituted the data for this study. Respondents worked in different sectors such as education, banking, health, consulting, tourism, telecommunications, and energy. Table 1 presents the demographical characteristics of the sample. Most of the respondents were females, below 33 years of age, at least university graduate and from private sector.

86 % of the data were collected via online survey and the rest was collected by hard copy surveys in closed envelopes. Subjects were assured confidentiality and an informed consent was received prior the start of the survey. Since mobbing could be considered as a threatening issue, online survey would increase the confidentiality of the participants' responses and result in more participation. Online survey was announced in different maillists such as "RecruitmentTurkey", "Human Resources Turkey", "Mobbing Turkey", "Work Life", "Personal Achievement" and "Psychology List". Since hard copy and online surveys did not show any difference on mobbing and outcome variables, all data were combined for further analyses.

Table 1.

*Demographic characteristics of the participants*

		<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Female	147	67.1
	Male	72	32.9
<b>Age</b>	18-25	59	26.9
	26-33	103	47
	Older than 33	57	26
<b>Education</b>	Less than university	28	12.8
	University	123	56.2
	Higher than university	68	31.1
<b>Organizational type</b>	Public	33	15.1
	Private	152	69.4
	International	21	9.6
	Family-firm	13	5.9
<b>Organizational size</b>	Large scale	123	56.2
	Middle scale	70	32
	Small scale	26	11.9
<b>Position</b>	Managerial	58	26.5
	Non-managerial	161	73.5
<b>Tenure</b>	Less than 1 year	62	28.3
	1-3 years	86	39.3
	4-8 years	46	21
	More than 9 years	25	11.4
<b>Gender of immediate supervisor</b>	Female	82	37.4
	Male	137	62.6
<b>Gendermatch</b>	Female-Female*	64	29.2
	Female-Male	83	37.9
	Male-Female	18	8.2
	Male-Male	54	24.7

\* Note: 1<sup>st</sup> gender of the employee, 2<sup>nd</sup> gender of the manager

### 3.2 Measures

*Transformational leadership.* 20 items from the standardized Turkish version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ–Form 5X; Avolio & Bass, 2002) assessed transformational leadership. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “not at all”, 5 = “frequently, if not always”). Sample items were “(My immediate supervisor) talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished” and “Gets those s/he leads to look at problems from many different angles”. Cronbach alpha for this scale was  $\alpha = .96$  for both the original scale (Epitropaki, 2003) and the current study.

*Transactional leadership.* 12 items from the standardized Turkish version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ–Form 5X; Avolio & Bass, 2002) assessed transactional leadership. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “not at all”, 5 = “frequently, if not always”). Sample items were “(My immediate supervisor) provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts” and “Keeps track of all mistakes”. Coefficient alpha was  $\alpha = .87$  for the original scale (Maher, 1997) while it is  $\alpha = .71$  for the current study.

*Authoritarian Leadership.* Authoritarian leadership was measured by the Turkish version of Sinha’s (1995) “Authoritarian Leadership Scale” which is a subscale of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Aycan, 2000). The scale consisted of 10 items, measured on a 5-point Likert scale (5 = “quite true”, 1 = “quite false”). Sample items were “(My immediate supervisor) keeps important information to himself” and “Thinks not all employees are capable of being an executive”. The original scale’s alpha was  $\alpha = .71$  (Sinha, 1987) while it is  $\alpha = .84$  for the current study.

*Paternalistic leadership.* Paternalistic leadership was measured by the 5-item short version of the Turkish Paternalistic Leadership Scale by Aycan (2006). Sample items were “(My immediate supervisor) behaves like a family member (father/mother or elder brother/sister) towards his/her employees” and “Places importance to establishing one-to-one relationship with every employee”. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from (1 = “strongly disagree”, 5 = “strongly agree”). The scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of  $\alpha = .87$  (Aycan, 2006) while it is  $\alpha = .85$  in the current study.

All 46 items of leadership scales are combined and presented as one scale (See Appendix 1).

*Mobbing.* A mobbing scale was created by adding 16 items to Quine’s (1999) mobbing scale. Quine’s mobbing scale included 20 items. One item was excluded from the original scale at the beginning of the study because it assessed physical violence behavior. Sample items from the scale are “(My immediate supervisor) sets impossible deadlines” and “Attempts to humiliate me in front of colleagues”.

16 items which were relevant to mobbing in the Turkish context were added to the original scale based on other behavior classifications acknowledged in the literature, the Turkish cases identified in the focus groups and Tinaz’s (2006) book on mobbing in the Turkish context. Sample items are “(My immediate supervisor) forces me to do the work which is out of my expertise area” and “is interested in my private life even though I am uncomfortable with it”. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert type scale from (1 = “never”, 5 = “always”). Cronbach’s alpha for the original 20-item scale was reported as  $\alpha = .81$  (Quine, 2001). Original items were translated to Turkish and pilot tested before the actual data collection (explained in results section 1). Cronbach’s alpha for the full 35-item scale is  $\alpha = .97$ .

*Organizational Commitment.* Organizational commitment was measured by the Turkish adaptation (Wasti, 2003) of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) by Allen and Meyer (1997). The questionnaire consists of 12 items, 6 items each for affective (AC) and continuance commitment (CC) scales. The responses were given on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 5 = “strongly agree”). Sample item for AC is “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” and for CC “It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to”. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported the reliability coefficients for the scales as  $\alpha = .87$  for AC, and  $\alpha = .75$  for CC scales. The Turkish version had an alpha of  $\alpha = .83$  for AC, and  $\alpha = .77$  for CC subscales.

In the current study, missing value analyses showed 52 % missing cases in three CC items and one AC item, due to technical problems in the online survey. To deal with the missing values, first the differences between respondents who filled those four items and those who left the items missing were compared on their demographic characteristics and mean differences were tested for mobbing and outcome variables. Since the analyses yielded no significant differences, multiple imputation for those four items was carried out. Missing cases were imputed randomly by considering all relevant variables. Cronbach’s alpha values for the imputed scales were  $\alpha = .84$  for AC and  $\alpha = .66$  for CC.

*Overall job satisfaction.* Overall job satisfaction was measured by the Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, which is a part of Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1983). The scale consisted of 3 items which yielded a global indication of employee’s satisfaction with his/her job. Items were rated on a five-point Likert scale (5 = “strongly agree”, 1 = “strongly disagree”). Sample items from the scale are “All in all, I am satisfied with

my job” and “In general, I don’t like my job”. Turnalar (2006) translated the scale to Turkish and reported an alpha of  $\alpha = .89$  while it is  $\alpha = .77$  in the original American sample. Analyses for the current sample yielded an internal consistency of  $\alpha = .74$ .

*Turnover Intention.* Turnover intention was measured by the Job Withdrawal Scale by Hanish and Hulin (1990). The scale has two factors: turnover intention (3 items) and ease of quitting (4 items). Sample items were “How often do you think about quitting your job?”, and “How likely is it that you will quit your job in the next several months”. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “not at all likely”, 5 = “extremely likely”). Reliability coefficients were  $\alpha = .83$  for turnover intentions subscale and  $\alpha = .64$  for ease of quitting subscale (Roberts et. al., 1979). Wasti (2003) adapted the scale to Turkish and obtained an alpha of  $\alpha = .77$  for the turnover intention scale and  $\alpha = .72$  for the ease of quitting subscale. For the current study, Cronbach’s alpha were  $\alpha = .91$  for turnover intentions subscale and  $\alpha = .75$  for ease of quitting scale.

*Social Support from colleagues under mobbing exposure.* 4 items from the Social Support Scale (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison & Pinneau, 1975) and an extra item added by the researcher assessed social support from colleagues under mobbing exposure by the supervisor. Social support from supervisor and from family and friends subscales of the original scale are excluded since the study investigates mobbing from supervisors, and focuses on the organization as a unit. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “not at all”, 5 = “frequently, if not always”). Sample items were “(Under mobbing exposure) it is easy to talk to my colleagues” and “My colleagues are willing to listen to my personal problems”. Extra item assessed satisfaction with general social support. The scale has been translated to Turkish for the current study and tested in the pilot study. 5 items were factor analyzed with

varimax rotation and one factor structure was obtained which explained 78.6 % of the variance (Appendix 2). The original scale's internal consistency was  $\alpha = .84$  (Caplan et al., 1975) and  $\alpha = .92$  in the current study.

*Organizational support.* The short version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) assessed perceived organizational support and an extra of 4 items measured the actual organizational support. SPOS consisted of 8 items that measured employees' perceptions of support they received from their organizations. One item assessing general evaluation of organizational support was added to the original scale. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree", 5 = "strongly agree"). Sample items included "The organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work". The scale was translated to Turkish in the pilot study. Coefficient alpha values ranged from  $\alpha = .74$  to  $\alpha = .95$  for SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lynch et al., 1999).

Four items which assessed the presence of various organizational mechanisms to support mobbing victims were added. These four items were rated on a 3-point scale ("1 = yes", "2 = no" and "3 = I don't know"). Sample item is "(In my organization) under mobbing exposure there are psychological/emotional and/or medical counseling services. Summaries of the factor analyses of two subscales are presented in Appendix 3 - 4. Cronbach's alphas were  $\alpha = .92$  for the SPOS and  $\alpha = .77$  for presence of organizational support scales in the current study.

*Demographics.* Demographics measures included age, gender, education level, tenure in the organization, sector, organization's type, organizational size, position (managerial or not) and gender of the immediate supervisor. Organizational size was



determined according to TUIK general industry and workplaces counting (Haspolat, 1992).

*Satisfaction with the supervisor.* Participants' satisfaction with their immediate supervisor was measured by the Supervision Satisfaction facet of Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). This scale was used as a validity measure for the mobbing scale. The facet satisfaction scale consisted of four items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "disagree very much", 5 = "agree very much"). Sample items were "My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job" and "I like my supervisor". The subscale's reliability was  $\alpha = .82$  (Spector, 1997). The scale was translated to Turkish and its internal consistency was found to be  $\alpha = .90$  in the current study.

## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

#### 4.1 Constructing the mobbing scale

We used a modified version of the 20-item mobbing scale of Quine (1999). 16 items identified from the Turkish literature and focus groups were added to grasp a more complete picture of the Turkish case (See Appendix 5 for specific items). Pilot analyses were carried out with 28 participants to test the reliability and factor structure of the newly constructed scale. Cronbach's alpha for the modified version was  $\alpha = .97$  in the pilot analyses. Separate factor analyses were carried out for the mobbing scale for 19 original items, 16 newly added items and all 35 items. Data collection was opted with 35 items after the pilot analyses since it provided a full extent of mobbing behaviors.

The item-total correlations, reliability and factor structure of the mobbing scale in the actual study is analyzed. Pearson's correlation of the downward mobbing scale and supervisory satisfaction scale was  $r = -.78$ ,  $p < .01$ . Those who had higher mobbing scores were less satisfied with their supervisors, indicating construct validity of the mobbing measure. Three separate factor analyses with varimax rotation were carried out for the original 19 items, extra 16 items and all 35 items. First 19 items yielded a one-factor solution which explained 68 % of the variance while it was reported to have 5 factors in the original English version (Quine, 1999). Additional 16 items yielded a 2-factor structure which explained 72.5 % of the variance. When all 35 items are factor analyzed, there was a 3-factor structure that explained 72.7 % of the variance. Six items loading on more than one factor were excluded from the scale. The resulting factor structure with a 3-factor solution is presented in Appendix 5. This

3-factor structure could not be interpreted and one composite score for the mobbing scale was used to test the path model in this study.

Means and standard deviations of mobbing behaviors are presented in Table 2. Most frequently seen mobbing behaviors are persistent attempts to demoralize the subordinate, increasing the tension in the work environment, persistent and unjustified criticism and monitoring of subordinate's work and not letting the subordinate to express himself/herself in the work environment.

Table 2.

*Means and standard deviations of mobbing items*

	M	SD
<b>Original items</b>		
1. Yaptığım işi küçümsemeye çalışıyor.	2.37	1.47
2. İşimi haksızca eleştiriyor ve gereksiz yere denetliyor.	2.48	1.43
3. Beni çalışma arkadaşlarımda önünde küçük düşürüyor.	2.04	1.31
4. Gözümü korkutmak için disiplin ve performans kriterlerini öne sürüyor.	2.24	1.45
5. Psikolojik bütünlüğümü parçalamaya çalışıyor.	2.29	1.50
6. Yıkıcı imalarda bulunuyor ve iğneleyici sözler söylüyor.	2.37	1.53
7. Sözlü ve sözsüz tehditte bulunuyor.	1.97	1.37
8. Hakkımda uygunsuz şakalar yapıyor.	1.57	1.05
9. Beni kızdırmaya çalışıyor.	2.08	1.41
10. Çalışma ortamındaki eşyalara zarar verebilecek sert/saldırgan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	1.32	0.82
11. İş ile ilgili gerekli bilgileri benden saklıyor.	2.32	1.39
12. Beni yalnız bırakıyor, yok sayıyor, dışlıyor.	2.31	1.52
13. İzin kullanma, eğitim ya da terfi gibi başvurularımı sebepsiz yere reddediyor.	2.08	1.37
14. İşimi yapmam konusunda gereksiz baskıda bulunuyor.	2.26	1.46
15. İmkansız iş bitirme tarihleri veriyor.	2.15	1.40
16. İş hedeflerimi benden habersiz değiştiriyor.	2.15	1.49
17. Çabalarımı değersiz gösteriyor.	2.33	1.51
18. Moralimi bozan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	2.75	1.57
19. Sorumluluk alanlarımı bana danışmadan değiştiriyor.	2.33	1.34
<b>Extra items</b>		
20. Çalışma ortamımı geriyor.	2.63	1.54
22. İşyerimde kendimi ifade etmeme izin vermiyor.	2.47	1.56
24. İşten çıkarma tehditleri savuruyor.	1.59	1.16
25. Haksız yere cezalandırıyor.	1.77	1.29
29. Yaptığım işi sahiplenerek bir üst yönetime kendi başarısı gibi gösteriyor.	2.22	1.58
30. Hakkımda dedikodu yapıyor.	2.02	1.43
31. Çalışmalarımın/projelerimin gerçekleşmemesi için engeller çıkarıyor.	1.96	1.42
32. Ben istemediğim halde özel hayatımla ilgileniyor.	1.79	1.14
33. İşim için gerekli olan malzeme/araç gereçlerin kullanımına engel oluyor.	1.76	1.23
34. İş arkadaşlarımla iletişimime karışıyor.	2.06	1.30

## 4.2 Demographic variable analyses

In order to test for systematic effects of demographic variables on outcome variables, ANOVAs are conducted. Mean scores for demographic variable analyses are presented in Table 3. Additionally, a variable matching the respondent's gender with his/her immediate supervisor's gender is created to test whether there were any differences in exposure to mobbing between employees who had male and female superiors. *Gendermatch* did not have a significant effect on mobbing or other outcome variables; however, despite not being significant, mobbing means were highest for males who had female superiors ( $M=2.49$ ;  $N= 18$ ) compared to others who had means around 2.0.

Age, tenure and education had significant effects on only turnover intentions and CC. Since any of the demographic variables did not show systematic effects on all outcome variables, they were not used as covariates in further analyses of the model.

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables are presented in Table 4.

Table 3.

*Mean scores of outcome variables for demographic variable factors*

Variable	Mobbing			Job Satisfaction			Turnover Intention			Affective Commitment			Continuance Commitment		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>p</u>
<b>Age</b>															
18-25	1.50 <sub>a</sub>	0.67	0.00*	3.45	1.03	0.15	2.58 <sub>a, b</sub>	0.86	0.00*	3.11	1.01	0.27	2.72 <sub>a</sub>	0.71	0.00*
26-33	2.4 <sub>b</sub>	1.15		3.32	0.99		2.73 <sub>b</sub>	0.84		2.91	1.08		2.91 <sub>a, b</sub>	0.72	
>34	2.4 <sub>b</sub>	1.19		3.64	1.00		2.24 <sub>a</sub>	0.89		3.17	1.06		3.15 <sub>b</sub>	0.64	
<b>Gender</b>															
Female	2.08	1.12	0.52	3.41	1.04	0.52	2.54	0.92	0.48	3.03	1.01	0.91	2.95	0.74	0.41
Male	2.18	1.11		3.50	0.93		2.63	0.80		3.05	1.15		2.86	0.66	
<b>Education</b>															
Less than unv.	2.16	1.01	0.75	3.58	0.98	0.25	1.91 <sub>a</sub>	0.81	0.00*	3.25	1.04	0.21	3.18 <sub>b</sub>	0.69	0.05*
Unv.	2.06	1.14		3.34	1.00		2.66 <sub>b</sub>	0.85		2.93	1.05		2.93 <sub>a, b</sub>	0.70	
Higher than unv.	2.18	1.12		3.56	1.03		2.67 <sub>b</sub>	0.86		3.14	1.05		2.79 <sub>a</sub>	0.71	
<b>Organization</b>															
Public	2.22 <sub>a, b</sub>	1.26	0.04*	3.14	1.06	0.06	2.39 <sub>a</sub>	0.85	0.01*	2.72	0.98	0.10	3.11	0.68	0.17
Private	2.02 <sub>a</sub>	1.03		3.47	0.97		2.57 <sub>a</sub>	0.88		3.10	1.04		2.90	0.70	
International	2.12 <sub>a, b</sub>	1.32		3.83	1.07		2.40 <sub>a</sub>	0.80		3.29	1.05		2.97	0.92	
Family	2.92 <sub>b</sub>	1.20		3.13	1.08		3.27 <sub>b</sub>	0.81		2.67	1.27		2.61	0.45	
<b>Position</b>															
Managerial	2.36	1.21	0.05	3.64	0.96	0.08	2.52	0.81	0.63	3.30	1.07	0.02*	3.13	0.69	0.01*
Non-managerial	2.02	1.07		3.37	1.02		2.58	0.90		2.94	1.04		2.84	0.71	
<b>Tenure</b>															
Less than 1 year	1.87	1.01	0.08	3.38	0.97	0.63	2.71 <sub>b</sub>	0.93	0.02*	2.99	1.12	0.82	2.74 <sub>a</sub>	0.72	0.00*
1-3 years	2.11	1.09		3.46	1.01		2.67 <sub>b</sub>	0.84		3.01	1.02		2.87 <sub>a</sub>	0.69	
4-8 years	2.43	1.22		3.57	0.93		2.39 <sub>a, b</sub>	0.87		3.17	1.07		3.05 <sub>a, b</sub>	0.73	
More than 9 years	2.11	1.17		3.27	1.24		2.18 <sub>a</sub>	0.76		3.00	1.01		3.29 <sub>b</sub>	0.58	

Note: \* p < .05.

Means in a column for one demographic variable sharing same subscript are significantly different.

Table 4.

*Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the study variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<b>Measure</b>													
1. Transformational leadership	-												
2. Transactional leadership	.79	-											
3. Paternalistic leadership	.81	.64	-										
4. Authoritarian leadership	-.24	-.39	-.20	-									
5. Mobbing	-.67	-.73	-.60	.56	-								
6. Social support from colleagues	.27	.25	.27	-0.09 ~	-.27	-							
7. Perceived organizational support	.63	.64	.57	-.28	-.61	.29	-						
8. Presence of organizational support	.21	.19	.20	-0.08	-.19	0.01~	.14*	-					
9. Job satisfaction	.38	.35	.29	-.20	-.41	0.07~	.57	0	-				
10. Turnover intention	-.27	-.30	-.24	.20	.35	-0.06~	-.37	-0.09 ~	-.45	-			
12. Affective commitment	.42	.40	.38	-.24	-.39	0.1~	.64	0.09 ~	.64	-.47	.47	-	
13. Continuance commitment	-.15*	-.21	-0.08~	.20	.16*	-.17	-0.11~	0.09 ~	0.03 ~	-.34	-.17	0.11~	
Mean	2.69	3.04	2.7	3.2	2.11	3.39	2.96	2.08	3.44	2.57	3.11	3.04	2.92
SD	0.87	0.63	1.08	0.73	1.12	1.01	0.95	0.46	1.01	0.88	1.24	1.05	0.71

Note. N=219.

All correlations significant at the  $p < .01$  level, except (\*) which are significant at  $p < .05$  level and (~) which are not significant.

### 4.3 Model Testing

Path analysis using AMOS 7.0 was used to test the model presented in Figure 1. Composite scores for each variable were used in the model. Model fit was assessed using several fit indices as suggested by Bentler (1990) and Kline (1998).

The goodness of fit indices suggested that the data fits the tested model well;  $\chi^2$  was 33.61,  $\chi^2/df$  was 2.101, GFI was .968, CFI was .983 and RMSEA was .071<sup>1</sup>. Standardized path coefficients ranged from .14 to .41 which indicated a “medium” effect according to the criteria suggested by Kline (1998)<sup>2</sup>. Standardized estimates of significant paths are presented in Figure 2<sup>3</sup>.

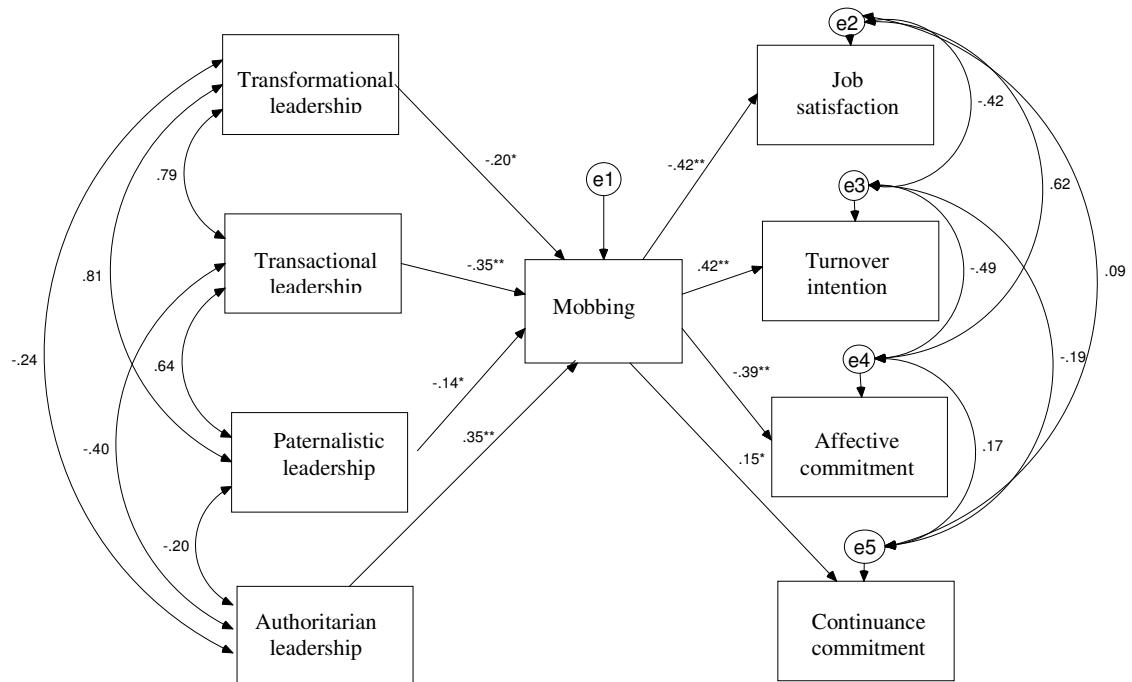
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<sup>1</sup> The values of GFI and CFI should be greater than .90 and RMSEA should be less than or equal to .10 in order to suggest a good fit of the model with the data (Kline, 1998; La Du & Tanaka, 1989).

<sup>2</sup> Standardized path coefficients with absolute values less than .10 indicate a “small” effect, values around .30 indicate a “medium” effect, and those greater than .50 indicate a “large” effect (Kline, 1998).

<sup>3</sup> Model was also run separately with mobbing composite scores for 19 item version and 16 item versions. The model fit did not change for the alternative models.





Note: \*\*  $p < .001$   
 \*  $p < .05$

Figure 2. Standardized path estimates and related error terms.

An overview of path values indicated that direct paths from all the leadership paths to mobbing were significant. Transformational, transactional and paternalistic leadership behaviors were negatively related, and authoritarian leadership behavior was positively related to mobbing. Therefore, Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 were supported by the data.

Direct paths from mobbing to affective commitment and continuance commitment were significant. Exposure to mobbing was negatively associated with AC and positively related to CC. In other words, employees who were exposed to

mobbing reported higher levels of continuance commitment and lower levels of affective commitment. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported by the data.

Direct paths from job satisfaction and turnover intentions were also significant. Exposure to mobbing was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to turnover intentions. In other words, employees who were exposed to mobbing reported lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of turnover intention. Hence, Hypothesis 6 and 7 were supported by the data.

#### **4.4 Testing the moderators**

In order to test the moderating effect of social support, perceived organizational support and presence of organizational support on mobbing and organizational attitudes, moderated multiple regression analyses (MMR) were carried out.

As reported by Baron & Kenny (1986), MMR analyses included three steps: (1) criterion variables (job satisfaction, turnover intentions, affective and continuance commitment separately) were regressed on the predictor variable (mobbing); (2) criterion variables were regressed on the moderator (social support from colleagues, perceived organizational support); (3) criterion variables were regressed on the interaction term which was the cross product of predictor and moderator variables. The interaction is evident if the  $F$  statistic which depends on the difference between  $R^2$  is significant (Aguinis, 1995).

Since tenure is said to be a covariant of age (Bedeian et al., 1992; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989), and tenure affects employee's potential for both formal and informal benefits (Hellman, 1997), tenure was included as a control variable in moderator analyses. Due to the fact that social support and organizational support were studied

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as moderator variables, organizational type and size and position of the employee were also used as control variables in the moderator analyses. Therefore, in the first step of MMR analyses, criterion variable was regressed on control variables. Since the variables were continuous, they were centered (individual scores were subtracted from the mean score so that the means of the new variables became zero) to mitigate multicollinearity problems associated with continuous variables in MMR (Auginis, 1995; O'Connor, 2006). Moderated multiple regression analyses findings are summarized in Table 5-7.

Table 5.

*Moderated multiple regression analyses for the moderating affect of social support from colleagues*

	St. B	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> change	F	F change	Sign. F Change
<b>Criterion: Job satisfaction</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.034	0.034	1.859	1.859	0.119
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.058					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.020					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.138					
<i>Position</i>	0.144					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.423	0.227	0.193	12.496	53.227	0.000
Step 3: Social Support (Moderator)	-0.030	0.227	0.000	10.386	0.102	0.749
Step 4: Mobbing x Social Support	-0.133	0.244	0.017	9.754	4.834	0.029*
<b>Criterion: Turnover intention</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.068	0.068	3.889	3.889	0.005
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.196					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.095					
<i>Organizational size</i>	-0.091					
<i>Position</i>	0.029					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.451	0.263	0.195	15.197	56.402	0.000
Step 3: Social Support (Moderator)	-0.148	0.283	0.020	13.931	5.869	0.016
Step 4: Mobbing x Social Support	0.024	0.283	0.001	11.915	0.153	0.696
<b>Criterion: AC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.026	0.026	1.446	1.446	0.220
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.008					
<i>Organization</i>	0.000					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.056					
<i>Position</i>	0.162					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.431	0.205	0.179	10.979	47.844	0.000
Step 3: Social Support (Moderator)	0.030	0.206	0.001	9.153	0.222	0.638
Step 4: Mobbing x Social Support	-0.052	0.208	0.002	7.920	0.621	0.432
<b>Criterion: CC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.081	0.081	4.710	4.710	0.001
<i>Tenure</i>	0.151					
<i>Organization</i>	0.151					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.032					
<i>Position</i>	0.165					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.127	0.096	0.016	4.549	3.672	0.057
Step 3: Social Support (Moderator)	-0.092	0.104	0.008	4.105	1.796	0.182
Step 4: Mobbing x Social Support	0.058	0.107	0.003	3.610	0.681	0.410

Note: \* p < .05

Table 6.

*Moderated multiple regression analyses for the moderating affect of perceived organizational support*

	St. B	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> change	F	F change	Sign. F Change
<b>Criterion: Job satisfaction</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.034	0.034	1.859	1.859	0.119
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.051					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.029					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.199					
<i>Position</i>	0.328					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.406	0.193	0.193	12.496	53.227	0.000
Step 3: Percieved organizational support (Moderator)	0.558	0.165	0.165	22.808	57.729	0.000
Step 4: Mobbing x POS	0.052	0.003	0.003	19.668	0.896	0.345
<b>Criterion: Turnover intention</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.068	0.068	3.889	3.889	0.005
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.242					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.192					
<i>Organizational size</i>	-0.183					
<i>Position</i>	0.092					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.567	0.263	0.195	15.197	56.402	0.000
Step 3: Percieved organizational support (Moderator)	-0.580	0.355	0.092	19.460	30.318	0.000
Step 4: Mobbing x POS	0.118	0.362	0.007	17.102	2.259	0.134
<b>Criterion: AC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.026	0.026	1.446	1.446	0.220
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.008					
<i>Organization</i>	0.001					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.084					
<i>Position</i>	0.386					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.408	0.205	0.179	10.979	47.844	0.000
Step 3: Percieved organizational support (Moderator)	0.748	0.477	0.272	32.201	110.173	0.000
Step 4: Mobbing x POS	0.011	0.477	0.000	27.483	0.046	0.831
<b>Criterion: CC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.081	0.081	4.710	4.710	0.001
<i>Tenure</i>	0.105					
<i>Organization</i>	0.172					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.036					
<i>Position</i>	0.294					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.090	0.096	0.016	4.549	3.672	0.057
Step 3: Percieved organizational support (Moderator)	0.016	0.097	0.000	3.783	0.050	0.822
Step 4: Mobbing x POS	0.074	0.105	0.009	3.546	2.016	0.157

Table 7.

*Moderated multiple regression analyses for the moderating affect of presence of organizational support*

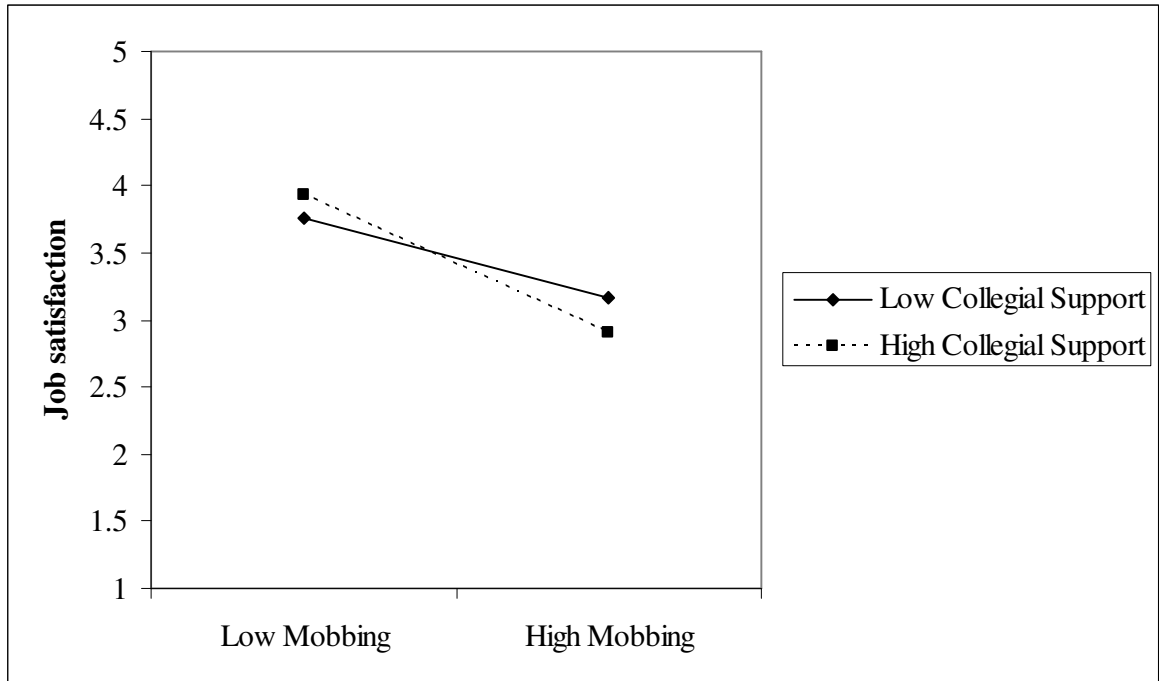
	St. B	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> change	F	F change	Sign. F Change
<b>Criterion: Job satisfaction</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.034	0.034	1.859	1.859	0.119
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.051					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.029					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.199					
<i>Position</i>	0.328					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.406	0.227	0.193	12.496	53.227	0.000
Step 3: Presence of organizational support (Moderator)	0.382	0.244	0.018	11.424	4.914	0.028
Step 4: Mobbing x Presence of organizational support	0.085	0.245	0.001	9.794	0.258	0.612
<b>Criterion: Turnover intention</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.068	0.068	3.889	3.889	0.005
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.242					
<i>Organization</i>	-0.192					
<i>Organizational size</i>	-0.183					
<i>Position</i>	0.092					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.567	0.263	0.195	15.197	56.402	0.000
Step 3: Presence of organizational support (Moderator)	-0.405	0.273	0.010	13.274	2.960	0.087
Step 4: Mobbing x Presence of organizational support	-0.043	0.273	0.000	11.331	0.036	0.850
<b>Criterion: AC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.026	0.026	1.446	1.446	0.220
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.008					
<i>Organization</i>	0.001					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.084					
<i>Position</i>	0.386					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	-0.408	0.205	0.179	10.979	47.844	0.000
Step 3: Presence of organizational support (Moderator)	0.191	0.209	0.004	9.331	1.071	0.302
Step 4: Mobbing x Presence of organizational support	-0.015	0.209	0.000	7.961	0.008	0.931
<b>Criterion: CC</b>						
Step 1: Control Variables		0.081	0.081	4.710	4.710	0.001
<i>Tenure</i>	0.105					
<i>Organization</i>	0.172					
<i>Organizational size</i>	0.036					
<i>Position</i>	0.294					
Step 2: Mobbing (IV)	0.090	0.096	0.016	4.549	3.672	0.057
Step 3: Presence of organizational support (Moderator)	-0.311	0.115	0.019	4.608	4.526	0.035
Step 4: Mobbing x Presence of organizational support	0.264	0.130	0.015	4.501	3.527	0.062

MMR analyses showed that social support from colleagues moderated the relationship between mobbing and employees' level of job satisfaction,  $F(4, 214) = 9.754, p < .05$ . However, job satisfaction levels were higher for those who did not receive social support from colleagues under mobbing exposure compared to those who received social support. Therefore Hypothesis 8 was not supported by the data. Social support did not moderate the relationship between mobbing and turnover intention  $F(4, 214) = 11.915, p > .05$ , affective commitment  $F(4, 214) = 7.920, p > .05$  and continuance commitment  $F(4, 214) = 3.610, p > .05$ . Significant interaction effect graph is presented in Figure 3.

Hypothesis 9 which suggested that perceived organizational support would moderate the relationship between work-related attitudes of employees and mobbing exposure was not supported by the data. The MMR analysis showed that POS did not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction  $F(4, 214) = 19.668, p > .05$ , turnover intention  $F(4, 214) = 17.102, p > .05$ ; affective commitment  $F(4, 214) = 27.483, p > .05$  and continuance commitment  $F(4, 214) = 3.546, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 10 which suggested that presence of actual organizational support mechanisms would moderate the relationship between work-related attitudes of employees and mobbing exposure was not supported by the data. The MMR analysis showed that actual organizational support did not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction  $F(4, 214) = 9.794, p > .05$ , turnover intention  $F(4, 214) = 11.331, p > .05$ ; affective commitment  $F(4, 214) = 7.961, p > .05$  and continuance commitment  $F(4, 214) = 4.501, p > .05$ .

A summary for the findings is presented in Table 8.



**Figure 3.** The interaction effect of mobbing and social support from colleagues on job satisfaction.



Table 8.

*Summary table for the hypotheses*

Hypothesis #	Hypothesized relationships	
1	Transformational leadership behavior will be <u>negatively</u> associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.	S
2	Transactional leadership behavior will be <u>negatively</u> associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.	S
3	Authoritarian leadership behavior will be <u>negatively</u> associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.	S
4	Paternalistic leadership behavior will be <u>negatively</u> associated with employees' experiences of mobbing.	S
5	Exposure to mobbing will be <u>negatively</u> related to affective commitment; and <u>positively</u> related to continuance commitment.	S
6	Exposure to mobbing will be <u>negatively</u> related to overall job satisfaction.	S
7	Exposure to mobbing will be <u>positively</u> related to turnover intention.	S
8	Social support will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims, in such a way that those who receive instrumental and/or emotional support from coworkers will report <u>higher</u> levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and <u>lower</u> levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who receive little/no social support.	NS
9	Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims, in such a way that those who have higher POS will report <u>higher</u> levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and <u>lower</u> levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who have little/no POS.	NS
10	Presence of actual organizational support mechanisms will moderate the relationship between exposure to mobbing and work related attitudes of the victims, in such a way that those who have actual organizational support will report higher levels of affective commitment and job satisfaction; and lower levels of continuance commitment and turnover intention compared to those who have little/no actual organizational support.	NS

Note: S – Supported  
NS – Not supported

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION

#### 5.1 Summary and Discussion of Main Findings

The main purpose of the study was to test the relationships of different leadership styles and work-related attitudes of employees with mobbing exposure; secondarily moderating effects of social support and organizational support on the relationship between mobbing and work-related attitudes were tested. It was predicted that transformational, transactional and paternalistic leadership would be negatively related to and authoritarian leadership would be positively related to mobbing exposure. In turn, mobbing was expected to be negatively related to affective commitment and job satisfaction, and positively related to continuance commitment and turnover intentions. Additionally, social support and organizational support were expected to moderate this relationship.

The findings confirmed the predictions regarding the effects of leadership types on mobbing. Transactional leadership emerged as the most effective leadership style among all leadership behaviors since it had the strongest negative relationship with mobbing. Transformational and paternalistic leadership followed transactional leadership respectively. As expected, authoritarian leadership behaviors showed a strong positive relationship with mobbing exposure. It is surprising that transactional leadership had the strongest negative relationship with mobbing, as the literature cites *transformational* leadership as the most effective leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Although it is proposed that transformational and transactional leadership styles “build on one another” (Nguni et al., 2006; p.148), generally transformational leadership is suggested to add to transactional leadership by encouraging

transformation and change on the followers, while transactional leaders tend to “maintain the status quo” (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988). So, why did transactional leadership had a stronger negative association with mobbing?

One reason would be the *practicality* of transactional leadership. It depends on the exchanges between the leader and the follower; therefore transactional leadership may be defined as more practical than transformational leadership in a sense that it emphasizes specific goals and objectives (Aarons, 2006). Transactional leaders reduce the uncertainty in work environment by clarifying desired targets and performance criteria (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000); therefore decrease role ambiguity for the individual by using tangible reinforcements. On the other hand, transformational leadership emphasizes developing a sense of vision and performing beyond expectations through the development of “enthusiasm, trust and openness” (Aarons, 2006). We may speculate that it may take more time to build a transformational environment in an organization than transactional leadership. Since 67.6 % of the sample has tenure of less than 4 years and we do not know their tenure with their immediate supervisors, they might not have the necessary time to build a transformational atmosphere in the work setting.

A second explanation is related with cultural emphasis on basic values and its effects on the appeal of different leadership styles. It is proposed that cultural values affect the preferences for different leadership styles (Ergin & Kozan, 2004). Turkish employees were found high on self-transcendence values which include egalitarianism and benevolence preferred transactional leadership (Ergin & Kozan, 2004). Schwartz (1992) described self-transcendence as comprising of egalitarian values expressed as “equality, rule observation and employee rights” (cited in Ergin & Kozan, 2004) which has positive relationships with Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance

dimension. Therefore, since transformational leaders reduce uncertainty in job by setting clear targets, those high in self-transcendence values preferred transactional leadership. In contrast, Turkish employees high in openness to change values preferred transformational leadership (Ergin & Kozan, 2004). In the current study, transactional leadership showed stronger negative relationship with mobbing than transformational leadership, thus, this may be related with intra-sample value characteristics.

As expected, paternalistic leadership emerged as an effective leadership style in the Turkish organizations since it showed a significant negative relationship with mobbing. Paternalistic behaviors of leaders are considered positively in cultures where there is high collectivism and power distance (Aycan, 2006). In such cultures, paternalistic leadership is viewed as enhancing the motivation of employees (Aycan et al., 2000; Aycan, 2006). Therefore, it is not surprising that paternalistic leadership and mobbing showed a significant negative relationship in the current study. A study conducted in China by Cheng et al. (2004) reported that paternalistic leadership behaviors led to employees' gratitude, repayment for the leader's care, affection, dependence and identification with the leader. Another study conducted in Turkey showed that paternalism has positive effects on the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) and employees' job satisfaction (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). These limited findings suggest that paternalistic leadership leads to positive subordinate responses and is perceived as an effective leadership in collectivistic cultures; further supporting the finding that paternalistic leadership behaviors are not associated with mobbing.

Authoritarian leadership showed a strong positive relationship with mobbing, consistent with the assumption. This type of management is cited as a poor,

destructive leadership in the literature (Ashfort, 1997; Aryee et al., 2007). Since authoritarian leadership behaviors include exhibiting strong control and authority over the subordinates, and humiliating and manipulating them in order to get the job done in their own ways (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Nielsen et al., 2005), it can be concluded that authoritarian leadership resembles “abusive supervision”, which is a type of downward mobbing. The need for control and emotional instability in authoritarian leaders is suggested to lead to abusive supervision (Ashfort, 1997), therefore authoritarian leadership and mobbing emerge to be closely related.

With respect to work-related outcomes of mobbing, the findings showed that mobbing exposure was negatively related with affective commitment and job satisfaction; and positively related with turnover intention and continuance commitment, supporting the previous findings (e.g. Ashfort, 1997; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Keashley et al., 1994). In the current study, mobbing was most strongly associated with employees’ job satisfaction and affective commitment, showing a negative relationship. This finding suggests that mobbing more strongly affects emotional and motivational processes by decreasing one’s emotional attachment to the organization and perceived pleasure from one’s job. Research stated that factors such as positive work experiences, organizational fairness perceptions, feedback and involvement in decision making enhance employees’ job satisfaction and affective commitment (Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 2002; Wasti, 2002). On the other hand, continuance commitment correlates positively with the availability of alternatives and investments (Meyer et al., 2002; Wasti, 2002). Consistent with the expectation, there was a significant positive relationship with mobbing and continuance commitment. This shows that although the employees are subjected to mobbing, due to lack of alternatives, they cannot leave their organizations. The

reasons of this finding can be explained from both unemployment and underemployment phenomena in Turkey. Since the late 2000s, Turkish economy is characterized as crisis prone and possesses an unstable financial system (Auer & Popova, 2003). This unpredictability and instability in the economy might lead to employees' perceived fear of losing their jobs and not being able to find a new job. However, Turkey is a young country and its unemployment rates are defined as "moderate" by Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD; Auer & Popova, 2003). In addition, following the 2001 crisis, Turkish economy has made a significant progress on stabilizing the inflation (World Bank, 2006). Therefore, employees' high CC despite mobbing cannot be solely explained by the unemployment problem in Turkey. Rather than simply the fear of not being able to find another job, employees might have felt that they would not be able to find a proper job that fits their qualifications, nor would they want to work in an unrelated field of specialization. Despite we do not have actual statistics about the underemployment rate in Turkey, Auer and Popova (2003) reported that Turkey suffers from chronic underemployment. In turn, underemployment perceptions of employees lead to lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions (Maynard et al., 2006). In the case of mobbing exposure, one possible explanation of employees' high CC is the perceived unavailability of suitable jobs that best fit their education and experiences. This explanation seems plausible since 87 % of the sample is at least university graduates.

Moreover, the analyses showed that mobbing was positively related with turnover intention. Research has stated that these work-related attitudes are distinct but related concepts. Job satisfaction correlates positively with organizational commitment, and negatively with turnover intentions (Huang et al., 2007; Loui, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993). These variables are said to influence actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Therefore, job dissatisfaction, lower levels of commitment and

turnover intentions are likely to lead to withdrawal from organization. In the current study, job satisfaction was significantly correlated with affective commitment and turnover intentions, but not with continuance commitment. Turnover intention was significantly correlated with both types of commitment negatively. Path analyses showed that mobbing affects all work-related attitudes directly, and these variables are correlated with each other. These findings suggest that abusive supervisory behaviors have negative effects on the organizational attitudes of employees. Rayner and Hoel's (1997) mobbing behavior classifications which have been used in Quine's mobbing scale (1999) include withholding information from the employee, too much monitoring, giving meaningless job tasks, excluding and ignoring and removing responsibilities. These possibly lead to limited autonomy and feedback on one's job, insufficient task identity and task significance. Therefore, these mobbing behaviors lead to job dissatisfaction, lower affective commitment and turnover intentions on part of the employees. These negative effects are likely to lead to actual turnover in the long term. Leymann (1996) suggested that sometimes organizations even force the employees to quit in order to solve the mobbing problem at the workplace. These in turn are likely lead to lead to lower productivity in the organization (Matthiesen, 2005).

Moderator analyses showed that social support from colleagues moderated the relationship between mobbing and job satisfaction but in an opposite fashion with the assumption. Among those who were exposed to mobbing, those who received higher social support from colleagues reported lower levels of job satisfaction than those who did not receive support. This is a surprising finding. Under mobbing exposure, social support reduces job satisfaction of individuals instead of increasing it. This could be explained from the imbalance of power perspective. Since colleagues are

also at the same status as the victims, their supportive actions for the victim may not be of much use. The employee might judge that at his/her formal status at the workplace, his/her colleagues cannot help him/her to escape from the mobbing situation coming from their supervisor, further decreasing their job satisfaction.

Social support from colleagues did not moderate the relationship between mobbing and organizational commitment and turnover intentions. This shows that social support is not a means to alleviate the negative effects of mobbing on commitment or intention to quit. The negative impact of mobbing on commitment and turnover intention are so strong that it cannot be reduced by the influence of social support from colleagues. In order to reduce the negative effects, mobbing sources, leadership type in this case, should be directly addressed rather than relying on support's moderating effects. Another possible explanation is that, when the mobbing comes from the supervisor, it inherently includes an imbalance of power notion. In this case, the mobbed employee is unable to defend himself/herself to escape the situation, and possibly cannot take a concrete action due to formal status relationship between the employee and the leader. Eventually, support from the colleague is not sufficient to mitigate the negative effects of mobbing by the leader, since colleagues cannot present an instrumental solution as they possess the same formal status in the workplace. The support of the colleague seems more emotional rather than instrumental, therefore not likely to alleviate the negative effects on commitment or turnover intention. Since job satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state which the employee receives from his/her job, emotional and/or instrumental support moderates the relationship between mobbing and job satisfaction.

Perceived organizational support (POS) failed to moderate the relationship between mobbing and any of the work-related attitudes of employees. Employees'



perceptions of the support they received from their organizations were not able to mitigate the negative effects of mobbing on their work-related attitudes. The main reason behind the insignificant findings may be the fact that organizational politics or organizational culture might support the attitudes of leaders toward their subordinates, as we studied mobbing from superiors. Leaders who engage in mobbing might create a culture that supports the abusive nature of the relationships in the work environment or vice versa. Organizational culture, problems in the job design of employees, role ambiguities or role conflicts may present a fertile ground for the leaders to employ mobbing behaviors at the workplace. Moreover, Zagenczyk (2006) suggested that perceived organizational support research up to date mainly assumed that POS develops only between the employee and the organization. However, the author suggested employees evaluate POS by also taking the social factors such as their colleagues' evaluations of POS or their interactions with their colleagues. This can be explained by social comparison theory of Festinger (1954). Employees shape their attitudes by comparing their beliefs to others' beliefs or attitudes. Therefore, POS may not be able to reduce the negative effects of mobbing since employees also take their colleagues' views into account. In addition, this view is also related with the insignificant effect of social support. If social support did not moderate the relationship of mobbing and work-related attitudes, POS is likely not to moderate because these two variables are affected by each other. In the current study, they were also significantly correlated with each other.

Zagenczyk (2006) also suggested that employees' POS might be affected by the role models from whom they gain information about the relationships within the organization. Superiors, such as transformational leaders, might be regarded as role models by the employees and their POS might be affected by these individuals'

behaviors. A leader who engages in abusive behaviors, such as authoritarian leaders, might influence the perceptions of employees about their organization's general attitude toward the employees; therefore affect their POS in a negative way.

Actual presence of organizational support procedures such as active policies against mobbing, human resources support, psychological counseling programs for victims and legal processes for mobbing were also investigated in the study. The analyses showed that actual support from the organization did not moderate the relationship between mobbing and work-related attitudes. In fact, the findings revealed that either the employees indicated that their organizations lacked such policies or procedures, or they were not sufficient enough to reduce the effects of mobbing on work attitudes. Furthermore, to reduce downward mobbing seems obviously harder than to reduce mobbing from colleagues or others at the same hierarchical status. It is not easy to take actions against managers in most of the companies as it is against other employees; the formal status of the leader in the company prevents possible actions. Moreover, to be able to take a legal action or involve human resources in the situation, the person should have objective evidence of mobbing in most of the cases. However, when the mobber is the person's manager, it might not be easy to show objective evidence of mobbing because of the power difference.

## **5.2 Scientific and Practical Contributions**

Overall, findings of the present study suggest that different leadership styles are associated with mobbing differently. Even though leadership practices have been identified as important antecedents of mobbing in the literature, the effects of different leadership styles on mobbing has seldom been explored. Moreover, these mobbing perceptions have not been studied before in the Turkish setting. This study

contributes to the literature by filling the gap about the differential effects of four prominent leadership styles on mobbing. Despite Multifactor Leadership Theory of Bass and Avolio (1994) has often been investigated previously in the literature, its association with negative outcomes such as mobbing has not been studied before. The current study is an initial attempt to discover the relationships of transformational and transactional leadership with mobbing. The results suggested that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were not perceived as abusive by the employees and they related to mobbing negatively.

Like transformational and transactional leadership, the relationship of paternalistic leadership with negative organizational outcomes has not been studied before in the literature. Cheng et al. (2004) suggested that the literature on paternalistic leadership and its effects on organizational and employee outcomes are very limited up to date. The western literature cites paternalistic leadership as exploitative, authoritarian and repressive and thus paternalistic behaviors of leaders would relate to mobbing in an individualistic context. However, being conducted in a collectivist and high-power distant country such as Turkey, managers' paternalistic behaviors are not perceived as abusive and as an invasion of privacy by the employees. Therefore, this study contributes to literature by showing that paternalistic leadership and mobbing have been negatively related and paternalism is viewed as an effective leadership style.

The current study is also scientifically important since it introduces a mobbing scale incorporating different mobbing behaviors in the Turkish organizational context. Moreover, social support scale from colleagues under mobbing exposure is another scientific contribution of the present study. Previous research lacks a survey of social

support in the condition when employees are exposed to mobbing by their leaders and/or colleagues.

Clarifying the nature of relationship of different leadership types and mobbing would be sound in practical sense. The findings might implicate that organizations should be careful in selecting people with authoritarian tendencies for leadership positions, since their behaviors may be perceived as mobbing by the subordinates, which in turn influence their work-related attitudes. In addition, transactional leadership, in which the leaders set clear performance criteria and targets to the subordinates, emerged to be the most effective leadership style, followed by transformational leadership. This would suggest that managers could employ both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors in an organization since these types of behaviors relate to mobbing negatively. Kelloway et al. (2004) suggested that organizations should initiate leadership training in organizations as a stress-prevention strategy in work setting, since employee stress leads to high costs in organizations. Research also suggested individuals could be trained in transformational leadership or transactional leadership successfully (Barling et al., 1996). Therefore, leadership training in the direction of reducing stress and mobbing would lead to better outcomes for the employees and the organization.

Moreover, leadership attributes such as giving limited autonomy, feedback or giving little responsibility and variety on jobs are closely related with mobbing, which in turn decrease job satisfaction, AC and increase turnover intentions. These imply that managers should be careful in the job design process of the employees. By encouraging autonomy, giving feedback and providing jobs with skill variety and task identity, perceptions of mobbing could be diminished and employees might develop more positive attitudes towards their organizations.

Findings on the effects of mobbing on work-related outcomes also have both scientific and practical contributions. Since the organizational attitudes of employees are the main precursor of the organizational outcomes, it is crucial to demonstrate the links between mobbing and work-related outcomes and the present study is an important attempt to reveal the association between mobbing and organizational attitudes.

The findings on the relationship between mobbing and work-related attitudes of employees have practical implications to take into account in order to build a harmonious workplace. Mobbing behaviors reduce job satisfaction and affective commitment and increase turnover intentions of employees. These are likely to lead to actual turnover, counterproductive work behaviors, lower performance and reduced organizational efficiency in the long term. Therefore, organizations should be careful in identifying and intervening mobbing by the leaders. Unless mobbing is noticed on time and intervened properly, it is likely to lead to harsh outcomes for both the employee and the organization. In order to identify mobbing, organizations should carefully watch managers' leadership behavior and train them for effective leadership. Moreover, since perceived or actual organizational support mechanisms are not identified as adequate by the employees, organizations should develop policies, procedures or intervention mechanisms that fight with mobbing and encourage employees to turn to these agencies when they face a mobbing situation at the workplace.

Besides, perceived organizational support literature mainly focused on its relationship with organizational outcomes. This study is the first to study POS as a moderator with mobbing and organizational outcomes to our knowledge. The findings suggest that employees' perceptions of their organizations' support are not effective

to reduce the negative effects of mobbing on their work-related attitudes. This shows that organizations should develop more concrete procedures to help their employees cope with stressful conditions and monitor whether the employees are aware of and satisfied with these.

Overall, the findings suggest that organizations should be careful in selecting people to leadership positions; leaders should be cautious in their behaviors towards their subordinates; and organizations should develop actual intervention procedures for mobbing. In addition, when approaching mobbing, cultural context of the organization and value characteristics of the employees should be taken into account. This study is an initial attempt to discover the relationship of mobbing with leadership and work-related attitudes of employees from the organizational point of view.

### **5.3 Limitations and Future Directions**

Current study has a number of limitations. First of all, since the study used a self-report measure, data were collected from a single source and reflects only the perspective of the victim. Use of a common method which is questionnaire format with Likert scales makes the ratings liable for biases. Common method variance could have led to inflated correlations. Furthermore, Cowie et al. (2004) suggested that questionnaire formats are not adequate for measuring the dynamic process of mobbing. Future research should collect data from managers as well as victims and use multiple ways of collecting data other than solely questionnaire format. Another limitation would be that mobbing behaviors were defined as occurred in the last 6 months. Subjects might have some recall accuracy problems since their responses rely on memory for a defined period.

In addition to single source, the data were collected only in the Turkish work setting; therefore we are not able to generalize the results to different cultures. Future studies should test the model on employees from different cultures.

Fourthly, the study was cross-sectional and non-experimental; therefore it is hard to make causal inferences about the relationships. More longitudinal design measures should be developed in order to establish cause-effect relationships between the variables.

Another limitation of the study is the missing data on some of the continuance commitment items due to some technical problems in the online survey. Missing data imputations could have affected its correlations with other variables and the estimates in path analysis.

In addition, we assessed leadership styles of respondents' immediate supervisors. Some researchers suggested that leadership and managership may be two different things; despite generally the managers *are* the leaders (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). This distinction should be taken into account when measuring leadership in future studies.

Lastly, most of the sample was from private sector. The model could be tested in public sector employees in other studies since both the perceptions of effectiveness of different leadership types and the frequency of mobbing exposure would be different than private sector.

Yet, other alternative models can be as plausible as the model tested in the current study. Future research would test a model incorporating the directional relationships between work-related attitudes of employees. Mobbing was positively associated with CC and turnover intentions and negatively associated with AC and job

satisfaction but in which way these organizational variables affect each other remains unclear. Furthermore, since employees exhibit high CC despite they are exposed to mobbing, what coping mechanisms they employ should be investigated.

The present study suggests paternalistic leadership as an effective leadership style in terms of mobbing, however, this finding should be tested in individualistic and low power-distant cultures too. In addition to four leadership styles investigated here, more research is needed to clarify the nature of leadership styles and mobbing. Indirect effects of leadership on mobbing could also be investigated as well as direct effects. In conclusion, this study is an initial attempt to discover main relationships of downward mobbing with leadership and employees' work-related attitudes in the organizational context. By clarifying the nature of relationships, proper interventions to mobbing phenomenon could be made. We hope to stimulate more attempts to study the process of downward mobbing in the future.



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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1.

#### The research survey

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket Koç Üniversitesi Psikoloji bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Ayşegül Ertüreten tarafından yürütülen bitirme tezi kapsamında hazırlanmıştır. Araştırmanın amacı, işyerinde liderlik ve çalışanların tutumlarını etkileyen faktörler hakkında bilgi edinmektir.

- Bu ankete katılabilmeniz için şu anda bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle en az 6 aydır çalışıyor olmanız gerekmektedir.
- Araştırmaya katılımınız gönüllüdür.
- Ankette isim veya belirleyici kişisel bilgi istenmemektedir. Anketten elde edilecek bilgiler, yalnızca bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacak, kesinlikle kurumunuzla **paylaşılmayacaktır.**
- Ankette yer alan hiç bir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış yanıtı yoktur. İçtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanlardır. Cevaplarınız diğer katılımcıların cevaplarıyla birleştirilecek ve kişisel olarak değerlendirilmeyecektir.
- Anketin cevaplandırılmasında süre sınırlaması yoktur; anketin doldurulması yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmektedir.
- Lütfen her soruyu dikkatle okuyunuz ve soruları yanıtızsız bırakmamaya çalışınız. Boş bırakılan maddelerin olduğu anketler geçersiz sayılacaktır.

Araştırmamıza yaptığınız katkı bizim için çok değerlidir. Bu anketi doldurmak için zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz. Sorularınız olursa bize yönlendirmekten çekinmeyiniz.

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**BÖLÜM 1.** Lütfen doğrudan bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticinizin aşağıdaki ifadelerde yer alan davranışları ne ölçüde sergilediğini değerlendirin. Her bir davranışı ayrı olarak düşünün ve amiriniz hakkındaki genel görüşlerinizin belirtilen davranış konusundaki değerlendirmelerinizi yanıltmasına izin vermeyin.

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI BULUNDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM...	HİÇ BİR ZAMAN	ARADA BİR	BAZEN	OLDUKÇA SIK	HER ZAMAN OLMASA DA ÇOK SIK
1. Önemli varsayımların uygun olup olmadığını sorgulamak için onları tekrar inceler.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Harekete geçmeden önce işlerin iyice kötüye gitmesini bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sorunların çözümünde farklı bakış açıları arar.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Gelecek hakkında iyimser konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kendisiyle çalışmaktan gurur duymanızı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Çaba göstermem karşılığında bana yardım sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Güçlü bir amaç duygusuna sahip olmanın önemini vurgular.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Öğretmeye ve yetiştirmeye zaman harcar.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Grubun iyiliği için kendi çıkarlarını bir kenara bırakır.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sorunlar ciddi boyuta ulaşıncaya kadar müdahale etmeyi beceremez.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Çalışanlardan kendi istediklerinin yapılmasını talep eder.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Önemli bilgileri kendine saklar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Güç ve güven duygusu sergiler.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Çekici bir gelecek için vizyonunu açıkça ifade eder.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Beni başkalarından farklı gereksinimleri, yetenekleri ve beklentileri olan bir birey olarak dikkate alır.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Sorunlara birçok farklı açıdan bakmamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çalışanlarına bir aile büyüğü gibi öğüt verir.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Verilen görevlerin nasıl tamamlanması gerektiği konusunda yeni yollar önerir.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Ortak bir misyon duygusuna sahip olmanın önemini vurgular.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Amaçların gerçekleştirileceğine dair güvenini ifade eder.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Başarılması gerekenler hakkında coşkulu konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Bana sadece grubun bir üyesi değil bir birey olarak davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Dikkati düzensizliklere, hatalara, istisnalara ve standartlardan sapmalara yoğunlaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Performans hedeflerine ulaşılmasında kimin sorumlu olduğunu açıkça tartışır.	1	2	3	4	5

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI BULUNDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM...	HİÇ BİR ZAMAN	ARADA BİR	BAZEN	OLDUKÇA SIK	HER ZAMAN OLMASA DA ÇOK SIK
25. Önem verdiği değerleri ve ilkeleri açıklar.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Performans hedeflerine ulaşıldığında kişinin ne elde etmeyi bekleyebileceğini açıkça belirtir.	1	2	3	4	5
27. "Bir şey işliorsa, dokunma" inancına sıkı sıkıya bağlı olduğunu gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Harekete geçmeden önce sorunların sürekli hale gelmesi gerektiğini gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Tüm dikkatini beklenmedik yanlışları, şikayetleri ve başarısızlıkları düzeltmek üzerine yoğunlaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5
30. İşyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Standartlara ulaşmak için dikkatimi yanlışlara yönlendirir.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Kararların ahlaki ve etik sonuçlarını göz önüne alır.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Çalışanların kendisine itaat etmesi için otorite sahibi ve güçlü görünmeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Tüm çalışanların yönetici olamayacağına inanır.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Verdiği kararların doğruluğundan hiçbir zaman şüphe etmez.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Çalışanlarının neler yaptıklarını sürekli denetler.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Dikkatli olmazsa, ayağını kaydıracak çok kişinin olduğuna inanır.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Yöneticiye olan bağlılığın çok önemli bir özellik olduğunu çalışanlarına açıkça belli eder.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Çalışanların kendi işine karışmasını anlayışla karşılamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Saygımı kazanacak şekilde hareket eder.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Açıkça hangi elemanı sevip sevmediğini belli eder.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü (baba/anne veya ağabey/abla) gibi davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Çalışanlarını dışarıdan gelen eleştirilere karşı korur.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Güçlü yönlerimi geliştirmem için yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Tüm hataların kaydını tutar.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Bir ebeveynin çocuğundan sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Beklentileri yerine getirdiğinizde memnuniyetini ifade eder.	1	2	3	4	5



**BÖLÜM 2.** Şu anda beraber çalıştığınız, doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticiyle ilgili aşağıdaki ifadeleri, verilen ölçekleri kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI BULUNDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM...	KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM	KATILMIYORUM	ORTADAYIM	KATILYORUM	KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM
1. İşini yapmakta oldukça yetkindir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bana karşı adaletsiz.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çalışanlarının duygularına karşı oldukça ilgisizdir.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bağlı bulunduğum yöneticiyi seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

**BÖLÜM 3.** Aşağıda şu anda çalıştığınız kurumunuzla ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra o maddede yer alan ifadeye ne derecede katılıp katılmadığınızı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

	KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM	KATILMIYORUM	ORTADAYIM	KATILYORUM	KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM
1. Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İstesem de, şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu kurumdaki ayrılmamın az sayıda olumsuz sonuçlarından biri alternatif kıtlığı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu kuruma kendimi "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Şu anda kurumumda kalmak istek meselesi olduğu kadar mecburiyetten.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Bu kurumu bırakmayı düşünemeyeceğim kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kendimi kurumumda "ailenin bir parçası" gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5

**BÖLÜM 4.** Aşağıda işinizle ilgili maddeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra o maddeye ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

	KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM	KATILMIYORUM	ORTADAYIM	KATILYORUM	KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM
1. Bir bütün olarak baktığımda işimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Genel olarak işimi <u>sevmiyorum</u> .	1	2	3	4	5
3. Genel olarak, bu kurumda çalışmayı seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

**BÖLÜM 5.** Aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizi ne ölçüde doğru veya yanlış ifade ettiğini verilen ölçekleri kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

	Asla	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Sürekli
1. İşinizi bırakmayı ne sıklıkta düşünürsünüz?	1	2	3	4	5
	Hiç olası değil	Olası değil	Ne olası ne olası değil	Olası	Çok olası
2. Gelecek birkaç ay içinde işinizi bırakmanızın olasılığı nedir?	1	2	3	4	5
	Hiç arzu edilmez bir şeydir	Arzu edilmez bir şeydir	Tarafsızım	Arzu edilir bir şeydir	Çok arzu edilir bir şeydir
3. Her şeyi göz önünde tutarak, işinizi bırakmak ne derece arzu edilir bir şeydir?	1	2	3	4	5

	ÇOK ZOR	ZOR	NE ZOR NE KOLAY	KOLAY	ÇOK KOLAY
4. Parasal açıdan işinizi bırakmak ne derece kolay ya da zor olur?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu işiniz kadar iyi bir iş bulmanız sizin için ne derece kolay ya da zor olur?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Aile yaşamınız açısından işinizi bırakmanız sizin için ne derece kolay ya da zor olur?	1	2	3	4	5
7. İş yaşamınız açısından işinizi bırakmanız sizin için ne derece kolay ya da zor olur?	1	2	3	4	5

**BÖLÜM 6.** Şu anda beraber çalıştığınız, **doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinin** aşağıda belirtilen davranışları **son bir yılda** ne sıklıkta gösterdiğini aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI BULUNDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM...	HEMEN HEMEN HİÇ BİR ZAMAN	NADİREN	BAZEN	SIK SIK	HEMEN EMEN HER ZAMAN
1. Yaptığım işi küçümsemeye çalışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimi haksızca eleştiriyor ve gereksiz yere denetliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Beni çalışma arkadaşlarımdan önünde küçük düşürüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Gözümü korkutmak için disiplin ve performans kriterlerini öne sürüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Psikolojik bütünlüğümü parçalamaya çalışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yıkıcı imalarda bulunuyor ve iğneleyici sözler söylüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sözlü ve sözsüz tehditte bulunuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hakkımda uygunsuz şakalar yapıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Beni kızdırmaya çalışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Çalışma ortamındaki eşyalara zarar verebilecek sert/saldırgan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İş ile ilgili gerekli bilgileri benden saklıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Beni yalnız bırakıyor, yok sayıyor, dışlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İzin kullanma, eğitim ya da terfi gibi başvurularımı sebepsiz yere reddediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İşimi yapmam konusunda gereksiz baskıda bulunuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
15. İmkansız iş bitirme tarihleri veriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İş hedeflerimi benden habersiz değiştiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çabalarımı değersiz gösteriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Moralimi bozan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Sorumluluk alanlarımı bana danışmadan değiştiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Çalışma ortamımı geriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Uzmanlık alanım dışında işler yapmam için beni zorluyor.	1	2	3	4	5
22. İşyerimde kendimi ifade etmeme izin vermiyor.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Beni bölümümdeki diğer çalışanlardan daha sık mesaiye bırakıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
24. İşten çıkarma tehditleri savuruyor.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Haksız yere cezalandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5



**BÖLÜM 7.** Aşağıda yöneticinizle olan sorunlarda çalışma arkadaşlarınızdan aldığınız destekle ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra o maddede yer alan ifadeye ne derecede katılıp katılmadığınızı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUNUZ YÖNETİCİ TARAFINDAN PSİKOLOJİK BASKIYA MARUZ KALDIĞINIZ DURUMLARDA (Örneğin, Bkz. Bölüm 6)...	HİÇ BİR ZAMAN	ARADA BİR	BAZEN	OLDUKÇA SIK	HER ZAMAN OLMASA DA ÇOK SIK
1. Çalışma arkadaşlarınız yaşamınızı kolaylaştırmak için ne kadar uğraşır?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çalışma arkadaşlarınızla bu konuda konuşmak ne kadar kolaydır?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza ne kadar güvenebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Çalışma arkadaşlarınız bu konudaki sorunlarınızı dinlemeye ne derece isteklidir?	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiç memnun değilim	Memnun değilim	Ortadayım	Memnunum	Çok memnunum
5. Bu ve benzeri durumlarda çalışma arkadaşlarınızdan aldığınız desteği nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5

**BÖLÜM 8.** Aşağıda şu anda çalıştığınız kurumunuzla ilgili maddeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra o maddede yer alan ifadeye ne derecede katılıp katılmadığınızı ölçekleri kullanarak belirtiniz.

ÇALIŞTIĞIM KURUMDA...	KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM	KATILMIYORUM	ORTADAYIM	KATILYORUM	KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM
1. Katkılarima değer verilir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fazladan sarf ettiğim gayret takdir edilmez.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bir şikayetim olduğunda görmezden gelinir.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İyiliğim gerçekten önemsenir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İş yapılabilecek en iyi şekilde yapmış olsam da fark edilmez.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Genel olarak iş memnuniyetim önemsenir.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bana çok az ilgi gösterilir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İşteki başarılarımla gurur duyulur.	1	2	3	4	5

ÇALIŞTIĞIM KURUMDA...	EVET	HAYIR	BİLMİYORUM
9. Psikolojik baskıyla mücadele politikaları vardır ve bu politikalar çalışanlara duyurulur.			
10. Psikolojik baskıya maruz kalındığında, bunun rapor edilebileceği resmi şikayet mercileri vardır (Örn. Merkez ofis, insan kaynakları departmanı)			
11. Psikolojik baskıya maruz kalındığında, psikolojik/duygusal ya da tıbbi danışmanlık hizmeti verilir.			
12. Herhangi bir psikolojik baskı vakasında hukuki süreç başlatılması desteklenir.			

	Hiç memnun değilim	Memnun değilim	Ortadayım	Memnunum	Çok memnunum
13. Genel olarak kurumunuzdan aldığınız desteği nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5

### BOLÜM 9. Kişisel Bilgiler

- Cinsiyetiniz:**  Erkek  Kadın
- Yaşınız:**  18-25  26-33  34-41  
 42-49  50-57  58-65
- Eğitim düzeyiniz:**  Ortaokul  Lise  Yüksekokul  
 Üniversite (Lisans)  Yüksek Lisans  Doktora
- Kurum tipi:**  Kamu  Özel Sektör  Uluslararası  
 Aile şirketi  KOBİ
- Kurum büyüklüğü:**  Büyük ölçekli (200+ çalışan)  Orta ölçekli (50-199 çalışan)  
 Küçük ölçekli (1-49 çalışan)
- Pozisyonunuz:**  Yönetici  Yönetici değil
- Faaliyet sektörünüz:** \_\_\_\_\_
- Kaç yıldır bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz?**  6 aydan az  7-11 ay arası  
 1-3 yıl arası  4-8 yıl arası  9-15 yıl arası  
 16-25 yıl arası  26 yıl ve üstü
- Yöneticinizin cinsiyeti:**  Erkek  Kadın
- Şu an bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle kaç yıldır birlikte çalışıyorsunuz? (1 yıldan az ise lütfen ay olarak belirtiniz)** \_\_\_\_\_

ARAŞTIRMAMIZA KATKIDA BULUNDUĞUNUZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

**Appendix 2.****Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Social Support**

Items	Factor Loadings
	1
<b>Factor 1:</b>	
3. Çalışma arkadaşlarıma güvenebilirim.	0.89
2. Çalışma arkadaşlarımla bu konuda konuşmak kolaydır.	0.89
5. Bu ve benzeri durumlarda çalışma arkadaşlarımızdan aldığımız desteği nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?	0.88
1. Çalışma arkadaşlarım yaşamımı kolaylaştırmak için uğraşır.	0.87
4. Çalışma arkadaşlarım bu konudaki sorunlarımı dinlemeye isteklidir.	0.85
Percentage of the variance	76.87
Eigenvalues	3.84

**Appendix 3.****Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Perceived Organizational Support**

<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor loadings</b>
	<b>1</b>
13. Genel olarak kurumunuzdan aldığımız desteği nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?	0.83
5. İşi yapılabilecek en iyi şekilde yapmış olsam da fark edilmez. (R)	0.82
1. Katkılarım değer verilir.	0.81
4. İyiliğim gerçekten önemsenir.	0.80
7. Bana çok az ilgi gösterilir. (R)	0.80
8. İşteki başarılarımla gurur duyulur.	0.79
2. Fazladan sarf ettiğim gayret takdir edilmez. (R)	0.79
3. Bir şikayetim olduğunda görmezden gelinir. (R)	0.78
6. Genel olarak iş memnuniyetim önemsenir.	0.77
Percentage of the variance	63.88
Eigenvalues	5.75



**Appendix 4.****Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Actual Organizational Support**

Items	Factor loadings
	1
11. Psikolojik baskıya maruz kalındığında, psikolojik/duygusal ya da tıbbi danışmanlık hizmeti verilir.	0.82
9. Psikolojik baskıyla mücadele politikaları vardır ve bu politikalar çalışanlara duyurulur.	0.77
12. Herhangi bir psikolojik baskı vakasında hukuki süreç başlatılması desteklenir.	0.77
10. Psikolojik baskıya maruz kalındığında, bunun rapor edilebileceği resmi şikayet mercileri vardır (Örn. Merkez ofis, insan kaynakları departmanı)	0.72
Percentage of the variance	63.88
Eigenvalues	5.75

**Appendix 5.****Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Mobbing Items**

	Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
<b>Original items</b>			
1. Yaptığım işi küçümsemeye çalışıyor.	<b>0.75</b>	0.24	0.33
2. İşimi haksızca eleştiriyor ve gereksiz yere denetliyor.	<b>0.64</b>	0.21	0.51
3. Beni çalışma arkadaşlarımdan önünde küçük düşürüyor.	0.56	0.32	<b>0.59</b>
4. Gözümü korkutmak için disiplin ve performans kriterlerini öne sürüyor.	0.51	0.41	<b>0.51</b>
5. Psikolojik bütünlüğümü parçalamaya çalışıyor.	<b>0.66</b>	0.41	0.46
6. Yıkıcı imalarda bulunuyor ve iğneleyici sözler söylüyor.	<b>0.63</b>	0.42	0.5
7. Sözlü ve sözsüz tehditte bulunuyor.	0.47	0.49	<b>0.52</b>
8. Hakkımda uygunsuz şakalar yapıyor.	0.27	0.41	<b>0.46</b>
9. Beni kızdırmaya çalışıyor.	<b>0.53</b>	0.43	0.48
10. Çalışma ortamındaki eşyalara zarar verebilecek sert/saldırgan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	0.07	0.23	<b>0.64</b>
11. İş ile ilgili gerekli bilgileri benden saklıyor.	<b>0.73</b>	0.35	0.13
12. Beni yalnız bırakıyor, yok sayıyor, dışlıyor.	<b>0.79</b>	0.39	0.24
13. İzin kullanma, eğitim ya da terfi gibi başvurularımı sebepsiz yere reddediyor.	<b>0.58</b>	0.41	0.43
14. İşimi yapmam konusunda gereksiz baskıda bulunuyor.	0.54	0.33	<b>0.62</b>
15. İmkansız iş bitirme tarihleri veriyor.	0.36	0.28	<b>0.78</b>
16. İş hedeflerimi benden habersiz değiştiriyor.	0.49	0.39	<b>0.58</b>
17. Çabalarımı değersiz gösteriyor.	<b>0.76</b>	0.34	0.37
18. Moralimi bozan davranışlarda bulunuyor.	<b>0.79</b>	0.23	0.4
19. Sorumluluk alanlarımı bana danışmadan değiştiriyor.	<b>0.65</b>	0.23	0.48
<b>Extra items</b>			
20. Çalışma ortamımı geriyor.	<b>0.78</b>	0.17	0.41
22. İşyerimde kendimi ifade etmeme izin vermiyor.	<b>0.77</b>	0.3	0.38
24. İşten çıkarma tehditleri savuruyor.	0.26	<b>0.71</b>	0.3
25. Haksız yere cezalandırıyor.	0.28	<b>0.78</b>	0.33
29. Yaptığım işi sahiplenerek bir üst yönetime kendi başarısı gibi gösteriyor.	<b>0.8</b>	0.29	0.13
30. Hakkımda dedikodu yapıyor.	<b>0.73</b>	0.46	0.09
31. Çalışmalarımın/projelerimin gerçekleşmemesi için engeller çıkarıyor.	<b>0.64</b>	0.46	0.29
32. Ben istemediğim halde özel hayatımla ilgileniyor.	0.27	<b>0.72</b>	0.18
33. İşim için gerekli olan malzeme/araç gereçlerin kullanımına engel oluyor.	0.29	<b>0.71</b>	0.32
34. İş arkadaşlarımla iletişimime karışıyor.	0.44	<b>0.65</b>	0.29
Percentage of the variance	64.35	4.91	3.5
Eigenvalues	18.66	1.42	1.01